Julia González, Wilhelm Löwenstein, Mo Malek

Humanitarian Development Studies in Europe

Assessment of Universities' Training and NGOs' Needs

HumanitarianNet

Thematic Network on Humanitarian Development Studies

Humanitarian Development Studies in Europe: Assessment of Universities' Training and NGOs' Needs

Map of knowledge
chart of skills

Humanitarian Development Studies in Europe: Assessment of Universities' Training and NGOs' Needs

Edited by

Julia González
University of Deusto
Spain

Wilhelm Löwenstein
University of Bochum
Germany

Mo Malek
University of St. Andrews
United Kingdom

1999
University of Deusto
Bilbao

Publication printed in ecological paper

I.S.B.N.: 978-84-9830-501-2

Acknowledgement

This book is the result of efforts of so many people that it would be impossible to mention them individually. The project was made possible by a grant from the European Commission, DG22. A special thanks in DG22 goes to Irving Mitchel and Esmeralda Almeida Texeira, not only for providing the necessary funds, but also for continuos moral support and advice.

We are also grateful to the authors, each of whom worked hard to collect the data and produce the papers. Thanks are also due to the Basque Government for financial support of the International Symposium in Bilbao in March 1999, where the major results of the book were presented to the great public.

We also thank the staff of all universities participating in the Thematic Network, particulary those of the University of Deusto, among them special thanks goes to Almudena Garrido, Isabel Prieto, Laura Belmonte, Naty Urdiales, Maria Ortiz-Coronado and Juan Carlos Duque. Without the dedication and help of these people, this would not have been possible.

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

List of Acronyms

ADRA	Adventist Development and Relief Agency
AFS-D.P	American Field Service - Danish People's Aid
AGO	Anti-Governmental Organisation
AIDS	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
AIP	Portuguese Industrial Association
AMI	Foundation of International Medical Assistant
APEFE	Association for the Promotion of Education and Formation Abroad
ASAL	Association of Studies of America Latina
ASBL	Non-profit making associations
ASPR	Austrian Study Centre for Peace and Conflict Resolution
AvH	Alexander v. Humboldt-Foundation
BESO	British Executive Service Overseas
BILANCE	Roman Catholic Organisation for Development Co-operation
BOND	British Overseas NGOs for Development
CARE	Committee for Assistance and Relief Everywhere
CDG	Carl-Duisberg-Gesellschaft
CEDLA	Centre for Latin American Research and Documentation
CEIFO	Centre for Immigration Research
CERES	Research School for Resource Studies for Development
CIC	Comissao Interminsterial para a Cooperacao
CICID	Inter-ministerial Committee for International Co-operation and Development
CIDAC	Centre of o de Informacao e Documentacao Amilcar Cabral
CIPSI	Coordinamento di Iniziative Popolari di Solidarietà Internazionale
CIUF	Conseil Interuniversitaire de la Communauté francaise de Belgique
CLONG	Comité de Liaison des ONG de Dévéloppement
CNCDH	National Consultative Commission for Human Rights

COCIS	Coordinamento NGO Cooperazione Internazionale allo Sviluppo
COCODEV	Commission for Co-operation and Develpment
COOPI	International Co-operation
CSO	Civil Society Organisation
CTUC	Commonwealth Trade Union Council
DAAD	German Academic Exchange Service
DANIDA	Danish international Development Agency
DED	German Development Service
DFID	Department for International Development
DIE	German Institute of Development
DNGO's	Organizacoes Nao Govermentais Protuguesas para a Cooperacao e Desenvolvimento
DRA	Dutch Relief and Rehabilitation Agency
DROM	Voluntary Network against Nomads'Exclusion
DSE	German Foundation for international Development
ECTS	European Credit Transfer System
ED	Education for Development
EEC	European Economic Community
EU	European Union
FCG	Calouste Gulbenkian Foundation
FOCSIV	Federazione Organismi Cristiani Servizio Internazionale Volontario
GADC	General Administration of Development Co-operation
GDP	Gross Development Product
GNP	Gross National Product
GO	Govermental Organisation
GTZ	The Deutsche Gesellschaft für technische Zusammenarbeit
HABITAT/UNCHS	United Nations Centre for Human Settlements, Habitat,
HCCI	High Committee for International Co-operation
HIV	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
HIVOS	Humanistic Institute for Co-operation with Developing Countries
IAC	International Agricultural Centre
IC	Camoes Institute
ICCO	Interchurch Organization for Development Co-operation
ICH	Internacional Child Health
ICMC	International Catholic Commission for Emigration
ICP	Portuguese Cooperation Institute
ICRA	International Centre for Development Oriented Research in Agriculture
ICRC	International Committee of Red Cross
IDA	International development Association
IDPAD	Indo-Dutch Programme on Alternatives in Development
IDS	Institute of Development Studies
IED	Institute of Studies for Development
IFAD	International Fund for Agricultural Development
IGO	International Governmental Organisation

IHB	International Humanitarian Service
IHE	International Institute for Infrastructural, Hydraulic and Environmental Engineering
IHL	International Humanitarian Law
IHS	Institute for Housing and Urban Development Studies
IIED	International Institute for Environment in Development
ILO	International Labour Organisation
ILRI	International Institute for Land Reclamation and Improvement
ITC	International Institute for Aerospace Survey and Earth Sciences
KEPA	Service Centre for Development Co-operation
KfW	Kreditanstalt für Wiederaufbau
KIT	Royal Tropical Institute
LDCs	Less Developed Countries
LFA	Logical Framework Analysis
MDF	Management for Development Foundation
MHO	Joint Financing Programme for Higher Education
MNE	Ministério de Necócios estrangeiros
MS	The Danish Association for Development Co-operation
MSF	Medicines Sans Frontieres
MURST	Ministry of Universities, Scientific Research and Technology
NATO	North Atlantic Treaty Organisation
NCDE	National Council for Development Education
NCVO	National Council of Voluntary Organisations
NEDA	Netherlands Development Assistance (Part of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs)
NGDO	Non-Governmental Organisations of Development
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisations
NIRP	Netherlands - Israel Development Research Programme
NOHA	Network on Humanitarian Assistance
NORAD	Norwegian Agency for International Development
NOVIB	Netherlands Organisation for International Development Co-operation
NPOs	Non Profit Organisations
ODA	Official Development Assistant
ODI	Overseas Development Institute
OECD	Organisation for Economic and Cultural Development
ÖED	The Austrian Development-Service
OIKOS	Co-operation and Development
ONLUS	Non- Profit Organisations of Social Utility
OSCE	Organisation for Security and Co-operation in Europe
PALOP's	Guinea, Bissau, Cabo Verde, San Tomé and Principe, Angola and Mozambique
PCR	Peace and Conflict Research
PIBOES Network	Pisa - Bochum - Essex Network
PRA	Participatory Rural Appraisal
PSO	Association for Co-operation with Developing Countries

PTSD	Post Traumatic Stress Disorder
Report OESO	Occupational and Environmental Safety Office
RUC	Roskilde University
SADAOC	Programme Sécurité Alimentaire Durable en Afrique de lÓuest Centrale
SANPAD	South Africa - Netherlands Research Programme on Alternatives in Development
SAREC	Swedish Agency for Research Cooperation with Developing Countries
SASK	Solidarity Centre of Finnish Trade Union Organisation
SECIP	Spanish Secretary for International Co-operation and for Iberoamerica
SHO	Co-operating Assistance Organisations
SIDA	Swedish International Development Authority
UMP	Portuguese Mercy Union
UN	United Nations
UNA	Diamo una Opportunita'ai bambini
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNEP	United Nations Environment Programme
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
UNFAO	(United Nations) Food and Agriculture Organisation
UNHCR	United Nations High Commission for Refugees
UNICEF	United Nations Children Fund
UNICEF	United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund
UNIDO	United Nations Industrial Development Organisation
UNIFEM	United Nations Development Fund for Women
UNO	United Nations Organisation
VIS	International Voluntary for the Development
VLIR	Flemish Interuniversity Council
VSO	Voluntary Services Overseas
VVOB	Vlaamse Vereniging voor Ontwikeling samenwerking and technische Bijstand
WEA	Worker's Education Association
WFP	World Food Programme
WHO	World Health Organisation
YRE	Youth against Racism in Europe

Introduction

In the year 1995, the year that United Nations decided to devote to the eradication of poverty, more than 50 European universities, 8 independent research institutes and 9 international professional bodies, all of them inclined to a holistic approach in research and education activities with respect to all spheres of social, political and economic underdevelopment, established with the support of DG22 of the European Commission a network called "HumanitarianNet".

With HumanitarianNet the network-members designed a platform for the analyses of education and research in Humanitarian Development Studies. This field is a rather new and quickly expanding academic subject. In conceptual terms, Humanitarian Development Studies can be regarded as a framework which brings together interrelated disciplines —ranging from hard sciences to humanities (e.g. engineering, medicine, law, management, economics, political science, geography, anthropology etc.)— with the purposes of analysing the underlying causes of humanitarian crisis and of formulating appropriate strategies for rehabilitation and development.

The number and magnitude of humanitarian crisis have substantially increased in the second half of the XXth century. These crisis —as well as foyering a growing awareness of the society— have prompted large-scale responses from governments (at local, national and European Community level) and from private entities (individuals, associations, foundations). At the same time, the use of funds and the efficiency of projects to mitigate man-made and natural disasters, to increase disaster-preparedness and to strengthen technical and financial co-operation with the countries of the South are coming under closer scrutiny.

The increased need for efficiency underlines that activities in North-South co-operation require more than voluntariness and good will

(which remain the origin of any personal commitment); the members of HumanitarianNet share the conviction that aid and co-operation today requires more professionalism, advanced technical skills in a variety of areas (engineering, medicine, politics, law, economics etc.), and specific managerial knowledge.

Therefore, in the first phase of work which was accomplished at the end of 1998, HumanitarianNet focused on presenting and analysing the status quo of programmes related to Humanitarian Development Studies which are offered by institutions of higher education all over Europe. More precisely, HumanitarianNet had the following objectives:

—To analyse and to compare the educational programmes offered by European universities in the different departments of specialised centres (s. part I of the book)
—To identify the specific needs and the skills for the professional development of individuals involved in the area: researchers, policy makers, programme leaders, mediators, consultants, managers, and people in education. Similarly, to identify the human resources which are needed in the various regions of the world in order to provide suitable training to an adequate number of individuals, while being sensitive to the local expertise (s. part II of the book).
—To increase the flexibility of the existing programmes: The needs of professional continuously demands the use of degrees which are modularised and credited so that the specialised degrees could be acquired over a period of time without being limited to the constraints of a single academic year while, at the same time, possibly taking credits from various universities according to the needs. The extensive use of ECTS and ODL will be essential elements which facilitate greatly this flexibility and the speed of educational institutions response (s. part II and the attached database).
—To create a database:
—To serve as an information reference on available courses and expertise in the area (in terms of both technical expertise and geographical focus);
—To enable the identification of strengths and gaps in curricula. On the basis of the information available, the universities will be able to develop new courses taking actual needs into account, while avoiding duplication. Similarly, expertise in specific regions of the world will be easier to identify and the creation of platforms for dialogue between Europe and various regions of the world facilitated;

—To develop and complement existing data resources into a more global directory of experts in the humanitarian development field;
—To facilitate the access to training possibilities which may be required by the new professions (s. the attached database).
—To provide academic and administrative support to the members of the different European Universities working together in the field.

What follows is a short definition of what Humanitarian Development Studies are about and, also, an introduction into the activities of HumanitarianNet undertaken to realise the above listed aims.

What is behind the new label "Humanitarian Development Studies"? The network-members agreed that any academic activity dealing with one or more of the following topics is an integral component of this growing field of academic and real-world interest:

1. Poverty and Development,
2. Migration, Multiculturality and Ethnic Conflict,
3. Human Rights,
4. Peace Studies and
5. Humanitarian Crises.

The Network clearly realised that there are close links between these so-called "thematic chapters": e.g., programmes focusing on human rights quite often also take a look on humanitarian crisis, deal with ethnic conflicts, and considers migration aspects; poverty-and-development related training activities usually have a migration perspective, take more and more account of conflict resolution and deal with human rights. Nevertheless, all programmes analysed in this book have an identifiable focus which allows for the integration in one of the above thematic chapters.

These thematic chapters are presented in the first part of this book (Thematic Chapters). There, the authors give an introduction to the nature of the academic field covered and then present the methodology and the findings of cross-European-sample surveys on educational activities in the respective field. The surveys were realised using a standardised questionnaire which was mailed to universities and other institutions inside and outside HumanitarianNet asking for the type, the level and the duration of courses, subjects and units offered, for the number of European-Credit-Transfer-System (ECTS-) points connected therewith, for the disciplines involved and for relevant research activities. The results of the samples are then used to highlight structural strengths and deficiencies of the training programs analysed within the chapters.

It is not a surprising, that all thematic chapters stress the heterogeneity of educational courses on offer in the field of Humanitarian Development Studies in Europe and the crying need for additional information on the education systems of the fellow European countries.

The second part of the book takes account of the European diversity and this need for information in changing the viewpoint of the analyses from an international to a national perspective. In addition, within the country reports the scope of the analyses is widened. Whereas the former —based on a sample— analyse the structure of educational supplies in Europe with respect to one of the five above listed topics, the country reports on the one hand try to cover all courses in Humanitarian Development Studies offered in a country. On the other hand, the reports give some insights to the responsibilities for development co-operation and humanitarian assistance on the governmental and non-governmental level in the respective countries.

These more general information are then used to introduce a sample survey covering the potential employers —i.e. governmental and non-governmental organisations (GOs and NGOs) active in development co-operation and humanitarian assistance— of those graduates and post-graduates who passed a part of their academic live with Humanitarian Development Studies. This survey was realised using a questionnaire which was mailed to GOs and NGOs with the aim of gathering information on the size and the specific fields of work of the organisations, on education programs the GOs and NGOs offer themselves and last but not least on the GOs' and NGOs' appreciation of university-based Humanitarian Development Studies. Hence, the country reports confront the information on the universities educational supplies in Humanitarian Development Studies with the demand for especially skilled personal of the GOs and NGOs to find out whether, and if, which gaps in university education exist and to draw country-specific conclusions from these findings. The overall conclusions the findings of the thematic chapters as well as of the country reports conclude the book. Country reports are presented in the second part of this book (Country Specific. Map of knowledge - Chart of Skills)

The book itself is supplemented by the HumanitarianNet-database which covers the educational supplies of European universities in the field of Humanitarian Development Studies. The database —entries are listed country— by country because there is still large variations in the university systems in Europe.

So, without a country-specific presentation and without considering the country reports, a user browsing the database's files might take entries from different countries which sound similar to be equivalent with respect to accessibility and importance. But this does not hold true.

In some of the countries most of the Humanitarian Development Studies are offered as full programmes which ends with an own academic degree. In others, one virtually does not find any of such full programs but Humanitarian Development Studies can be chosen as a minor or major in the curriculum of a discipline. Here, one rarely find an academic degree indicating the specialisation to one of the fields of Humanitarian Development Studies.

Despite the country-specific differences among the files, we hope that the database will be an informative source for researchers and students; the former interested in co-operation with European universities active in Humanitarian Development Studies, the latter planning their studies not with a national but with a European perspective.

Two caveats are to be added: first, we can not guarantee that our database contains all activities of all universities in the participating countries. The reason is simply that not all universities provided information on their curricula related to Humanitarian Development Studies in a manner which was accessible for us. Second, the curricula are not constant over time. Some of the programs presented here may have been terminated when the user browses the database; other might have started just after the completion of this CD-ROM.

This book together with the attached database on CD-ROM compiles the results of the activities of HumanitarianNet; to be more precise: it presents the findings of more than 50 individuals from a total of 16 European countries voluntarily devoting a part of their time to an exciting project over the last three years. The editors would like to draw the reader's attention to three important points. Firstly, one is going to see a large diversity in the content, methodology and approaches adopted in the chapters to come. In large parts this is a reflection of the responses to the questionnaires returned to the researchers in each country. Dome of the returned questionnaires have been comprehensive, in some other cases the response has been inadequate and, at times, non existent. In these rare cases the researchers have been forced to use secondary sources of data. Second, the reader will notice that despite our efforts the standard of English in some of the papers falls short of what might be regarded as good English. Please do remember that English is not the mother tongue for over ninety percent of the contributors. Thirdly, it is the nature of the subject and it's multidisciplinarity that contributors come from different disciplines and traditions. As such, they have various methods of advancing their arguments. Some use analytical tools, and some use narrative, discursive presentations. We have not attempted to change their style of presentation. As the editors of the volume we were faced with two options: One to comprehensively edit and ask for

redrafting some of the chapters thus delaying the release of this volume. And second, to put the results of the research in public domain recognising its short falls and hoping that this will attract other potential institutions to respond and hope that the future editions would be more complete and up-to-date. We consciously opted for the latter course of action given the speed of change in this area. The editors are indebted to the authors and their assistants for their contributions and their commitment and especially to the Commission of the European Union (DG 22) who supported the idea of this study by providing the financial support and the necessary infrastructure.

JG, WL, MM
Bilbao, May 1999

A1
Thematic Study: Human Rights

Andrea de Guttry
Aisling Reidy

Introduction

Human rights play an integral and indispensable role in the field of humanitarian development studies. Human rights issues are often central causation factors in humanitarian crises, ethnic violence and migration movements, and addressing and solving them is fundamental to sustainable development programmes, combating poverty, and the key to finding enduring democratic and peaceful solutions to conflict.

Therefore academic endeavours to study, analyse and understand the causes of humanitarian crises and suggest appropriate responses, need to incorporate an appreciation and understanding of the human rights framework within which any analysis or proposals of solutions to such crises should be based.

Human rights, as a field of study in its own right, and as a subset of broader studies such as law, politics, and international relations has gained significant acceptance in recent years, with more universities offering units in human rights as a study option at both graduate and post graduate level.

The information contained in the following section aims to provide an overview of the current situation regarding human rights study and research across the European Union. While it does not profess to be exhaustive it provides a solid basis for creating preliminary maps of knowledge, identifying both the availability and accessibility of human rights study and research, as well as the gaps in the field.

Methodology

During the inaugural meeting in London in December 1996 the subgroup, which had originally included both human rights and peace-keeping, decided, in the course of seeking to define the scope of the field

encompassed by the subgroup, to divide into two groups, separating human rights from peacekeeping.

So while the scope of human rights should now exclude peace studies, it is still capable of a very broad definition, embracing the study of human rights from different disciplines, at national, European and international levels, and including human rights related courses, which may not be considered "human rights" studies stricto sensu.

In particular, and of no surprise, is the fact that the subgroup of human rights overlaps with all four other subgroups to a significant extent. For example one can identify from the outset those areas of humanitarian law, refugee studies, minority rights, economic, social and cultural rights and the right to development, which fall also within the domain of the other four subgroups. It is however considered preferable that "human rights", for the purposes of the subgroup, not be defined very narrowly as such an approach would run the risk of excluding the rich and valuable resources of non-legally based and multi-disciplinary human rights courses and research in existance.

What have been excluded from the analysis however, are those courses which are essentially national law courses, but which have a relevance to human rights. Such courses are constitutional law, media law and family law. Whilst these courses do indeed have human rights implications and the contents of any one course may include significant reference to international human rights standards and obligations, it is suggested that to include such units in a statistical analysis of available human rights courses, distorts the overall picture of the work being conducted in terms of human rights research and teaching. Therefore only law courses which focus on international or regional aspects of human rights, or on civil liberties have been included in this analysis.

Data collection

The questionnaire discussed and agreed upon by the subgroup, contained questions about human rights courses, course units and human rights activities conducted by the 65 institutions who are part of the HumanitarianNet. Information was collected by reference to each course, which was reconigsed as a self contained period of study, leading to the award of a qualification, (it usually should be worth 60 ECTS), and each unit, which was designated as a taught component of an overall course, and would be worth less than 60 ECTS, usually worth 2.5-12 ECTS. The information was collated and analysed by reference to content, level, duration, language of instruction, literature, teaching

staff, and whether the course or unit was optional or compulsory, since when the course or unit had been running and whether there were plans for future expansion.

A preliminary assessment of the information collated was made in June 1997. This information, while incomplete, indicated already at that stage, the predominance of legally based courses and units in the field, a spread between undergraduate and postgraduate options, but an apparent lack of teaching in specific areas, such as refugee law, women's rights, children's rights and teaching from a comparative and European perspective.

Between June 1997-June 1998, further information was collated, particularly from countries from which there had been no previous response to the questionnaires and therefore had not been included in the preliminary assessment. This information was collected through further completed questionnaires which were submitted, requests made directly to particular institutions, an examination of institutions on a country basis, and research conducted through the Internet.

Sample Size

As a result, the final data which provides the basis for the analysis in this chapter contains information from 67 universities and 16 research centres in 18 countries who offer courses and are engaged in activities in the field of human rights. Out of the 67 universities, 17 have specialised centres dedicated to teaching and/or research in human rights or in fields related to human rights.

Findings

Despite the extensive information collected, the data can still only hope to provide an overview of the different levels and range of human rights activity in existence. Such an overview does nevertheless provide both useful guidelines and a practical tool for taking stock and evaluating the state of human rights research and teaching.

The findings reveal that in the 67 universities there are only two human rights related courses at undergraduate level (i.e. full time programmes leading to a qualification, which do not require a previous university qualifications), a BA in Human and Social Rights and a University Certificate in Human Rights. On the other hand there are 55 units in human rights related subjects on offer at undergraduate level,

45 of which are in the area of law in 24 institutions, and 10 in the fields of philosophy, politics, anthropology, sociology and equality studies in 6 institutions.

At postgraduate level the number of courses and units increases significantly. There are 162 units on offer at 33 institutions which relate to human rights, two thirds of those are legal units offered by faculties of law and one third by departments and faculties of social sciences, politics, international relations, anthropology, development and equality studies. These units are mainly optional topics which form part of 71 courses, 54 which are courses not specifically dedicated to human rights, such as Masters in European Law, Masters in Criminology, Masters in International Studies, Masters in Social Science. However 17 of the courses are dedicated to human rights.

The final course is the European Masters in Human Rights and Democratisation, which is a one year multi disciplinary post-graduate programme, organised by 15 universities and supported by the European Union, the region of Veneto and the Municipality of Venice.

The concentration of courses within the legal discipline does lead to common links between some course contents. For example several of the course units available are in the field of Universal and Regional Protection of Human Rights or in the European Convention on Human Rights. At undergraduate level, civil liberties and international protection of human rights, as part of a law degree are most common. Comparability between the courses in other specifics is difficult due to the divergence in literature and language used for instruction, particularly at undergraduate level, where tuition is almost exclusively in the native tongue of the country where the institution is based. At post-graduate level one finds that many courses are offered in English, which suggests that postgraduate studies are undertaken by a multi-national group of students, using English as the common language.

The most common form of teaching is still lecturing, although many institutions combine lecturing with seminars particularly at the postgraduate level, where active student participation is expected. Some institutions use video presentations, case studies, and most courts as a way of teaching particular units.

Assessment is consistently by examination or by submission of a paper, or a combination of both. The requirement of a written paper in place of written examinations is more common at advanced level. Oral examinations, while not common are used in some Universities.

The data also includes information about PhD opportunities at 9 of the Universities, four of which are essentially research based or include a preliminary qualification which can lead to the award of a PhD, five of

which offer a more structured PhD programme. Outside of structured academic courses there are also 26 short courses on offer by the universities and the research institutions, which provide opportunities to study human rights or specific human rights topics for varying periods ranging from 1 week to six months. Half of these courses (13) are aimed at professionals, who do not have the opportunity to study for lengthy periods, but who can avail of the courses to deepen their expertise or expand their knowledge in the field of human rights.

Finally, the research topics of the institutions are highly varied, some having a very specific focus, others adopting a more generic approach. Overall there are approximately 62 research projects, ranging from the implementation in domestic law of human rights obligations, to good governance studies, to aspects of child law and refugee law to tolerance studies. Most of the projects are inter- or multi-disciplinary. Three institutions have projects which are based on assembling, in an accessible form, human rights documentation.

Discussion

The high number of available course units and particularly specialised human rights courses at post graduate level is very encouraging, and indicates that the study of human rights has been flourishing over the past decade. This is also reflected in particular by the existence of 17 centres within Universities specialised in the field of human rights. However the strength of human rights study and research still lies predominantly within the legal field and within the traditional areas of civil and political rights, which form the basis for most courses. There is a wealth of expertise to be found in these areas throughout universities. Another encouraging element is the existence of several short courses, which cater to professionals and other persons who do not have the time available to study for prolonged periods. The numbers admitted to these short courses do tend to be limited however, and there may be a demand for more courses of these type.

The weaknesses in the field of human rights tend to be in the economic, social and cultural fields. That is not to say that there are no courses or specialisation in these areas, but the range is not comparable to that in civil and political rights. The number of institutions offering specialisation in these areas are limited. Strengthening this area, through the development of taught programmes, but also through links between university institutions themselves, in particular between the study centres, and between university institutions and field actors, is desirable.

In general, the strengthening of the link between theory and practice of human rights —both on a institutional level, i.e. partnerships between universities and field actors and NGOs, and on a substantive level— i.e. course contents and research topics, is to be welcomed. Still too many courses are mono disciplinary and there is a lack of applied policy research in institutions. There are already some initiatives in the field of human rights which are seeking to address these gaps. One such example is the European Masters in Human Rights and Democratisation, which is both interdisciplinary and merges practice and theory. Involving universities from each EU Member State, it is one example of a collaborative venture in the field of human rights, which offers significant potential for raising the level of human rights education in Europe. There are also training courses, for example that for human rights field operators, provided by the PIBOES network Pisa, Bochum and Essex which are directly relevant to the field of humanitarian studies.

Conclusions

In the areas both of teaching and of research in human rights, the picture is a healthy one, and the needs of the humanitarian-development community can be well served by the existing resources. The field of human rights is however a wide one, encompassing a vast number of subjects and overlapping with the subject matters of the other subgroups. Therefore focusing on those aspects of human rights which have more direct and immediate relevance to the field of humanitarian development is important. In this respect, whilst human rights for many years was confined to examination of classic civil and political rights, the trend in human rights teaching and research, as reflected by newer courses and the future ambitions expressed by universities, is to promote more activity and interest in the areas of economic, social and cultural rights, development and the links between human rights, democratisation and the rule of law. This trend will also help to meet the need from the field of expertise in these areas. The growing number of situations where there are peacekeeping, human rights and humanitarian field operations, and the changing nature of the tasks facing such operations will inform the choice of areas where human rights research and study need to be developed. This also dictates the need for specialised training programmes —such as training for the police, the judiciary etc. The interface between theory and practice of human rights, the need for partnership between human rights and humanitarian organisations and between academic institutions and NGOs should be the primary focus of future research and education initiatives.

A2
Thematic Study: Humanitarian Crisis

Eleanor O' Gorman
Jim Phelan

Introduction

The aim of this "map of knowledge" is to provide insight into what is an emergent field of educational research and teaching with regard to Humanitarian Crises. As a preliminary exercise, the survey and resulting map explores issues of definition and scope in current teaching and research. The mapping exercise identifies gaps and strengths and suggests ways forward to both strengthen the map of knowledge and to enhance our understanding of knowledge around the theme of Humanitarian Crises. Disciplinary approaches have their own histories in coming to this field of knowledge. What distinguishes more recent trends is the move toward multidisciplinary and interdisciplinary approaches to address the changing and complex social, political and economic situations that have marked various parts of the world in the past decade

The context of the Sub-Group on Humanitarian Crises is located in established responses by the international community to emergency situations such as war, famine, flood, and earthquake that cause human suffering on a large scale. In response to ever-growing needs, global humanitarian assistance has increased in the past ten years. In 1971, the total expenditure on relief goods and services by disaster relief agencies for emergency-affected countries was $200 million.[1] By 1994, it had ballooned to $8 billion dollars, with $1.4 alone spent on operations in Rwanda and Congo. Natural disasters such

[1] J. Pomfret, "Aid Dilemma: Keeping it from the Oppressors," *Washington Post* (21, September, 1997).

as wind, floods and earthquakes while being the most frequent in terms of occurrence (accounting for 60 % of disasters) affect fewer people than famines and civil unrest. These latter categories of international emergency have increased significantly over the past two decades and currently account for about 70 % of deaths arising from disasters.[2]

More recent interventions have taken place in the context of the transformation of conflict situations in the post-1989 period; this is marked by the proliferation of internal conflicts within states. The end of the Cold War and the subsequent rise in claims to self-determination (e.g. Bosnia-Herzegovina) as well as the total collapse of the state in other cases (e.g. Somalia) provide the background for this eruption of conflict. In the wake of such conflicts we have witnessed an upsurge in complex emergencies demanding integrated, international responses. Humanitarian Intervention was such an attempt and led to international military and relief operations in areas such Somalia, Northern Iraq and Bosnia Herzegovina.[3]

In the past few years there has been a stepping back from the more military aspects of humanitarian interventions and a move toward more integrated approaches of development, human rights, conflict prevention and resolution, and security policy on the ground. The strategic importance of long term development initiative to prevent and resolve conflict by building stability and intervening at a pre-crisis point is being acknowledged.[4] Such developments in practice pose an important challenge for research and

teaching in the area of humanitarian development. The analysis and evaluation of the causes, responses and outcomes of humanitarian crises is now very complex. It involves engagement with ethical, logistical and political problems. The increased number of actors in the field —states, NGOs and multilateral agencies— means greater understanding of their relational and operational dynamics is key to formulating appropriate development policy and creating knowledge and understanding of humanitarian crises.

---

[2] Network on Humanitarian Assistance (NOHA) (1998) *Medicine and Public Health in Humanitarian Assistance* (Luxembourg: Office for Official Publications of the European Commission).

[3] See O. Ramsbotham and T. Woodhouse (1996) *Humanitarian Intervention in Contemporary Conflict;* M. Hoffman and I. Forbes (1997) (eds.) *Ethics and Intervention: The International Relations of Humanitarian Aid* (London: Macmillan).

[4] See B. Boutros Ghali (1992) *Agenda for Peace* (New York: United Nations); B. Boutros Ghali (1994) *Building Peace and Development* (New York: United Nations).

Methodology

Eighteen (18) universities in the Network completed the survey, indicating that humanitarian crises was a subject of teaching and research interest at those institutions. The total Network size at the time of survey was fifty seven. In this paper some of the limitations on current information are outlined with respect to both educational courses and research activities. A general review of the available information is offered in both these areas. Arising from this review some tentative suggestions are made concerning gaps in knowledge. The small size of the sample alongside the incompleteness of information, particularly in the area of research, means that any statements or findings must be seen as provisional. However this review of the available information should provide a starting point for strengthening the data base and extending it in response to particular gaps in knowledge.

Review of Educational Courses and Course Units

We can establish the following categories from the information available at present.

In the review, our analysis worked to avoid double counting and provides an overview of present teaching conducted in the area of humanitarian crises.

We have categorised six postgraduate courses from the data available, one under graduate course, forty postgraduate course units and two course units at the undergraduate level.

Further Synthesis

The sample of returns makes for interesting reading when divided into legal, technical, medical, and sociological/political dimensions. In some cases these take the form of disciplinary courses or course units. In other cases they take the form of interdisciplinary courses and course units. In terms of the disciplinary homes of these courses and course units the general discipline has been read from the faculty in which the course or course unit is situated or from the wider course of which a course unit is part.

In some cases such as law, medicine, engineering, or psychology, the courses or course units seem to have a core content in those disciplines. In other cases the content has been quite interdisciplinary

covering areas of economics, geography, management, development studies, sociology and politics.

Content analysis of the courses and course units proves difficult when one considers the wide range of topics and disciplinary analyses that could be relevant to humanitarian crises. In terms of a very narrow focus looking at situations of war or natural disaster and the humanitarian aid attached to such crisis situations, the number of directly relevant courses or course units may actually be less than the sample collected. From the data we could place twelve courses or course units within this narrow and controversial definition of "Humanitarian Crises".

Such a narrow reading of humanitarian crises as an area of teaching may be controversial in categorizing courses. Wider courses may also have relevance and influence on responding to humanitarian crises and educating students on such situations and responses.

An interesting question arising from this analysis is to what purpose do we try to create a map of knowledge? It may be partly from the perspective of the expertise available in particular faculties and institutions. However, from the perspectives of the actors working in situations of humanitarian crises there may be a set of needs or interests in terms of knowledge and skills which would yield a very different analysis of this data. If the data were evaluated from an actor's or policy maker's perspective the usefulness or relevance of different courses or course units may yield particular gaps. This may be a different or similar perspective to the individuals and institutions currently involved in setting up courses. There is also the very necessary dimension of what students wish to study and what new areas of knowledge are being forged from situations of humanitarian crises. A general review of the questionnaires would suggest law, medicine, politics, sociology, management, and engineering are all disciplines contributing to this area.

Review of Research Activities

There are 26 research projects cited over 11 universities. These projects include issues of environmental crises, water and irrigation, human rights, health, development of databases on disasters, migration, trauma, and HIV/AIDS. The titles of the research yield little in terms of understanding the focus of such research projects or the types of methodologies being used to carry out such research. Twelve projects are listed under its auspices ranging from issues of household food security through to humanitarian policy.

Discussion

Defining "Humanitarian Crises" as an Area

One of the issues arising from the map of knowledge is understanding what we mean by "Humanitarian Crises". As can be expected there is a degree of overlap with the issues and courses of the other Sub-Groups on "migration, multiculturality and ethnic conflict", "human rights", "peace studies", "poverty and development". Such overlap can be assessed through a broader view of all the sub-groups in an integrated map. It is also an obvious reflection of the interdisciplinary nature of teaching and research in the wider area of humanitarian development.

With the sub-group on "Humanitarian Crises" there is the further difficulty of defining what courses fit such a description. Does it refer to war and peacekeeping issues? Does it refer to medical and technical responses to situations of natural disaster or war? Can wider general courses of say, water management, community health management or development studies be placed in the specific category of "Humanitarian Crises". Do we assess such wider development courses in their technical and sociological content, by reviewing how far the specific content and methodologies respond to what we may define as "Humanitarian Crises"?

One gap in knowledge to be discerned may therefore be to actually define what we mean by "Humanitarian Crises" and what forms of content one would expect to find in courses addressing such issues. This is related to a wider question of the emergency relief —development continuum which suggests that crisis situations and "normal" situations of development issues be taken together rather than treated as separate. That is to say that the seeds for future development can be planted in the types of interventions designed around situations of humanitarian crises. It is suggested that such issues of definition and scope would be worthy of further attention in focusing the educational concerns of the sub-group on Humanitarian Crises.

Strengthening the Map of Knowledge

Overall, in terms of educational courses and research activities, it seems difficult to identify gaps in knowledge in the area of "Humanitarian Crises". This is due to the fact that the baseline data of this first stage in the map of knowledge covers a wide reach of topics and courses. To

formulate stronger baseline data and an inclusive preliminary map of knowledge we will need more details on the extent of courses, the inclusion of institutions currently not featured, and more details on research specifics. This may involve targeted follow up to strengthen the map of knowledge:

—identify limitations of present information;
—contact researchers and research teams for more detail on research projects, participants, aims, and partners

Preliminary Suggestions

Some tentative suggestions can be made on the basis of the current information in moving forward teaching and research within Europe on humanitarian crises.

—Information Exchange
The exchange of information on research approaches and research activities in general needs to be encouraged and facilitated. This would increase the levels of possible cooperation and dissemination. Partnership links in research within the EU Network and with developing countries also requires closer attention.
—Introductory Course Units
Given the wide and narrow interpretations of "humanitarian crises" discussed above, there may be a case for introductory type units on the contemporary nature and needs of this area. This may be helpful to many courses whatever their disciplinary or interdisciplinary focus.
—Strengthening the Educational Base
Extensions to current courses in terms of content and scope may be considered given the increasingly interdisciplinary context of humanitarian crises. There may be a case for looking at gaps in expertise at different institutions with respect to educational courses and the exploration of possibilities for students and teachers to have exchanges so that they can benefit from each others relative expertise or resources in one particular area. For example a legal expert may seek to know more about the medical policies and programmes of humanitarian crises and may benefit from a course an another university which offers this. Such exchanges would promote the basic interdisciplinary of the area of "Humanitarian Crises" and promote a broader base of education in this area for students and teachers. Different

institutions could therefore have programmes of humanitarian crises that do not have to be tied only to the subjects and resources available at their home institution.

—Integrating Theory and Practice

In all of this the understanding and response to field situations is crucial. It is the demands of particular crises that have led to the demand and supply of educational teaching and research in the area. It is therefore important that practitioners and agencies are involved in such courses and that the workings of theory and practice can provide an exchange that both improves practice and policy, and strengthens theory and knowledge of the causes and solutions to humanitarian crises.

NOHA (Network on Humanitarian Assistance): Example of Integrated European Approach

A progamme that currently responds to the need for integrated knowledge and practice in the area of humanitarian crises is the Europe wide NOHA programme. The Network on Humanitarian Assistance conducts a one year multidisciplinary post-graduate programme for workers in Humanitarian Aid. This Masters programme initiative was launched in 1993 under the auspices of the Erasmus-Socrates programme and is supported by DGXXII. The importance of education and training in the field of humanitarian assistance was the impetus for its development. The European Commission Humanitarian Office (ECHO) initiated the project for this training initiative.

The one-year course now involves seven universities: Aix-Marseilles III (France), Bochum (Germany), Deusto-Bilbao (Spain), Universite Catholique de Louvain (Belgium), Dublin (Ireland), Roma (Italy) and Uppsala (Sweden). The network continues to grow and other European universities are expected to join. The course comprises an intensive introductory programme, general courses, options and a secondment to the field. Subjects taught cover the major aspects of humanitarian aid, namely: international humanitarian law, management and logistics, geopolitics, anthropology and medicine/epidemiology. There are 130 students participating in the 1997/98 programme.

The NOHA programme marks the first European initiative to bring together academics and practitioners in the development of teaching courses to respond to the operational needs of humanitarian crises. It brings together academics from a number of universities to forge an integrated course available across Europe to a range of students. One

outcome of this cooperation and multidisicplinarity has been a series of teaching manuals designed specifically for the programme. The growth of NOHA bodes well as an example of cooperation and integration in building knowledge and practice in the area of Humanitarian Crises.

Conclusion

The importance of interdisciplinarity is highlighted in this paper and is reflected in course development across European Universities. The proliferation of humanitarian crises —that can include armed conflict, famine, climatic catastrophe and the spread of infectious diseases— demand education courses for practitioners and policy makers that create frameworks for understanding and responding to complex emergencies. As reflected in the review, a number of disciplinary are crucial to creating such knowledge. These include medicine, anthropology, engineering, law, politics, management and ethics. The shared aspects of these disciplines provide the points where interdisciplinary knowledge and practice can be developed. The relationship between theory and practice is also highlighted as key to educational work in this area.

This map of knowledge provides a baseline review of the educational work being carried out within the HumanitarianNet network and offers a platform from which cross European initiatives can be designed and strengthened.

A3
Thematic Study: Migration, Multiculturaity and Ethnic Conflict

Wolfgang Bosswick
Peter Jackson

Introduction

This chapter provides an overview of the second theme of the SOCRATES Thematic Network on Humanitarian Development Studies, concerning *Migration, Multiculturality and Ethnic Conflict*.

Migration has a long history within Europe, with increasing levels of international migration since 1945. The imposition of increasingly restrictive immigration controls since the 1960s has stemmed the flow of migrants, though pressure from refugees and asylum-seekers remains high. Most European nations are now characterised by considerable ethnic and cultural complexity, giving rise to the potential for conflict, whether expressed in terms of religious intolerance, racial prejudice and xenophobia or extreme forms of nationalist violence and "ethnic cleansing".

Methodology

The data for this chapter have been drawn from a *questionnaire survey* of the 65 universities and other institutional members of the Network, with additional material from other institutions and organisations who are known to be particularly active in this area of research and teaching. The survey was designed by Jan Mansvelt Beck (Amsterdam) and Peter Jackson (Sheffield). Preliminary findings were used to draw up a *map of knowledge*, representing a systematic attempt to describe the educational activities being undertaken within this rapidly developing field. The map of knowledge provides a summary of existing expertise,

highlighting a number of gaps in current knowledge where opportunities exist for further initiatives.

Survey findings

Responses to the questionnaire were received from 30 universities and two research centres who were members of the SOCRATES Network. Twelve other universities and four research institutes from outside the Network also provided information. In total, 48 institutions provided information on courses at undergraduate level; 18 at postgraduate (Masters or PhD) level; with 15 institutions also providing information about research activities.

The number of course units described varies from none (research institute) to 11. Most institutions provide two to five courses. ECTS credits specified vary from 2 to 15 per course; duration is usually 13 to 16 weeks. Some units have 30 weeks, some are block intensives with only 2 to 4 weeks. Most of the units have one teacher and range between 20 and 30 students. Assessment methods are usually an individual essay and/or written exam, plus field work, oral exam or other methods in some cases.

Most of the course units described in the survey are part of courses of a more general character, such as geography, social psychology etc. The level varies from courses at undergraduate level, through courses that are part of a Masters degree, to postgraduate courses, sometimes explicitely linked to a PhD programme. Some courses require experiences as practitioner or are open to non-academic specialists.

All of the replies from the 48 institutions which completed the questionnaire were analysed according to the disciplinary background and the topics of the units (113 in total). The following summary is structured according to the discipline and/or faculty to which the respective institution belongs.

Social Sciences

This category included Sociology, Anthropology, Humanities and Ethnology since the scope of the units in these disciplines strongly overlap. With 15 institutions from the Social Sciences providing a total of 36 units within the area of this subgroup, the Social Sciences provide the largest share of units in the sample (36 %). Unlike other disciplines, institutions affiliated to the Social Sciences are represented in almost all

countries in the sample. The following table lists the topics of the courses sccording to their frequency:

Tables A3.1
Topics of the courses sccouding to their frequency

Freq	Topic of Unit
7	Ethnicity, Interethnic Relations
6	Culture and Identity, Cultural Anthropology
6	Regional Studies (Africa, South-East Asia, Japan)
4	Nationalism, Religious Group Conflicts
3	Multiculturality, Multiculturalism
3	Socialization of Migrants, Sociology of Migration

Further topics named only once are: Social History of Migration and Colonialism, Health and Social Care, Sociogeography of Migration, Development Studies, Migration and Ethics, Conflict Resolution and Psychoanalysis.

The literature used for these courses is extremely heterogeneous. Only one author (Eriksen, 1993) was listed by more than one institution. This reflects not only the heterogeneity of theoretical approaches (see below) but also the differing literature in respective countries. Since more than half of the respondents did not provide a list of references, there might nevertheless be some common titles used. Obvious gaps in the topics covered do not appear, although units focussing on Integration of Migrants are not present. Given the importance of this issue in contemporary European societies and the emphasis which the EU consequently places on social exclusion and integration in their Targetted Socio-Economic Research programme, this could be an area to be covered in future.

Law

Units provided by institutions from Law faculties (11) are the second large group with a total of 17 units. The institutions covered by the sample are mainly from France and Belgium. Institutions located in Germany, United Kingdom and the Netherlands appear only once from each country. This might be an effect of the snowball system used for collecting further information from outside the members of the Thematic Network.

Freq	Topic of Unit
4	Immigration Law, Aliens/Foreigners Law, Migration Policy
4	International Law, International Relations, EU Studies
2	Human Rights (re. migration or ethnic groups)
2	Refugee Law, Asylum, Refugee Protection
2	Conflict Regulation

Further topics named only once are: International Security, Administration in Third World Countries and Anthropology of Legal Systems.

The Law units seem to be quite homogeneous and cover most of the relevant scope. There is little overlap with other disciplines.

Postgraduate Courses (multidisciplinary or not faculty affiliated)

Ten institutions offer units which belong to a postgraduate or multidisciplinary course and are therefore not affiliated to a particular faculty. Out of a total of 18 units, most cover topics related to the disciplines of Sociology, Law and Geography.

Freq	Topic of Unit
3	Migration Studies
3	Regional Studies (Africa, Latin America, Middle East)
2	Multiculturality
2	Social Work (for practitioners)
2	Ethnic Relations, Social Identity
2	Asylum, Human Rights, Refugee Law
2	Peace Studies, Conflict Intervention

Further topics named only once are: Foreigners' Law and Demography.

Political Sciences

Six institutions from Political Science offer a total of 13 units in this area:

Freq	Topic of Unit
2	Migration Policy
2	International Law
2	Humanitarian Law

Further topics named only once are: European Policy, Refugees and Asylum, Conflict Resolution, Pluralism, Geopolitics, Nuclear and Chemical Disarmament, Nationalism, Religion and Politics.

There is a certain overlap with the Law discipline. A topic which is not present in the sample although relevant, might be Migration, Citizenship and Democracy (political involvement of migrants and minorities). This might be caused by a bias in the background of the Thematic Network which is on humanitarian assistance.

Geography

Four institutions from this discipline provided information on five units with the following topics:

Three units on Space and People (general units covering migration, diaspora, borders, etc.), one unit on Regional Studies (Latin America) and one on Cultural and Political Geography. The information on these units provided by the institutions also show an overlap with other disciplines by subthemes such as Migration Policy or Ethnic Economy.

Economics

From the four institutions belonging to a faculty of Economics, only three are actually offering units from this discipline. These three are providing six units:

Two units on Regional Studies (South-East Asia), single units on Participation of Women in Development (informal economy), Politics, Administration and Development, Global Management and Development Policy and Demography and Migration.

This range of topics might also be biased by the theme of the Network, since several probably relevant topics are not present such as Migration and Informal Economy, Welfare System, Economy and Migration Effects, Remittances, Consumer Habits of Migrants, Labour Market Involvement of Migrants and Minorities etc.

Development Studies

Four institutions offer units from the area of Development Studies (total 5 units). The faculty affiliation of the institutions is varying or none, but since they focus clearly on this topic, they were aggregated to this group (except 36 which is an institution on development research).

Two units were on Development and Forced Migration, plus single units on Development, Culture and Intervention, Arts (minorities and migrants in movies and literature) and Architecture (post-war recovery).

History

In this discipline three institutions with one unit each are represented in the sample:

Socio-History of Migration and Colonialism, Regional Studies (Middle East) and Migration Studies and Demography.

Other disciplines

Further disciplines are represented by one institution in the sample. These are:

Defence, Literature/Arts, Education, Philosophy, Social Work, Demography, Architecture, EU/International Studies, Environmental Sciences and Psychology.

The topics offered by the various disciplines listed above cover an impressive range of the area covered by the subgroup on *Migration, Multiculturality and Ethnic Conflict*. Nevertheless, there are some obvious gaps and areas of under-representation only some of which can be attributed to the incompleteness and non-representativity of the sample. One missing field is the area of Pedagogic and Education: questions of school policy, language acquaintance and teaching of migrant children are not represented neither in research nor in units. Another area that is relevant, but not represented, might be Communal Administration in relation to minority or migrant population. Finally, Theology and the broad scope of work on migration and minority issues, and its link to ethical and normative questions, is not reflected in the sample. Although the theological discussion in this area has a century-old tradition and seems not be directly linked to modern questions of migration and integration of societies, it might be helpful for an analysis of the underlying background of current discourses.

Some key issues

The remainder of this chapter deals with some more general reflections on the survey findings, focusing on *three key issues*:

—the **diversity of theoretical approaches** taken in conceptualising issues of multi-culturality and ethnic conflict;
—the need for more concerted provision of **postgraduate training** (at Masters and PhD level); and
—the opportunity for **a more comprehensive and coordinated research programme** in this field to supplement existing activities which are generally small-scale and relatively under-funded.

Discussion

Diversity of theoretical approaches

Besides the diversity of disciplinary approaches (discussed above), the survey results also suggest that there is considerable terminological diversity in terms of the ways that issues of migration, multiculturality and ethnic conflict are framed. There is an initial diversity in terms of whether courses are concerned with migrants (or immigrants), or refugees and asylum seekers. In the former case there is an emphasis on processes of citizenship and naturalisation; in the latter with issues of human (or civil) rights. To illustrate this diversity further, some courses define their focus in terms of "ethno-cultural diversity" and the "protection of minorities" (including the "legal status of aliens") within "culturally divided societies". Some courses discuss solutions in terms of "conflict regulation", exploring "strategies of pacification" in a variety of national contexts. Others focus on issues of "cultural pluralism", "inter-cultural relations" and the management of "cultural diversity" or on "inter-ethnic relations, discrimination and ethnic prejudice", debating policies of "assimilation", "acculturation" and "integration". Such diversity may be welcome in so far as it leads to greater understanding. But there is a danger of "chaotic conceptualisation" (Sayer, 1992) if terms and approaches are used without being adequately defined. Terms like "ethnicity", "race" and "multiculturalism" all need to be thoroughly problematised if misunderstanding is to be avoided (or at least reduced to manageable levels). Our survey results suggest that even this minimal level of trans-national and inter-disciplinary consensus has not yet been achieved.

Even greater diversity exists concerning the theoretical frameworks through which these issues are conceptualised. Several broad approaches might be recognised. Traditional *"race relations"* approaches have been criticised from a number of directions. Some insist on a more politicised *anti-racist* approach where notions of the impartiality,

neutrality and objectivity of social science are no longer regarded as tenable. (Such an approach is most evident in our survey results in relation to courses about the growing electoral success of extreme right-wing candidates and parties.) Others advocate a *social construction* approach where "race" and "ethnicity" are viewed as a product of specific and variable historical and geographical processes rather than as innate or natural essences, genetically determined or biologically given. The emphasis of such *anti-essentialist* approaches is on tracing the processes through which particular groups are *racialized* rather than taking social categories of "race or "ethnicity" for granted. Recent work from a *"new ethnicities"* perspective has insisted on the fact that "we are all ethnically located" (Hall, 1992) rather than seeing "race" or "ethnicity" as issues that apply only to minority groups, giving rise to debates about the complexities of culturally-constructed notions of "whiteness" (though this is not yet reflected in the courses that are reported in our survey).

The survey found surprisingly little evidence that issues of "race" and "ethnicity" were being theorised alongside *other dimensions of social difference* such as gender, sexuality or (dis)ability. Few courses appeared to address these issues, either through a traditional emphasis on analysing each "dimension" or "axis" of difference as separate and additive, giving rise to ideas about the double or triple oppression (of ethnic minority, working class women, for example) or in terms of arguments about their *mutual constitution* (such that ideas of "race" are simultaneously gendered and classed, as in popular constructions of "black youth", for example). *Post-colonial* and *feminist* theories were also conspicuous by their absence in the survey.

Questions of multiculturality are even more vigorously contested. Here too a traditional emphasis on *"multiculturalism"* as involving the tolerance or celebration of ethnic or racial difference has come under attack from a variety of perspectives. Traditional multiculturalism has tended to focus exclusively on the cultural distinctiveness of minority groups. Such an approach tends to emphasise cultural expression rather than examining the wider social and political relations in which those cultural differences are embedded. In policy terms, such approaches tend to assume that "multiculturalism" can be addressed through specific initiatives (designed to raise awareness of other cultures or to improve "cross-cultural understanding", for example) rather than calling for the thorough *multiculturalization* of society in general. The survey results indicated the persistence of traditional notions of multiculturalism, often discussed alongside issues of "socialization" or "biligualism and biculturalism". In a few instances, courses emphasised

issues of "cultural complexity" (related to processes of globalization), theorised through notions oif "diaspora" and "transnationalism".

Recent research has emphasised the extent to which all cultures (including those of dominant national groups) are the product of a variety of cultural forces, giving rise to an emphasis on processes of *creolization or hybridity* and to terms like "multiculture" (or "critical multiculturalism"). These debates have led to intense debates about the cultural politics of identity, reconnecting formerly marginalised "ethnic" and "racial" issues to dominant ways of thinking about the imagined community of the nation. Again, there is little evidence of this research literature being included in the undergraduate courses that featured in our survey.

Postgraduate research training

The survey results suggest that issues of migration, multiculturality and ethnic conflict are currently being taught in a rather fragmented way, across a variety of disciplines, from a variety of theoretical perspectives, sometimes as separate courses in "ethnic and racial studies" and sometimes as part of a substantive course in sociology or social history, for example. At the undergraduate level such diversity may be an advantage in exposing a wide range of students to these issues —wider than might be attracted to specific courses on "ethnic and racial studies", for example. At postgraduate level, evidence suggests that current provision is even more fragmented and piecemeal. A real opportunity exists for *an inter-disciplinary and international approach* in terms of Masters training and PhD research.

Rather than attempting to provide such training across the whole range of institutions that are currently involved in research and teaching in this field, there may be a case for concentrating provision in a smaller number of centres and making such training available to students from other institutions. This would not preclude individual institutions from continuing to provide specific courses in their own areas of expertise but it would provide a unique opportunity for students to benefit from a truly international and interdisciplinary experience.

There are numerous ways in which such training might be provided. Provision of *intensive courses* for Masters level and/or first-year PhD students would be particularly valuable at the time they are preparing their research proposals, giving them an opportunity to discuss their work with one another and with a small group of international experts. There are also opportunities for *joint Masters/PhD*

supervision involving experts from two or more EU countries. Opportunities for providing or supplementing such training by means of *distance-learning* (via the Internet and other forms of information technology) should not be ignored.

Research activities

Fifteen institutions provided information about their research activities (a total of 47 projects). Most projects are small sized and short term projects: a minimum of 26 projects involves one or two researchers (not all institutions provided this figure), and a minimum of 11 projects lasts between one to two years. There are very few large projects in the area of this subgroup on migration, multiculturality and ethnic conflict: Only five projects out of 47 are involving more than two researchers up to seven, and only six projects last longer than 3 years.

As with units and courses, the social sciences are the most frequent discipline which conducts research in the area of this subgroup. The table below gives an overview on number of institutions and number of projects in the respective disciplines:

Table A3.2
Number of Institutions and number of projects
in the respective disciplines

Institutions	Projects	Discipline
3	11	Social Sciences
2	7	Political Sciences
2	6	Geography
2	2	Law
1	10	Forced Migration Studies
1	4	International Studies
1	3	Economics
1	2	Medicine
1	1	History
1	1	Peace Studies

The topics of research show a broad spectrum. The majority of projects is on specific local ethnic or social groups, often linked to an existing regional studies' focus. A second cluster are projects on more

general issues, often involving also theoretical questions such as European integration, decentralization and ethnicity, development and political stability, psychoanalytic theory and the treatment of migration related trauma and others.

As these data suggest, most research on *Migration, Multiculturality and Ethnic Conflict* is carried out on the basis of project-funding, with little core funding for inter-dsicplinary research centres and institutes. The opportunity therefore exists for a European initiative in this area to provide more stable, long-term funding for an internationally coordinated research programme in this area, bringing together the expertise of researchers from across the EU many of whom are already members of this Network.

Conclusion

The survey on which this chapter is based provided evidence of a high level of activity throughout the Network (and beyond) in terms of teaching and research on issues of *Migration, Multiculturality and Ethnic Conflict*. Such activity was, however, characterised by a diversity of approach, in terms of disciplinary perspective and theoretical framework. While diversity is sometimes advantageous, there is a need to promote greater mutual understanding of different European traditions and perspectives.

The foregoing discussion has highlighted the scope for greater inter-disciplinary and international collaboration, especially at postgraduate (Masters and PhD) level. We also emphasise the opportunity for a more coordinated and sustained approach to research funding in this area.

In terms of updating the material included in our survey, we support the provision of a database on the Internet, inviting those whose courses and research projects do not appear in our survey to add their details to the database.

A4
Thematic Study: Peace Studies

Mariano Aguirre
Edward Moxon-Browne

Introduction

Peace studies have become a field of increasing interest in the academic and non academic world. Currently there are around 30 armed conflicts in the world, 50 millions of refugees and forced displaced people, an uncertain number of victims and an unaccountable level of destruction of the environment and social infrastructure. After four decades of nuclear deterrence and since the end of the Cold War these internal wars have generated various debates among governments, international organizations, NGOs, the media and civil societies.

Some of the key issues under discussion are Humanitarian Law, humanitarian interventionism and its overtaking and limits, the international responses to asylum seekers and migrants, Human Rights violations, the role of women and children in situations of war, the arms trade (particularly the use of landmines and light weapons), the rise of ethnic and religious conflicts, and the role of the media in the construction of our perceptions and knowledge of countries in conflict and their victims.

War is not a new field of research and training. In some countries as France, Germany and the United States there have been schools of study from different perspectives. The law to regulate the impact of war had an important development during the current Century after the First and Second World Wars. On the other hand, the study of peace and how to generate an international order has a philosophical tradition initiated by Immanuel Kant.

After the Second World War studies on war have been under the control of military academies and the socalled strategic studies institutes, academic and non academic as well. The invention and use of weapons

of mass destruction generated groundbreaking research institutes in the United States, the United Kingdom and some other countries.

Strategic Studies and Peace Studies were living for a long time in separate worlds. The former developed themselves under the realism of Machiavellian approach to international relations that conceives that the world system functions around the power politics of the State as the central entity. National Security guides the will and actions of the State and the international system is a field of competition of the States for their own interests. Military power and war are tools in that competition.

Peace Studies are defined as the systemic interdisciplinary study of the causes of war and the conditions of peace. Modern Peace Studies are interdisciplinary, international and policy oriented, that is intended to have some impact on the political environment of both policy makers and society. Peace Studies are based on other social sciences as history, anthropology, psychology, philosophy, or religion.[1]

Peace Studies came from a normative perspective, the so-called idealism of the Kantian approach. This approach has more in consideration the interest of the people over national security, and considers that there is a harmony of interests that potentially can be developed through institutional frameworks.

Strategic Studies has been more closely related to governments' actions and analysis, thus has been policyoriented. Peace Studies have been initially linked to peace research and the peace movements of several countries. Strategic Studies focused their analysis on war and diplomacy. Peace Studies give more importance to the concept of structural violence that it's related

to injustices in economics, the lack of democracy and violations of Human Rights in the political field and an strict control of weapons in the whole process from research and investigation to legal and illegal trade.

After the end of the Cold War strategic and peace studies began to approach each other. Three factors were decisive:

i) the end of the ideological factor between the confronted visions of capitalism and communism and the end of bloc politics supported by nuclear deterrence;
ii) the tendency to analyze the social and political topics from a global perspective instead of a Statecentered one;

---

[1] Carolyn M .Stephenson, "The evolution of Peace Studies", in Daniel C. Thomas and Michael T. Klare (eds.), *Peace and World Order Studies. A Curriculum Guide*, Westview Press, Boulder, 1989, pp.9-10.

iii) the expansion and redefinition of the concept of security, avoiding only a military perspective and giving more importance to a more comprehensive view including food, demographic, and environmental security;
iv) the acute crisis of the States and societies in the so-called Third World and in the former Soviet area.

Through different ways both perspectives had and have to confront their perspectives with a spectrum of topics as the potential impact of nuclear war, arms trade, development and underdevelopment, drugtraffick, migrations, poverty, ethnic conflicts, cultural factors, the role of the United Nations and regional bodies, humanitarian intervention and the role of military alliances (as NATO) in peacekeeping missions, the role of NGOs in war environments, the social impact of world trade, regional integration politics as a factor to deter or increase conflicts among States, and conflict resolution among others.

For the realist school, globalization and interdependence raised the profile of economic, environmental and societal issues in the international system, in contrast with the narrow vision of power and national security. On the other hand, for peace researchers, interdependence obliged them to take in consideration that power relations are under the control of the State and that even multilateral organizations as the UN are controlled by the State and the game of *realpolitik* politics.[2] At the same time, peace researchers and then Peace Studies get into the political debate trying to influence real politics working in close cooperation with NGOs. (The worldwide campaign for the landmines Treaty and in favour of an arms trade code of conduct in the EU are some recent examples).[3]

The mobility and exchange of researchers from one field to the other grew up from the late 1980's. At the same time, peace and strategic studies began to work on fields and proposals as common security, world order associated to basic human needs, how to prevent poverty and war form their deeper roots and post conflict rehabilitation. The result have been that concepts as prevention of conflict and, basic

[2] Barry Buzan, People, States & Fear. *An Agenda for International Security Studies in the Post-Cold War,* Harvester, Wheatsheaf, Hertfordshire, 1992, pp.10-13.

[3] On the confrontation of realist and the kantian visions, and the role of ethics in International Relations see the essays by Fred Halliday "Morality in International Affairs: a Case for Robust Universalism" and Richard Falk "Morality and Global Security: the Normative Horizons of War", both in Bill McSweeney (Ed.), *Moral Issues in International Affairs,* Macmillan Press, London, 1998.

human needs are now common currency in the political, academic and non academic debate.[4] This combination of academic and nonacademic worlds operating in a policyoriented framework is producing a very creative combination.

A particularity of Peace Studies is that its works are produced inside and outside the academic world, as well. On the one hand, step by step the Academia has incorporated Peace Studies. On the other, the research born from nonacademic institutes (as the famous peace Research Institute of Oslo or the Stockholm International Peace Research Institute). At the same time, international organizations as the UN, the OSCE or the International Committee of the Red Cross produces research, training and teaching. In consequence, there is an intense flow of exchange of researchers and resources.

Methodology

Report on data collected from HumanitarianNet's survey

This short Report will focus on the subtheme peace studies. The Report is divided into four sections:

Courses

The general questionnaire yielded responses gathered between 1997 and 1998 relating to peace and security studies, from 40 academic and non-academic institutions.

The results revealed some confusion between "courses" and "course units", (or modules). This is evident from the fact that many socalled "courses" were designated as having fewer that 10 ECTS credits. We find that Peace Studies (sometimes called conflict or security studies) is more typically taught either in course units or as an optional specialisation within a broader degree programme in law; or politics; psychology.

There are several courses and seminars organized by non-academic institutes. Some of them are well established and with formal and informal connections with Universities.

---

[4] See J. Ann Tickner, "Revisioning Security", in Ken Booth and Steve Smith, *International Relations Today,* Polity Press, Cambridge, 1995, pp. 175-197.

All the courses surveyed however, had a strong interdisciplinary emphasis and, in some cases, were hosted by departments whose nomenclature reflected a deliberately crossdisciplinary orientation. At least half of the courses surveyed had a strong legal focus (no fewer than twelve of the 24 courses/course units).

About half the course material surveyed referred to postgraduate education with varying amount of research components included. In one or two cases, it was not possible to see from the data provided whether course offering was at the undergraduate or postgraduate levels.

Course Units

The authors of this report consider that to describe totally the map of knowledge of the academic and non-academic institutes that work on Peace Studies in the EU it's a very difficult task. In consequence we decided to take a sample of some institutes and Academic departments that could show the general trend. This is not an exhaustive research, only a first step.

This essay is only a first approach and we strongly suggest that the elaboration of a European Directory of Peace Studies is a priority. There is an excellent and very useful new International Directory related to conflict studies, Foundations and NGO that includes worldwide and European institutes but there is still a need for a European one with an academic and non-academic methodology.[5]

In almost all cases, Peace Studies is offered at the advanced undergraduate, and postgraduate levels, and at the undergraduate level is more likely to be an option than a component of the degree programme concerned.

Among the universities surveyed one university appeared to have Peace Studies as core course units within a degree programme oriented toward peace and conflict studies. The pattern elsewhere revealed a variety of emphasis on Peace Studies as an adjunct to, or "stream" within, a broader "degree" framework in some cases centred around a single discipline or as part of a consciously interdisciplinary constellation of course units. At some universities (e.g. Kent) course units are offered as part of PhD programme.

---

[5] The European Platform for Conflict Prevention and Transformation, *Prevention and Management of Violent Conflict. An International*

Volume (in ECTS credits)

There is a wide range of length and intensity in the courses/course units surveyed here. The lowest ECTS score is 4.30 and, more typically, course units consisted of 6.00 ECTS credits but there were scores of 7.50, 8.00, 12.00 and 15.00, reflecting presumably either modules extending over a couple of semesters of the semester courses comprising two cognate components.

Discussion

In the interests of simplicity, this section discusses course content as seen in course units, as well as longer courses (or degree or diploma programmes). As far the subjects of courses and research are closely related we included both aspects in this section.

The data from the institutions that submitted questionnaires is supplemented by additional information gleaned from brochures, personal knowledge and Internet sources. Thus, although this section cannot claim to give a complete picture of Peace Studies teaching in Europe, it extends beyond the rather sender information provided by the questionnaires. The section includes information from non-academic centres, as well.

The range of disciplines falling within, or lying adjacent to the field of peace studies is reasonably broad. For the purposes of this summary, we can identify at least four major themes: a) politics; b) law; c) humanitarian/development issues; d) peace/conflict analysis in the purest sense.

In fact, these four themes are not always mutually exclusive and, in some cases, they overlap within a single institution and/or course. Having said that, they provide a useful organizing device for the discussion.

At several institutions the international aspects of law provide a vehicle through which peace and conflict studies can be approached. Such courses typically focus on national sovereignty, the rights of individuals under international law, the law of international organizations, the Law of the Sea, the status of refugees, and legal facets of UN peacekeeping. Some law faculties host courses that might be considered closer to international politics. In one Dutch law faculty, for example, a wide range of interpretations of security (embracing environmental, economic and political aspects) provide the focus of a postgraduate course. Peace issues also arise naturally in courses concerned centrally with international politics, diplomacy, collective security, the causes and consequences of intra state and interstate conflicts, and associated

matters such as mediation, arbitration, bargaining, and the use of force as modes of conflict resolution in the late twentieth century.

In some cases courses on law and philosophy of law are connected. Political philosophy is also the base for some courses on the Kantian approach and its modern projection on world order studies and "good governance".

Courses concerned with the economics of development also impinge on Peace Studies. These courses often touch on issues such as population growth, famine, migration, poverty. NorthSouth relations, global environmental patterns, and the impact of ethnicity and race on Third World politics issues indigenous to the Third World are often linked lo the implications for these societies of global trade patterns and, in particular, the intrinsically uneven distribution of benefits flowing from trade between the peripheral countries and the central OECD ones.

There is a new trend that it's exploring the links between development and peace and underdevelopment and armed conflict. This kind of research drives to the concept of prevention of conflicts, that it's connected with the rules of International Law, economic development, democracy, and diplomacy. Prevention is also related to the extensive and new research already developing on post conflict rehabilitation.

A few universities provide what may be termed "pure" Peace Studies courses although the term Conflict Studies/ Resolution is sometimes used as an alternative or complementary nomenclature. This dichotomy is neatly illustrated by one British university where an MA in violence, cultural dimensions of violence, the cultural roots of violence, psychological and biological roots of violence, ethnic identity, peacebuilding, peace-making, peacekeeping and peace enforcement; while the former concentrates on the analysis of conflicts, methods of ending conflicts, ethnic conflicts in Europe, and peace processes in Northern Ireland, the Balkans and the Middle East. At another British university, the BA in Peace and Conflict Resolution covers much the same ground as the two British universities just cited, but includes a focus on the characteristics that predispose certain states to become involved in conflict, as well as some attention to UN peacekeeping doctrines.

Conclusion

To overcome what we see as an unnecessary and undesirable dichotomy between theoretical analysis and empirial knowledge, we recommend an expanding system of internships whereby students on

Peace Studies courses would carry out 4month internships with NGOs (for example) in "real life" situations, and vice versa: practitioners in the field would be encouraged to spend a "sabbatical" period reflecting on the broader theoretical implications of their fieldwork. (There is already some experience on the first direction). The exchange of researchers/students and interns from the University to non-academic Peace Studies centres could also very important.

At the moment there appears to be a lack of data exchange between centres of Peace Studies across the European Union. At a time when the EU is promoting the "information society" as part of a broader system of TransEuropean Networks (TENs), the discipline of Peace Studies, with its common concern for promoting harmonious relations between and within national societies, is a particularly appropiate focus for electronically interconnected databases so that experience of peacemaking in one part of Europe may benefit another part, and the risks of expensive duplication of research may be reduced.

We feel that there could be more interchange of scholars between different parts of Europe: for example, someone studying the Basque conflict in England, or someone studying northem Ireland but based in France, could benefit by short studyvisits to the regions concerned. Extending the same principle, we feel that European scholars from different member States researching the same nonEuropean topic (e.g. Sri Lanka of Central America) could, and perhaps should, be given greater opportunities to share their expertise and derive mutually beneficial insights by their cooperation.

A Directory of Peace Studies Covering in detail (a) individuals, (b) institutions, (c) courses, and (d) research projects across the EU (and associated states) would go a long way towards promoting common knowledge and a sense of European solidarity in an academic field that is by its nature interdisciplinary, international and multifaceted, and destined to play a key role in creating a harmonious society in the next century.

In view of 4.3 (above) we recommend that the Commission should respond favorably to the idea of a "consortium" of EU Universities/ Departments between whom student/faculty exchanges, curriculum development, and joint courses would be developed to the mutual benefit of all. An extension of such a "consortium" to US/Canadian universities would enrich such project.

We recommend that a similar flow of exchange between the academic and non-academic Peace Studies/research centres should be foster.

The links between European Peace Studies department/centres and non-European centres should be promoted in some crucial areas of interest of the EU (e.g. the Mediterranean region and APC countries under the Lomé Agreement).

A5
Thematic Study: Poverty and Development

Robert Reed
Odd Inge Steen

Introduction

The sub group "Poverty and Development" is one of five set up under the theme "Humanitarian Development Studies" which was set up to improve European assistance to humanitarian crises. Its main task was to improve the quality and quantity of educational support provided in Europe on the topics of poverty and development.

A group of academics gathered in London in December 1996. It was agreed that before any discussion of future activities could begin it was necessary to find out what was already happening in the sector. To that end it was also agreed that a questionnaire should be sent to all the institutions involved in the network to find out the current level of teaching and research activities. This report summarises the results of that survey and the conclusions that can be drawn from it.

Methodology

Definition

The scope of the concept of poverty and development has never been clearly defined. It has been interpreted in its broadest sense by the group to include all activities that could impact on the causes and solutions to poverty and the theory, history, purpose and methodologies for improving development in less developed countries of the world. Having this broad definition of the poverty and the scope of development study inevitably brings together disciplines such as social sciences (economics, anthropology, sociology, social history, human geography)

and other areas with diverse research interests and methodologies. All these disciplines (and a few more not mentioned here) have legitimate educational and research interest and the group was conscious to define the remit in such a broad term so as not to exclude them.

There are various definitions for poverty, going back to the 1960s when poverty was re-discovered in the Western affluent societies. The main question regarding the definition of poverty was then (as it is to some degree now) whether it was to be defined in absolute or relative terms. The next question was whether this "poverty in the midst of affluence" was comparable with that persistent in the less developed countries.

The linkage between poverty and development has also been subject to intensive research going back to the writings of classical economists such as Ricardo, Engels, Marx, Malthus, Mill …, to mention but a few. In recent times, in the Post War era, it was generally believed that material prosperity would "trickle down" to the lower income groups (i.e. the poor) as the GNP grows in the LDCs. Accordingly development policies were advocated to boost national income irrespective of their consequences for unequal distributions of income and wealth. It took some thirty years or so for the international development agencies to realise and admit that this had not been the case and in fact "economic growth can not assist the poor if it does not reach the poor" (Robert McNamara, the former president of the World Bank in late 1977, quoted in The Economist, 31st December 1997).

In the same interview the former president of the World Bank gives an implicit definition of poverty:

> "We are not talking here about an insignificant minority. We are talking about hundreds of millions of people. They are what I have termed the absolute poor: those trapped in conditions so limited by illiteracy, malnutrition, disease, high infant mortality and low life expectancy as to be denied the very potential of the genes with which they were born.
>
> Their basis human needs are simply not met. 1.2 billion do not have access to safe drinking water or to a public health facility. 700 million are seriously malnourished. 500 million are unable to read or write. 250 million living in urban areas do not have adequate shelter. Hundreds of millions are without sufficient employment.
>
> The truth is that in every developing country the poor are trapped in a set of circumstances that makes it virtually impossible for them either to contribute to the economic development of their nation or

> to share equitably in its benefits. They are condemned by their situation to remain largely outside the development process. It simply passes them by".

The linkage between poverty and development becomes clear. Poverty is about empowerment, or to be precise lack of empowerment. The poor are trapped and do not have the power to participate in social, political and economic life and realise their full human potential. This definition applies equally to the "mass poverty" of the people in the LDCs and the "insular poverty" of the poor in industrialised countries. "The cycle of disadvantage" is both cause and effect and the economic development as is conventionally defined is not going to break this cycle for the poor. Seen in this light it is important to see why a broad definition is necessary to bring together all those diverse disciples who have a legitimate concern.

Sample Size

The questionnaire was sent out to all the institutions participating in the Thematic Network requesting details of all their activities related to the topic. Thirty-one institutions replied. In addition 77 institutions outside the Thematic Network also submitted information.

Further synthesis

The replies covered a wide range of topics and levels. Some data was very detailed and some less so. To simplify analysis the replies were categorised under six headings. The first five relate to the institutions within the Network and the last to those outside:

—Undergraduate courses and modules;
—Postgraduate courses;
—Postgraduate modules;
—Research activities;
—Links with institutions in the developing world; and
—Institutions outside the Network

Even with such simplified categories it was not always easy to determine the type of activities that some institutions were carrying out.

Survey findings

Undergraduate courses and units

Five institutions are offering undergraduate courses of a general nature. They focus on geography, economics, development and international relations. Two of the courses have a regional bias (Japan and Latin America).

Specialist undergraduate units are offered by six institutions. They cover economics, geography and politics. Only three of the units have a regional bias (Africa and Latin America).

Postgraduate courses

Seventeen institutions are offering a wide range of postgraduate courses. Some are for the further training of academics but most are for advanced study for persons working or wishing to work in those fields. A few of the courses have a regional bias but most are general. Most courses are designed to improve a student's awareness and understanding of issues. Very few focus on developing specific practical vocational skills.

There are no courses on health and very few on technical, management and administration issues.

Postgraduate units

This was the largest part of the submission and the most difficult to summarise. A total of eighteen institutions provided information on fifty-five units. Some of the units were part of a development course, others were options on more general courses and others were stand alone courses. They cover a wide variety of topics and are of differing lengths. The shortest unit was ten hours long and the longest two hundred hours.

Research activities

Twenty-two institutions are involved in research in this sector. Between them they employ over three hundred researchers working on topics related to most parts of the world. A more accurate figure for research staff is not possible because some staff work on more than

one project and some institutions did not give information on staffing. The research cannot be categorised more accurately without further clarification of purpose for which it has been collected.

Institutional links

Only eight institutions provided information on institutional links. The links were mainly with institutions in Africa, Latin America, India and the EU. Links with institutions in eastern Europe and the former Soviet Union were noticeably absent. It is worth noting that one institution (University of Antwerp) is responsible for over half of the links recorded.

Institutions outside the Network

A number of institutions outside the Network were also surveyed and the results are summarised below.

Spain (10 institutions)	Focus on skill oriented studies including health and pharmacy.
Germany (20 institutions)	Focus on geography, agriculture, technology and development planning.
Italy (2 institutions)	Focus on cultural aspects of architecture and economic development.
France (4 institutions)	Focus on general economic development and development planning.
Austria (4 institutions)	Focus on geography, development economics and development planning.
Britain (37 institutions)	Focus on a wide range of topics from theoretical development economics to skills oriented studies.

Discussion

The results of the survey were presented to the sub-group in April 1998 and the following comments were made:

Different institutions have different interpretation of the poverty and development because of the complex and multi-disciplinary nature of the problem.

Few of the courses offered are directly related to poverty. It is not clear however whether this is possible. The study of poverty is so closely connected with the study of development issues it does not seem possible, within this context, to make a distinction between the two.

Most of the studies focus on rural problems, studies on urban poverty are almost absent.

Most of the courses are taught by traditional methods i.e. lecture dominated. Only a few institutions are experimenting with new forms of teaching. A few examples of part time studying and distance learning exist in Britain.

Data available from institutions outside the Network more or less coincides with the results from the data collected from inside the network.

Conclusions

A large number of European institutions are involved in teaching and research in poverty and development. However it is predominantly theoretical with less emphasis on applied skills. Much of the study relates to the causes of poverty and the theoretical principles involved in development.

The number of institutions with formal links with institutions in developing countries is small. These links need to be expanded if the goal of improving educational standards in developing countries is to be reached. The group was aware however of many informal links but this was not included in the questionnaire.

The survey did not show up areas in need of further research. This was because of the format of the questionnaire and replies rather than the fact that no further research is needed. An alternative approach to developing joint research activities needs to be developed.

Curriculum across Europe were noticeably similar using common text books and subjects.

B1
Country Report: Austria

Christopher Mülleder

Introduction

The structure of the humanitarian development sector: In Austria, an estimated 700-1000 NGOs of very different form and size are active in development co-operation, humanitarian aid, human rights work, migration and multiculturality. Only about 40 organisations (the bigger ones with interregional structures) receive direct funding from the government (10 of them receive 52 % of all public funding). Most of these NGOs, with the exception of those with church connections, are characterised by the low amount of private fundraising and their high rate of financial dependence on the government.

Responsibilities for ODA are spread among as many as 10 ministries. The Department of Development Co-operation (Ministry of Foreign Affairs) is responsible for the overall co-ordination of Austrian ODA and the administration of the bilateral technical aid budget for development projects and programmes. This budget is the main source of public funding for NGOs. In 1996, it accounted for 18 % (ATS 1.100 millions) of total ODA. Humanitarian issues are co-ordinated by the Federal Chancellery and there is practically no co-ordination between these two.

Total ODA of Austria in 1996 was 0,24 % of GNP (ATS 5.900 millions), compared to 0,33 % in 1995 (ATS 7.700 millions) and 1994 (ATS 7.500 millions). The Austrian ODA is characterised by the highest share of bilateral credits (1995: 24 %) of all DAC countries. In 1994 and 1995 only 16,6 % of Austrian ODA were spent in LDCs (DAC average: 29,1 %)

Austria does not have an executing agency for its bilateral projects. NGOs and private companies are the main actors in Austrian bilateral

technical aid: In 1996, 51 % (ATS 560 millions) of this budget was allocated to projects implemented by NGOs.

The interdependence between State and NGOs is related to the Austrian model of neocorporatism of the post-war era, in which all important groups of society are integrated in state decision-making, co-operating in order to achieve consensus and to avoid conflicts.

In this context, Austrian NGOs have played an important role in the conception of Austrian bilateral aid. Close formal and informal relations exist between the responsible departments in the ministries and the NGOs. For these reasons, until recently, the question of their lack of financial autonomy was hardly raised.

In 1992 the Department for Development Co-operation defined seven priorities and eleven co-operation countries for the Austrian bilateral aid in order to focus the scarce financial resources. The 7 priority countries which all have an Austrian Regional Office for the co-ordination of the public development co-operation are: Nicaragua, Burkina Faso, Cape Verde, Ethiopia, Uganda, Mozambique and Bhutan. Around 60 % of the respective budget (1996: ATS 650 millions) are spent in the priority (37 %) and co-operation countries (23 %). There is also a tendency to strengthen the direct relations between the Department for Development Co-operation and Southern NGOs through the regional offices by directly financing projects in the South without involving Austrian NGOs.

The NGO sector in Austria is multi-layered. It is mainly dominated by institutions that originate in the international commitment of the churches. Moreover there are independent relief organisations, and the fair trade sector with its shops all over the country. The local initiatives (self-taxation groups, culture- and human rights initiatives) are of great importance for the Austrian civil society. Finally, the activities of private companies are also part of the private development co-operation as long as they are implementing public developmental projects.

The officially reported contributions of private organisations account for ATS 531 millions in 1996, of which 65 % were spent by catholic organisations. The contributions of the huge number of very small local NGOs are mostly not recorded which means that the total of private flows in reality is much higher. Since the end of the 1980s there is a stagnation in the sector of the local initiatives with only one exception which is the fair trade (although the market-share of fair traded coffee in Austria is only 0,7 %). Another trend is the increasing activity of environmental organisations within the development co-operation. The dependency of fundraising and private donations has given rise to a

wider, more open and more professional information policy of Austrian NGOs which finds expression in a better media-coverage, more transparency in the annual reports and the use of new medium such as the Internet.

The main results and recommendations of the latest DAC-Review (1996) for Austria have been: necessity of the formulation of a strategic policy for all areas of development co-operation (not only the bilateral technical aid, which stands only for 15 % of the ODA) and the promotion of the parliamentary discussion on questions of development co-operation; all activities and planing instruments should be united under one single responsibility and ministry.; More than half of Austria's ODA is still consisting of components not primarily targeted on the development of the receiving countries (aid for refugees in Austria, indirect study costs in Austria, public export-loans); definition of clear regulations on the selection of project implementing partners and the competition between these; improvement of the role of NGOs, especially regarding their financial planing and control.

The education system: Out of the whole Austrian population of 7,8 million persons a total of 1,04 million (13,2 %) is involved in its school education and 0,22 million (2,8 %) are studying at the Austrian universities. Out of the adult population of 6,4 million (persons older than 15 years) 0,26 million (4 %) have a university degree (Master or PhD) and 0,63 million (9,8 %) a graduation diploma (A-level GCE). 2,7 million persons (41 %) have finished only compulsory school (9 years of school education) and 2,07 million (32 %) served an apprenticeship after the school education.

Employment: 3,9 million persons had a gainful employment in Austria in 1996, out of which 0,4 million (10 %) were self-employed. The total of persons employed in the sectors of public administration, health- and social services (whereof the explored areas are part) is 0,55 million.

Methodology

The questionnaire sent to the NGO-survey is presented in the appendix.

Source of data: The present survey is based on data from the direct surveys of organisations. Each organisation was sent a questionnaire (by mail) consisting of both quantitative and qualitative questions on organisational and training/educational data. The organisations were asked to cover all questions and to return also information about their

own training facilities and their publications. Those not responding were reminded twice with a separate letter or email.

Processing of data: The collected data were put in a small database (MS Access) with a similar structure of categories as the questionnaire itself allowing a professional utilisation and analysis. There is one set of data for each organisation contacted.

Organisations involved in the survey: The investigated sectors of the survey were humanitarian aid, development co-operation (poverty and development), human rights, environment(environmental organisations were involved because of their growing activities in the development co-operation), peace studies, migration/multiculturality/ethnic conflict. In total 64 organisations were contacted using the following filters for choosing this sample: a) In case of organisations with interregional structures only the headquarters were recorded; b) only the larger organisations with permanent employed staff and office infrastructure were contacted; c) both private and public organisations working in the surveyed sectors were registered; d) the entirety of organisations of which the sample was pulled is the database of the Austrian Research Foundation for Development Co-operation with all private and public institutions dealing with development, humanitarian, migrational, human rights and intercultural questions in Austria and the database of Christoph Mülleder of the Interdisciplinary Research Institute for Development Cooperation at the university of Linz containing a big number of Austrian humanitarian organisations.

Details about the sample: The total of 64 organisations surveyed is distributed as follows:

Category	Number
Church organisations	8
education & research institutions	8
international NGOs	6
GO/IGOs	23
regional NGOs	17
repres. of interest groups	2
Total	64

As in the cases of other countries covered by the survey, the humanitarian development studies provided by Austria universities were gathered using the Internet as Source of information.

Results

The NGO/IGO-sector

Returned questionnaires: Out of the 64 contacted organisation a total of 37 returned the questionnaire. This gives a participation rate of 57,8 %. All further analysis described here are based on the 37 participating organisations and all percentages used are taking these as a 100 %.

Distribution of participating organisations: This distribution is very similar to the distribution of all contacted organisation upon the organisational categories. 61 % are private NGOs mainly active in project-work, 14 % are private organisations with a very close relation to or dependence of the catholic church, 14 % are private organisations mainly active in education and research activities and 11 % are governmental (8 %) or semi-governmental (3 %) organisations. If we separate only private and non-private organisation there is a share of 89 % of private organisations and 11 % of non-private organisations.

Looking at the main fields of activity of the participating organisations, almost two third (59 %) are mainly working in the field of development co-operation (poverty and development). This big share illustrates the dominance of that sector which is historically explanable and expressed by the number of research and information activities, the public funding and the organisational degree of platforms and networks. The small share of the other sectors does not necessarily mean that there are no activities in these areas. Most developmental and humanitarian organisations are also covering these aspects but it's not their main activity (except for the environment-sector where only those organisations working in a developmental context were involved).

Participating organisations with no comments on skills training: In the questionnaire the organisations were asked to participate in the survey even if they don't have any own training facilities and no comments or needs regarding skills training. They only provided their organisational data (first general part of the questionnaire). 27 % of the participating organisations did not have anything to say about skills training. For those 27 % this thematic does not have any importance or priority for their work and they are content with the present training and education situation in Austria. Out of these 27 %, 80 % are mainly active in the field of development co-operation, 10 % in the humanitarian sector and 10 % in the environment sector.

Existence of training facilities and training department within the organisations: Out of all participating organisations a total of 51 % (19)

has its own training facilities. Only 22 % (8) dispose of a whole department responsible for staff training and education. The distribution based on the main fields of activity of the organisations is shown in the charts below.

Trained skills

The participating organisations with own training facilities were also asked for details about their training activities. In general the organisations offer short-term training courses for their own staff or (in the case of platforms and networks) their members. The duration of these short-term courses and seminars is between 1/2 a day and 2 weeks. The mostly covered subjects are:

- Basic education in the field of development policies
- Assessment and evaluation
- Preparatory courses for humanitarian and development missions including international coordination, security, sector-specific training, working in a multicultural context, logistics, technical skills
- Human rights education
- Media training, PR, communication, fundraising
- Use of new media, databases, Internet
- Project management, project administration (accounting, controlling)
- Management of NPOs
- Conflict management
- Intercultural learning, global learning, developmental pedagogics
- Medical training for medical doctors (tropical medicine, disaster medicine, public health)
- Motivation and leadership

The offer of long-term training possibilities is very limited. There are only 3 organisations offering courses from 1 month to 1 year. The Austrian Study Centre for Peace and Conflict Resolution (ASPR) has courses on peace building, mediation, human rights, post-conflict reconstruction and confidence building and offers a Masters program in peace and conflict studies. Südwind-Agentur offers a course for developmental politics consisting of several seminars over 2 years, project-work and an internship. The Austrian Development-Service (Österreichischer Entwicklungsdiens - ÖED) offers a 3 months preparatory training for its own development-workers sent abroad. World Vision Austria is planning to build up a one year course program for development cooperation. Details were not yet provided.

Major gaps in skills training perceived:

30 % of the participating organisations were answering this question. The gaps and therefor the needs seen by them are:

—Project management
—Organisational development
—Conflict management
—Staff recruitment and leadership
—Evaluation
—Human rights training (especially for teachers)
—General information and problems of developing countries

Expectations regarding university education:

35 % of the participating organisations were answering this question. University programs should consider the following contents and subjects:

—Management of NPOs (Business Administration)
—Evaluation
—Conflict management
—Information management
—Structure and construction of (international) organisations, networks.
—New trends in project work (empowerment, civil society, gender)
—Improvement of the practical education of students
—Experience-exchange-mechanisms between the universities and the NGOs
—Possibility for students to gain project experience abroad (model example: NADEL, ETH Zurich)
—Strategic development models
—Human rights issues
—Formation of generalists capable to consider all aspects of a project

The humanitarian development studies offered

The survey has shown that respective courses are offered by only 4 institutions in Austria two of them cooperating within the provision of a course. As humanitarian development studies are interdisciplinary by nature it is a surprise that within the courses offered an also within humanitarian-development-related subjects dominated by economics and geography (s. fig.).

The relatively modest weight of humanitarian development aspects in the education at Austrian universities can be derived from their status within the curricula: All development-related subjects are optional.

The assessment methods in humanitarian-development-related subjects, too, show their low importance within the courses: The students in

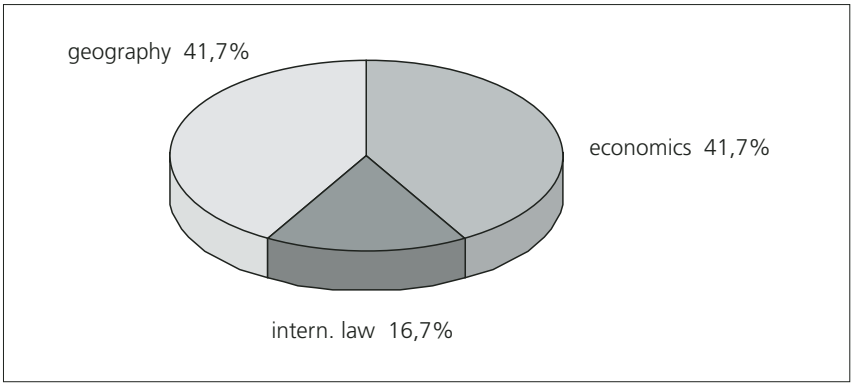


Figure B1.1
Disciplinary Orientation of Monodisciplinary Subjects

most cases (19 of 20) have to proof at the end of the semester the successful participation to the subjects by passing either an oral or a written examination. This examination does not count for the result of the final examinations but is a prerequisite to be accepted to pass the Diploma —or M.A.— examine at the end of the studies.

Concerning the teaching methods applied within the development-related subjects, the survey seems to show a quite innovative way of teaching (s. fig.).

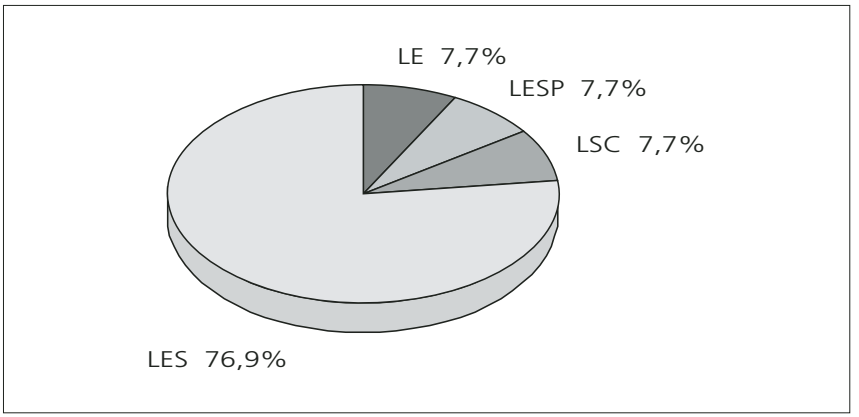


Figure B1.2
Teaching Methods Applied in Development-Related Subjects

The figure indicates that the participatory impact of the students is considerable: Less than 10 % nearly a quarter of the development-related subjects are trained by lectures which are only supplemented by exercises. It can be expected that this kind of university education contributes substantially to the students' practice orientation. Nerertherless with respect to seminars and colloquia it is hard to judge from outside in which way they are organised. They might posses characteristics of lecture but it is also possible that they are organised in a way comparable to project work. If the latter holds, then positive impacts on practical skills as well as on some of the above mentioned soft skills are to be expected.

Discussion and Conclusion

As we can see from the data and the analysis the offer of skills training possibilities in the areas surveyed in Austria is very limited, especially regarding qualified long-term training. There is a certain degree of coverage of specific skills of importance for the respective organisations which is normally offered only for the own staff but only few training programmes open for the public

In terms of general education and training programmes covering all subjects of importance for the sector and offering interdisciplinary approaches there is only the Austrian Study Centre for Peace and Conflict Resolution (ASPR) offering such courses for the field of peace building/conflict resolution.

For the time being there is no university course or study dealing explicitly with one of the other areas, especially the whole sector of development co-operation and humanitarian aid is practically not covered. The Interdisciplinary Research Institute for Development Co-operation at the university of Linz is an associate of the network on humanitarian assistance (NOHA) since May 98 and is preparing to offer the European Postgraduate Course on Humanitarian Assistance. NOHA is a 1 year multidiscilplinary postgraduate course for humanitarian assistance with 5 modules: IHL, geopolitics, medicine/epidemiology, management/logistics, ethnology/anthropology. Special emphasis will be layed in Linz on development co-operation and management for NPOs, areas that were also among the priorities for university education seen by the participating organisations.

One participating organisation —the Austrian Development Service (Österreichischer Entwicklungsdienst - ÖED)— was doing a survey among development organisations in Austria about their needs of training. This

survey was done in 1998 and should be the base for the development of training and education programmes of the ÖED. The results could have been interesting for the present document, but as yet no details were provided.

Training and education is one of the most important factors for an organisation for being able to develop and to cope with the challenges of its tasks. An institution or organisation responsible for collecting, managing and co-ordinating existing training and education possibilities in the areas surveyed, doing research on training needs on a regular basis, developing strategical concepts and engaging in publication and information work would be crucial in Austria and should be given priority in the future.

B2
Country Report: Belgium

Laurent Gatot
Jean-Marie Jacques

Introduction

The aim of this country report is to identify the characteristics of the supply and demand for training in humanitarian assistance management. These characteristics will be identified qualitatively at the level of the decision-makers, strategic-planners policy makers and field actors. Moreover, this study addresses the specificity of the Belgian development policy.

In this country report, we have treated under the heading of "Humanitarian Assistance Management" ("Gestion de l'Humanitaire", in French): development activities, conflict management, mediation, peace actions, as well as human rights and migrations.

Belgian system of development co-operation

Belgium has a long-standing experience in the area of development co-operation. Its system goes as far back as to the 1960's, that is the period just following the independence of many africans countries. Travelling upon its colonial past Belgium has acquired a sound knowledge of the difficulties faced by many developing countries.

Belgium gave as aid 937 million US$ in 1996, this was 0,35 % of GNP, the new target for Belgian aid is to attain as quick as possible 0,7 % of GNP. This target is the commitment of the heads of state at the world summit for social development (1994). Belgium has set an interim target of 0,5 % by 1999.

Table B2.1
Percentages of the aid spend in the different countries, which is in line with the previous figures. (Randel and German, 1997)

sub-Saharan Africa	53,2%
Africa North of Sahara	4,9%
Europe	1%
Far East Asia	14,4%
South Asia	4,1%
Middle East	2,9%
South America	15,7%
Central America	3,8%
TOTAL	100%

This aid is spend through bilateral co-operation (49,7 %), multilateral co-operation (29,8 %) and through EEC co-operation (20,5 %).

Table B2.2
Sectional distribution of the development assistance

Transport, communication and energy	4,3%
Water and sanitation	9,1%
Education and health	23,3%
Programme aid	2,5%
Debt relief	16,5%
Emergency relief and food aid	5%
Other	35%

GADC (General Administration of Development Co-operation) is the institution officially in charge of the Belgian development co-operation. It is part of the Ministry of foreign affairs, Trade and development co-operation and although is under direct authority of the Secretary of the State has an autonomous administration. The GADC activities are conducted through three channels: direct bilateral co-operations, indirect bilateral co-operations, and multilateral co-operations.

Direct bilateral co-operation is provided within clearly defined legal and judicial framework that determines the relationship between the Belgian authorities and the governments of developing countries. Multilateral co-operation is carried out through international institutions, through multilateral co-operation. Belgium participates, in programs

such as associate expert programs, and senior expert programs for projects. Through the associate expert programs, some organisations of the United Nations can recruit young specialists within the limit of the available budget. Since Belgian experts are entirely financed by the state funds. For the senior expert programs, some international organisations can recruit Belgian experts, the salaries and contracts are negotiated and fulfilled by the international organisation in questions and not by the Belgian government.

Currently, Belgium has established agreements with thirteen international organisations that take in associated experts: UNIFEM, UNIDO, UNDP, ILO, UNFAO, UNESCO, WHO, UNHCR, IFAD, WFP, UNICEF, UNEP, HABITAT. These associated experts programs concern young graduates. The range of activities for senior experts include sectors such as computer programming and analysing, economic estimates, natural resource (minerals, fuels, energy, hydraulics, transport, public works, etc.), demography, health, public administration, public finance, statistics. Generally, they are domains that require certain expertise and competencies, specific quality and experience.

Indirect bilateral co-operation is carried out through registered Belgian NGO's, universities and others institutions. NGOs are part of the indirect bilateral co-operation network. There are some 122-registered NGO with the competencies required by administration GADC. Generally self funded non registered NGO are involved in small projects that finance themselves via local partners. They send volunteers in the field, run awareness campaigns activities through information and training program in Belgium or in partner countries. There are two main NGO federation: AGOEV for the French speaking community and COPROGRAM for the Dutch speaking community. Those federations play an important role with respect of indirect bilateral co-operation. Most NGO's are part of one federation or of both at the same time. In addition to the existing NGO federations an advisory committee composed of representatives of the federations and independent experts has been set up. Its role is advising the secretary of state on issues related to new procedures.

Since October 1996, new strategies to revitalise the Belgian cooperation have been developed. To achieve this, a new vision of international cooperation has been defined, and objectives and strategies have been established. As far as the vision is concerned three main points have to be mentioned: strategic intent is to give a particular attention to human rights, democratisation and satisfactory management of the projects. Also to work out a true partnership with the developing countries, and finally fight poverty through combating duality.

As for the strategic objectives these are:

1) To reinforce the socio-economic foundation that is to ensure fair wealth distribution and make economic growth contribute to a sustainable human development;
2) To reinforce the societal basis that is to take or encourage peace initiatives wherever necessary, combat arm sales, provide emergency aid, take part in military intervention or contribute to peace building;
3) To carry out public awareness campaigns with the Belgian public that is to contribute to a positive change in attitudes vis-à-vis third world problems. (OMAR, 1998)

As for the strategy to achieve these objectives, it is principally based on the same key lines of the Belgian international co-operation policy, the geographic concentration, and the sector based concentration. Geographic concentration means a concentration on limited number of countries in order to reinforce the efficacy and impact of the funded projects. This concentration is also aimed at acquiring a better knowledge of partner countries and strengthening ties dies with them, as well as establishing a correlate relationship between the governmental co-operation on one hand and the effort made by other Belgian development actor on the others. The sector based concentration means working on a number of sector that in a direct way contribute to combat material poverty and prevent violence.

Sectors on which activities are concentrated are: health services, family planning, education and training, agriculture and food security, basic infrastructures, and society building. Of import here are also some cross-sector issues such as gender equality, environment protection and social economy. Belgium has also worked out new co-operation models aimed at optimising the result. Likewise, the General Administration of Development Co-operation (GADC) has put in place a rehabilitation plan for the governmental co-operation in order to reduce the complexity of working methods. One of the main points of this plan concerns the special assistance programme for Sub-Saharan Africa. The plan includes also an aid for the balance of payments, the compensation funds. This is made possible through a monetary policy plan and a development instrument known as *soft-loans* through the international development association, IDA. Other instruments used for international co-operation consist of a debt relief programme and the granting of micro-credits.

Belgium has established new co-operation models based on an active partnership with multilateral agencies. This partnership is achieved through financial contributions to the general funds of international

organisations, through the participation in the funding of projects carried out by international organisations, or through contribution to trust funds aimed at financing special programmes. It can also be achieved through contributions in kind or common financing.

Belgium puts an emphasis on international co-operation via other actors. This is particularly done through making Belgian indirect actors aware of their responsibilities, increasing their autonomy and responsibilities. Belgium resorts also to subcontracting indirect actors such as NGOs, universities, scientific institutions and ASBL (Non-profit making associations). This type of partnership is realised through framework agreements and annual plans of action. Some framework agreements have been already established. They include the framework agreement with the association for the promotion of education and formation abroad (APEFE), the agreement with the Vlaamse Vereniging voor Ontwikeling samenwerking and technische Bijstand (VVOB), as well as with the CIUF (in the French speaking community) and the VLIR (in the Flemish community) federations concerning co-operation with universities. A new regulation concerning ASBL which organise, and runs training and internship programmes will include provisions for a better ASBL awareness of their responsibilities as regards the management of their training programmes. Finally, a new relation between the State-authorities and the NGOs was re-defined by a Royal Decree in 1997.

The university galaxy in Belgium

From the 1970s onwards, the Belgian State has been federating itself progressively to the extent that in 1989, it had become a three region-federated state. As regards cultural matters of which education is a part, one should note another cutting up in three communities each of which with its government, its parliament and its ministry for education in full charge of the education system. Bodson and Berleur (1998) provide an exhaustive panorama of the higher education in the French-speaking community, whilst the Report OESO (1996) offers an overall picture of the education system in the Flemish community.

Education system in the French-speaking community

Higher education in the French-speaking community is ensured by the universities concerned with the decree regulating graduate studies and academic degrees. High schools and graduate institutes are

regulated by the decree of 5 August 1995 that establishes the general organisation of high education of high schools and graduate institutes for Art Education of which are parts schools of architecture. The French-speaking community contains 9 universities and 30 high schools.

With regards to the universities, 3 constitute the network of which the organisational authority is the French-Speaking Community. These are the University of Liège, University of Mons-Hainaut and the Faculty of Agronomic Sciences of Gembloux. There are also four Catholic free universities that depend upon four different organisational authorities: the Catholic University of Louvain, the University of Namur (Facultes Universitaires Notre Dame de la Paix), the Saint-Louis Graduate Faculties in Brussels and the Graduate Catholic Faculties of Mons. Moreover, there is a free and non-sectarian institution based on the free choice philosophy (*philosophie du libre examen*): the Free University of Brussels (Université Libre de Bruxelles, ULB); and another free and nondenominational institution and which isn't based on any particular philosophy: the Polytechnics Faculty of Mons.

Education system in the Flemish community

Higher education system in the Flemish community is structured like in the French speaking community; that is around universities and graduate institutes. The Flemish community has 8 universities: the Katholieke Universiteit Brussel, the Katholieke Unviersiteit Leuven, the Rijks Universiteit Centrum Antwerpen, Unversiteit Instelling Antwerpen and the Universitaire Faculteiten Sint-Ignatius Antwerpen, the Limburg Universiteit centrum, as well as the Vrij universiteit Brussel, the Rijk Univeriteit Gent. (Collective, Aandacht voor Kwalitat (1998)). Like in the French speaking community, there exist a graduate training provided by high schools.

In Belgium, graduate studies are structured around three academic grades: The first and second academic cycles constitute the main body studies, while the third leads to special studies degrees (DES), or advanced studies degrees (DEA), or to doctoral degrees, as well as to the agrégation to higher education. Universities also offer study programmes leading to complementary studies degrees of the first and second academic cycles, together with degrees for secondary or high school qualified teachers (agrégés).

Furthermore, graduate studies are organised on the basis of study sectors that are in turn determined by a decree. There are in total 22 study domains both in the French and in the Flemish communities. In

the French-speaking community, the competence of each university to run graduate programmes and issue corresponding degrees are also determined on the basis of these study fields.

The Survey

Methodology

On the whole, the methodology used for this study is a qualitative one.

Methodology for the map of knowledge.

The evaluation of what is offered by the universities has been realised through a questionnaire (we have used the questionnaire of the Thematic Network). The questionnaire have been administred to different Faculties, research centres and education and research units identified by means of the directories of the Research National Fund (Fonds National de Recherche Scientifique, FNRS), different universities programmes as well as through websites of Belgian universities (

Interviews by phone have been also used for a certain number of universities. The sample here is made of two groups of universities. The first concerns universities that form part of the HumanitarianNet network, whilst the second is made of universities non-members of this network. The questionnaire used for the HumanitarianNet network universities is the one proposed by the University of Deusto. For the rest, a simplified questionnaire has been used.

Methodology used to evaluate the demand (in skills).

In order to evaluate the demand (OECD, 1996 and UNESCO, 1994) a questionnaire was post-mailed to 281 Belgian NGOs all of which identified through the directories. The questionnaire was aimed at identifying the demand of the NGOs in qualitative terms (the quantitative estimation of the demand is in our minds less relevant). We have also realised three extensive interviews the content of which was analysed (content analysis). Moreover, the analysis is based upon the ReCCCoM's experience in participating in actions in the field and/or in carrying out interventions.

Results

Map of knowledge

In both the French-speaking community and the Flemish one, most universities offer training programmes or development-related courses. In some cases, the training is complete, for other it is stand alone. Complete programmes come under the auspices of different faculties: economics, social sciences, management, political sciences, law, natural sciences, agronomic sciences, medicine, engineering. These complete programmes are run on either the second academic cycle at the postgraduate level. As regards stand alone courses related to development issues, they do not constitute a training as such. However, there exists a certain number of courses or subjects which, considered alone, deal with humanitarian assistance-related issues. These training programmes and courses are in general for skills-building, indeed know-how building. The contents are in general theoretical and do require the participant to make an effort to adapt them to particular conditions. It should however be noted that some courses or programmes require the student to do individual work and/or group work provide an opportunity for the participants to create context and contingent approaches. Some universities or faculties have research centres where the student can improve certain subjects or practice in a particular thematic context. Furthermore, some universities or faculties provide for field internships abroad.

Skills, Results

—The rate of response has been of 65 responses out of 280 mails in total, with 34 undelivered mails; that is a 23 % or 26 % response rate if one takes into account the undelivered mails. A re-mailing was done. The sample includes a large number of NGOs, from the smallest one made of 2 persons to the biggest one with more than 450 persons. This has allowed to obtain a very large spectrum of information and answers. Some responded straightaway to the letter, others sent us extensive information (leaflets,…)

—In general, one can observe that there is a confusion between training and education among most NGOs. Most of the medium and large size NGOs have in a certain way access to internal training/education (training mostly technically oriented). The small ones have not those facilities. Most of the NGOs have internal training programmes for

initiations to the philosophy and values of the organisation. For many, too, the term: aid or humanitarian aid management encompasses a series of activities the limit of which is often blurred. A confusion between emergency and development is also often noticeable.

—In a classical way, we observe the training/education that are needed by NGOs can be classified into four categories:

1) training/education regarding the management of the organisation (general management, accounting, human resource, …);
2) training/education regarding how to implant and execute the Humanitarian Assistance.
3) training/education regarding communication, negotiation, conflicts, resolution, mediation,
4) training/education program for specific technical aspect such as agriculture engineering.

We think that the challenge in the future of the need for education and training and for the design of new education program will be related to the definition of savoi-être (know how to connect and optimise one's potential, skills and beliefs) in relation to savoi-fair and knowledge (be able to discern, harmonise, manage, listen, communicate, chose) in order to be able to provide services of quality, efficiency; services that are professional, harmonious and balanced, in concrete situations.

Analysis and discussion

This analysis has been carried out using data gathered from different sources of evidence (mailed questionnaires, interviews, advertising materials, etc.). The analysis of extensive interviews allows us, through a cognitive cartography, to identify local differences between different actors.

On the basis of the sample analysed, which is not necessarily representative, we have realised a typology of the demand. Though any typology is inevitably reductionist, it allows us to take decisions and establish needs.

Through the analysis of the responses to the questionnaires, extensive interviews, the leaflets received, and by complementing and comparing them to the field experience of the ReCCoM, we can build up a needs continuum. From expressed needs for concrete skills (technical engineering, accountancy, medicine and health services, agriculture), one moves to needs that are more and more imprecise

(general management, project management, communication) and that are reflected through the demand for know-how vis-à-vis others, as well as vis-à-vis oneself (human resources, conflict resolution, mediation, negotiation), before identifying some NGOs with a precise and concrete demand for *know-being* (savoir-être). (How to behave and which meaning to give to their action). Some NGOs also express their need for a follow-up or intervention when their members have to face difficult situations (psycho-social follow-up …).

Given the large variety of NGOs represented in the sample, a great amount of these different skills come over and over throughout; we have classified them within a matrix in order to render them more easily spotted. This should help make an ex-post classification of different NGOs.

On the one side, one notices a demand for training on the individual level which is clearly expressed, and to which is opposed, but in a complementary way, to demand for collective skills. This does not means that these classifications are opposed.

The other classification axe allows to spot a demand which is expressed through operational skills on the one side of the axe, and through conceptual ones, on the other side.

If we consider the two axes, we could qualify individual skills as expertise skills and the collective skills as partnership skills. Operational skills could be qualified as skills that can provide a specific expertise, and conceptual ones as skills that can provide a general common sense.*

One should consider this typology as an instrument for identifying the demand, that is skills. In fact, often NGOs with a great expertise skills component are in search for a conceptual skills component that can help them to integrate the partnership collective skills dimension.

Likewise, some NGOs with strong partnership collective skills components look for expertise components through operational competence. Of course this is a typology and all types of interactions are possible between the two variables. One notes that the final demand of NGOs is an adequate combination between these 4 elements. The same is noticeable at the discursive level or through the metaphors used during the interviews to qualify competence in general.

---

* So that the meaning is not lost in translation, we provide the French equivalent of this sentence: Les savoirs opérationnels comme des savoirs qui peuvent donner un sens, et les savoirs conceptuals comme des savoirs qui peuvent donner du sens.

Conclusions

To conclude, one can assert that the management of humanitarian assistance in terms of profession requires cross-disciplinary training; skills that are needed and spotted by NGOs, on the basis of the above typology analysis, represent the characteristics of polyvalence, adaptability, evolution that determine employment in the humanitarian field. The question remains as to in which way one should respond simultaneously to very specific demands from different branches of the humanitarian management and to the specificity of each NGO. The question remains as how immediate technical "operationality", professional potential and provision of meaning can be reconciled. It is on this level that the dilemma between a selective specialisation and a rather larger orientation towards multi or pluri-competence sharpens.

One can partially answer by saying that if training programs are to meet specific needs of the professional sector, they have to allow to adapt to local situations in terms of NGOs (favour mobility in the profession and between different actors); they should avoid at the same time a too narrow, fragmented specialisation on the one hand, and a too large, an excessively cross-disciplinary definition, on the other, that could otherwise make professional practice less likely. Training programs have to provide common competence on the basis of situation analysis and taking into account the main evolution trends.

Universities in general provide training programs of an individual nature and often related to skills that can be classified as being between conceptual skills (in the faculties of humanities: economics, management, psychology anthropology, law, …) and operational skills (in the faculties of sciences or applied sciences: engineering, medicine, pharmacology, agronomy, computer sciences,…). On their side, high schools provide an individual training that is essentially related to operational skills. This seems to be strikingly lacking in graduate institutes, which are combinations of teaching collective behaviour on the operational skills level, but also and mainly on the level of conceptual skills.

B3
Country Report: Denmark

Ulla Sperber

Introduction

Denmark is giving increasing financial support to humanitarian assistance and the "grey zone" between emergency relief and development, often in war or post-war situations or in relation to natural disasters. The present paper aims at exploring this new emphasis in Danish development aid policy and other important trends, such as the increasingly central role played by the NGOs in Danish development assistance, as seen on the background of overall Danish development aid policies. Secondly, the education and research carried out in Danish universities which is of relevance for humanitarian assistance is assessed. Education and research on development- and humanitarian assistance in Denmark has been influenced by a number of issues. On a more general level it is possible to argue, however, that its volume and priorities closely reflects both the broad popular support given to development assistance in Denmark and the priorities of the aid sector. Another important factor is the high priority given to international political- and humanitarian crises in the political arena. At the same time, it is a sector characterized by an increasing professionalization which has lead to a demand for specific skills in terms of employment. The third aim, therefore, is to assess the gaps in terms of skills in general university education as identified by Danish NGOs and the types of training carried out by NGOs in order to equip their staff to work in humanitarian assistance and complex emergencies are examined.

Danish Development Assistance (ODA)

Danish development aid policy has since it's initiation in the early sixties been characterized by it's broad political and popular constituency. Thus, despite the considerable political and public debates, there has

been an overall consensus nationally over Danish development aid policy for the past 30 years, and its strong poverty orientation. By and large, Danish Development Aid policy can be seen as an extension of Danish welfare values to the international scene, since it relies heavily on an element of income transfer and redistribution between rich and poor countries (Svendsen 1989, Rye Olsen 1997). It should also be noted that for a small country like Denmark, the provision of both bi- and multi-lateral development assistance is a way of getting international recognition and obtaining influence on policies. In 1992, Denmark reached the UN target of allocating 1 % of GNP for development aid totaling close to 10 billion DKK. Half of the ODA is channeled through multilateral organisations within the UN and the EU. The other half is administered by Danida, an internal department of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. A large proportion of Danida's bilateral assistance is carried out via either consultancy firms or NGOs. In 1993, following the Rio-declaration, it was decided that an additional _ % of GNP (5 billion DKK) should be allocated in a separate appropriation for environment and emergency relief; the MIKA framework (the Environment and Disaster Fund), half of which is allocated to emergency relief following natural disasters and prevention, a goal to be reached in year 2000. A small proportion of this comes from Danida funding (Danida and DANCED 1996). Apart from the general poverty orientation; gender equality, sustainable environmental management and the promotion of democracy and human rights are areas of specific concern for Danida (Danida 1994).

Danish Humanitarian Assistance

Humanitarian assistance forms an increasingly important role in Danish Development Aid policy. This trend is closely tied to the rapidly growing international involvement in emergency- and humanitarian assistance, especially following the war in Former Yugoslavia and the new role played by the "international community" in the Gulf War, since Danish policy changes have followed international priorities and appeals for assistance closely. It also reflects the general recognition that emergencies appear with increasing frequency. This development can be seen both from the increased allocation of funds for emergency- and humanitarian assistance and from the increase in the number of Danish NGOs involved in Humanitarian Assistance internationally in the past decade (Stepputat 1994). Thus, the proportion of the Official Development Assistance (ODA) allocated for Humanitarian Assistance

has more than doubled from 1990 (469 million DKK) to 1996 (1030 million DKK) (Danida 1996b).

Humanitarian Assistance was mentioned explicitly for the first time in the Danida Action Plan in 1994; "Strategy 2000", which stresses a variety of policy issues to be taken into consideration for the planning of all future Danish development assistance. Danida is, however, not involved in the direct implementation of humanitarian assistance. Roughly half of the ODA allocated for Humanitarian Assistance is channeled through international humanitarian relief efforts which are seen as an important part of the multilateral assistance. The other half is channeled through various NGOs.

The strengthening of the humanitarian sector has also meant that emergency- and humanitarian assistance has become better integrated into the overall development effort since it has made possible a more long-term involvement as opposed to that of previous decades. The stated policy of Danida in "Strategy 2000", thus, is that apart from the alleviation of the most immediate needs, efforts should also be made to prevent emergency situations and to safeguard the relationship between short-term relief and long-term development assistance. In this respect, it is stressed that "sustainable improvements" must be looked for, when dealing with emergency and humanitarian assistance (Danida 1994a). The aim is, apart from the alleviation of the most immediate needs, to assist more long term needs of crisis ridden societies, strengthen local capacity building and decrease vulnerability in the long term.

This increased involvement in the "grey zone" is articulated in areas such as the growing support to the repatriation efforts for refugees and their relocation, rehabilitation and reconstruction efforts in post-war societies, and the clearing of land-mines, as well as in areas that borders humanitarian assistance such as the promotion of human rights, democracy and good governance activities, and the support for sustainable environmental management which is seen as lessening the vulnerability to natural disasters. This can be seen from the fact that financial assistance to humanitarian assistance comes not only from Danida's Emergency Appropriation, MIKA and the emergency appropriation vested with the Danish Embassies, but also from the Apartheid Appropriation, the Appropriation for Transitional Assistance and the Democracy Appropriation. That such policy concerns can not always be seen in isolation from national political concerns is indicated by the recent attempt on behalf of the government to link post-war reconstruction and rehabilitation efforts in Somalia with the repatriation of 10.000 Somali refugees from Denmark, reflecting that

refugees and migrants have become a top-priority political issue in Denmark.

The Appropriation for "Transitional Assistance" was introduced in 1989 as a flexible supplement to humanitarian —and development efforts assisted by Danida and is destined for the countries not included in the frame-work of long-term development programme cooperation— Danida's programme countries. The context would typically be areas such as: post-war rehabilitation and reconstruction, rehabilitation following natural disasters, the promotion of democracy and human rights, transition from centrally planned —to market economy, or countries going from a colonial situation to independence (Danida 1989, 1994a,b, 1996-97) A large proportion of this has been given to Central- and Eastern European countries and Central Asia, new priority areas for Danida. By the end of 1995, a total of 2.185 million had been pledged as transitional assistance, rising from a proportion of Danida's bilateral assistance of 1,7 % in 1990 to 8,1 % in 1995. In 1990, a special Democracy Fund was established and in 1995 a specific Democracy Package had been developed and given a specific appropriation. Democracy, human rights and good governance remain cross-cutting concerns in Danida strategies for development assistance.

In 1995, an International Humanitarian Service (IHB) was established in cooperation with partner NGOs, the police force and the army following the South African elections in 1994, which consists of a roster of Danish experts and observers. The aim of IHB is to contribute to international efforts that seek to prevent conflict and secure peace and stability through by the provision of Danish staff to work in the civilian part of international humanitarian-, conflict preventing- and peace-keeping assignments. These may be bilateral —as well as internationally coordinated assignments through the UN, EU, OSCE and other bodies such as NGOs.

It is possible to conclude that the increasing priory given to humanitarian assistance has followed international appeals and priorities closely, a trend that is likely to continue.

Danish NGOs and Humanitarian Assistance

Denmark has about 280 civil associations dealing with Third World issues (Mellemfolkeligt Samvirke 1997) but only less than 100 of these are NGOs directly involved in aid and development activities. The largest of these include the Danish Refugee Council (a consortium cooperation with 23 member associations), Danish Red Cross, Dan

Church Aid, the Danish Association for Development Co-operation (MS), CARE-Denmark, MSF-Denmark, Ibis, Save the Children-Denmark, Caritas-Denmark, the Adventist Development and Relief Agency (ADRA)-Denmark, and AFS-Danish People's Aid. No figures exist indicating the total number of employees of Danish GOs, NGOs and consultancy firms or the total financial share in development assistance or aid originating from Denmark.

The NGOs have played an important role in acting as lobbyists vis-à-vis Danida. In particular since the 80s, the NGOs have been successful in attracting an ever growing share of official aid funds, up from 7 % in 1988 to 15,4 % in 1995 of the bilateral assistance. This is still lower than in other Nordic countries and it is likely to continue to grow. This may be seen as reflecting the international concern to find alternatives to conventional aid channels. At the same time, the mere existence of these NGOs is a reflection of a long Danish tradition for involvement in associations (Rye Olsen 1997). In 1995, the total ODA channelled through NGOs (both bilateral and multilateral) was 1.105 million DKK out of which more than one third had been allocated for humanitarian assistance. It is the view of Danida, that NGOs have a specific strength in providing humanitarian assistance and in assisting societies in transition (including post-war reconstruction), human rights, democratization and the alleviation of adverse effects of economic reforms due to their grass roots foundation (Danida 1994).

Danish development- and humanitarian NGOs are funded from a variety of sources and to a varying extent by private members, though a minimum of 7 % of the overhead for their activities has to be funded through membership-fees and private donations. Apart from Danida, other major funders are international organisations such as ECHO and the UNHCR. The increasing role of the NGOs in both development- and emergency assistance has lead to a closer partnership between Danida and the NGOs and the development of common strategies. In 1991, a multi-annual framework agreement was established between Danida and five of the largest NGOs ensuring them a financial framework that would facilitate their planning and a "Strategy for Danida's cooperation with Danish NGOs" was elaborated (Danida 1993). Apart from this Danida funds a large number of individual projects. In 1994, this strategy was made more operational with the establishment of a set of "Guidelines for Private Danish Organisations (NGOs) Concerning Support to Development Projects" (Danida 1994). This has meant the streamlining of the approval process, a consolidation of NGO activities and the strengthening of the dialogue between Danida and the NGOs with regard to policy considerations.

In 1994, furthermore, a Humanitarian Contact Group was established under the leadership of the Danish Ministry of Foreign Affairs, which has representatives from both Danish NGOs and relevant ministries. The aim of this initiative is to strengthen the possibilities of an effective Danish coordination and strengthen the cooperation between public authorities and private organisations, opening up for the possibility of lifting larger assignments nationally through the establishment of consortium-cooperation with Danish Humanitarian NGOs. It is hoped that one of the long term benefits of the establishment of the contact group will be the strengthening of the cooperation between these organisations in emergency situations, but also more long-term goals, such as an increasing emphasis on local NGO capacity building and "empowerment" and the integration of humanitarian assistance into more long-term development aid. The need for this emphasis was reiterated in the 1996 Danida funded evaluation of the humanitarian assistance that has been given in connection with the Rwandan tragedy, which concerned the assistance provided by 37 countries plus bilateral, multilateral and private organisations (Danida 1996a). Moreover, a major Danida evaluation of Danish Humanitarian Assistance is on its way.

The growing prioritization of the NGOs in international humanitarian- and development assistance has meant an institutional consolidation of the NGOs. This has, on behalf of the NGOs, made possible an increasing involvement in the "grey zone" between relief and development, more long-term commitments, and a growing stress on local capacity building and co-operation with local partner NGOs. The success of the NGOs in attracting a larger share of the ODA has meant that several NGOs are less involved with humanitarian assistance at a national level for the benefit of an increasing international involvement (most notedly the Danish Refugee Council and some smaller NGOs). Also, some of the larger international NGOs have more recently established country offices in Denmark in competition for donor support (such as CARE-Denmark and MSF-Denmark).

The NGOs receiving the largest funding from Danida for humanitarian assistance specifically are Dan Church Aid and Danish Red Cross. Another major actor is the Danish Refugee Council, which also receives a large proportion of its funding for international activities from UN organisations and ECHO. A discussion of some of the policy changes in these large organisations will reveal wider trends in the NGO sector.

Dan Church Aid works as a part of the Lutheran World Federation, the World Council of Churches and Action by Churches Together; with bilateral secular and church related local partner associations. It is one

of the largest humanitarian NGOs in Denmark, with an involvement in more than 80 countries world wide. Depending on the situation, the organisation provides long term development assistance, emergency relief, assistance to internally displaced persons, repatriation of refugees, post-war rehabilitation and transitional assistance, advocacy, technical aid or material aid. Five sector focus areas have been selected: human rights, food security, support for civil society organizations, primary health and primary education. Dan Church Aid works at a grass roots level and aims at assisting the poorest of the poor. An important trend in the organisation is the increasing stress on local capacity building by working through local partner associations whenever possible —more than 150 partner organisations exist in 40 countries.

Danish Red Cross as other National Red Cross or Red Crescent Societies are primarily involved in emergency relief in relation to natural disasters. Danish Red Cross also runs a number of bilateral programs within the areas of health, disaster prevention and psycho-social work. It also has a Red Cross Delegate Section, which was established in 1982 and consists of a roster of qualified Danish delegates which can be seconded to the ICRC on a short notice for humanitarian assistance in emergency situations following conflict situations and natural disasters. ICRC coordinates larger relief operations at the international levels and also has a mandate to carry out relief operations in situations of war and to assist refugees outside areas of conflict, acting as an implementing partner for the UNHCR. Danish Red Cross has in recent years had a growing international involvement in Humanitarian Issues. As with Dan Church Aid, Danish Red Cross emphasises the need for local capacity building and the hiring of local staff such as doctors and nurses whenever possible.

A third major actor in humanitarian assistance is the **Danish Refugee Council**, a humanitarian association consisting of 23 member organisations. It is the major Danish implementing partner of the UNHCR. In interesting ways, the institutional changes undergone by the Danish Refugee Council in recent years reflects some of the more general policy changes and trends in humanitarian assistance at a national level. The Danish Refugee Council was established in 1956 following the arrival of 1800 Hungarian refugees and in the years to come, it became the major organisation dealing with the reception and integration of refugees in Denmark for the government, with a budget that came close to 2 billion DKK in the mid-90s. In 1997, this task was handed over to the Danish district councils (communes) and the Danish Refugee Council was granted a consultancy role. Since the end of the 80s, the Refugee Council has had an increasing international

involvement, such as in the implementation of projects in, or in close vicinity to, the refugees countries of origin and in repatriation efforts, including the support of processes such as repatriation and reintegration, rehabilitation and reconstruction, income generation, infrastructure, democratization, human rights and mine clearing. It is active in more than 20 countries. In this regard, the Danish Refugee Council has followed policy developments both nationally and within the UNHCR closely —more specifically the shift in the emphasis on the resettlement of refugees in exile to an emphasis on the repatriation of refugees. The major funding institutions are Danida, UNHCR and ECHO. When requested to implement a project, the project will first be offered to member organisations and only if these will not implement the project, the Danish Refugee Council will implement the project itself. The Danish Refugee Council also has a roster of qualified Danish delegates which can be seconded to the UNHCR and other international organisations on short notice in emergency situations (telecommunications, protection officers, repatriation officers, field officers, shelter- and logistics experts from a variety of disciplines), typically for a period of 3 to 9 months. This was established in 1991 on the request of the UNHCR following the Gulf War. The Danish Refugee Council is, through agreement with the UNHCR, responsible for the recruitment, briefing and debriefing of staff seconded for UNHCR and other international organisations.

Danish NGOs have in several cases worked together in the formation of larger humanitarian programmes, such as "Danish De-mining Group' (AFS-Danish Peoples Aid, Caritas Denmark and the Danish Refugee Council), "Danish Committee for Aid to Afghan Refugees" (AFS-Danish Peoples Aid, Caritas Denmark, the Danish Association for Development Co-operation, and the Danish Refugee Council), and "The Angola Committee".

To conclude, some of the general trends identified are the increasing proportion of development- and humanitarian assistance given through NGOs, a decreasing national- and a growing international involvement of the NGOs, the increasing professionalisation of the NGOs and a growing trend towards local capacity building and the hiring of local staff.

The Danish Education System

The Danish system of higher education is characterized by a strict division between the more vocational education of for instance the

polytechnics, business schools and art academies, and the research oriented universities. Denmark has a total of 5 universities, one agricultural university and one research university. University admission is completely based on merit, i.e. the average of marks obtained from high school. It is for many subjects increasingly competitive. Inter-disciplinary degrees are relatively few. The studies for BA and MA degrees normally remain within a single subject only, the main exception being students wishing to become high-school teachers. Roskilde University (RUC) and Aalborg University are the only universities with a more interdisciplinary approach to education and with 2 year MA programmes.

Education is free in Denmark and all students are entitled to a student grant and a loan for the 5 years it takes to complete a degree. For PhD students, courses and tuition can be "bought" from a number of universities in Denmark from a financial allotment in the grant. For this reason, some PhD courses are "priced". There is, however, no general fee system for education in Denmark.

An important country specific element is the high priority given to Third World- and International issues within virtually all Danish university disciplines. This can be seen as resulting from the large popular and political interest in development- and humanitarian issues and the relatively high number of positions in the development and humanitarian sector in Denmark. Therefore, many disciplines offer the possibility of specialization in Third World- and development issues from that particular disciplinary perspective. The MA thesis, rather than course work, is the time where the student possibly specializes in Third World issues.

There is a strong mutual influence between research and education in development- and humanitarian issues on the one hand and priorities in the aid sector. Danida funds a large proportion of Danish development research (including the Centre for Development Research), PhD scholarships on development issues, and travelling grants for students.

Another important factor is that most disciplines also encourage the students to do internships within national or international institutions and NGOs or a fieldwork period as part of the MA programme, in order to facilitate contact with the employment market, the gaining of Third World experience and to make possible some experience in work-related fields. Many students establish contact with relevant sector research institutions in Denmark when writing their MA dissertations and some of these offer student placements which are seen as highly qualifying for later employment.

Methodology

Definitions and Terminology

To make clear the general arguments put forward in this paper, some general definitions of concepts are in place.

A practical distinction between development assistance and humanitarian assistance has been attempted in this article. While in reality the distinction between these is often blurred, it has been made for analytical reasons to make more clear some general trends and developments. I have attempted to follow the distinctions as they have been articulated in relevant policy papers. The aim was to make clear the following trends:

- —There is a growing emphasis on humanitarian assistance as a distinct site of development intervention in the Danish aid sector, reflecting to a large extent shifting international concerns.
- —There is a growing involvement in the "grey zone" between humanitarian assistance and long-term development, resulting in the emergence of new areas of policy concern such as resettlement and rehabilitation, democratization, human rights, transitional assistance, psycho-social projects and security.
- —The employment structure is slightly different between the two given the often short-term assignments in humanitarian assistance, a field which is seen as in many cases demanding specific skills that Danida and the NGOs see as somewhat distinct from those needed for work in development.

The structure of the NGO sector largely reflects that of other European countries. A country specific element in Denmark, however, is the growing share allotted to NGOs of the total ODA though it is yet to equal that of other Nordic countries. One major characteristic of Danish NGOs is that a major proportion of their funding for development- and humanitarian assistance comes from the Danish government and Multi-national organisations, these may fund up to 93 % of the total funding for the NGOs and in many cases do. There has, therefore, been a growing co-operation and integration of activities between NGOs and Danida in recent years.

In terms of education, one difference between Denmark and some other European countries is the general stress on education (BA and MA) within a single discipline. There are few shorter MA and diploma degrees, though relevant courses such as development studies, immigrants studies and minority studies are among these. This has

made it difficult to chart the units offered, because in most cases they are offered only once to give the students a broad choice of units in the 2-3 years of specialisation.

100 ECU equals 752,70 DKK (Danish Kroner).

Methodological Issues

The data on Danida and the NGOs used in this article has been collected mainly through policy papers, and through interviews in person or by phone with all the major humanitarian NGOs and Danida. The interviews covered both the questions provided in the HumanitarianNe questionnaire and more general trends and developments in the humanitarian sector, skills and qualifications emphasised in staff employment and specific training given in relation to humanitarian assistance which may cover gaps in the education offered by the universities. I was for time reasons unable to carry out a larger written questionnaire survey, and I collected material mainly from the largest NGOs, focusing specifically on those dealing with humanitarian assistance. Unfortunately, important statistical data on the total number of Danish people employed in development, the size of the contribution by Danish NGOs in development and humanitarian assistance, etc., was not available.

For the five Universities and the agricultural university, all units offered of topics of direct relevance for poverty and development, humanitarian aid, human rights, peace studies and migration and multi-culturality as well as research initiatives concerning humanitarian issues were collected by contacting relevant persons on phone, by the collection of additional data such as course lists, and from the Internet. Attention was paid to the specific disciplinary contribution to humanitarian assistance, not only courses dealing with development studies. The universities are the only institutions of higher education which have been covered in the survey. Due to the large number of units offered and the fact that units in many disciplines are not repeated again, I did not list important literature used, this is in most cases available on the listed Internet addresses.

Survey Findings

The NGOs: training, expectations from universities and employment

Discussion with Humanitarian NGOs in Denmark (as listed below) revealed several general trends with regard to employment. There is a growing international involvement for NGOs which have previously been

involved in humanitarian assistance within national borders. This largely reflects growing national and international appeals and policies. The increased emphasis on local capacity building and a stronger cooperation with local NGOs has created an increasing demand for managerial- and technical staff. For instance, Danish Red Cross has had a decreasing proportion of medical doctors and nurses in their staff and an increase in more "managerial" staff, due to the emphasis on hiring qualified local doctors and nurses whenever possible. For the same reason, a number of the NGOs have only a small number or no ex-pat staff all together, working exclusively through local partner organisations. There is also a trend toward an increasing involvement in the "grey zone", i.e. the relief-development continuum. In general, an increasing proportion of the NGOs employees have an academic background as compared to only ten years ago, a development which has been of some concern within some of the NGOs, but also reflects the increasing professionalisation.

Compared to recruitment in the development sector where contracts often run for a two-year period or more, a lot of the recruitment for humanitarian assistance (such as emergency relief, election monitoring, and consultancies) is done on a more short-term basis (3-6 months or less). This is due to both the short-term notice of recruitment in emergency situations and the reluctance of several organisations to keep staff members in difficult areas for a longer period. It was stressed by most NGOs that this has created major difficulties, since there is a lack of flexibility in the labour market. Recruitment often take place with a 72 hour notice by organisations such as Danida, Danish Red Cross, MSF-Denmark, CARE, the Danish Refugee council and Dan Church Aid..

Staff is usually recruited on the background of their educational qualification, technical skills and work experience. Furthermore, the following qualities were listed as positive criteria:

- "human quality" and "maturity", i.e. the ability to cope with stress and work with other people from diverse backgrounds, were emphasized as important skills by all the NGOs.
- Third World experience,
- emergency experience,
- management experience, (general management, finance and logistics)
- language skills (English, plus French, Portuguese, Spanish or Russian)
- for medical staff, experience and training in tropical medicine, disaster medicine, nutrition and public health.

—for the church organisations, Christian values were seen as somewhat important, since humanitarian assistance would often be carried out in partnership with local church organisations.
—flexibility in current employment

In terms of recruitment, the NGOs in general found newly educated University graduates highly qualified and it was easy to find people with a broad understanding of Third-World issues in combination with specialist knowhow. The NGOs, however, were reluctant to hire young candidates because of lack of experience, especially in emergency situations. If hired, this would most often be as secondment for international organisations such as UNHCR, ICRC, ECHO, OSCE, MSF international, ICRC or CARE International. where they were expected to receive on-ground training and support.

Former army officers with experience from peace keeping missions remain in high demand due to both their experience from emergency operations and their experience in management, logistics, security, code of conduct in emergency situations, experience with radio-transmission, and finance, skills of which there is a total lack among academic candidates. It is found that these skills are so important that it doesn't matter that army officers have no training in Third World issues (social-, cultural- and gender issues, etc.). The NGOs estimated that 40-50 % of their humanitarian field-staff were administrators, technicians, logisticians (areas which can be covered by army officers), the rest made up by more academic personnel such as field officers, information officers, and medical staff.

In terms of identified lack of skills, these did not relate to an understanding of Third World issues among university graduates. The lack identified were:

—lack of "human qualities", such as cross-cultural understanding and the ability to work under stress and with people from diverse backgrounds.
—lack of experienced logisticians, especially with an understanding of Third World issues (academic qualifications).
—lack of management experience (logistics, management, finance) in the university educated staff a big problem.
—lack of experience from emergency areas, which was seen as qualitatively different from situations of development. This relates to experiences with armed warfare, conflict management, code of conduct in conflict situations, use of radio in conflict situations, security (physical and psychological), the use of four-wheel vehicles, how to drive to avoid land-mines, etc.

—lack of language skills, especially Portuguese, Spanish, Russian and French.
—for medical staff: lack of training in tropical medicine.
—lack of flexibility in permanent employment.

Thus, where the NGOs had no problems finding generalists and specialists with a broad understanding of Third World issues, the strong gap between the universities and other educations and the lack of interdisciplinary education remains a problem. The emphasis on longer education in a single discipline makes it hard for an academic to obtain a one year diploma or MA in for instance management or human rights law and many travel abroad to obtain this. There is also a much stronger emphasis on issues pertaining to development in Danish universities as opposed to issues pertaining to humanitarian crisis, conflict, refugee movements and the like.

Most of the NGOs have recognised the need to train their own staff either at home or internationally and that this is an ongoing process. This training often centres on skills not part of a university curriculum (i.e. emergency preparedness and management, protection, security, PTSD, international organisations and organisational line of command, code of conduct, management, finance, PRA, LFA, human rights, cross-cultural understanding, etc.). Some of the NGOs have also started to hire JPOs in the recognition of the lack of qualified national staff. The smaller NGOs, which did not carry out training of field-staff by themselves, found it difficult at times to find qualified staff, given the extremity of some emergency situations. They depend heavily on people's experience from other organisations and associations.

When comparing the skills training of the NGOs involved in humanitarian assistance with those involved in development activities, the training is markably different. NGOs involved in training for development activities has a much higher emphasis on cross-cultural communication, skills such as LFA, PRA, gender issues, country specific elements and general development problematics in their training.

The Universities: trends in research and education

One of characteristics of the Danish higher education system is the strict division between the practice-oriented education offered at various polytechnics and business schools and the research oriented universities. Degrees from the older Universities (the Universities at Copenhagen, Aarhus and Odense) are normally offered within one discipline only and students continuing to do an MA usually do this in the

Table B3.1
Annual Framework Aggreement with Danida

AGENCY	STAFF-Danish Home Abroad Budget 1997 1.000 DKK	HUMANITARIAN ASSITANCE?	TRAINING PROGRAMME
Danida, Ministry of Foreign Affairs	figure non-existent App. 10.000.000 DKK	via multi-lateral aid or NGOs.	yes (own)
Danish Refugee Council	800 60-70 180.000 DKK (internationally)	yes, including secondment to UNHCR and others.	yes (own)
Danish Red Cross*	100 110 350.000 DKK	yes, including secondment to ICRC.	yes (own and international)
Danchurchaid*	91 100 389.000 DKK	yes	yes
Ibis*	35 110 179.000 DKK	no, more development orientation	yes
Danish Association for Development Co-peration (MS-Mellemfolkeligt Samvirke)*	80 200 148.000 DKK	some, but more development orientation	yes
CARE - Denmark*	10 3 50.000 DKK	yes	yes
MSF-Denmark	41/2 18 4.000 DKK	yes, secondment to MSF International.	yes, via international headquaters.
Save the Children DK		yes	no
Caritas Denmark	7 3 61.000 DKK	yes, and also development aid.	no
AFS-Danish People's Aid	10 0 24.000 DKK + GOODS	yes	no
ADRA Denmark	6 12 38.500 DKK	no, development assistence.	yes

same subject as their BA. A system has recently been established where students do 1-2 semester(s) in a different but related subject as part of their BA in some of the disciplines. Students specialise in the MA period and when writing their MA dissertation, which has to be research based, and this is ofen where the major specialization in development issues takes place. This is also the time to obtain crucial experience through fieldwork, internships, and student placement in sector research institutions which might be beneficial for later employment in development. In disciplines such as development studies, anthropology and African area studies close to 100 % of the students do fieldwork outside Denmark and the proportion in other disciplines is high as well for students specializing in Third World issues. The two newer universities, Roskilde University Centre and Aalborg University, offer more inter-disciplinary programmes for some of the BA and the MA degrees.

The five Danish Universities and the Agricultural University offer a wide variety of units dealing with Third World issues. In general Third World issues are addressed from a classical disciplinary perspective and there are fewer multi-disciplinary degrees of a shorter duration (International Development studies, Development and International Relations, International Public Health, African Area Studies, Middle Eastern Studies, Immigrant Studies, and Minority Studies —the last three not even recognized as proper degrees).

More than 183 university units dealing with the areas poverty and development, humanitarian assistance, human rights, peace studies, migration and multi-culturality and other topics of relevance to humanitarian assistance, have been identified within 23 courses and disciplines. More regional courses of which there are many within for instance anthropology, have not been included. Less attention have been paid to generalist under-graduate courses of relevance (of which there are equaly many) as well. Of these units, roughly 35 % covered topics of relevance for "poverty and development", 25 % are of more general Third World relevance (but closest to "poverty and development" in most cases, making a total of 50-60 %), 20 % dealt with "migration and multiculturality", less than 15 % fell under the category "peace studies" and less than 10 % under the categories' human rights" and "humanitarian assistance" respectively. "Human rights" was covered mainly by Law and "humanitarian assistance" was covered mainly in International Public Health and Psychology in courses for practitioners, apart from a unit and an upcoming PhD research programme in Anthropology. Because of the strong disciplinary emphasis in Danish teaching and research, the "maps of knowledge" for the universities will be presented by discipline:

Table B3.2
Maps of Knowledge by discipline

COURSE, UNIVERSITY	A	B	C	D	E	O
International Development Studies, Roskilde	17		1		1	
Development and International Relations, Aalborg	1				1	4
Anthropology, Copenhagen	1	1	1		2	4
Ethnography and Anthropology, Aarhus	2				5	2
Law, Copenhagen			8	2		1
Law, Aarhus			4	1		2
Political Science, Copenhagen	3			7		3
Political Science, Aarhus	2			9	5	
Economics, Copenhagen	5				2	5
Economics, Copenhagen	2					
Geography, Copenhagen	3				2	2
International Public Health, Copenhagen		6				2
International Public Health, Aarhus		2				1
African Area Studies, Copenhagen	6		1	1	3	5
Middle Eastern Studies, Odense					4	
Minority Studies, Copenhagen				1	5	

COURSE, UNIVERSITY	A	B	C	D	E	O
International Development Course in Danish Universities	1			1		
Psychology, Aarhus		2				
Psychology, Copenhagen		2			1	
Immigrant Studies, Odense					5	
Land Use in Developing Countries, KVL	4					7
General units, KVL	14					9
TOTAL	61 A	13 B	15 C	22 D	36 E	47 F

A: poverty and development (61 units)
B: humanitarian assistence (13 units)
C: human rights (15 units)
D: peace studies (22 units)
E: migration and multiculturality (36 units)
O: other (47 units)

There is, thus, a strong emphasis on development issues in general at a number of Danish university institutes, mainly from a distinct disciplinary perspective. There is also a strong tradition for research on issues such as refugees, migration, and multi-culturalism in Denmark, though this has been carried out mainly from an integration-perspective. A research interests in issues relating to armed conflict, humanitarian assistance and related issues is emerging but this is not reflected in the university units offered. However, a growing number of MA and PhD students do research on various aspects of humanitarian assistance for their thesis and there has been established of a number of research groups with a focus on the issue. Given the very few multi-disciplinary academic environments, most of this research maintains a strong disciplinary focus. Moreover, research on humanitarian assistance and related issues is carried out in sector research institutions (i.e. individually state financed research institutions) such as "Danish Centre for Human Rights", "Centre for Development Research", "Centre for Peace and

Conflict Research", and "Danish Foreign Policy Institute". Most of these institutions also offer student placements and internships to MA and PhD students working on areas of relevance.

The Institutes of Anthropology, Law, and Public Health at the University of Copenhagen and the Institute of Psychology at Aarhus University are, however, the only places where units dealing directly with humanitarian assistance are offered and this may reflect the relative novelty of humanitarian assistance as a strong policy concern in Danish Aid circles.

Conclusion: the Employment Situation

The high emphasis on development issues in Danish university education in general does that there is a high number of qualified candidates for recruitment in development assistance. Many already have Third World experience. Employment, therefore, is highly competitive. Given the strict division between the vocational education and the research oriented universities, it remains hard for newly educated candidates to find employment in development assistance in general and in humanitarian development in particular.

The NGOs in general found that university graduates had a broad understanding of Third World issues, but that they lacked practical experience and a number of specific skills that are not taught in universities, including management, languages, and skills specific to emergency situations. Also, there is a reluctance to post young people under difficult circumstances. Some of the skills pertaining to working in emergency situations are sought trained by the NGOs themselves. The NGOs, therefore did not recruit younger candidates straight out of university and there is a tendency that the same older and more experienced staff circulate between different positions and organisations. Moreover, several of the NGOs do not even post expatriate staff but seek to employ local staff or work through local partner organisations to strengthen local capacity, especially in humanitarian assistance.

Getting the initial practical and managerial experience is difficult and students seek to qualify by specializing in their MA dissertation and through fieldwork and internships. Junior Professional Officer (JPO) positions are very sought after as they offer one of the few ways to obtain relevant work experience. These are mainly offered within the UN and EU system and exist in a large number funded by Danida. More recently Danida and one of the NGOs (Dan Church Aid) has established some JPO positions to train qualified staff. The volunteer programmes

offered by a number of NGOs is another way to enter the highly competitive job market.

Most NGOs were interested in the prospects for a Humanitarian MA, since it would train candidates in skills that are relatively new in Denmark and highly needed. Some of these skills are, however, also taught in the new MA in International Public Health. There should also be a recognition that even if the emphasis on humanitarian assistance is expected to keep growing, the employment market is still limited and offer few full-time positions as opposed to the development sector.

B4
Country Report: France

Marie Jose Domestici-Met

Introduction

The French tradition of Development and Humanitarian Assistance has at least three origins:

First, French colonisation, which was supported by a strong military presence, resulted in social and medical rather than agricultural development. The result of this type of policy has been mainly improvements in tropical medicine.

Second, since the end of 17th and especially since the 18th century, a movement in favour of Human Rights has developed in France, which considers itself as the "country of Human Rights". And, nowadays, many humanitarian crises are seen not only in terms of rescue, but also in terms of human rights. Influenced by this tradition, humanitarian actors and particularly NGOs do not always act with neutrality. This is the basis of the "principle of humanitarian interference" which became the legal concept "interfere in order to help". This principle is rooted in the behaviour of French physicians during conflicts and famines in the seventies, and gave birth to NGOs like Médecins Sans Frontières (MSF).

Third, France, traditionally, has been a catholic country. French catholic missionaries are numerous all over the world. Their work focused on health and education long before the word "development" appeared in the UN's vocabulary.

More recently, France has been one of the important agents of military humanitarian operations in the nineties.

Due to these factors the French humanitarian world has the following characteristics:

—Diversity of actors: it combines religious and lay people, civilians and soldiers, people acting in the name of God and people acting in the name of Man, private actors and civil servants.

—Diversity of intervention schemes: French humanitarian assistance initially involved long-term actions in the old colonies, but the specialities are now medical and non-medical professionals acting in crises.

The French system of development and humanitarian policies

The French public humanitarian structures have evolved in different phases. The first phase followed decolonization, the period of the granting of independence to a dozen African states during the 1960s. The French government set up a mechanism of "co-operation". French civil servants and young people during their military service were involved in helping the new states to build institutions.

During the second phase, French co-operation became less substitutive and more supportive. Simultaneously, France enlarged the geographical area of its co-operation, establishing relationships with former colonies of other counties. A typical example is the co-operation treaty concluded with Rwanda in 1975. These two aspects —co-operation without substitution and links outside of the former colonies— have remained on the French agenda up to now. The relationship between the public external assistance administration and French NGOs have been official through the existence of the "COCODEV" (Commission for Co-operation and Development), including civil servants and NGO representatives.

In recent years, another form of public humanitarian cooperation has been constituted with new structures. For more than a decade, every French government has included a Minister or Secretary of State responsible for humanitarian assistance, all but one coming from an NGO. Like Claude Malhuret (in 1986), Bernard Kouchner (1988-1993) and Xavier Emmanuelli (1995-1997) were former members of MSF.

At the level of the Administration, two entities were created in the Ministry of Foreign Affairs: the "Cellude d'Urgence et de veille" and the "Service d l'Action humanitaire". And Humanitarian Attachés were nominated in many French embassies over the world.

This whole system has come under review since 1997. The idea was to merge the administrative structures of development co-operation and humanitarian assistance, in order to improve the link between relief, rehabilitation and development.

In 1999 the Ministry of Co-operation has been cancelled, and the former Minister has become "Minister of Co-operation" under the aegis of the Foreign Affairs Ministry.

Simultaneously, the former jurisdiction of the Ministry of Co-operation has been transferred to a collective body, the CICID (Inter-ministerial Committee for International Co-operation and Development). The members of the CICID are:

—the general Directorate of Political Affairs within the Ministry of Foreign Affairs
—the Secretary of State for Overseas Departments and Territories ("DOM TOM")
—the Minister of Environment
—the Minister of Education
—the Minister of Budget

In addition, the French Development Agency, formerly French Development Bank, participates in the debates, with a consultative status.

The CICID meets at least twice a year under the Presidency of the Prime Minister, and in between meetings, the daily work is performed by a delegation composed of civil servants belonging to the three following Ministries: Budget, Foreign Affairs and DOM TOM.

The HCCI or High Commitee for International Co-operation represents French civil society, through three types of members:

—NGOs
—trade unions and other representatives of the economic world,
—prestigious persons, reknown for their commitment to international co-operation, or humanitarian action.

The representatives of the Budget, Foreign Affairs and DOM TOM Ministries have only a consultative status in the HCCI. The HCCI has been created in order to counterbalance the power of the Administration.

The CNCDH (National Consultative Commission for Human Rights) plays a role to promote international law of human rights.

The new French policy for Development and Humanitarian Assistance

The new French policy on Development and Humanitarian Assistance has been defined in 1999 no longer to react to crises, but to promote a better, sounder world. What is at stake is a better use of the resources allocated by France for development and humanitarian assistance. During the two UN "Decades for Development", France

belonged to the short list of countries targeting to spend 1 % of GNP. Nowadays, the percentage is close to 0.5 %, counting only public funds for development. For the past years the following data give the percentage of national income spend as aid by France: 0.48 % in 1996, 0.55 % in 1995, 0.65 % in 1994. These resources for 1996 were spent as follows: 53.4 % in sub-Saharan Africa, 15.7 % in North Africa, 13.1 % in Oceania and 9.9 % in Asia.

For the new policy three specific goals have been selected.

- —To fight against poverty, with a view to of reducing the side effects of globalisation for example by reducing the developing countries'debts in the social, economical and environmental scopes.
- —To fight against corruption and the underground economy which, in certain countries, represents up to 70 % of GNP. Among the specific goals, one of the major ones is the creation of micro-loans systems for familial income generating activities, mainly run by women.
- —To strenghten good governance and the rule of law, and give to weak states a hand in order to create a good administration, reliable and transparent in its processes.

The following data give the division of spending for the previous program in 1996: 30.7 % was given in debt relief, 24.0 % in education, health and population programmes 9.3 % in program aid, 5.3 % in transportation and communication, 5.1 % in agriculture, 3.2 % in Water development (Randel and German, 1997).

The Survey

The survey has been conducted in order to evaluate qualitatively the demand for and the supply of training in the fields of humanitarian assistance, conflict resolution, human rights, migration, development, and related fields.

Methodology (Jacques and Gatot, 1999)

On the whole, the methodology used for this study is a qualitative one.

Methodology used to estimate the demand for training

In order to evaluate the demand a questionnaire was posted to 197 French NGOs, all of which were identified though directories (OECD, 1996 and UNESCO, 1994). The questionnaire was aimed at identifying the demand of NGOs in qualitative terms. The data collection was performed by the ReCCCoM of the University of Namur and based on their expertise in participating in actions in the field and carrying out intervention.

Methodology used to estimate the supply of training

The supply of training was evaluated using a questionnaire (the thematic network questionnaire). This questionnaire have been sent to different faculties and centres of research and education, using the CNRS directories and the websites of French universities and "grandes écoles".

Interviews by phone have also been conducted for a certain number of institutions.

Definitions and terminology

Some peculiarities are to be mentioned with respect to France:

1 The word "logistics" in the French humanitarian world has a broader meaning than usual. As well as transportation and communication, it covers also, in this context, the technical support given to relief operations: mechanics, energy supply, building activities, general maintenance of relief buildings and even households for humanitarian staff.
2 French NGOs are, by nature, associations i.e. private bodies created under the 1901 law with freedom to associate. Their status is very liberal. But they may receive the label of "public utility", which enables them to be publicly funded, and thus entails their submission to public financial control through the Court of Accounts.
3 Humanitarian staff have two kinds of status: volunteers (which is mostly the case, especially for people working in the field) and "benevoles" who work essentially inside the national territory, and mainly in small NGOs, as well as the French Red Cross (14O OOO benevoles), the Secours Catholique, and the Secours Populaire Français.

Survey Findings

French NGOs: Skills and Needs

French humanitarian NGOs are at least 540 in number. This figure corresponds to the data provided by the Associations of International Solidarity which register NGOs funded by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

Many others NGOs exist but are neither registered nor funded. These NGOs are constituted on a local basis mainly for charitable activities, such as sponsoring a given school in a given country, or sending a relief goods truck to a given place. The turnover of these non-registered NGOs is very high, with the consequence that it is difficult to collect statistics.

French NGOs usually specialize either in Development or in Emergency, the former being far more numerous and the latter being richer and, thus, more powerful. MSF, for example, has enough of its own funding to begin an operation without any public funding. Its budget is many times bigger than the public Emergency Humanitarian Fund.

Nevertheless, there are overlaps: emergency organisations are caring more and more about reconstruction (included psychological reconstruction) and latent emergencies.

Another kind of overlapping is related to humanitarian and human rights approaches. French humanitarian organisations are more and more involved in human rights preservation.

Figures (the latest ones available, from 1996) relating to the Associations of International Solidarity registered by COCODEV show:

1. *Strong inequalities in size*

Size of Budget (million FF)	Percentage of organisations
> 200	1.4%
50-200	6.54%
15-50	6.54%
10-15	5.60%
1-10	35.5%
<1	44.3%

In other words, 78 % of resources are shared by the 20 biggest organisations.

2. *Sources of funding*

Global resources are increasing (by 49 % between 1991 and 1996), but the growth is essentially relying on public funding and especially on international public funding, the proportion of which is increasing rapidly:

	Year	
	1991	1996
Private resources	65%	56%
Public subsidies	35%	44%
of which:		
International	56%	72%
National	44%	28%

Of course, the biggest single donor is the European Union, which, in fact, gives subsidies to a small group of big French NGOs. In 1996, the number of French NGOs funded by the EU was as follows:

—ECHO: 19
—DGVIII: 60
—DGIA: 17

Globally, for 1996, the proportions of public grants were:

Body	Percantage of total
EU	58.7%
United Nations (UNHCR, WFP, other)	10.36%
USA	9.14%
French Public Subsidies*	21.8%

* Note: The French government underlines that its contribution to the EU budget is close to 20%.

3. *Expenditures*

Geographically, they are less and less focused on Africa (51 % in 1991, 39 % in 1996).

4. *Humanitarian / development workers*

For 1996, the biggest 200 French NGOs employed more than 15000 people in France (13000 of which were unpaid people) and more than 16000 abroad (13000 of which were local staff). Among expatriates, the proportion of volunteers was 91 %, compared to 9 % wage-earners.

Some Strategical Aspects

In order to enhance their bargaining power vis a vis public authorities, French NGOs —not only those registrated by the COCODEV— have created nine collectives, themselves joined in two huge "co-ordinations": "Co-ordination Sud" and the CLOSI (Comité de Liaison des Organisations de Solidarité Internationale).

The research activities of NGOs

French NGOs pay more and more attention to international law, unlike in the early 90s. They have frequently campaigned, for example, for the "Mine Ban Treaty" (adopted 1997), or the "Convention on the International Criminal Court" (adopted 1998). Presently, Action Against Hunger is working on the issue "is there a right to be fed?", and "Medecins du Monde" seems to be preparing to advocate a humanitarian ombudsman, or a kind of humanitarian Security Council. Besides, most of the French Emergency NGOs have taken side against the Sphere project, which they consider as creating too rigid standards for relief.

Military structures for humanitarian assistance

The French army has participated in rescue operations, either in favour of French Nationals (evacuation from countries affected by civil wars, for example), or in favour of various civilians whose lives are seriously endangered. During the 90s the French army participated in different military operations (logistics and sanitation) mostly in political or ethnic crisis situations.

Demand for humanitarian and development training

The rate of response has been of 39 responses out of 197 questionnaires in total, with 22 undelivered mail; this represents a percentage of response of 20 %, or 23 % ignoring the questionnaires which were not delivered.

The attitude of French humanitarian and development NGOs towards humanitarian and development teaching isn't homogeneous.

First, some humanitarian and development actors have, together, launched their own research with a view to improving field practice through education and training. They created a dynamic structure, the Emergency, Rehabilitation and Development Group, in order to carry out studies on mitigation of disasters by means of a better assessment of both needs and impact. They also contribute to various humanitarian and development degrees.

In a more traditional and less innovative way, some organisations rely on their own teams to prepare new staff for departure, and thus do not see any further need for training. This is mainly the case with small organisations, specially those sending people on overseas missions for long periods of time and in action related with development rather than emergencies.

Other large NGOs like MSF or the French Red Cross recognise the paramount importance of an in-depth and adequate training. They organise their own training, not only general training for first departure preparation but also specific courses and training for their experienced personnel before giving them more responsibilities.

Nevertheless French NGO's are keen on what is occurring in university and private school courses on development and humanitarian assistance. They are also very pleased to teach in these courses and by doing balance academic knowledge with practical field experience.

Concerning specific university competence, **the NGOs' demands** can be summarised as follows:

1. At the NGO level there is an awareness of the value of being educated in geopolitics and anthropology by academic specialists. So from time to time some NGOs call on specialists on a given country where they intend to send a mission.
2. On the other hand, most of the human resources bodies of NGOs (in charge of training policy) seem to think they are able to teach basic management and logistics, and even nursing care, on their own, thanks to the wealth of their staff's experience. As for strategic management, they prefer hiring people with a

management degree, without humanitarian or development experience. It is the same for technical skills, like hydraulics or agricultural topics. agrotopics

3. When it comes to public health and law, NGOs recognise that they're not properly qualitifed. Public health is the first topic for which they feel the need to send collaborators to university. Some do, although frequently on a personal and individual basis.
4. As for law, French NGOs have, for a long time, ignored its relevance, at least for emergency humanitarian assistance. And the mere idea has encountered increasing reluctance in the countries whose citizens are in need of assistance. Today most NGOs want to be explicit about donors, their rights and working conditions.

A last remark should be that the NGOs' demand for university knowledge is not so strong as that of humanitarian workers themselves who, obviously, need to improve their comprehension of what they are involved in. Their curiosity is very high:

—in law: they want to know more about donors, and about the diverse stakeholders involved.
—in geopolitics: they are requesting extensive pre-departure briefing, focused on the relevant country and mission
—in management: they are demanding management training in project management in accounting and control.

Specific requests are expressed for crisis and conflict management, and for communication skills they want to go further with new technologies, for needs assessment, project building, project writing, fund raising, and impact evaluation.

So in the humanitarian world the demand is strong for humanitarian and multidisciplinary-oriented university education.

The supply of humanitarian and development education and training

The supply is very diversified in nature and has to be distinguished by level and by area (development or humanitarian). The latter distinction will be more relevant for the graduate and post-graduate levels.

At the level of **"enseignement superieur court"** (two years of undergraduate studies), two different schools offer an education in logistics, according to the French meaning of the word, i.e. technical support in general. Students learn transportation management, but also energy supply, sanitation, construction techniques, mechanics. The degree granted is "development technician". After participation in the program, graudates have sufficient knowledge to manage emergency situations. A basic course is also given on the geopolitical context of humanitarian work, in a geographical and economical sense. These schools usually recruit after the "Baccalaureat", but they also accept, after evaluation, students without background. These schools produce logistics technicians and administrators. These schools do not teach material like international law, anthropology, geopolitics or crisis and conflict management.

At the **graduate level** (four years of university studies), a new degree has been created. It is strictly focused on Civil Protection in natural disasters. It doesn't aim at preparing humanitarian actors for mid-term overseas missions, and is not dedicated to development activities.

At the **postgraduate level**, the situation has evolved during the last five years. For the first time, during the Academic year 1993-94, one university offered a Diplome in Humanitarian Assistance.

In the University system, only access to post-graduate studies (like DEA or DESS) are subject to selection. This access is open both to University graduates (including I.E.P. graduates with a three year course) and to graduate of "Grandes Ecoles". The DEA is the prime requirement for doctoral studies.

There are two kinds of post-graduate studies:

1. one leads to research: one year of DEA (Diploma if in-depth studies, equivalent to a "Master") and a doctoral thesis (at least three years, frequently six to seven)
2. one leads to professional activities: one year of DESS (Diploma of Higher Specialized Studies). The DESS includes an internship, and involves professional lecturers. Under certain conditions some DESS graduates are admitted to prepare a doctoral thesis. The thesis leads to the title of "Docteur".

Outside the university system, a limited number of "Grandes ecoles" may deliver the title of "Docteur".

Outside the University graduate and post graduate courses, and the "Grandes Ecoles" system, one finds still the so-called "Short Higher

Education", i.e. two years only after the Baccalaureat. Some diplomas at this level are granted in University Institutes of Technology belonging to the public Universities; others are granted by private high education schools.

Nowadays, we can distinguish between courses in development and in humanitarian assistance.

1. *Development*

DEAs are run: four in development economics and four in international law of development, and two with a mixed economical and legal approach. DESS are far less numerous: two only, and only in the field of development economy.

2. *Humanitarian Assistance*

At least 25 diplomas are offered. They can be classified into several categories:

—The first one is composed of relatively old degrees, focused on long-term development which, since two or three years ago, offer an "Emergency " section. This category itself, indeed, can be split into three sub-groups: a macro-economic approach, a sub-group focusing on project management and one teaching both macro-economy of development and international law of development.

—The second group is focused on human rights and international law. These degrees cover only legal topics and focus on European Court of Human Rights case law. So in spite of the existing relation between human rights law and humanitarian law, such degrees don't give practical training for overseas humanitarian assistance work.

—The third group is focused on external humanitarian assistance. And, again, one may find, many sub-groups.One is represented by the French branch of the NOHA group, in Aix-Marseille III University. The studies are multidisciplinary, according to the NOHA Chart, including law, geopolitics, logistics, medicine, anthropology. They give both humanitarian skills (needs assessment, project building, financing) and the skills to participate in international relations.The program includes a possibility to choose a specialisation, either in Aix ("Law versus Geopolitical challenges") or in a fellow university of the NOHA network. After eight months of university education, an internship takes

place for two to four months. A second sub-group is made of several University Diplomas granted by Medicine Faculties after 10 to 20 weeks corresponding to a total of about 30 to 80 hours of lectures.

A DESS in Human Rights and Humanitarian Law exists. It is mainly focused on law, and specifically on European case law. Another degree has been created. In this formula, after a few weeks, students are sent to internships.

These degrees are not linked to university channels but supported by well known humanitarian actors

Discussion and Conclusion

So, the supply is rich —at least 25 diplomas— perhaps too much, in comparison with the number of new volunteers sent on the field each year. But many volunteers with some years of experience go back to study for such diplomas, which more or less justifies this high supply.

A final remark will put the stress upon a certain "mismatching" or "dephasage" of the needs expressed by NGOs and the wishes of individual applicants to humanitarian/development diplomas. People putting in many applications are very interesting in that regard.

We must mention the fact that many students from purely academic courses —and even some humanitarian workers aiming at graduating— ask for for diplomas either focused on **human rights**, and even on contentious aspects, which are irrelevant to field practice, which, perhaps, is a consequence of the very ideological roots of French humanitarian asssistance, or purely related to **geopolitics**, disregarding the other aspects of humanitarian assistance. Moreover, students of academic origin often simultaneously ask to enter a DESS in **Diplomacy**, or International Administraton, at the same moment they apply for humanitarian assistance diplomas. This is evidence of the fact that some, probably, see humanitarian assistance as a step towards diplomacy.

Finally, we will mention the fact that many of those "polyapplicants" also ask for regional —e.g. african or latino-american— or linguistic —e.g. swahili or armenian or arabic— studies, which is proof of their early commitment to a particular continent or country.

B5
Country Report: Finland

Maaria Seppänen

Introduction

Structure of education

The educational system in Finland comprises of three levels: basic education, secondary education and higher education. After nine years of basic school, a student can choose between going to a vocational school to become, for instance, a car mechanic or a hairdresser, and continuing to the *lycée*. Today, about two thirds of each generation complete their *baccalaureate* after 12 years of schooling.

In Finland all public education is free (no fees), including *lycée*, vocational schools and higher education. Another characteristic of the educational system is the lack of private education with a few exceptions such as specialised schools (e.g. *Deutsche Schule* in Helsinki or Steiner schools). But even the private schools, or the private university, the Swedish speaking Åbo Akademi in Turku, have to comply with governmental regulations and standards, and are mostly co-financed by the state or municipal budget.

After the secondary school the student can opt for studying in a polytechnic institute or a university level institution of higher education. The polytechnics offer 3-4 year study programs in several fields, such as communications technology, textile conservation, medium-level business administration, hotel and restaurant management or farming and gardening. In the 1990's it has become possible to transfer from one educational path to another. In other words, those students studying at the polytechnics can complement their education by studying a bachelor's or master's degree at a university.

Furthermore, a characteristic of the Finnish educational system is that there is a strict division between practice-oriented education such

as in the polytechnics and vocational schools, and the research oriented universities. Except for some fields of study (mainly medical doctors, teachers and architects), university education in itself does not offer a certified competence for a certain job. It offers, instead, a university degree, considered to guarantee the person the capacities necessary in jobs. What this means, is that a university graduate learns a profession on-the-job during or after his/her university studies. The only practical skills the university education offers are those needed for doing research —theories, research methods and presentation of results in literary form. The only relevant exceptions to this rule are teachers, medical doctors and BA level social workers at the University of Helsinki and elsewhere, and architects and some fields of engineering in those universities where there is a Faculty of Technology.

The division between research oriented universities and more practical higher education was reinforced after the Second World War by the foundation of the two business schools in Helsinki (Finnish and Swedish) and later in Turku and Vaasa. It was further consolidated by the foundation of the Helsinki University of Industrial Arts and the University of Performing Arts.

In all institutions of higher education there is the system of *numerus clausus*. All students have to apply and pass an entrance examination. The competition is strong; only about 10 % of each generation is given a place as student at the universities the same year as their *baccalaureate*, and less than 20 % in total. Even when in principle lectures at the universities are open to anybody to attend ("public" education), only those who have passed the entrance examination and given the right to strive towards a degree can get credit for their attendance. Seminars and examinations are, however, restricted to the regular students. It is possible for anybody, however, to apply for a special right to study a part of a study programme without the right to get a degree. The universities in Finland do not "sell" courses at the undergraduate level to persons not having passed the entrance examinations.

Whereas the university study programmes are a monopoly of the students having the right to get a degree, there are plenty of alternative ways of learning. Summer universities and open universities, accessible to all adults who pay a small fee, organise courses at the same level as the "normal" university education and often by the same teachers who teach the courses for regular students. In addition, all universities have so-called Centres for Continuing Education which "sell" study programmes for complementing and updating professional skills for unemployed and persons carrying out a professional life.

NGOs and civic associations

Finland, like all Nordic countries, is a promised land for civic associations. For a population of 5 million inhabitants, there are more than 100.000 registered associations. Of these, about 200 are oriented towards problems of developing countries. Most of them are small, both in membership and budgetwise. The associations mostly finance their activities with subsidies from the Ministry of Education, or even more, the Department of International Development Co-operation (ex-FINNIDA) of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. Additional, though less significant funding, can be acquired by fund-raising activities like events, sales and voluntary work in favour of the association and membership fees. What this means is that there is a nearly total dependency on the state by the associations. Civic associations are tied to the State by financial links, which, of course, does not mean that the State would dictate what the associations' activities are but opens the possibility for conditionality in funding.

The almost 200 associations interested in international development and the Third World, are gathered under the umbrella organisation KEPA (Service Centre for Development Co-operation), a lobby and centre of services for civic associations. KEPA is almost totally financed by the Department of International Co-operation. The largest member organisations of KEPA with international development projects are the Finnish Red Cross, SASK (trade union solidarity fund) and the International Solidarity Fund with party affiliation (social democrat). In addition to some small associations working with tiny budgets in small-scale projects, the two last-mentioned are the NGOs with slightly more significant activities in the developing world. It may be worth mentioning that Finnchurchaid (the development aid agency of the Evangelical Lutheran Church of Finland) and the Finnish Missionary Society, with important wide range social work and missionary activities in the South, are also members of KEPA.

KEPA has been running the Finnish Volunteer Programme since the mid-1980's. The field offices are located in Mozambique, Nicaragua and Zambia. KEPA also has liaison officers in Brazil, Tanzania and Uganda. The volunteer programme is now planned to be cancelled, and a new programme of short (3-6 months) internships of young people to NGOs of countries in the developing world is already underway. KEPA is presently undergoing an organisational restructuring process. From more practice oriented service functions for Finnish NGOs and support for volunteers abroad, it is moving towards a forum of policy debate within Finland, and towards liaison and support for

Southern NGOs. Concomitant with the change, there has been a growing professionalisation of staff.

Basic features of development co-operation

Finland does not have a colonial past. Having formed part of Sweden for over 700 years, in 1809 it became an autonomous Grand Duchy of the Russian Empire. The "Exotic Other" was introduced to the nation by the Finnish scientists and military persons participating in the expeditions to Asia and Siberia organised by the Academy of St Petersburg and the Imperial Army. Also the Lutheran Church of Finland had its share in bringing alterity closer through its missionary work in Amboland, now Namibia, since the second half of the 19th century. After independence in 1917 these contacts to Asia were cut. After the Second World War Finland became known for its restrictive policies towards refugees and immigrants. This is the reason why untill the early 1980's, very few people in Finland had personal contact with the "South". Nor were there large numbers of immigrants or foreigners in general. Untill the second half of the 1980's there were only 15.000 non-Nordic foreigners; presently there are over 80.00 foreign-born residents in Finland (1,5 % of the population).

After the Second World War Finland received aid from abroad for reconstruction, and could be considered a developing country in the Europe of that time. A rapid industrialisation began in the 1950's, but it was only in 1961 that Finland started to give development aid, largely because of influences from other Nordic countries. In the 1970's and 80's Finland became an important multilateral and bilateral donor in GNP terms, and consolidated its role as one of the Nordic countries and "like-minded" countries within the UN system. For a small country this was a means of acquiring international recognition, and of integration to the West in a "block-neutral" way during the Cold War.

The programme countries of the Finnish development co-operation were in 1997 Ethiopia, Kenya, Namibia, Zambia, Tanzania, Egypt, Nepal, Vietnam and Nicaragua. The policy orientation of the Finnish aid is towards poverty reduction, prevention of environmental threats and the promotion of democracy, equality and human rights in the developing countries. (Suomen kehitysyhteistyö 1997).

In 1991-2 a hard economic crisis hit Finland. Development aid budgets is were severely cut in order to compensate for lost state revenues and to finance unemployment, which grew from 10 % to 22 % in one year. The GNP share of aid went down from 0,8 % in 1991 to less

than 0,4 % in 1994. In absolute figures the collapse is even more drastic because of a significant diminishing of the GNP: In 1991 Finland spent 3284,9 million FIM (550 million ECU) in multi and bilateral development aid, in 1994 only 1301 million FIM (214 million ECU). All in all, Finnish multilateral development assistance "grew" by –610 % between 1992 and 1994 (from 864 million FIM to 255 million FIM), and the bilateral by –330 % during the same period. (Rekola 1994).

At present the economy is recovering and the development aid budget is growing, without reaching the levels of pre-crisis times. The Finnish development aid comprised 0,35 % of the GNP (2043 million FIM, 335 million ECU) in 1997 (Suomen kehitysyhteistyö 1997). In reality, since 1993 the share of "real" development aid is even lower than the official figures indicate, as the aid budget now includes expenses like, for instance, guarantee fund for Finnish companies who trade in the developing world and financing of refugees in Finland (Rekola 1994).

The government's intention is to increase the GNP share to 0,4 % by the year 2000, but the OEDC recommendation of 0,7 % will not be reached untill the present development aid hostile public opinion changes. According to a survey published in the official yearbook for 1997 of the Finnish development co-operation, 49 % of voters think the present development aid budget is sufficient, and 51 % think the goal of 0,7 % should not be striven for, as against only 32 % of the contrary opinion. (Suomen kehitysyhteistyö 1997).

The bilateral development co-operation projects are not implemented in the field by the Ministry itself but offered in bidding to consulting companies (and in some cases to NGOs), of which there are about two dozen major ones. Most of them are privately owned (either by individuals or companies) but also some ministries or other governmental agencies have their own consulting firms, which compete at the same market as the private ones.

The job market for experts in development co-operation is rather limited because of the small size of the country, decreased aid budget and the internationalisation of the demand for consultancies. The Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Department of International Development Co-operation, through its Office of Personnel, sends 10-20 junior professional officers (JPOs) per year to international organisations at its own expense, and funds Finnish citizens working at the secretariats of international organisations.

The recruitment base of consulting firms is in most cases the population of repatriated experts. Because of strong competition, it is practically impossible for a recent university graduate to enter the job

market without professional experience and previous direct exposure to the developing countries. The requirements for succeeding in getting a job in a project as an expert or in the international organisations' secretariats can be summarised in order of priority as follows:

—professional experience
—university degree or other educational qualification
—direct exposure to Third World countries
—language proficiency (at least two of the official UN languages).

As has been explicitly stated by representatives of the Department of International Co-operation, their priority is to hire, directly or indirectly, good professionals in some of the fields of development co-operation (engineers, anthropologists, forestry engineers, for instance), *not* generalists in development. The basic assumption underlying this statement (for instance, forestry is universal) has often been questioned and criticised by many NGOs members of KEPA, but the opinion of the funding agency has to be taken into account when planning future training and education in the field of development co-operation.

The high threshold for entering the job market adds importance to the channels through which a person can have access to "relevant" Third World exposure beyond tourism. The Ministry funded JPO programme has been explicitly presented as training of Finnish citizens in international tasks, and —although no statistics are available on the subject— several of former JPOs return "to the field" in expert positions. The volunteer programme run by KEPA has been another channel through which a person could access the job market of development co-operation as well as the smaller projects of some civic associations and NGOs. The KEPA programme of internships in NGOs of countries in the South is hoped to perform the same function. In spite of the small numbers of persons working in this field in Finland, presently there is more demand for qualified staff in development aid than in the mid-1990's. This is the result of an increase in state budget for development co-operation during the last years on one hand, and the membership in EU in 1995 with an access to the European project market, on the other.

Terminology and sample of survey

The terminology used in this text needs some clarification. The term "nongovernmental organisation" often is a source of confusion. In Finland the term is nowadays used in the context of associations

working internationally in the fields of development, environment and health, whereas the meaning of the term in Finnish (kansalaisjärjestö, or citizens' association) is more general. On the other hand, in Latin America there is a clear division between NGOs and civic associations (or grassroots organisations)*. The former carry out tasks in European countries often performed by the state, and the latter are independent, not funded by outside donors or the state and are based on the spontaneous association of citizens, often with scarce personal resources. In Finland practically all NGOs or civic associations working in development are more or less funded by the state, so this division does not apply. But as seen above, the term NGO has been used when speaking about the largest active agents of the civil society in the field of development and humanitarian aid. This definition is based on the fact that some associations carry out tasks on behalf of the state or its corporative annexes: they are quasi official.

To give an example: KEPA, the umbrella organisation, and the Red Cross run programmes on behalf of the state (volunteers, humanitarian assistance), SASK and ISF on behalf of political actors involved in the corporative political system. And Finnchurchaid is an annex of the official religious institution, the Lutheran Church of Finland (there is no constitutional separation between church and state in Finland).

All the other members of KEPA are to my mind civic associations like students gathering together to publish information on development problems or a group of countrywomen exporting traditional Finnish weaving stools and weaving techniques to Africa.

In this article, education is used when referring to the formal educational system, directed at a degree, be it *baccalaureate*, basic school certificate, university degree or the qualification to work as a car mechanic. Training is the teaching given in addition to education, be it either in separate courses or as continuing education in order to brush up professional or technical skills.

The data on the education given in Finland on the topics of development, poverty, humanitarian aid, human rights and multiculturality by educational institutions have been gathered by letters and faxes asking for information, and from WWW pages. The NGOs in the sample were contacted by the same way. Most of them replied. Only universities have been included in the sample. Most polytechnics, nursing schools and people's high schools (*folkhögskolor*) have their study programmes on similar subjects, but these have been excluded from the data. The

* See also the chapter in this volume by Ann Muir on the UK situation.

Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Department of International Development Co-operation had a survey carried out in 1997-8 on very much the same subject, but with a different focus, which included also polytechnics and other professional schools. For more details, see Ashorn 1998.

Only study programmes (bodies of study units leading to a degree or a certificate) have been included in the sample, because only these are permanent on the medium term. Study units (lecture courses, seminars), except for the basic "skeleton" of the study programme, are often organised only once or in 2-3 year cycles, depending on financial resources and availability of qualified teachers.

Education related to development issues

When looking at the university education concerning humanitarian development in Finnish universities, some conclusions can be drawn. The first is the existence of study programmes and Master's degrees closely related to international development problems and the Third World, principally anthropology/ethnography, geography or international politics, in all universities.

An interesting fact is the lack of development-related study programmes in the disciplines of law and economics. In addition to occasional courses in development economics at the departments of economics and at the business schools, there is only one regular study unit in development economics. The United Nations University institute WIDER organises a yearly lecture series in development economics in collaboration with the Department of Economics, University of Helsinki. By and large, the interest towards Asia, Africa and Latin America at the universities, has traditionally centred in the field of ethnography/anthropology on the one hand, and in the field of international politics on the other, with very little interest in the other social sciences, historically nationally oriented.

It is worth noting that after 1991 a great part of the interest towards "other countries" has been concerned with Eastern Europe. "Transitology" and "transition societies and economies" have come to mean the Eastern neighbour, Russia, and its former allies, and these fields of research and education have seen a proliferation of activities in the whole of academe from social to environmental sciences. On the other hand, after 1995 a boom of EU studies began. These events have without doubt occupied resources that otherwise could have been channelled towards Third World related interests, at least partially.

On the other hand, in the natural sciences many Departments of Botany and the Faculty of Forestry in Helsinki, or the Faculties of

Medicine organise courses and carry out research on tropical nature and health. But this is disciplinary "pure" science without an explicitely developmental concern.

If a student, thus, wants to opt for specialising in a topic concerning one or several of the countries of the Third World while studying, say, geography or folklore or horticulture, may well do it at all Finnish universities. But the teaching and research have a disciplinary orientation.

The second conclusion, then, is that, when looking at the inter-disciplinary study programmes or modules concerning humanitarian development, there are few institutions at the Finnish universities specialising in, say, development studies, human rights or humanitarian assistance.

The only educational institution in Finland offering a degree (BA) in development studies is the Institute of Development Studies of the University of Helsinki, Faculty of Social Sciences. Development studies can be studied as a minor subject at IDS by all students of the University of Helsinki, as well as at the International School of Social Sciences at the University of Tampere. Currently IDS is planning a graduate school for Ph.D. students in development studies, open to graduates from all Finnish universities and from abroad.

The other institution giving a degree programme in a related field is the Department of Communication, University of Jyväskylä, that runs a two-year interdisciplinary Master's programme in intercultural communication and intercultural relations.The University of Jyväskylä has recently been accepted to the NOHA network.

Other interdisciplinary fields concerning directly humanitarian development do not have degree programmes. The other institutions offering interdisciplinary education concentrate in specialisation courses or certificate courses as minor subjects, to be annexed as parts of a degree programme of a major subject. The Åbo Akademi Institute of Human Rights, the Tampere Peace Research Institute and the Centre for Continuing Education at the University of Jyväskylä, with its master's programme in multiculturality, fall into this category. In August 1998 the University of Jyväskylä organised a two-day seminar on humanitarian assistance as a part of the Master's Programme in Intercultural communication and Intercultural Relations.

Another interdisciplinary field of research and education, at least marginally concerned with humanitarian development, is area studies. These, too, are few in Finland and tend to be present only at the largest university in the country, that of Helsinki. In addition to specialisation courses on Eastern European and Russian studies at

several universities in Finland, the Department of Asian and African languages and cultures of the University of Helsinki, offers a Master's programme in several subjects from East Asian cultures and languages to African studies. And the Ibero American Centre runs a specialisation programme on Latin American studies. In spite of being interdisciplinary, these study programmes and modules do not have a problem-oriented, developmental orientation.

Summing up, there is a strong disciplinary basis for studies concerning the Third World and development. The interdisciplinary study modules or programmes are divided in two, the problem-centred (development, human rights, peace, intercultural contact) on one hand, and the area studies on the other.

Training offered by non-governmental organisations

The umbrella organisation for all organisations working in the field of development, KEPA (Service Centre for Development Co-operation), offers training for its own development workers and those of other organisations. The topics of the courses have so far ranged from project planning, management and evaluation to gender issues in development and participatory methods, among courses on more general topics. The teachers at the courses have come both from the staff at KEPA and purchased from other institutions, mainly consulting firms. The training activities of KEPA have so far been organised on the basis of demand from member organisations, but presently KEPA is planning a new, consistent and long-term training policy.

The Finnish Red Cross is a large NGO, active in the field of humanitarian assistance. It organizes training on humanitarian aid to the persons on the Red Cross roster. The courses are practice-oriented. The topics, include among others, basic relief, humanitarian law, development co-operation and mental support.

SASK (the Solidarity Centre of Finnish Trade Union Organisations) does not send out solidarity or development workers. All their projects employ only personnel from the target country itself. The training courses organised by SASK have only covered the area of project planning and design, offered to its member trade unions.

Finnchurchaid, the development co-operation agency of the Lutheran Church, which channels its funds mainly through the projects of the Lutheran World Federation and the world Council of Churches, organises orientation training for its outgoing development workers. Finnchurchaid runs also consciousness-raising courses at the member

parishes of the Church, in order to strenghten the motivation and commitment of staff and volunteers in the parishes to global diaconia.

The Finnish Missionary Society is the largest and oldest missionary organisation in Finland. The members of it are all the congregations of the official Lutheran Church of Finland. The Missionary Society organises regular four-month-long training courses twice a year for new missionaries, who are mostly persons with a professional work experience (for instance, teachers or social workers).

When asked about their expectations from the universities and university education, with the exception of the Red Cross that wishes previous knowledge about project planning, the NGOs are unanimous. They expect that their trainees could obtain general knowledge about development and developing countries from university courses, but seem to be happy about (and with) their own training. So, there seems to an appropriate division of functions between general knowledge on development and the Third World offered by the universities, and more specialised training organised by and fitting the needs of the NGOs.

This apparent fact need not be, however, the only right conclusion. The question is, rather than asking whether NGOs are happy with what they get from the universities', would they and their members participate at courses organised by the universities *if there were* courses on, say, humanitarian assistance? In Finland it is a highly political issue to ask such a question at the moment, but we will return to the topic later.

Discussion

From the above description of the situation on the "Map of Knowledge" at the universities, and the "Chart of Skills" at the NGOs, we can draw some conclusions. Considering the basic policy of the Department of International Development Co-operation of favouring above all good professionals in specialised fields, the universities' dedication to disciplinary education seems a rational orientation. On the other hand, the multidisciplinary study modules of development studies at several universities, and the BA programme of the IDS of the University of Helsinki, complement the specialised disciplinary studies of those students interested in the developing world. The multidisciplinary Ph.D. programme, presently under planning at IDS, would further complement the situation.

The non-governmental organisations carry out taylored training for their own and their members' needs, and expect very little from the

universities except for a sound professional disciplinary education. Here the typical division in (theoretical and general) knowledge offered by university education, and (practical) training for skills offered by other institutions of education and the NGOs is again repeated.

There is, however, an explicitely expressed need for specialised courses, above all in the field of project planning and management and evaluation (the logical framework) at all NGOs, even when they do not directly expect help from the universities. On the other hand, whereas development, multi- or interculturality, human rights and peace studies are taught at the Finnish universities, there were no course(s) on humanitarian assistance at the time when the survey was carried out. With the seminar at the University of Jyväskylä the situation has slightly changed.

We could ask now two questions. Should the universities start offering courses on these subjects and market them to the NGOs? Even when the answer is positive (and this will have to be the topic of serious deliberation) the second questions would logically follow, could the universities accomplish this task officiatly? The eventual answer is a highly political issue at the Finnish university politics for the moment. The national law on universities, approved by the Parlament in 1997, does not stipulate the possibility of charging fees for courses. According to the critiques, this paragraph of the law will lead to the foundation of business-run higher education, whereas the defendors say that there are already existing channels to organise marketable courses. These channels are the Open University and the Centres for Continuing Education, not falling under the legal paragraph. The dividing line between the critiques and the defendors often run across the universities' rectorates.

Anyhow, according to this survey it is possible to see a potential need for courses on project cycle and humanitarian assistance, organised by the universities or rather its dependencies and offered to interested persons and NGOs. As for the moment it is not possible for universities to offer separate courses to outside students who do not want to study whole modules or to persons not having approved the entrance examination to universities, the universities could use the existing structure of Centres for Continuing Education in arranging for special courses in practical developmental and humanitarian work.

But here a specific problem arises that highlights the need for overarching institutional co-ordination in the context of eventual courses. The example of the International Project Planning Workshop of the Centre for Continuing Education of the University of Helsinki will illustrate the problem.

The Centre for Continuing Education planned a 8-month long course with internships on international project work and project planning to start at the beginning of 1998. The Centre had the financial resources to organise the course, but in the last instance the course was cancelled because of lack of interest from the side of target group students (university degree holders). What happened was that students who had not finished their Master's degree were ineligible and those with a job could not leave the job for a lenghty training event. And last but not least, the most suitable target group, unemployed university graduates with work experience would have lost their unemployment benefit if attending the course. The Employment Office authorities had not approved the course as part of official employment training, thus unemployment benefits were not to be paid to the participants, who would have had to content themselves with a lesser educational grant.

In spite of the fact that there evidently is a need if not a demand for university level training in project skills and humanitarian assistance, in addition to general knowledge on development and developing countries, the solution to the demand is not easy to find in practical terms. For the moment the best suitable institutions for organising such courses seem to be the annexes of the universities (Centres for Continuing Education and Open Universities), as the normal university faculties legally are not allowed to offer separate courses or study modules to outside persons, even for a fee. But in planning for such courses, great care would have to be taken that all concerned instances be committed, among others the Employment Office authorities, NGOs and the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Department of International Co-operation.

B6
Country Report: Germany

Wilhelm Löwenstein

Introduction

The attempt to identify humanitarian potential gaps in the education of students with respect to a later employment in the German humanitarian development co-operation requires a dual approach. On the one hand, the demand side has to be covered, i.e. it has to be investigated which qualifications and skills potential employers acting in development co-operation expect from their applicants. On the other hand the curricula of universities were to be checked to find out their supply of humanitarian development-related courses and subjects. Both was done by surveys: the further by a questionnaire sent to governmental and non-governmental organisations, the latter by a coverage of German university home pages. I am indebted to Anja Englert, M.A., who carefully planned and realised the surveys. To provide the reader with a little background information needed to judge the surveys and to follow the discussion and the conclusions a few chapters are added which gives some insights in the structure of German humanitarian development assistance and aid as well as in the system of university education.

The Structure of Humanitarian Development Assistance and Aid

Like in other countries, the German development assistance and aid is based on governmental and on non-governmental funds. Within the governmental part of assistance, the country concentrates on bilateral agreements which contribute to a somewhat 70 % to Germany's total ODA of near to 7 bio. ECU in 1996. Having the employment perspective in mind, the study concentrates on the one hand on bilateral ODA and

on the other on the aid provided by German NGOs because within these two forms of development assistance the most job opportunities for German academics can be found. Multilateral ODA, i.e. governmental funds allocated to international and supranational institutions and organisations committed with development co-operation, is excluded as in contrast to the share of financial means provided by the German government the share in terms of staff of international organisations is still not prominent.

The responsibility for the German ODA on the level of the federal state is distributed among the Ministry of Economic Co-operation and Development (definition of principles, planning, control, monitoring and steering of development co-operation measures, governmental negotiations, co-ordination with other donors), the Foreign Office (humanitarian and infrastructural aid, cultural co-operation, contributions to UN-organisations), the Ministry of Education, Science, Research and Technology, and the Ministry of Economics with the lion's share (70 %) of total ODA being under the responsibility of the Ministry of Economic Co-operation and Development.

Germany's development co-operation in a more narrow sense, i.e. technical and financial co-operation, is in general realised by two big parastatal firms, socalled implementing organisations: the Deutsche Gesellschaft für technische Zusammenarbeit (GTZ) and the Kreditanstalt für Wiederaufbau (KfW). The GTZ provides consultancy services to governmental and non-governmental organisations and institutions of the partner countries with respect to planning and realisation of projects by envoyed and/or local long-term and short-term experts. In addition, it is engaged in the planning and realisation of project-related training, the acquisition of and provision with infrastructure, and other services.

In contrast to GTZ, the KfW is not directly involved in the realisation of development projects but —as a development bank— provides credits and grants for the partner countries. The staff of the bank (more than 1.700 employees, approximately 300 of them working in the development branch of KfW) is charged with checking project proposals formulated by partner countries with respect to the expected development impact, monitoring the projects' progress, evaluating the projects after termination of the financial co-operation, and investigating their sustainability.

Furthermore, the NGO-sector plays an important role in Germany's development co-operation. Within this study, three types of NGOs are covered. First, the independent NGOs which allocate own means and the donations they collected to development co-operation in the

broadest sense (including humanitarian aid). To this first group belong the churches, the political foundations and other private organisations which especially focus on the improvement of the economic, social and medical situation of the poor. The NGOs of this type are often co-funded by government.

A second group are the NGOs funded by government (German Foundation for international Development [DSE], German Development Service [DED]) which concentrate on training programmes for German VSOs and for experts and leaders from the partner countries (DSE). Furthermore they provide and procure German experts for the work in development co-operation programmes and projects and contribute to a small extent to the financing of these measures (DED).

The third group of NGOs is acting for government (CDG, DAAD, AvH, DIE) in training activities for German VSOs and developing countries' experts (CDG), provides scholarships for students and researchers from the south (DAAD, AvH), is active in applied research and in consultancy and carries out training courses for members of the Ministry of Economic Co-operation and Development and the Foreign Office (DIE).

These three groups consist of non-profit organisations either unilaterally doing development-related work or posessing of an important, identifiable development department. Having the employment perspective in view, in addition to the NGOs, the private consulting firms would be of special interest. But nevertheless, they were excluded from some main parts of the following study, because the consultants' structure with respect to focus and funding is so divers that a clear classification as humanitarian development-related is, in a lot of cases, not possible. Consequently, if not otherwise stated, all findings presented here are based on the NGO-survey.

The System of University Education

There are more than 300 institutions of higher education spread all over Germany, with no less than 87 universities. Apart from a few private universities, university education in Germany is tution free. German universities are financially supported by the state, but they are autonomous in research and teaching.

At a German university one can either study for one of the first degrees, i.e. Diploma, Magister Artium (M.A.), and state examination (Staatsexamen), or for a doctorate (Dr.), for which a first degrees is a requirement. The passing of one of the first degrees in general lasts

approximately five years, depending on the elected discipline and the individual student. In contrast to other countries, students can not achieve a first professional qualification —like a bachelor or a bachelor of honours— at an earlier stage of the studies.

An additional difference to other systems of higher education is the considerable freedom with respect to the contents of the studies within the once elected discipline. To guarantee the freedom of choice the different disciplines are organised in faculties which are responsible for the curriculum. The latter usually consists of a big variety of subjects and units where the students —within the frame of the study and examination regulations of the respective faculties— have to decide on their own which subjects and units they want to follow. Prescribed timetables or permanently available advisory professors or tutors are non existent in the German university system. All this leads to the conclusion that the German university system provides a wider frame —critics might say: is less organised— than others. Streamlined courses leading to an academic degree which demonstrates specialisation are not offered at German universities.

As a result, students having passed the final examinations for the first degree, i.e. for a Diploma, a Magister Artium, or state examination, apart from some essentials quite often differ considerably within the subjects that they have elected.

The Survey

Methodological Issues

Chart of skills: In co-operation with HumanitarianNet a questionnaire was developed to investigate the opinion of governmental and non-governmental organisations towards university education in development co-operation and related fields. This questionnaire was distributed via mail and fax to the personal managers of a total of four GOs and 42 NGOs. By this sample, we covered all the big governmental and non-governmental organisations which were broadly described in chapter 1.1.

The questionnaire used consists of 3 parts. The first is devoted to organisational data and covers questions on the organisation's objectives, the number of staff at home and abroad, the foundation date and asked for contact persons. From this part, we expected to derive information on the organisations' specific fields of work and on their demand for graduated applicants. Within the second part of the

questionnaire focusing on the training and educational activities which the institutions organise on their own we wanted to get an indirect indication for existing gaps in universities' skills training. The rationale behind the integration of this complex of questions was the assumption that GOs and NGOs only would carry out courses on those topics where university education is not complete enough. In addition, within this part of the questionnaire we were asking for information on the way the skills training is carried out. The latter to discover differences with respect to university teaching assuming that university education is oriented towards the teaching of hard skills (theories, methods, instruments) in the more or less traditional form of lectures, seminars and exercises and do not care a lot about the formation of soft skills, i.e. ability to work in teams, in changing cultural environments, etc. Within the questionnaire's last part the interviewed institutions were directly asked for major gaps they identify in skills training and for their expectations towards the education at universities and training of skills. Consequently, the information gathered in part three were to supplement those of the second part.

Before starting, the survey was discussed with representatives of NGOs active in training and education of VSO-workers. The same was done with respect to the survey's preliminary results.

Map of knowledge: As pointed out in the introductory chapter, more than 80 universities exist in Germany which are potential suppliers of humanitarian development related subjects and units. It is selfunderstanding that at such number of universities, personal investigations at the different faculties were not possible. Instead, we looked at the universities' home pages in the Internet, which in general are very well organised and give insights even to the level of subjects. We filtered the survey in accordance to the disciplines the universities offer searching for courses, subjects, and units at the faculties and departments of the following disciplines:

—agriculture,
—development studies,
—economics (inl. business administration),
—engineering,
—environmental sciences,
—forestry,
—geo-sciences,
—history,
—Islamic studies,
—law,

—peace studies,
—social science (incl. political science and sociology),
—and regional studies.

In addition we found some aspects related to the survey in the web pages of some medical faculties and some language-training departments.

We structured our findings distinguishing between courses, subjects and units. Courses describe all independent educational supplies of faculties or departments concentrating on development-related issues and ending with an own academic degree or in a rare number of cases with a certificate. In contrast, subjects cover development-related parts of general courses supplied by faculties or departments which can be chosen as minor or mayor to specialise within the general curriculum. The successful participation to subjects is never testified by an own diploma or any other independent academic degree or certificate. As a residual category, units collect all the supplementary information on development related academic supplies which neither fit directly to courses nor to subjects.

Results

Chart of Skills

From the four governmental organisations and the 42 NGOs (s. app. 4) a total of 3 GOs and 41 NGOs answered our questionnaire (s. app. 5). The results with respect to the first part of the questionnaire, i.e. that part where we expected to derive the demand of German NGOs and GOs for applicants from, was supplemented with information from a study of the German Development Institute which covers job prospects of German academics in development co-operation (s. CLAUS, B.; WOLFF, P. (1994 and 1998).

The total figure shows that the market for professionals in development co-operation is rather narrow. It is dominated by consultings and implementing organisations which share two thirds of a total stock of approximately 14,650 academics. As it is to be expected the Voluntary-Services-Overseas organisations contribute non-marginally to the total number of employed in the sector. In contrast, the importance of ministries, churches and political foundations as employers for development-oriented professionals is often overestimated. In Germany, they only contribute to less than 5 % to the total employment of the sector.

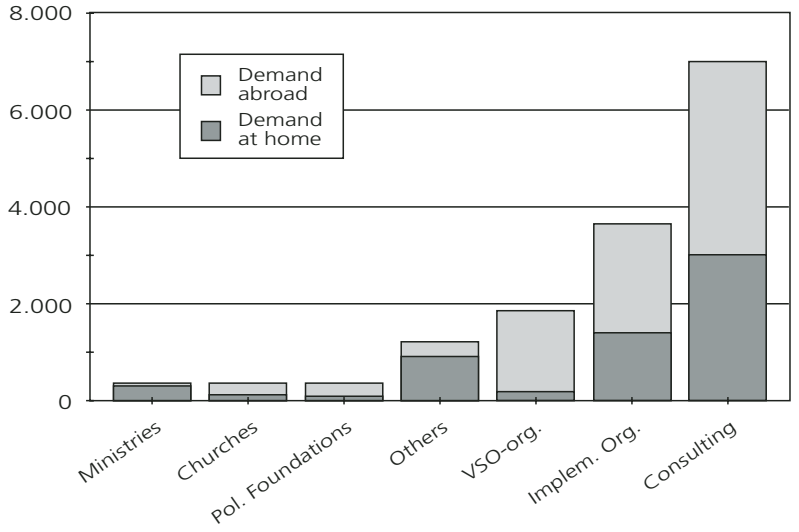


Figure B6.1
The number of German academics working in development co-operation at home and abroad

From the stock values of employment, the quantitative demand for personnel is to be derived. Therefore, the yearly change in the stock of employment is to be estimated. Despite the fact that the employment figures derived from the questionnaires differ to a certain extent from those given in the study of CLAUS/WOLFF (1998) the yearly stock changes presented there are used to estimate the yearly demand for academics by German organisations engaged in development co-operation. These yearly changes in the stock of employment are not always equivalent to the organisations yearly demand as the partly severe budget cutbacks some of the organisations are faced with result in the cancellation of a vacant job. So, the stock changes were adjusted with respect to anticipated cancellations of vacant jobs.

The corresponding data are given in figure 2. It is not surprising that the demand for personnel to be hired for the organisations' administration in Germany is much smaller than for project work. For the former jobs usually timely unlimited contracts are signed whereas for the latter —because of the finite character of development projects— contracts on a time base are the rule. Another difference is to be stressed in the demand for home-based and overseas personnel.

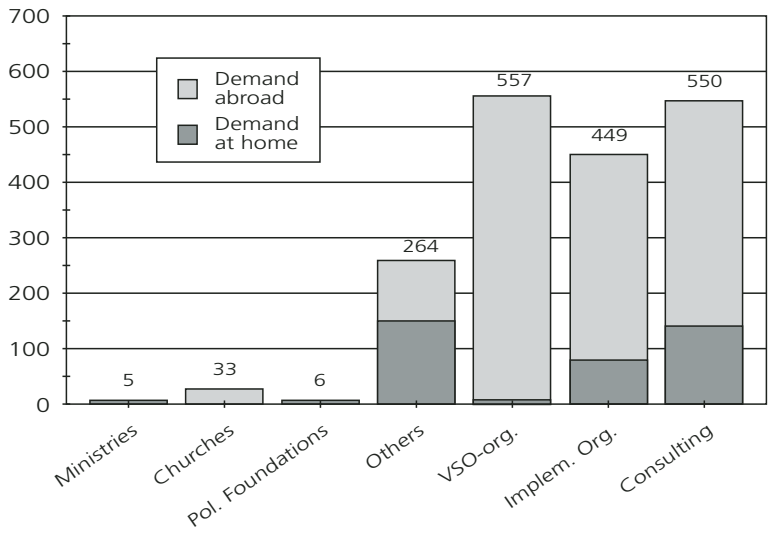


Figure B6.2
Demand for German Academics in Development Co-operation

Apart from the personnel working for consultings, the German administration staff of the other groups of development-related organisations either belongs directly to the public service or factually has the status of public servants. This still holds true despite the fact that in the last years the home-based administrations starts to sign time limited contracts for some of domestic staff, as well. In consequence, budget cutbacks usually do not lead to dismissals at home but only to the above mentioned cancellation of vacant jobs. As a result, the job-reagibility abroad with respect to budget cuts is much bigger, as in times of small money, timely limited jobs are fastly cancelled by simply refusing a prolongation of a contract.

This bigger reagibility of jobs abroad in comparison to jobs in the administration at home becomes obvious comparing figure 1 and figure 2: The demand for personnel devoted for overseas work in relation to the corresponding stock of employment is with 17 % much bigger than the percentage share of demand for academics working in the domestic administrations (7 %).

Figure 2 indicates a total yearly demand for German academics in German organisations of humanitarian development co-operation of 1,863 persons per year. But one should not conclude that this figure is

equivalent to the number of jobs open for young post-graduates just having passed their examinations. For the grand total of vacant jobs more and more professional experience is required and for those abroad the organisations substitute even time-limited contracts by hiring a number of short-term experts. Consequently, documented specialisation and working experience in developing countries gain importance for all applicants. Within this group, a big number of well experienced experts can be found having completed a series of successful contracts who are now looking for a new profession.

Assuming that 2.8 % of all employed definitely leave the sector because they retire or because of illness and death and, furthermore, supposing that the number of active experts entering the development sector is bigger than the number of those leaving it, one easily comes to the conclusion that only a total of 100 to 150 vacant jobs in German organisations engaged in bilateral development co-operation per year will be filled with young post-graduates. This estimate is strongly influenced by the performance of the consultings and it is to be reduced if budgetary cutbacks hit the development sector.

What do the employers expect from the 100 to 150 young post-graduate applicants? As a first result, none of the interviewed organisations identified gaps in the formal, the hard skills of the applicants. From the material, one can conclude that the theories, methods and instruments taught at the German universities are seen to be an appropriate base for a job in development co-operation. This finding is backed by the kind of training some of the interviewed organisations provide for their staff. From the introduction it is known that the German government either funds NGOs or co-operate with others which have the main objective to train administration members and VSO-workers. Hence, the training provided by these NGOs is primarily focused on either refreshing the knowledge of experienced staff members or on preparing the latter and VSO-workers for a mission abroad. As these courses are post-university courses carried out for staff members and not for applicants and as they often have a very specific scope and are closely related to a concrete project or programme, one should not take them as an indication for the existence of a gap between the universities curricula and the needs of organisations active in development co-operation.

From the total of the interviewed independent NGOs, only four offer specific training courses for their personnel. Three of them (i.e. NGOs active in medical co-operation) offer courses with the above described limited scope. Only from the training programme of one political foundation indications for the existence of a gap between theoretical knowledge acquired at universities and the needs of

potential employers can be derived. This foundation offers preparation courses for young staff members with a course-duration between four and six month and a contents which —at least partly— can be seen to supplement university education as it is not limited to prepare the participants for a well defined mission but focuses on a broader range of development-related topics.

Apart from the standard preparation courses the Deutsche Gesellschaft für technische Zusammenarbeit (GTZ), the DIE offers special training for young post-graduates which can be judged to complete university education. GTZ runs the so-called project-assistant programme which is composed of a 4-month preparation phase in Germany and a 20-month training period in a project abroad which focuses on the acquisition of the methodologies used by international development organisations in managing, controlling, monitoring and evaluating development projects. Per term approximately 20 post-graduates finish the programme. They have excellent chances if applying for a job at GTZ or other organisations of development co-operation. The same holds for the trainees having passed the DIE-course. Here, in comparison to GTZ, the training has an even stronger scientific scope. Within the total duration of 20 month the 20 trainees should get familiar with the most important instruments and methods of project planning, implementation and evaluation and should apply their knowledge on a 3-month field study under professional conditions.

One can conclude that a general gap between the needs of NGOs and GOs and the hard skills trained at the universities does not exist. But considering the nearly 100 % chances of post-graduates who passed the GTZ- and the DIE-programme if applying for a job in the development sector, one have to add that a deeper academic specialisation and first professional experiences obviously improves the job perspectives.

The professional experience, i.e. the ability to apply acquired theoretical knowledge, is the most prominent skill which the interviewed NGOs and GOs miss in university education but one can ask whether it belongs to the universities' focus to do training on the job. If one does not go as far as this, one can pledge for a bigger practice orientation in university education, e.g. by introducing case studies and project-work in the universities' development-related courses.

Further key qualifications, I will call them soft skills, the NGOs and GOs expect from their applicants are sensitivity for foreign cultures, the ability to cope with stress, the capability to plan and work in a team as well as independently, the capability for intercultural dialogue, etc. Discussing the problem of soft-skills training with colleagues from GOs

and NGOs the attempt was made to clearly define these soft skills. This attempt was made because if NGOs and GOs expect applicants to posses soft skills then it might be a new focus for universities to integrate soft-skills training in their curricula. It has to be admitted that the attempt failed. Everybody thinks that soft skills are important but hardly anybody is able to clearly describe and define them. Obviously, additional research is needed to find out whether efforts in university education can be made to actively form them.

Because the question of soft-skills training at universities is still unanswered, the following chapter unilaterally focuses on the formation of hard skills at German universities.

Map of Knowledge

Before starting the search in the Internet we dropped from the total of 87 German universities all those concentrating on arts and sports. In addition, long-distance-learning universities and teachers-training institutions were ruled out. As a result, 58 universities were remaining in the sample. From the home pages of these universities we browsed the sites of the above described faculties and departments to check their supply of development-related courses or subjects. In total, 24 German universities provided information on development-related courses and/or subjects in the net, starting with the University of Aachen and ending with the one of Tübingen. The results of the search are presented below.

First, as humanitarian development policy in a broader as well as in a more narrow sense requires an interdisciplinary approach, it is not surprising that only a few monodisciplinary courses can be found. The four courses we identified are provided by institutes or faculties of economics or business administration. They are short-termed crash-courses (duration: between 4 weeks and 2 semesters) covering very specific aspects of development policy and demonstrate the successful participation by a certificate. The courses are focusing on students from the developing world; only one of the four admits students from Germany or other industrialised countries. This latter educational offer is rather specific as it is the only German one requiring a tuition fee (DM 15,000 for two semesters) from the participants.

The 23 interdisciplinary courses found in the net range from Agriculture to Regional Studies often ending with a Master (13) or a PhD (4). The duration of the further courses range between 2 and 6 semesters, the latter are always lasting 6 semesters. Beside the fact that most of the courses are open to German as well to foreign students

they concentrate on the former. This can be derived from the course language, which in most cases (15) is the German language. Furthermore, two Diploma-Courses with a total duration of 9 semesters can be found. These are the only courses really covering a development related area from the very beginning till the end of the studies. All the other educational supplies, i.e. the 13 Master-, the 4 PhD-, the 2 other Diploma- and the 2 Certificate-courses are restricted to post-graduate students, i.e. to those having already completed a Diploma or a Magister Artium in the more or less monodisciplinarily structured general courses. The disciplines involved in the interdisciplinary courses are the same which can be found if one focuses on development-related subjects.

In general, the sum of all subjects a student has to follow to get an academic degree form an entire course. Hence, to avoid double counting, the subjects offered in the above mentioned development-related courses are not integrated in the results presented in the following paragraphs. They can partly be found on CD-ROM on humanitarian development studies attached to this book.

The subjects, as mentioned above, are isolated offers within a more general curriculum. If e.g. a subject "development policy' is found in the general curriculum of any Diploma-course offered e.g. by a faculty of economics or social sciences then it will be noted, here. The search in the web provided the following results with respect to subjects. As a whole 24 development-related subjects were identified, most of them (20) being a minor subject in Diploma- or M.A.-courses. The subjects in general (20 of 24) follow the monodisciplinary approach which is typical for the structure of courses below the Diploma or Magister Artium level in the German university system (s. fig. 3).

Remarkable is the prominent representation of economics among the development-related subjects. This prominent role of economics is also stressed by the findings from the analyses of interdisciplinary subjects offered in the field of development which always contain an economic part.

The interdisciplinary subjects are offered in the following combinations:

—economics, engineering, environmental sciences;
—business administration, economics, political sciences/sociology;
—economics, geography, history, Islamic Studies, political sciences/ sociology.

Noteworthy is the role of Regional Studies in the teaching of development-related issues. A total of 10 such courses were found in the Internet with five courses on East Asian Studies, South Asian and Middle Eastern Studies with two courses each, and one course focusing

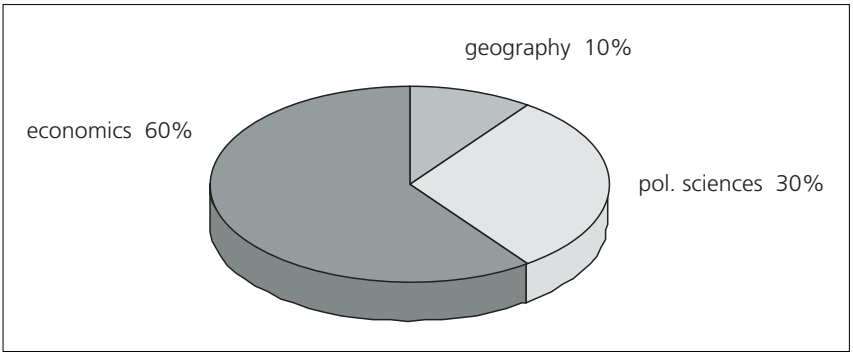


Figure B6.4
Disciplinary Orientation of Monodisciplinary Subject

on Latin American Studies. Despite the fact that regional studies per se follow an interdisciplinary approach, this interdisciplinarity is not present anymore at the level of development-related subjects. They are offered as monodisciplinary subjects, again with a focus on economics and, to a smaller extent, on political sciences.

The relatively modest weight of development aspects in the education at German universities can by derived from their status within the curricula: Apart from five obligatory development-related subjects, all the other are optional. Concerning the study load, they —as a whole— do not differ from other optional subjects (s. fig. 4).

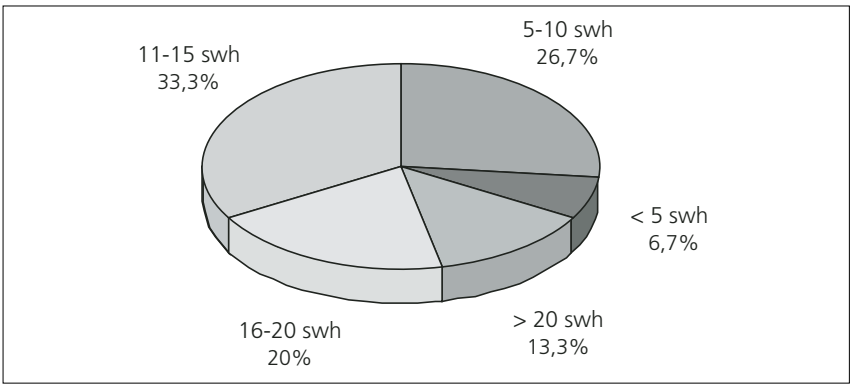


Figure B6.4
Study Load. Development-Related Subjects

The assessment methods in development-related subjects, too, are similar to those applied in other minors or mayors in Diploma- or M.A.-courses: The students in most cases (20 of 24) have to proof at the end of the semester the successful participation to the subjects by passing either an oral or a written examination. This examination does not count for the result of the final examinations but is a prerequisite to be accepted to pass the Diploma- or M.A.-examins at the end of the studies. Within this latter type of examinations the students once again have to proof their knowledge in the minors and mayors, with the results this time being a part of the final examination note. From the development-related subjects covered 18 are assessed by oral and written examinations, both accounting for the final note.

Concerning the teaching methods applied within the subjects, the survey seems to reflect the quite traditional way of teaching at German universities (s. fig. 5).

The figure shows that the participatory impact of the students is rather low: Nearly a quarter of the development-related subjects are trained by lectures which are only supplemented by exercises. It can not be expected that this kind of university education contributes substantially to the students' practice orientation. With respect to seminars and colloquia it is hard to judge from outside in which way they are organised. They might posses characteristics of a lecture but it is also possible that they are organised in a lecture a way comparable to project work. If the latter holds, then positive impacts on practical skills as well as on some of the above mentioned soft skills are to be expected.

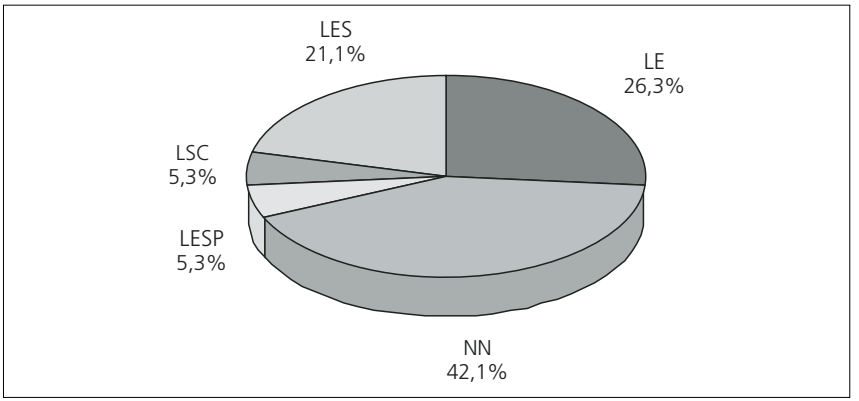


Figure B6.5
Teaching Methods. Applied in Development-Related Subjects

Discussion and Conclusion

The survey indicated that the demand for young post-graduates of the development sector in Germany is rather small. It is to be expected that on a yearly base between 100 and 150 young university leavers will be able to enter the sector. This number is strongly influenced by the budgets disposable to the sector as whole.

Concerning the characteristics of successful applicants the study distinguishes between hard and soft skills, the further focusing on the theoretical and methodological development-related knowledge the students are equipped with by German universities. As only a small number of training courses in development issues exist which focus on young post-graduates it is argued that the German GOs and NGOs are satisfied with the hard skills trained at the universities: It seems as if a gap between the GOs and NGOs demand for and the universities supply of hard skills would not be existent. If that holds true then one can conclude from the disciplinary orientation of the development-related subjects offered by the universities on the key-qualifications young applicants should have. The survey shows that the biggest number of development-related subjects is offered by the faculties of economics followed by those provided by the faculties of social sciences, i.e. political science and sociology. These findings are backed by literature where economic knowledge is seen to be a necessary condition to enter the sector (CLAUS/WOLFF, 1998).

Things are different concerning soft skills, where the NGOs active in development co-operation identify a gap between their needs and the supply of universities. First of all a definition problem remains. It seems to be hard to properly explain what soft skills are. In consequence, a surely not complete enumerative definition of soft skills is given. Looking to the resulting list, the question remains unanswered whether and to which extent soft skills can be trained at the university level.

From the material available in the Internet, it was not possible to derive whether the universities make efforts in soft skills training because the development-related subjects characterisation as to be taught via lectures, exercises or project-work is not precise enough. In consequence, additional work is needed to interpret the importance of soft skills for applicants in the development sector as well as to estimate the role universities can play in the formation of soft skills.

B7
Country Report: Greece

Maria Dikaiou

Introduction

Education, from the elementary to the tertiary level, is free and compulsory up to the age of fifteen. Greek society is educationally oriented, with one out of three teenagers enrolled in some kind of educational program. During the last ten years a number of new universities have been established, while serious efforts were undertaken toward the reformation of the educational system.

However, as most European Societies, Greek society has undergone many changes during recent years. Besides changes in demographic composition of the population, it faces a variety of social problems resulting mainly from socioeconomic crisis and the State's inability to offer assistance to those in need. Having broken traditional forms of social support systems, the Greek society is no longer in a position to respond to the needs of disadvantaged groups. This problem rises as in contrast to the past when Greece exported migrants to richer parts of the world, increasing numbers of migrant workers and refugees from Eastern Europe, Albania and the former USSR now are entering the country with and without legal permits. At the time of writing, the estimated number had reached approximately 5000.

State organizations are often blamed for inability and lack of efficiency to respond to contemporary problems. Beurocratic functions, technocratic mentalities as well as lack of humanistic philosophy, are often attributed to state wellfare institutions. As a response to all this, an interest in non-governmental, voluntary organizations has been developed, leading to ongoing discussions regarding: the new forms of altruism and their social and political dimensions and, their relations to a "renewed" interest in "philanthropy".

As the other studies presented in this book the report on Greece also focuses in the analyses of the skills needed by NGOs and IGOs which are active in humanitarian development and of the development-related courses offered by universities. But in contrast to most of the other papers which discuss the topic from an outward orientation this report presents an analyses which primarily deals with humanitarian development issues inside it's own borders.

Methodology

Map of knowledge

In a first step, the questionnaire (structured similar to the information provided on the CD-ROM) was sent to all Greek universities belonging to HumanitarianNet. Then the filled questionnaires were checked**.** In order to complete the discovered gaps, a form sheet was developed for every university indicating the questions that have not been answered. A desicion then was made to complete the gaps through telephone contacts with universities from other parts of Greece (National Kapodistriako University of Athens and Aegean university). The use of fax contact was omitted in order to prevent problems with the deadlines. The form sheets from the Aristotles university of Thessaloniki were completed by the teachers in charge. Then, with respect to the universities outside the network, their supply of humanitarian-development-related courses was analysed.

It was found that in the universities outside HumanitarianNet no research programs or courses, regarding humanistic issues are existing. The next step was to communicate with the largest universities of the country (University of Thrace, University of Patras, and the University of Crete), in order to find out if related directions in the curricula of the different departments were existing. The first contact was made with the dean's secretary of each university. However, due to the lack of related directions the advice was to further contact the secretary of each department within each university that might have information about related research programs or courses. As a result a contact was made with the Law faculty of the University of Thrace, with the Pedagogical and Primary Education department of the University of Patra, and with the Psychology and Philosophy department of the University of Crete. Then, the teachers in charge were contacted.

Project on Skills

Whatever concerns literature on the humanitarian development actions of governmental and non-governmental organizations a primary research was contacted, using the lists of one of the bigest editing companies in Thessaloniki. At the same time, the networks of the non-governmental organizations were asked to provide related bibliographies. Regarding the actions of governmental or non-governmental organizations the local authorities that have previously developed related programs were asked to provide a formal list of the existed organizations in Greece.

It was found that the state authorities have no systematic list of the related organizations. Therefore, they pointed out key persons, members of non-governmental organizations that would probably have related lists. As the effort of systematic listing and coordination of the different organizations has just started in Greece, a fair number of different catalogs were gathered that had to be evaluated and compared. The catalogs were send from: Amnesty International, Local Committee Against Racism, Human Rights and Youth and Social Organization Forum "All Different All Equal". Then, the related organizations to the thematic subgroups of concern were chosen: Human Rights, Peace Studies, Poverty and Development, Humanitarian Crises, Migration, Multiculturality and Ethnic Conflict. The key persons were then helped to examine the organizations in or out of action, new organizations, or others that have been enrolled in the broader coordination programs. Finally, a new list was developed with all governmental and non-governmental organizations that were in action in Greece. Thirteen governmental organizations were identified. In this list other governmental authorities that deal with related issues were also enrolled. In total, forty-one non-governmental organizations were identified.

From the non-governmental organizations above, 24 were regarded as the major ones in accordance to thefollowing criteria:

International impact: That is, organizations that are branches of international non-governmental organizations:

—(United Nations) High Commissioner for Refugees-Branch Office For GreeceHellenic National Committee,
—Medicines Sans Frontieres,
—Amnesty International Greek Section,
—Medical Rehabilitation Center for Torture Victims-Department of Greece,

—International Organization for Emigrants,
—ICMC-International Catholic Commission for Emigration,
—International Social Service,
—International Observational Post of Helsinki and the Greek Organization for minorities Human Rights,
—Institute of Education for Peace,
—Local Committee against Racism (Cooperation with International Organizations),
—Marangopoulou Institute for Human Rights(Cooperation with International Organizations).

National impact: That is, organizations that have branches in different places in Greece, or act as coordinators (Forum-Network) of a large number of local organizations:

—Human Rights and Social and Youth Organizations Forum: " All Different all Equal" (the bigest coordinator of all non-governmental organizations in Greece),
—Forum of European Communities Emigrants,
—Youth Against Racism in Europe (YRE)[Branches in Athens, Thessaloniki, Naoussa, Drama, Crete, Patra),
—DROM (Voluntary Network against Nomads' Exclusion,
—Repatriate Support and Information Center (four branches all over the country),
—Network for Political and Social Rights,
—Panhellenic Educational Association of Greek Nomad,
—Greek Committee for International Defense and Peace (60 local committees in Greece),
—Unions Federation of Greek from the Black Sea Repatriates from Ex-Soviet Union,
—Panhellenic Federation of Repatriates from Black Sea Associations,
—Social Support Network for Refugees and Emigrants,
—Greek Panafrican Association.

For the description of each non-governmental organization a form sheet was developed according to the questions of the second task of the project on skills. The specific form sheet is given in the appendix of this book.

Telephone interviews were used to contact the non-governmental organizations. This method was preferred instead of sending the questionnaires by mail or fax, as to prevent missing cases and problems with the deadline. An attempt was made to communicate with all 41 non-governmental organizations. However, the communication was

successful with 29 of those. From the major organizations that were referred above the contact was impossible with the: Network for Political and Social Rights, Panhellenic Educational Association of Greek Nomad, Unesco-Hellenic National Committee. From the remaining 17 organizations a contact was established with the 8 below:

—Greek Council of Refugees,
—Hellenic Group for Minorities Rights,
—Center "Communication",
—Jointly Responsible Citizens,
—Minority Movement for Human and Minority Rights,
—SOS Racism,
—Hellenic Union of International Democracy and Mutual Responsibility,
—Voluntary Work Athens.

The contact with the rest of the organizations was not successful.

It should be noted that during our contact with the non-governmental organizations new information about the actions and the philosophy of the organizations were gathered, not included in the questionnaire. These informations will be given in the discussion of the results. At the same time it was considered to contact an interview with one of the key persons in order to have a more complete picture about the actions of the non-governmental organizations in Greece. For this purpose, the representative of Human Rights and Social and Youth Organization Forum: "All Different All Equal" in Thessaloniki was interviewed (this organization is the coordinator of all the non-governmental organizations in Greece), and member of the Local Committee against Racism. The semi-structured interview was used to gather information about the philosophy, the development, the actions of the non-governmental organizations and their cooperation with the governmental ones.

Results

Map of Knowledge

The gaps within the questionnaires were completed and the accuracy of information on courses and units inside and outside the network were checked. Cooperation with one university proved unsuccessful.

The results are presented on the attached CD-ROM. They indicate that outside the network no relevant units or research programs were found in the curricula.

Project on Skills

The review of the editorial catalogues showed that there were no published books in Greece concerning IGO and NGO employment. Most of the published books were in foreign languages. Only two books were identified published by the "Institute of Education for Peace": "Contemporary World Problems and Scientist's Responsibility" and "Education for Peace and Human Rights".

A total of 29 NGOs completed the questionnaire. The analysis of the NGOs data showed that: almost all of the NGOs do not have a training formation department. Nealy half of them nevertheless carry out staff training concentrating on the following skills:

- —the skill to be able to approach the target population (i.e. Medical Rehabilitation Centre for Torture Victims-Dpt of Greece: "approach methods for the victims of torture and their families") (n=8),
- —Knowledge about target population's problems and skills of identifying and solving them (i.e. Voluntary Work Athens: " How to provide… aid for Nomad social integration") (n=8),
- —Skills on raising public sensitization (i.e. Local Committee against Racism: " How to use playing in the sensitization of pupils against racism") (n=3).

According to the information acquired from the telephone contacts, the main reasons for not providing training were:

- —Employees or volunteers working in the NGO were already specialized in issues covered from the objectives of the corresponding organization and they were used accordingly to the existing needs (for example lawyers, economists, psychologists social workers, health professionals etc.) or
- —Employees or volunteers are learning through their experience, working on the issues dealt by the NGOs

In addition, themajority of NGOs did not identify any major gaps in skills training. Only a few organizations referred to gaps, concerning mainly:

- —Skills on approaching target population,
- —Knowledge on the target group's problems,
- —Problem solving.

Consequently, it is not surprising that the majority of NGOs do not expect anything from university-based education and skills training.

Discussion

Map of Knowledge

Today, the higher education in Greece is market oriented. Most of the university departments lead to general degrees of traditional studies (e.g. Law school, Medicine, Polytechnic, Philosophy school). The different specializations offered are also aimed to provide further qualifications for vocational settlement. Within this framework, humanitarian development issues are of secondary interest to the universities. Although, the humanistic approach is evident in the philosophy of educational training, the lack of connection with the job market, result in the lack of specialization in humanitarian development issues. In other words, courses or units that lead to degrees related with humanities are not existed. Only some isolated and time-limited courses are offered in most university departments. Therefore, the approach of humanistic issues depends on personal sensitiveness and initiative. The development of research programs or the teaching of related courses is not systematic and depends mainly on some teachers' actions.

Map of Skills

The development of non-governmental humanistic organizations in Greece started in the end of 80's. Until then, only some departments of international (Amnesty International, Greenpeace), and political youth organizations were active in Greece. During 1989-1990, two major changes, related with the falling of Eastern establishments, emerged. A large influx of refugees and illegal immigrants from the Eastern countries entered Greece requesting either political refuge or better life conditions and work. This new situation raised the awareness and action of people who were already involved in the fighting against racism and xenophobia, and to further contact related international organizations. Until that time, in Greece it was a common sense that these problems were not existing. At the same time, the governmental inability to control this mass influx and to provide adequate help to the new-comers, lead young people to leave the political organizations and look for alternative types of action. As a result, a large number of informal groups dealing with humanitarian issues and more specific with issues of racism and xenophobia were created. These groups were later took the form of non-governmental organizations with the help

and support of the already existed non-governmental organizations in Greece and the rest of Europe.

Within this framework, the results of the present study regarding the operation of these organizations, indicate that the majority of non-governmental organizations in Greece, concentrate on minority and refugee issues. Their main purpose is the provision of law, medical, and socioeconomic support.

From the present results is evident that the members of non-governmental organizations are mainly volunteers. According to the representative of Forum "All Different all Equal", these organizations are based economically on members' contributions. However, with the development of their actions more money were needed, so they turn for support of public authorities, or private businesses, and European programs. From the results obtained, in the last years, the need for a broader cooperation with other related authorities in Greece was evident. Therefore, an attempt was made to cooperate with other non-governmental organizations through the development of networks and forums. This attempt is still in the begining. The character of these networks is to provide a framework for the exchange of opinions and experiences between their members. The formation of a common program of action is directed but not obligatory for the members.

Within this framework, there is an attempt to cooperate with the public authorities. However, according to the Forum representative as well as the representatives of other NGOs, these organizations have doubts about this cooperation. This is mainly due to the character of the public authorities, as they are responsible for the governmental policy, and this is against the philosophy of the NGOs. The governmental concern is more oriented on native Greeks' needs, while there is no systematic approach on minoritys' and refugees' problems and needs. For this reason, the responsibility of the actions on minority's problems are given from the governmental to NGOs to carried out. Therefore, the cooperation between the NGOs and the governmental authorities is limited to the level of local self-government. Authorities, like municipalities, prefectures, or the General Secretary of Youth (the later is more of a local self-government nature), they cooperate with the NGOs, dealing with issues of coordination, organization and financial support. Within this, the results from the present study can be explained more easily. In our effort to communicate with the governmental authorities that deal with humanistic issues we observe a lack of organization and coordination. Personal contact with representatives of governmental authorities and information obtained from the representative of the Forum, revealed that their actions mainly concentrate on the

vocational rehabilitation and the control mechanisms of refugees' influx. Refugees' problems mainly covered by the initiatives of local self-government, while a small number of governmental authorities only deal with the specific issues

The Analyses of the questionnaires revealed that in non-governmental organizations there are no departments responsible for members' education and training. Moreover, no training is planned for the members. In their vast majority, members of NGOs are professionals, having previous experience in working with the target populations and also a knowledge of their problems. There is also a tendency to divide the actions within NGOs according with the professional specialty of each member. For example, the lawyers deal with law issues, the teachers with educational needs, and the health professionals with the health care of the target populations. The rest of the volunteer members deal, mainly with organizational and secretarial issues (e.g. manifestations, conferences, printed matters).

Telephone contact with NGOs revealed that the training of their members has two main purposes: (a) to educate further the members that are already specialized in issues concerning the needs of the target populations and their coping, (b) to educate the new members, those who have no prior experience with the target populations. The educational actions are mainly concentrated on the knowledge, and the development of skills for the awareness of public opinion, the approach of target populations, and the identification and solving of their problems. This education is provided through seminars and meetings held by the organization, or the networks of other non-governmental Greek or European organizations. There is great emphasis on the exchange of ideas and experiences among each organization's members, as well as others, with the purpose of a more effective confrontation of problems. However, as noted by the representative of the Forum, these educational seminars that take place in Greece are not enough to cover the needs of NGOs. Moreover, the majority of the seminars carried out in urban places and especially in Athens, so the participation of the non-urban NGOs is more difficult. At the same time, there is a lack on member's training regarding the development of necessary skills for the approach of the target population and its problems and needs. According to the representative refered above, there is a tendency to adopt educational programs, suggested by foreign NGOs that are not representative of Greek standards. For example, the members of the Local Committee against Racism, receive training in skills regarding the use of play in raising the awareness of schoolchildren against racism. These plays coming from other European countries, so

the members themselves try to adjust these plays in order to fit the needs of the Greek population.

Despite the deficiencies stated above, the NGOs do not seem to expect any cooperation with the universities. This might be due to the seriousness of the problems that NGOs facing with, as they are more oriented on practice, while as stated by the NGOs, universities are oriented more on academics and theoretical knowledge. This is probably the reason why there is no established cooperation between universities and NGOs. However, a small number of NGOs believe, that it is necessary to establish a cooperation with the universities, because universities can contribute on research and analysis of the target population's needs, through the development of skills on approaching minority groups and the cross-cultural relationships. At the same time, universities regarded as the main legislated institutions that have the appropriate reputation and human resourses (students and professionals), in order to promote and guide the actions on humanistic issues and to raise the awareness of public opinion. A very good example of such an attempt is the cooperation of a NGO, the "Institute of Education for Peace" with the Aristotles University of Thessaloniki. One of the most important succeedings of this institution is the introduction of the university of education for the peace and human rights. With the initiative of the Institution's president, who is at the same time professor of Psychology in the Aristotles University of Thessaloniki, a subgroup of education programs for peace and human rights, named "Contemporary World Problems and the Scientist's Responsibility" was established. This program is offered to all students and contain professional lectures from all university departments. This is the only program in the Mediterranean area and one of the few in Europe. From October 1997, the university established also a UNESCO-chair for the Education on Human Rights and Peace.

To summarize, the last years in Greece there is a radical activity in humanities and especially in issues concerning minorities and refugees. At the same time, there is a tendency of developing a network of cooperation between governmental, non-governmental organizations, and the universities. This attempt is only in the begining, and that is why there is a lack of organization and systematic education. However, there are some very important attempts, mainly directed by personal initiative and the initiative of some organizations. The establishment of a more systematic cooperation on the education and actions between all the authorities that deal with humanitarian development issues, would lead to broader actions and more effective coping of problems.

B8
Country Report: Ireland

Jim Phelan

Introduction

This report provides an overview of the present situation regarding support to Third World activities in the Republic of Ireland. In particular, it examines this support from the following perspectives:

1. Governmental Aid (Overseas Development Assistance)
2. Non-Governmental Development Assistance
3. Educational/Training Activities in Ireland related to development
4. Skills Training in Ireland.

Methodology

Secondary information relating to Irish aid, Irish NGO's (Non Governmental Organisations) and the Irish education system was reviewed. Available secondary data was also used for the construction of the map of knowledge for Irish institutions. Institutions with relevant courses or course units were contacted to verify/update existing information. Where new courses were identified, a questionnaire was forwarded to personnel responsible for the course for completion and was followed up with a telephone call or a personal visit. Not all courses are divided into units or modules, thus some difficulty arises in assigning credits to some courses. The sample includes all State-aided third level institutions that impart courses or modules on development issues.

Data was collected from NGOs/IGOs through telephone interviews or postal questionnaires, using information officers, trainers or desk officers at NGOs/IGOs as key informants. The sample included the 6

major Irish NGOs and APSO. Given the particularity of the Irish context, where the vast majority of development aid is provided by a small number of organisations, it was deemed that coverage of these would give an almost complete representation of the Irish NGO/IGO sector.

Definition of Terms

Bilateral Aid:
Aid provided directly by a donor country to an aid-recipient country.

Course:
An educational programme consisting of a prescribed number of lessons, lectures, etc.

Higher Diploma:
Postgraduate degree usually differentiated from a Masters Degree in that the Higher Diploma requires a minor project as opposed to a thesis.

Multilateral Aid:
Aid channelled by a donor country via an international organisation active in development (e.g. World Bank, United Nations Development Programme).

NGO:
Private organisations concerning themselves with the problems of the developing countries and with development issues in general. NGOs raise funds for Third World projects, undertake disaster relief and long-term development schemes, research into development issues, public awareness campaigns on these issues.

Number of Personnel:
The number of workers within the agency including both salaried and volunteer, Irish-based and expatriate staff; this number does NOT include overseas personnel locally employed.

Skill:
A physical, social, mental ability acquired mainly as a result of practice and repetition.

Training:
The systematic development of the attitude-knowledge-skill-behaviour required by an individual to adequately perform a given task/job.

Unit:
Component of a course at undergraduate or postgraduate level

Overseas Development Aid

Historically, the Catholic Church's missionary movement has constituted one of the strongest links with the Third World. It is widely accepted that the missionary movement of the early and middle years of this century supplied an enormous human and material contribution to the education and welfare of the people of many developing countries. Perhaps just as importantly, the activity of Irish missionaries abroad was fed back into Irish society through the Catholic Church's education system, its publications and its traditionally high status within Irish society, has played a crucial role in educating and creating awareness of Third World issues. Indeed it has played a significant role in the formation of Irish policy regarding these countries.

Overseas Development Assistance (ODA) is the Irish government's official development co-operation programme. Prior to the early 1970s, Ireland's ODA consisted almost entirely of mandatory contributions to multilateral organisations such as the UN development agencies. After Ireland joined the European Community in 1973, official development assistance grew in a more systematic way. Ireland began to contribute to the development policy and programmes of the Community. In addition, steps were taken to set up a programme of bilateral assistance, which provided a combination of capital assistance and technical co-operation administered by the Department of Foreign Affairs.

Today, the implementation of the Government's ODA programme continues to be the responsibility of the Department of Foreign Affairs through its Development Co-operation Division and through Development Co-operation Offices and Embassies in partner countries. The ODA Programme, or "Irish Aid" as it is called, has allocated £137 million for 1998 (equivalent to 0.32 % of GNP), the highest level ever both in money terms and as a percentage of GNP. The Government aims to make further significant increases in ODA in the years ahead to meet the UN target of 0.7 % of GNP.

Facilitated by the outstanding performance of Ireland's economy, the growth in money terms has been especially strong since 1992, with the allocation increasing from £40m (0.16 % of GNP) in 1992 to £137m (0.32 % of GNP) in 1998. Figure 2.1 shows the amounts allocated to ODA from 1992-1998.

Irish Government support to overseas development can be broadly categorised into two areas: multilateral and bilateral assistance. In 1998, the allocation for multilateral aid is set to reach £45.9 million or 33.4 %, bilateral aid will be £88.6 million or 64.6 % and the remaining 2 % will account for operating costs.

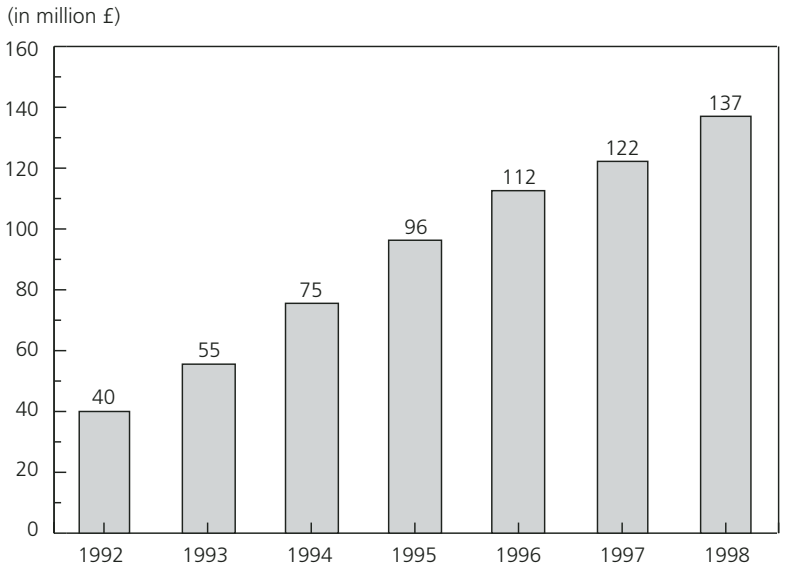


Figure B8.1
Irish Aid allocations, 1992-1998. Source: Department of Foreign Affairs

Multilateral aid is provided through organisations such as the European Union, United Nations and the World Bank. Irish Aid's contribution to multilateral aid organisations conforms as closely as possible with priority areas of Irish development co-operation such as, poverty reduction, self-reliant development, human resources, gender issues, the environment, food security and human rights and democratisation.

Irish Aid's support to bilateral aid can be further broken down into four categories, namely:

—Bilateral Aid Fund
—Agency for Personal Service Overseas
—Emergency Humanitarian Assistance
—Support for Programme Refugees in Ireland

The Bilateral Aid Fund, which accounts for 80 % of Irish Aid allocations to bilateral aid, includes assistance to Ireland's "priority" countries (Ethiopia, Lesotho, Mozambique, Tanzania, Uganda, Zambia) and other non-priority countries, support to Non-Governmental Organisations, rehabilitation assistance, co-financing with multilateral organisations,

fellowships for study in Ireland, development education, democratisation and human rights.

As mentioned above, Irish Aid supports the work of development NGOs and the development work of Irish missionaries is included in the Bilateral Aid Fund. Its total support for NGOs has significantly increased in recent years, both in money terms and as a proportion of total aid: from £3.4 million (8.4 % of total aid) in 1992 is has risen to £18.3 million (15 % of total aid) in 1997.

Irish Aid's support to the Agency for Personal Service Overseas (APSO), which accounts for 12 % of Irish Aid allocations to bilateral aid is set to reach £10.7 million in 1998. Its remit is to promote personal service overseas, recruiting, training and placing Irish volunteers in developing countries. APSO currently sponsors over 1,000 volunteers in the field, ranging from young graduates, through qualified professionals to retired professionals recruited under the Senior Service Overseas programme. Of its £9.5 million income received by APSO in 1996, £7.4 million (77 %) was spent on Support for Personal Service Assignments. It is Ireland's principal training organisation for development workers. In 1996, over 800 workers pursued courses including pre-departure preparation, language development and in-country training.

Irish Aid's support to the Emergency Humanitarian Assistance, which accounts for 7 % of Irish Aid allocations to bilateral aid, is set to reach £6 million in 1998. This funding is channelled through the emergency humanitarian fund programmes implemented by Irish Aid and other NGOs and international organisations including the International Committee of the Red Cross, the UN High Commission for Refugees, UNICEF, the World Health Organisation and others.

Irish Aid's Support for Programme Refugees in Ireland, which accounts for 1 % of Irish Aid allocations to bilateral aid, is set to reach £1.1 million in 1998.

Non-Governmental Organisations (NGO's)

The Irish NGO's Third World involvement has been indelibly influenced by the country's Catholic missionaries. With a decline in religious personnel since the 1970's, volunteer-type NGOs have increased. These have grown largely out of missionary involvement and reflect the values and practices of religious involvement in education, health, rural development and relief activities. The Irish NGO sector is dominated by a handful of NGOs, namely: Concern Worldwide; Goal; Irish Red Cross; Refugee Trust and Trocaire.

Concern Worldwide

Concern Worldwide was founded in Dublin in 1968 as a response to the famine and suffering caused by the Nigeria/Biafra civil war. It is a voluntary NGO devoted to the relief, assistance and advancement of people in need in less developed areas of the world. Concern works in 12 countries in Africa, Asia and the Caribbean on long-term development projects as well as emergency relief operations. Public donations amounted to in excess of £8.19 million in 1997. Thirty-eight percent of income came from public donations, 48 % was raised from co-funders (the Irish, UK and other European Union member state governments, UN agencies, other NGOs and the World Bank), 12 % from donated goods and services and the remaining 2 % from deposit interest. In 1997, total income exceeded £21.6 million. Total expenditure for overseas projects was over £19 million. Eighty-seven percent of the agency's resources went to relief/development/ development education, while the remainder was used to cover promotion and support (11 %) and administration costs (2 %).

Goal

Goal is a non-denominational, non-political organisation whose resources are aimed at reaching the poorest of the poor and the most vulnerable in the developing world. Goal is currently working in 17 countries in Africa, Asia and Eastern Europe and also supports numerous indigenous and missionary groups in Africa, Asia and South America involved in a wide range of humanitarian/development activities. Its total resources for 1996 of £6.9 million were collected through 24 % private and 72 % public funds and 4 % self-financing. The two greatest destinations of Goal's relief and development expenditure in 1996 (£6.6 million) were the Great Lakes Region (£1.5 million, principally for refugee programmes) and in northern Sudan (£1.3 million, half of which was used for emergency assistance to displaced people).

Irish Red Cross

The Irish Society of the Red Cross is a member of the International Federation of Red Cross Societies offering relief to communities suffering as a result of war in their country or suffering in the aftermath of natural disasters. At present, the Irish Red Cross is supporting relief operations in the former Yugoslavia, Chechnya, Rwanda, Zaire, Korea,

Iran, Albania, Congo and others. The budget of the Irish Red Cross was £1.98 million (1993). Seventy-six percent of its funds came from private donations, while the remainder, 20 % came from public funding and 4 % self-financing.

Refugee Trust

The Irish Refugee Trust's mission is to relieve hardship and distress throughout the world amongst refugees and displaced people and those who have fled their homes as a result of war, persecution or natural disasters. The budget of the Refugee Trust was £1.1 million in 1997. It receives only 20 % of its funding from public sources while the remaining 80 % comes from the private sector.

Trocaire

Trocaire (Irish for "mercy") is the Catholic Agency for World Development set up by the Irish Bishops as an expression of the Irish Catholic Church's concern regarding the needs and problems of developing countries and issues of social justice. It is involved in supporting projects in a large number of countries. Total income for 1996-97 (year ended February 28, 1997) was £12.9 million Fifty-one percent of funding for its work comes from public donations, while co-financing (45 %, primarily from Irish Aid and the European Union) and investment income (4 %) make up the rest of its income.

The portion of Trocaires spending expressly dedicated for development aid accounted for 35 %, outstripping the o/ther categories by some distance. Another considerable portion of expenditure went for emergency relief some 14 % of overall spending, while spending on Rwanda rehabilitation and development accounted for 16 %.

Results

Education and Training Activities

The aim of this section is to present a brief description on the education system in Ireland, to depict development studies or related courses or units offered at third level institutions in Ireland and provide an overview of the content of these programmes.

Structure of Education

Primary level education consists of an eight-year course of study implementing a curriculum developed at national level by the Minister for Education. Through the preparation and continuous updating of a school plan, individual schools adapt the curriculum to suit the particular needs of local children. The primary education sector comprises primary schools (commonly known as national schools), special schools and non-aided private primary schools. The vast majority of children attend national schools of which there are some 3,300 located throughout the 26 counties of Ireland.

Second-level education consists of a three-year junior cycle followed by a two- or three-year senior cycle. The former, the Junior Certificate Programme, was introduced in 1989 and provides a single unified programme for students aged broadly between twelve and fifteen years. In the senior cycle, called the Leaving Certificate Programme, pupils must take at least five subjects, including the Irish language. Students may spend up to three years in senior cycle. They may follow a two-year Leaving Certificate programme immediately after Junior Certificate, or they may opt to follow a Transition Year programme prior to a two-year Leaving Certificate programme. The Transition Year has been introduced to provide students with enriched opportunities for personal development. Between secondary, vocational, community and comprehensive schools, there some 768 institutions providing second-level education in Ireland. The pupil-(full-time) teacher ratio at second level schools is 17:1.

Third level education comprises the universities, the technological colleges, the teacher training colleges as well as some non State-aided private higher education colleges. There are about 89,700 students enrolled in higher education institutions.

Development Education

A National Committee for Development Education (NCDE) was established in 1994. The NCDE aims to promote and support development education in Irish society through co-operation with groups, schools and other places involved in education/learning. Their activities in 1997 focused mainly on the training of teachers in primary school development education.

A number of groups offer in-service training to secondary school teachers, including a national programme of in-service training targeting

all teachers involved in human rights education by Amnesty International. The input into development education at both primary and secondary levels is still quite small.

Very few development studies opportunities exist at a undergraduate third level. The sole development studies degree programme at undergraduate level is targeted at mature (over 23 yrs.) students. As a result, any interest that is created by the limited development education initiatives at primary or secondary level must be carried over to the postgraduate level or channelled into the studies of Geography, Sociology, etc. where similar units within undergraduate degree programmes exist. Table 4.1 shows the courses that are available at the different institutions in Ireland which have a particular orientation towards humanitarian assistance or development.

The data shows clearly that two areas dominate the Irish humanitarian assistance/development related education provision at third level institutions. These are development and health. Its not surprising to see development featuring strongly given Irelands development history and the strong focus on development by both Irish Aid and many of the Irish NGO's. A deeper analysis of the courses also shows that there is a significant focus on personal development within the courses with communication skills, group skills, leadership and participation skills featuring strongly in many courses. In addition there are not many courses that have a total overseas development orientation.

Many courses focus on development principles and personal development which has almost universal application. It should also be borne in mind that at third level many students from developing countries undertake research masters and PhD study programmes which are tailored to the specific needs of the individual and are not supplied through formal courses.

Skills Training

This section examines the present state of training for development workers and identifies the skills that NGOs and APSO (Agency for Personal Service Overseas) believe key for these professionals. In particular, it assesses:

—Existence of a training department within the organisation
—Who carries out training
—Type of training carried out
—How training is carried out

—Gaps in NGO training
—NGO expectations of Universities vis-à-vis education and training

Table 5.1 shows the total number of personnel employed by the different agencies in Ireland; the number of workers employed by the agencies and working in developing countries. It is important to bear in mind that due to the extremely changeable situation of humanitarian assistance/development, there is a constant flow of persons in and out of agencies, all the figures given must be viewed with care and seen as very approximate.

Table B8.1
Irish Personnel Working with Major Development/Relief Agencies

Agency	Personnel	In Developing Countries
APSO	627	597
Concern Worldwide	120	90
Goal	49	34
Irish Aid	82	73
Irish Red Cross	45	44
Refugee Trust	16	11
Trocaire	66	7

The responses of key informants regarding the existence of a training/formation unit within the organisation. show that three of the six agencies have a training department. Two of these three agencies did not have a formal training unit in name, but they carried out some training themselves. All of the agencies stated that they did carry out some form of training for their workers. To varying degrees, some stated that they relied on APSO for the provision of training.

The four organisations who answered the previous question affirmatively offered a varied range of skills training. There was some common ground in the provision of project-related training, but generally the emphasis on skills was different from organisation to organisation: APSO provided more interpersonal skills, Trscaire more issue-related skills (health, gender, human rights, etc.), Concern, essentially analytical, project-related skills, while Goal focused mostly on project-specific skills.

The two agencies that referred to methodology/format mentioned a range of training possibilities including: meeting with refugees, case

studies, seminars, practical exercises, workshops, lectures, facilitation, lecture/facilitation and participatory learning.

Regarding the inadequacies in development workers' training as perceived by the agencies surveyed, there was a good deal of common ground. They all emphasised areas of project management and interpersonal skills. The responding agencies had a variety of responses as to their expectations of universities offering development/relief courses of study. A common theme that appeared was the desire for communications and management skills to be part of universities' development/relief studies curriculum.

Summary and Interpretation

Development education has only recently been introduced into the formal education system at primary and secondary levels in Ireland. Its coverage in the lower cycles of formal education is still very limited. However, through the NCDE and other bodies, there are plans in place to integrate development education into formal education curricula in the near future. Similarly, at the undergraduate degree stage in third level institutions, the majority of education on development issues is provided through more conventional subjects such as Geography, Social Sciences, etc. In the limited cases where development education is available at undergraduate level, it is targeted mainly at mature students

The "map of knowledge" identifies 20 programmes of study that support development/relief, the vast majority of which are at postgraduate level. Most of the courses deal with these issues from an Irish as well as Third World perspective. Within the postgraduate programmes, the single most common unit is rural/local development, however, a number of these units primarily focus on the Irish context. The next most popular unit is management/project-related skills (i.e. planning, analysis, etc.) which is a component of almost half of the courses. Political studies are also a frequent unit within developmental programmes as is research methods.

Education and training is important to NGOs and other agencies working in the field. This is shown in the "chart of skills", which details the skills training NGOs and APSO provide, gaps in training and opportunities for universities to contribute to the education/training of development/relief workers. At present, skills training is mainly limited to short programmes lasting days/weeks aimed at enhancing the skills of selected candidates preparing to work overseas. To this end, the

training programmes are designed to build on the students' previous knowledge of the development situation and/or their previous experiences whether Irish-based or overseas.

Most of the NGOs provide training for their personnel, but few actually carry out this training. APSO is the principal third party source to whom the agencies approach to carry out training. In general, training is carried out on a number of topics with a variety of teaching methods used to impart skills. The gaps in skills training identified by the organisations varied from agency to agency but the most common deficit areas were project management and communication skills. The most common theme with regard to NGOs expectations from the universities is the desire for communications and management skills to be part of universities' development studies curricula.

There are no official mechanisms to co-ordinate NGOs' perceived needs to universities at present. Contact between agencies and universities occurs mostly through informal channels and through individuals. It is envisaged that if there were greater communication and co-ordination among the universities, NGOs and APSO, development/relief workers' needs could be better served. A greater degree of openness and frankness on the part of NGOs and greater flexibility by universities is needed to facilitate this process.

B9
Country Report: Italy

Teresa Albano
Massimo Caneva
Walter Nicoletti

Introduction

The structure of the education system

Law no. 127/97, known as the Bassanini law, opened the door to the re-organisation of the civil service. The consequences of this law reverberated in all the sectors of the public administration, especially, the education system, that is dealt with here. Law no. 127/97 acknowledged the independent management and organisational capabilities of Italian universities. In the Italy of today, university bodies enjoy greater freedom than in the past, with regard to establishing their own internal by-laws, so long as they remain within certain general guidelines, set up with a view to harmonising and bringing together the educational systems of the European Union.

With regards to the Italian University system, it must first of all be pointed out that it is partially free. The system imposes a "token" price that varies according to the income bracket of the students' families. The annual mean cost per student varies between 7 million Italian Liras (about 3,600 ECU) for the humanities, to 15 million Italian Lira (about 7,700 ECU) for engineering. The state bears about 80 % of this cost through a policy of subventions, scholarships and various university services while the remaining 20 % is covered by university taxes that range from a minimum of ITL 300,000 (about 155 ECU) to a maximum of ITL 900,000 (about 460 ECU).

Italian universities award four academic qualifications: the university diploma (commonly known as the "short degree"), the university graduate's degree, the specialisation diploma and the research doctorate.

The university diploma is awarded after a study course of two or three years, aimed at providing the student with a firm foundation in

the methods and cultural and scientific content of the subject, so as to enable the student to acquire the specific skills required for certain professional sectors.

The graduate's degree, awarded after a study course that varies between four and six years, is aimed at providing students with a higher level of cultural and scientific grounding. It gives the holder the right to the title of "Doctor" in Italy, although for subjects that give access to the professions, professional practice is further subjected to a specific state examination.

The specialisation diploma gives the holder the right to the title of specialist in professional practice. It is awarded after a post-graduate course of at least two years' duration. Each faculty determines the curricula, subjects and number of hours of study separately.

The course leading up to the research doctorate lasts between three to four years and is aimed at providing an in-depth knowledge of the methods of scientific research so as to enable the student to obtain important original results in a given sector. Universities also offer up-dating courses that generally last one year and are aimed at increasing the professional standard of the training acquired at the graduate degree level.

The administrative and didactic independence of Italian universities is considered by the Ministry of Universities, Scientific Research and Technology (MURST) as a central tool in gradually orienting the university teaching structure towards greater autonomy and quality. This autonomy involves decentralisation on the basis of the specific features of the educational structures of each university, greater responsibility for results and a high degree of co-ordination between institutions, bodies and economic operations so as to better define demand and supply for training and bring these factors more in keeping with the requirements of a region, a research sector or a field of economic activity.

This effort requires getting rid of consolidated and unfruitful bad habits that underlie the two great ills that have plagued the Italian university system, distinguishing it from other European systems: the high number of students who leave university without completing their studies (currently still at 70 % of university enrolments) especially during the first year, and the excessive duration of university studies that leads, among other things, to the typically Italian phenomenon of large numbers of students who are "out of course" (i.e. not having finished the course requirements for the year in which they are at university), so that many students are "parked" stagnantly "out of course" for years. These shortcomings are compounded by the sheer

size of certain universities. This sort of exploded gigantism hinders the relationship, between professors and students, and therefore removes an important factor that could greatly contribute to academic success.

Therefore, although there is a theoretical "right of access" to university education, it is hampered by a existence of rules that in fact, denies the real substance of the right to education, that is to say, the potential right to study in normal conditions, leading to a final benefit. It is precisely this lack of productivity of the system that increases the rate of elitism. The social strata of graduates has, in fact, remained substantially unchanged since the end of the Second World War, despite the liberalisation of access to university in 1969. To this day, a university education remains essentially an upper middle-class privilege. Furthermore, Italy remains amongst very low on the list of OECD countries in terms of the percentage of GDP earmarked for investment in enhancing the right of access to university education. The in-depth innovative reforms launched in 1997 seem to have opened the doors to considerably reversing this tendency. The path towards setting up a university and school system worth of its name, seems well on the way to being finally paved.

The structure of development co-operation

Even with regard to development co-operation, in recent years, Italy is going through a deep crisis in terms of Public Development Aid that is based on the now obsolete law no, 49/89 that governs Italian co-operation with The developing Countries. This crisis that is just one expression of the turmoil that besets all the public structures of the country, lead to such great reflection on the legislative instruments involved, that the government and the main political forces presented bills aimed at an in-depth reform of the Italian development co-operation, so as to bring it in keeping with the new international situation and with the results of the experience gained in recent years. The numerous episodes of corruption that have recently emerged are more the result, rather than the cause of this wider crisis.

In the Italian system, development co-operation activities can be undertaken by public and/or private bodies. The following are the main sources of funding:

Private donors:

tax benefits are often used to solicit donations from profit-oriented institutions and companies;

Public institutions:

Article 1 of law no. 49/87 defines development co-operation as an "…integral part of the Italian foreign policy". The Foreign Affairs Ministry, in collaboration with NGOs that have received accreditation through the procedure stipulated in law 49, delegates the implementation of "entrusted" projects, or partially finances "promoted" projects. These development co-operation and development education projects are those that the Ministry deems to fall within and/or to be relevant to "Italian foreign policy";

The Catholic Church:

The commitment of the Catholic Church, not only at the moral level but also in terms of funding, goes a long way back into history and finds its roots in the concept of the "missions": to go and live amongst people so as to bring them the message of redemption. The church's action is seconded by lay volunteer work based on the concept of being useful to others, to "freely" give to others without asking for anything in return, whether in economic or political terms. This is the "saintliness of the man in the street".

The European Union:

Despite the fall in the percentage of GDP of member-states earmarked for aid, as shown in the table below, the EU has become the most attentive partner and the most generous donor when it comes to development aid and emergency intervention. The crisis in former Yugoslavia dramatically raised the issue of the opportunity to set up an EC foreign policy. Signs of this can be seen in the care and solidarity expressed with regard to non-EC countries in a bid to combat the vision of "Fortress Europe".

The current stagnancy that besets Italy is but the result of the bad co-operation policies of the 1980s. This is clearly highlighted by a single figure: the mean duration of procedures preceding the approval of a co-operation project ranges from two to three years, entailing the serious consequences that are quite easy to envisage.

The breakdowns caused by bad Italian co-operation policies in the 1980s are not the result of organisational malfunctions, but the consequence of a theoretical and practical conception of "low-level" foreign policy, that is say, policy with a low qualitative and political profile as well as procedures, attitudes and rules suited to this sort of policy that is nurtured by confusion in roles, co-existence of a vast variety of institutional, social and political reference points, priorities that could be re-defined on a case by case basis, administrative rules that were so confused that they could be applied, even after the fact, if

necessary, to justify just about any result and any decision. Those in involved in these bad co-operation policies found a system of rules that could be used and exploited to rob the donors blind, while others used the same rules correctly, as they were intended to be used. It was the rules that made up the weakness of Italian co-operation because they are in fact drawn up with specific and functional reference to a context featuring a very deep crisis in the Italian political system that certainly did not spare foreign policy. Corruption was, unfortunately, not the only expression of the crisis, although the pervasive nature, intensity and grass-roots grip of corruption in Italy is most certainly an alarm bell, the most obvious symptom of the extent of the social cancer. It is indeed difficult to see how a political system in turmoil could envisage high level foreign policies.

For years Italian foreign policy was re-constructed after the fact: everything was already done and established, delegated to the Western alliance. Italy had already decided in which camp it stood, in an international context frozen in the dynamics of "blocks". Italian politicians therefore have little leeway to manoeuvre in the margins of broad policy decisions, perhaps sometimes allowing themselves the luxury of a few transgressions or organising some embarrassment for the U.S. In this climate, the government benches and joint opposition ranks could do no better than to divide the world into "protectorates" in which they could each curry favour with their "domestic" and foreign friends, without the nightmare of competition or serious hindrances.

One of the most obvious and least considered symptoms of the long crisis of the Italian state lies in the fact that most civil servants made it a habit of considering the decisions of the government as mere expressions of the will of the majority, to be considered seriously, but also bearing in mind that the majority can change and that in any case, the position expressed by minority parties also merit respect and attention, albeit to a somewhat lesser extent. Following this reasoning, it is always good practice to try to make everyone happy, perhaps by setting up the greatest number of commissions, committees and "round tables", in the hope that no invitee would rise and say that he was seriously disappointed in his expectations.

The rules of Italian co-operation were inspired by this attitude and with this aim in mind. The regulatory system was not designed, for instance, to allow the distribution of resources on the basis of qualitatively rigid criteria, or to favour parties that produced the best results, or to ensure correct information and equal opportunity to companies that send in tenders for the supply of goods and services or

to companies that desire to take part in co-operation projects in other ways. Furthermore, punitive measures were either inapplicable or simply not applied in fact. For instance, there has never been a single case of revocation of accreditation of an NGO because it did not live up to the tasks and commitments assumed. Yet, it is common knowledge that, side-by-side with the NGOs that have become the pride of Italian co-operation, there were many others that were set up solely because the Italian co-operation ministry still had funds to distribute. It is to be seen in coming months whether the declared intention of re-constructing the state structure and the political system will in fact make objective and concrete progress. The choices made with regard to co-operation will serve as a useful yardstick to measure the real scope for reforming the rules of behaviour of the government and other political forces.

Definition and structure of the tertiary sector

To better understand the universe of NGOs, that together with Universities, make up one of the two poles of operators dealt with here, it is useful to first briefly examine the definition and structure of the tertiary sector that constitutes the institutional and legal framework of reference within which non-profit organisations live and operate at the national level.

The tertiary sector is already taking on the form of an emerging phenomenon in contemporary societies. When considering the tertiary sector as an emerging social phenomenon, we must underline that in this case "emerging" does not simply imply a rapid diffusion and growing importance of the activities it undertakes, but it also indicates that said phenomenon is free of those social interactions which create something that is neither predictable nor describable with respect to the point of departure. For this reason, we can see a spreading form the micro-social level (inter-subject) to a macro-social level (as an entire society's system), with a tendency to stabilise at a meso-social level —that is, in supra-individual social formations with an infra-collective range of action.

The tertiary sector, in fact, corresponds to the need for a third point of view in social relations which is different from the individual one (liberalistic) and from the holistic one (collectivist). In this sense, the tertiary sector does not fulfil an integrating role, aimed at completing the work carried out by public and/or private institutions. Neither does it fulfil a marginal role, concerning niches of particular

peoples and providing very specific services, whose autonomy is limited by spaces left empty by the public institutions and the for-profit enterprises. The tertiary sector increasingly turns its attention, not only to pathological conditions, but also to "physiological" situations, every-day life.

Therefore the tertiary sector presents itself as a group of autonomous and specific activities, with their own operative areas, which is not conditioned by other actors. It is an organised reality, of political importance and economically active, culturally speaking a carrier/bearer of codes which are clearly distinct from those of the State and the market, which follows its own development model, that of "creating solidarity".

Especially in Italy, the tertiary sector is gaining ground. The creation of the Permanent tertiary sector Forum in 1994 places itself within an increased capacity for co-ordination, for common work, for political proposals and for communication with national institutions. The managing groups of the main associative and voluntary activities, of social and international co-operation have been called upon to come out from the shadows and to work towards the construction of a new unifying social representative in our country. Today the tertiary sector in Italy represents 2 % of the GDP, provides work for approximately 400,000 people, while another 300,000 are volunteers. Forecasts show an exponential growth in this sector, so much so that within the next 5 to 10 years the tertiary sector could actually represent 10 % of GDP.

Terminology an methodology

Tertiary Sector:

The term Tertiary Sector, also known as the tertiary system, private social sector and non-profit sector, includes all those activities which can be distinguished by the fact that they operate on the basis of a logic and practices which are different from those of the State and of traditional enterprises (for-profit enterprises).

An organisation can be defined as non-profit if it:

—has a private legal status;
—cannot distribute its profit, directly or indirectly, to associates, members or employees;
—is characterised by the presence of voluntary services;
—is an expression of the local community.

Tertiary Sector Permanent Forum:

representative of Tertiary sector organisations, recognised as official Government interlocutor. It is a national organisation, made up of citizens' associations and movements, and organisations regarding social co-operation and voluntary work. The quadrangular table around which sit the Government, Confindustria, Unions and Tertiary Sector has been installed within the Ministry for Social Affairs. On 18th April 1998 in Padova, in the presence of the president Prodi, a "pact" was signed between the Tertiary Sector and the Government to ensure that the latter will carry out a series of social policies and to ensure the development of the Tertiary Sector's activities.

ONLUS - Organizzazioni Non Lucrative di Utilità Sociale (Non-profit Organisations of Social Utility):

the following are classified as ONLUS: foundations, associations, cooperatives and other private bodies which have a single objective: solidarity; and a statute which permits solely socially useful activities. They are obliged to draw up an annual balance sheet or statement; they are not allowed to distribute profits, funds, reserves or capital; they are not allowed to provide services which are different from those of the organisation, nor may they promote the economic, political, union or class interests of those persons (and members of their families) who are a part of the organisation or who have a working relationship with same. Art. 9 of law n. 622/96 includes voluntary organisations and social cooperatives which adopt the ONLUS regime as well as ecclesiastical bodies of a religious denomination.

NGOs of Development (NGDO):

all non-governmental organisations which carry out development co-operation activities may obtain recognition according to law 49/87, articles 28 and 29. Said recognition gives them the right to a concession on contributions for the carrying out of co-operative activities promoted by themselves for up to 70 % of the cost of the initiatives, as well as insurance and health cover for all personnel who travel abroad for co-operative activities. Non-recognised NGOs are non-profit organisations, set up according to the Civil Code, which have a legal status, but which are not suitable for public development funds.

For the definition of a Development NGO, we refer to the NGOs Charter, which was created following a debate which grew up within the Comité de Liaison des ONG de Dévéloppement (CLONG) and the European Commission. The Charter, although it mainly concerns the NGOs external activities regarding Development Cooperation, supplies

an overview of the principles applied by the NGOs to their internal organisation.

In Italy there are three large NGO federations:

—the COCIS, Coordinamento NGO Cooperazione Internazionale allo Sviluppo. Of laical inspiration, it comprises 25 NGOs and operates mainly by sending "co-operators" to work on site (please refer to law n. 49/87 for the definition of co-operator);
—the CIPSI, Coordinamento di Iniziative Popolari di Solidarietà Internazionale. Of Catholic inspiration, it comprises 27 NGOs and operates using methods which do not require the sending of volunteers or co-operators abroad;
—Volontari nel mondo - F.O.C.S.I.V., Federazione Organismi Cristiani Servizio Internazionale Volontario. Of Catholic inspiration, it comprises 56 NGOs and operates by setting up initiatives which send volunteers abroad and the setting up and running of projects on site;
—The non-federate group. It comprises 59 NGOs of different inspirations, which do not adhere to any national co-ordination.

FORUM is a European co-ordination of agencies for the sending of personnel abroad, founded in 1964 under the auspices of the European Council. It has consultative powers within the European Council and sits as an observer at the Comitato di Collegamento delle NGOs. Its objective is to co-ordinate more than 250 agencies for the sending of volunteers abroad, including NGOs and government-controlled organisations. Its members come from 19 European countries and together represent 12,000 field volunteers who work in over 100 LDC.

Development co-operation:

in order to fully understand the Italian system within which the operators of international solidarity work, we think it useful to recall the legal definition of "development co-operation" as provided for by art. 1 of law n. 49/87. In the first comma said articles establishes that:

> "Development co-operation is an integral part of Italy's foreign policy and it pursues objectives of solidarity between peoples and of a full achievement of the fundamental rights of Man, based on the principles ratified by the United Nations and the CEE-ACP Conventions".

In the second comma its aims are defined:

> "It is aimed at satisfying primary needs and above all at the safeguard of human life, alimentary self-sufficiency, the utilisation of

> human resources, the conservation of the environmental heritage, the setting up and consolidation of the processes of endogenous development and the economical, social and cultural growth of developing countries. Development co-operation must also be aimed at bettering the status of women and of children and at sustaining the advancement of women".

The methodology used for the gathering of material regarding training in the non-profit field was that of the issuing of a questionnaire addressed to Universities and ONGs —the two categories most greatly involved in training activities, the former due to their institutional vocation, the latter both for vocational reasons and for operative necessity.

The study sample has been chosen on the basis of the following options:

—Human Rights;
—Peace Process Studies;
—Poverty and Development; Humanitarian
—Crises and Emergencies;
—Migration, Multiculturalism,
—Ethnic Conflicts.

Results

As mentioned in the introduction, the Italian education system has recently opened up to a period of great changes. Bassanini's law provides the starting point, although it does not yet contain an organisational design for reform, but rather prepares the way to enable it to take place. At the moment, from a political point of view, the course being followed still avails itself of "downpour measures" due to the difficulty in forcing certain internal situations of old privileges under which the Italian Universities used to and still do operate. The favourable welcome which these initial measures have received gives us high hopes for the future, a future in which the Italian Universities will surely play an increasingly active and direct role in the determination of training courses and in setting up autonomous initiatives.

The approval of the new immigration law, n. 40/98, takes a step in the same direction. Having overcome the by now obsolete reciprocity criterion, as far as the acceptance of foreign students in Italian universities is concerned, the national universities are now open to

that type of intellectual immigration which constitutes an enrichment of the student population, in terms of cultural exchange and creative stimulus. The reform regarding development co-operation, which should be introduced at the end of the year, should help to complete the plan of a Country, which, by using its human resources, is seeking to pull itself up out of a period in which it has not been among the leaders in the challenge for the training of future national and European ruling classes.

The material collected with regards to Italian Universities is not uniform.

A distinction must be made between undergraduate and post-graduate specialisation. Undergraduate specialisation is offered as a part of certain courses for graduate degrees —especially degrees in Political Science, Medicine, Geography, Agriculture, Law, Economics & Commerce, Educational Sciences— allowing students to opt for a course that, from the third year onwards, focuses more specifically on a certain sector of study. This specialisation course is not underlined in the final academic title awarded at the end of the course, that will remain the same for all similar graduate degrees, regardless of the choice of undergraduate specialisation. For instance, the title of "Doctor of Political Science" (Bachelor's Degree in Political Science) is the same regardless of whether the new graduate opted for specialisation in international studies, political history or sociology.

Graduates in the subjects listed above can later choose to follow an up-dating post-graduate course focusing on themes that are of interest to a particular graduate: development co-operation, emergency management, humanitarian aid, etc. considered from the viewpoint of the various types of methodology applied in each sector.

This makes it difficult to evaluate the consistency of the courses in question, since the human target is widely differentiated. Undergraduate specialisation courses may sometimes feature very specific content but rarely adopt the multi-disciplinary approach that such subjects require and that is followed in post-graduate courses. Furthermore, there is a difference in the cost of the courses: undergraduate specialisation courses are free since they are part of the course leading up the bachelor's degree while post-graduate up-dating and specialisation courses must be paid for by students and entail a cost ranging from about ITL 650,000 (about 335 ECU) to ITL 8-10 million (between 4,000-5,000 ECU).

It is also interesting to examine the Italian situation from a geographical viewpoint, specifically analysing the situation in the North, Centre and South of Italy.

In the North of Italy, the university structures most sensitive to themes involving development co-operation and humanitarian aid are the Universities of Pavia, Padua, Brescia, Trieste and Milan, together with the St. Anne's School of Higher Studies in Pisa. More specifically, the University of Pavia this year took a significant step forward by offering a Master's Degree in development co-operation, with the help and support of three national NGOs: UNA, VIS and COOPI. This synergy between the university and the NGOs that together represent the sectors most interested in promoting professional qualifications in the non-profit sector has been a great success and has placed Pavia at the same standing, in terms of prestige, as the University of Padua and the St. Anne's School of Higher Studies in Pisa, that have traditionally enjoyed a high reputation as dynamic centres in the sector. The high point of the course is that it offers all participants —32 in number— an opportunity to gain two months' hands-on experience abroad, working on co-operation projects managed by NGOs or international organisations. One can safely say that there is an extremely pressing need in the sector, more perhaps than in others, to combine theory with practice. The apprenticeship abroad or within an international organisation may perhaps constitute the real parameter for evaluating such courses since non-profit activities must either be experienced first hand in the field or behind the desk of an international organisation (in the case of those who are not so field-inclined) so as to really understand the reality of this sort of work.

North Italy also features another interesting initiative. In 1997, the University of Padua started offering a Master's Degree in human rights, a course co-ordinated by ECHO and the European Commission. It seems therefore that the inspiration underlying the training offered by Italian universities seems to run along lines of collaboration with EC institutions on the one hand and development operators, that is to say, NGOs, on the other. Italian universities are discovering their role as mediators in the process of bringing together the demand and supply of highly trained professionals in the field.

The St. Anne's School of Pisa, long renowned and appreciated the world over, has also been moving in the same direction. Besides the regular as well as doctoral and post-doctoral courses, the School organises advanced training courses in the field of peace-keeping operations, humanitarian missions and electoral observation operations. The Training Programme: The Civilian Personnel of Peace-keeping/ Humanitarian Operations and Election Monitoring Missions: Volunteers, Officers, Observers, was formally established in 1995 as an independent and non-governmental entity and constitutes one of the post-graduate

activities of the Scuola. The Training Programme offers regular training courses with the aim of equipping participants, who will be available to take part in peace-keeping /humanitarian operations, human rights and election monitoring missions, with the necessary background education, and skills to be of optimum use in the field. The Programme's scientific aims, research activities and teaching techniques are based on the highest academic standards. The training, addressed to participants coming from all parts of the world, is mainly operational and mission oriented. Since the Programme has been introduced, a significant number of course participants has been recruited to international missions by many international as well as non governmental organisations. The Training Programme enjoys the patronage of the Italian Ministry of Foreign Affairs as well as the European Commission, the United Nations, the Humanitarian Office of the European Community, the UN High Commissioner for Human Rights and the Office for Democratic Institutions and Human Rights of the OSCE.

The La Sapienza University of Rome stands almost alone in Central Italy in offering post-graduate courses specifically designed to provide training in operational activities in the field, with courses for field-officers involved in emergency operations and natural disasters. In particular, in 1997 the Faculty of Law at the Institute of Social Medicine introduced a NOHA (Network on Humanitarian Assistance) Master's Degree, in collaboration with ECHO and universities in six other European countries, as part of the EC educational programme, Socrates. This course is specifically designed to cater to the professional requirements of international organisations and NGOs operating in the sector.

In the South of Italy, the Università Orientale di Napoli stands out, with its degree course in Political Sciences with an "Economic Development" course, and its postgraduate course, funded by the European Social Fund, designed only for graduates with social science degrees who are resident in the South. An extensive-intensive course, which pays special attention to cultivating the students' creativity, an element which cannot be overlooked when resolving complex situations, such as those regarding development cooperation or the management of emergencies.

The most widespread feature of all these courses, especially post-graduate courses —so much so that it can be considered a "characteristic" of such training— is the multi-disciplinary methodological and teaching approach. The preferred methodological approach is based on seminars, reading and conferences. Tests and examinations during the course are the norm in most cases, but all courses feature a final

examination in the form of a written dissertation on a subject chosen by the candidate. All the courses seek not only to remove strict borders between disciplines but also to learn from the past experience of the various universities that have experimented in this sector.

In this extent, the universities' greater autonomy, ratified by the reform, has persuaded some universities to seek out forms of collaboration, in order to make available to each one the specific know-how of the others. The logic of availability is entering into the academic environment also, and i think that the main advantage of this will be in terms of pedagogical relapse, but also in terms of the incidence of interventions, since in the non-profit sector it is not efficiency that counts, or at least not only efficiency, but above all efficacy.

Following the example of the "La Sapienza" University of Rome, certain Italian universities —the University of Pavia, Padua, Trieste, the LUISS University of Rome, the Orientale University of Naples, and the St. Anne's School of Pisa— are working towards finding forms, each in its own way, of long-term collaboration between national universities, in the field of training in international solidarity.

As far as training in the world of the NGOs is concerned, an accent must be placed on the type of professional demand which originates from the NGOs themselves, aimed particularly at operational, management and project elaboration abilities. The human target is more varied: students, postgraduates, social operators. The most important thing is to "know how". Even within the NGOs training activities, however, we find two levels of specialisation: a first level, related to "Development Education", designed for a less specialised public, more curious than keen to learn. And a second level, designed specifically for those already operating in the sector. It is interesting to note how all three of the NGO Federations are involved in training activities not on an casual basis, each one differentiated by certain elements. The CISPI organises brief full immersion courses, providing training in Development Education; Volontari nel mondo-F.O.C.S.I.V. is active on many fronts —the training of NGO officers, of overseas volunteers and Development Education activities— since has many diversified intervention methodologies; the COCIS offers courses designed exclusively for the running of the NGOs' projects and the training of officers. A large number of the non federate NGOs is involved in training activities, as for example the Molisv Movimondo di Roma which, along with other NGOs including Amnesty International, ASAL, ARCI, Ministry of Foreign Affaires, has set up a permanent training centre, called "Formin", which is involved in various year-round didactic activities.

On the whole the NGO courses —except those specifically designed for the training of officers— are less specific than the categories selected for the identification of the course target, which are listed at the beginning of the paragraph (Human Rights; Peace Process Studies; Poverty and Development; Humanitarian Crises and Emergencies; Migration, Multiculturalism, Ethnic Conflicts).

There is clearly the need however for a higher standard of professional training and for direct involvement of the NGOs, who operate a didactic reflection of their own practical experience, of concrete work. For this reason the university-NGO synergy could provide more positive results than others.

B10
Country Report: Netherlands

Hans-Paul Klijnsma
Caspar Schweigman

Introduction

In this document a survey is given of Dutch higher education and scientific research in the field of development related issues. The survey starts with an introduction in the Dutch policy on development, higher education and development related research.

Dutch development policy under pressure

Within the Dutch Ministry of Foreign Affairs there is a Directorate General called "Netherlands Development Assistance" (NEDA)[1]. The Minister for Development Co-operation who is a member of the Government heads this Directorate. Dutch foreign policy has recently been reassessed. In future, the foreign policies of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs, Economic Affairs and Development Co-operation will become integrated. Furthermore, close consultation will take place with other ministries such as the Ministry of Defence. The idea behind the reassessment operation was that Dutch foreign policy is determined by a range of factors which are closely linked: the international legal order, security factors, migration issues, development co-operation, economic interests, the pursuit of environmental conservation and the importance of co-operation in the areas of culture, science, education and public health. For example, peace operations and aid for political and economic reconstruction ("peace building") are at times difficult to distinguish from emergency relief given within the framework of development co-operation. In the debate about this proposed integration,

[1] Previously called DGIS

the percentage of the Gross National Product (0.8 %) spent on development co-operation comes increasingly under pressure. Politicians from different parties would like to see expenditures for peace operations, investments in the economic transformation of Eastern Europe and support for the large numbers of asylum seekers in the Netherlands financed from the budget for Development Co-operation.

The government's White Paper[2] on this issue transmits a firm belief in the free market principle and in European co-operation. As in many other European countries, respect for human rights, democratization and sustainable environmental management are the cornerstones of government policy. This is expressed both in foreign and home policy in, for example, the explicit concern for gender relations and for the environment. In the above-mentioned White Paper it is —with some embarrassment— admitted that in an increasingly tough competitive world the new foreign policy must be directed more towards the "own national interest". This admission is immediately qualified by adding that Dutch interests are best served by "a well ordered international society, which respects human rights and strives for social justice".

Within the framework of development co-operation tension has always existed between the interests of the donor country and the interests of the recipient country. The Minister for Development Co-operation, Mr. J. Pronk, has continually made an all-out effort to concentrate on the interests of developing countries, notwithstanding pressure from interest groups such as the Dutch business community, consultancies, and also universities. This is one of the reasons why in the past Dutch development policy was chiefly aimed at the "poorest", hence rural development, small-scale agriculture, health care, primary education etc. could receive considerable attention. Pronk's policy that the developing countries should as far as possible manage their own development programmes fits in the framework of this vision.

The Dutch development policy, higher education and research in developing countries

One of the important instruments of the Dutch Government to strengthen higher education in Developing Countries, is the so-called "Joint Financing Programme for Higher Education" (MHO). It focuses on:

---

[2] "The Foreign Policy of the Netherlands: a review", Ministry of Foreign Affairs, The Hague, September 1995.

—institution building: to strengthen and improve the functioning of institutes of higher education in developing countries; the aim is to achieve a sustainable enhancement of their institutional capacity.
—human resource development: to contribute to meeting quantitative and qualitative manpower deficiencies.

The MHO-programme consists of long-term linkage programmes with 12 universities in developing countries. Universities and other institutes of higher learning in the Netherlands participate in these programmes. All programmes put a strong emphasis on *institution building* involving, for instance, staff training in the Netherlands, building of libraries, providing textbooks and computer facilities, and PhD research. An important aspect is innovating the curriculum to increase its quality and develop a practice-oriented teaching process which serves the *development* needs of the country to the maximum. In the MHO programme the choices made by the university in the developing country are decisive, both for the selection of the Dutch partners as well as for the definition of the programmes.

Apart from the MHO programme, the Dutch Government supports various specialized institutes, such as the Institute of Social Studies (ISS) in the Hague, the International Institute for Aerospace Survey and Earth Sciences (ITC) in Enschede, which train a large number of students from developing countries at MSc and PhD level.

Since 1996 NEDA opened the Netherlands Fellowship Programme, offering grants to students from developing countries for studies at Dutch Universities, Higher Vocational Institutes or the specialized Institutes for International Education (see section 4). Per year some 50-100 candidates benefit from this programme.

In 1992, the Dutch Minister for Development Co-operation presented a new policy to the Dutch parliament in the White Paper *Research and Development.* He summarized this policy as follows (see Pronk[3], 1994, p.105): "among the crucial elements are, first, that we are not aiming for a *science* policy; we are interested first and foremost in *development*, and development policy. The research we are talking about is *research as an instrument for development,* research to help us understand the development process, to get an analytical grip. This means opening for

[3] Pronk, J.P. (1994), "Beyond the Grand design: research for a grand view", in Schweigman, C., van der Werf, I.A. (eds), 1994, *Development related research collaboration; a second look at the role of the Netherlands*. Royal Tropical Institute, Amsterdam.

multi-disciplinarity; it also means giving policymakers, researchers and representatives of population groups in developing countries a first opportunity to articulate research demand. Second, the new policy takes the asymmetry of the international scientific community into account. Up until now, the bulk of research has been carried out in the North. To redress this asymmetry, strengthening development-related research capacity in the south is the primary objective. Third, in addition to existing programmes and projects, we are introducing a process approach to development research. A new instrument has been introduced: multi-year multi-disciplinary research programmes on processes of change, development, transition and transformation in a specific country or region in the South. This research will be demand-driven instead of supply-oriented. We supply the framework and resources for these programmes, but the research questions are articulated in the South".

Such multi-disciplinary programmes have been set up in Vietnam, India, Bangladesh, Tanzania, Uganda, Mali, Nicaragua and Bolivia; at short notice a similar programme will start in Egypt as well. In these programmes no distinct partners in the Netherlands are involved.

In other programmes such as the Indo-Dutch Programme on Alternatives in Development (IDPAD), the South Africa-Netherlands Research Programme on Alternatives in Development (SANPAD), the Netherlands-Israel Development Research Programme (NIRP), and the programme Sécurité Alimentaire Durable en Afrique de l'Ouest Centrale (SADAOC), universities and other institutes of higher education in the Netherlands co-operate with universities in developing countries.

In the Dutch development policy there is a strong emphasis on the "ownership" of the programmes by the institutes in developing countries. They are free to choose their partners in the Netherlands, if they want to. South-South co-operation is encouraged and strongly supported.

Results

Policy on development related research in the Netherlands

Since many years a debate has been going on in the Netherlands about a sensitive issue: what are the responsibilities of the Minister of Development Co-operation on the one hand and the Minister of Education, Culture and Science and the Minister of Agriculture, Nature Management and Fisheries of on the other with regard to maintaining

development related research *in the Netherlands.* The Minister of Development Co-operation strongly sticks to the view that the budget for Development Co-operation should be spent as much as possible by and in developing countries. He leaves the responsibility for maintaining an university infrastructure for development-related research to his colleagues, who in turn pass this responsibility to the universities. In times when university budgets have to be cut (as in the last years) and the faculties opt for different and disciplinary priorities, interdisciplinary development-related scientific activities find themselves in a vulnerable position.

Development related research in the Netherlands is executed at almost all universities and at the Institutes for International Education. In various universities centres or institutes for development related research have been established. Moreover, some inter-university institutes have been established, such as the Centre for African Studies in Leiden and the Centre for Latin American Research Research and Documentation (CEDLA) in Amsterdam.. Much research consists of PhD projects. National networks exist where researchers in the field of development studies collaborate. An example is the Research School CERES, in which many researchers of universities and of the Institute of Social Studies participate, including a hundred PhD students.

Policy on development related education in the Netherlands

The Netherlands has a long tradition in development studies. Rooted in the colonial era, some universities have long existing relations with developing countries. Especially the University of Leiden and the Agricultural University of Wageningen have since a long time bonds with Indonesia, the former Dutch East Indies, particularly in the fields of Law, Languages and Agricultural Sciences. Mining Sciences at the Technical University of Delft dates as well from the colonial period. Bonds with Surinam, a former Dutch colony in South America, have been strong as well.

During the last fifty years also other Dutch universities have raised interest in problems of development, in almost all disciplines. At present the curricula of each of the 14 Dutch universities contain many development related units (see also section 6). Students may major in development related studies, such as development economics, cultural anthropology, crop sciences etc., or may choose in their studies various optional units in these fields. Most curricula of the 73 Higher Vocational Institutes contain development related subjects and units as well.

One important element of the Dutch policy of Development Co-operation is the existence of Institutes for International Education. In the 1950's these institutes were set up to satisfy demands from developing countries. The offered courses are especially meant for advanced training of professionals who have already some working experience. The curricula are intensive and practically oriented. Such institutes are: Institute of Social Sciences (ISS); the International Institute for Aerospace Survey and Earth Sciences (ITC); International Institute for Infrastructural, Hydraulic and Environmental Engineering (IHE); Institute for Housing and Urban Development Studies (HIS); International Agricultural Centre (IAC); International Centre for Development Oriented Research in Agriculture (ICRA); International Institute for Land Reclamation and Improvement (ILRI); Royal Tropical Institute (KIT). These institutes are also involved in applied development related research. Also some other institutes offer development related courses such as the Netherlands Institute of International Relations "Clingendael" and the Management for Development Foundation (MDF).

The Dutch expertise in development studies is of a high level and covers almost all disciplines. All universities have established links with universities in developing countries. The specialization of humanitarian assistance does not (jet) exist in the Netherlands. Expertise in this field is concentrated in Faculties of Law. Human rights is an important element of the curriculum.

Employment

Dutch university graduates with a specialization in development related issues may be employed by international institutes, governmental and non-governmental organizations and the private sector. Some join universities to do PhD research.

International Organizations intend to recruit more people from developing countries. Expatriates from industrialized countries who are to work in developing countries need to have higher qualifications than in the past. They also have to have working experience. For young graduates this can be difficult: they need experience to find a job, but to get experience they need a job. The same tendency can be observed for experts sent out by the Dutch government. For posts in projects in developing countries NEDA prefers to look for local experts. The conclusion seems to be that the perspectives for Dutch graduates to work as experts in developing countries is decreasing.

In the Netherlands some[4] Non-Governmental Organizations (NGO') do not send out specialists to developing countries, others[5] do. For their staff in the developing countries the Dutch NGO's are used to recruit local people.

In the field of humanitarian assistance some NGO's join efforts by a close collaboration with organizations which are specialized in Emergency Assistance[6]. Depending on the requests for assistance, use is made of data bases of local and Dutch experts to assist in disaster areas. Most of these persons are specialists and have a long experience in developing countries. In case extra training is required, tailor-made in-service training courses are organized.

The most important Dutch organizations which send out university trained people to developing countries are presented in Table 1, which shows as well the number of people sent out by these organizations in 1995.

Table B10.1
Dutch organizations which send out people
to developing countries; number of people sent out in 1995

Organisation		
Artsen zonder Grenzen (Médicins sans Frontières)		217
NEDA of the Dutch Ministry of Foreign Affairs	about	750
Netherlands Red Cross		137
the foundation SPO to which Memisa, Medicus Mundi, Dienst over Grenzen Central Mission Commisariat and other organizations belong		767
Netherlands Development Organization		474
Voluntary Service Overseas		134
Total	about	2500

Source: van der Velden, F., Zweers, J. (1997), "Personele samenwerking, Beleid, resultaten en perspectieven", in: Lieten, K., van der Velden, F., Grenzen aan de Hulp; *Beleid en effecten van ontwikkelingssamenwerking. Het Spinhuis.*

[4] Such as NOVIB, ICCO, BILANCE and HIVOS. These organizations had in 1996 respectively 251, 110 (in 1997), 103 and 77 employees, see Onderwater, J.J.M. (1997), *Working for Development; an enquiry into the potential need fot university training programmes for workrers in development projects*, University of groningen, Office for International Co-operation, Pro Human project.

[5] Such as Central Mission Commissariat, Dienst Over Grenzen and Voluntary Service Overseas, see also Tab. 1.

[6] E.g. SHO (Co-operating Assistance Organizations) and DRA (Dutch Relief and Rehabilitation Agency).

Twenty years ago it was at certain universities discussed whether inter-disciplinary study programmes had to be set up to train "development specialists" who could work as experts in development planning and project-management, with specialization in fields such as rural development, public health, or adult education. Such ideas are not longer heard. Since more local expertise has gradually become available and priority has been given to increase local capacity in developing countries, the orientation of the education of Dutch students, interested in development issues, has changed. Such students are primarily trained in their main disciplines, they leave the university as medical doctors, not as tropical medical doctors, as economists not as development economists, as social scientists not as Africanists etc., in spite of the possibility to choose various development- related subjects during their studies. A typical example is Demography. In the past students of the University of Groningen could specialize in "non-western demography". Since a couple of years this has been abolished. One is now trained as a demographer, who can work everywhere in the world. In the new programme considerable attention is given to demographic issues in developing countries. In most universities there seems to be a tendency to integrate development issues in a wider international context.

B11
Country Report: Norway

Odd Inge Steen

Country introduction

There is a wide range of factors that have influenced the volume and structure of education on humanitarian & development issues in Norway. Although Norway is a small country, this cooperation and closeness between the aid sector and the research & education sector in Norway has resulted in a level of activity in this field which is notably high.

Norwegian Official Development Assistance

Norway has through the past 30 years managed to become one of the few Western countries that have reached the declared UN-target of spending 1 % of GDP on development aid to Third World countries. The total amount of government expenditure in the aid sector now amounts to around 1 billion ECUs. Approximately half of the support offered is channeled bilaterally through NORAD (Norwegian Agency for International Development) while the other half is channeled multilaterally through the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. While the NORAD-system primarily has been in charge of the more long-term development aid programmes, the Ministry of Foreign Affair has been responsible for humanitarian assistance and relief work.

Multilateral cooperation

Development banks and UN agencies constitute important channels Norwegian multilateral development aid. However, the UN's financial situation has deteriorated in recent years. As a result, there is an awareness

of the growing gap between the demands made on the multilateral cooperation fora and the resources available to the organizations. The Government has therefore decided to maintain the general contributions provided through multilateral organizations at a high level.

Bilateral cooperation

Half of the Norwegian bilateral aid goes to Africa. This illustrates a high degree of poverty orientation in

Norwegian development aid. For many countries in Africa south of the Sahara, the 1980s and, to some extent, the 1990s have been decades of economic stagnation and growing poverty. Although the government expresses a willingness to maintain the amount of support to Africa, there has been a reorientation of the bilateral aid, with greater emphasis on measures to promote democratization and human rights. The government has expressed clearly that if the situation as regards human rights or democracy should deteriorate in cooperating countries, it will consider reorienting, reducing or discontinuing aid if the situation so requires.

Short-term versus long-term aid

The Norwegian humanitarian assistance increased from 11 per cent of total development aid in 1990 to 18 per cent in 1998.. The reasons for the rise in humanitarian aid are well-known, headed by the situation in the former Yugoslavia, the peace process in the Middle East and the tragedy in Central Africa. The government has chosen not to pursue a dogmatic policy as regards the proportion of short-term to long-term aid, recognising that the distinction between emergency relief and more long-term measures in many situations is difficult to distinguish and separate.

Norwegian NGOs

Norwegian non-governmental organisations (NGOs) together now handle approximately one third of the total bilateral Norwegian aid (including funding raised by the organisations themselves). In 1963, the seven Norwegian NGOs involved in bilateral aid received financial support from the Norwegian government totalling 3 million NOK.

Thirty years later the number of organisations had risen to more than 100, with receipts from government worth in excess of 1.2 billion NOK. Norwegian NGOs are now involved in various forms of development aid and humanitarian assistance in more than 80 different countries.

There is a distinct difference between the Norwegian NGOs established before 1945 and those established after. While all the "old" organisations founded before 1945 are based on individual membership, nearly all the "new" organisations established after 1945 base their activities on various forms of "supporters (individuals and organisations) and "voluntary" donations. In spite of different forms of campaigns to attract individual members, the "new" organisations have not managed to reach the same level of personal members as the "old" organisations. The reason for this is that the "old" organisations have seen their aid and humanitarian assistance as a natural extension of their ongoing domestic work, while the "new" NGOs have concentrated on activities in Third World countries and in Eastern Europe and had little or no domestic activities at all. For the majority of NGOs involved in aid and humanitarian assistance, this activity is subordinate to their Norwegian-based activities. It is, however, important to note that in financial terms the bulk of NGO aid and humanitarian assistance is channeld through a few "new" large, professional NGOs, where development aid and humanitarian assistance is the major activity.

The growth in the Norwegian NGO sector has coincided with a parallel growth in official aid. This parallel growth reflects a situation where the state and the NGOs to a large extent have had common interests and aims. While the Norwegian state has been ready to utilise the NGOs popularity the NGOs have been ready to utilise the abundant financial support offered by NORAD and the Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

Most of the leading Norwegian NGOs have established their own international divisions taking care of development aid and humanitarian assistance. These international divisions have been developed particularly since 1980, with an increasing number of academics making a career for themselves working for these NGOs. We can also note an increasing flow of personnel from government positions to NGOs but an even greater flow of personnel from NGOs to government bodies. This indicats both a closeness between the government divisions handling the support to the NGOs and it also indicates that the government appreciates and need competence that the NGOs have developed. Some NGOs have, however, expressed some worry over the NGOs becoming educational institutions for personnel recruited both by the state and also by the press.

The NGO aims and strategies of Norwegian NGOs to a large extent coincide with aims and strategies formulated by the government in official white papers and in NORAD documents. One of the best examples of this designation is the way that the NGOs have followed up the government priorites of:

- —Geographical concentration of development activitities. Although NORADs support in principle has a global perspective, approximately 70 % of NORADs support to NGOs is spent in NORADs own defined areas of concentration.
- —Priority of sectors. Support to education and health dominates Scandinavian NGO activity. This is in accordance with government policy.
- —Target groups. The targetting of support to women, children and "the poorer parts of the population" is in accordance with Scandinavian governmental priority.

Although these examples clearly indicate that NGOs follow the policy out lined by NORAD and the Ministry of Foreign Affairs there is not sufficient evidence to prove that NGO priorities necessarily are mere implementations of government policy. In many cases NGOs have been before priority is given to a specific region, sector or target group (Steen 1994). This is especially the case for the major NGOs, such as Norwegian Church Aid, The Nowegian Red Cross, Redd Barna (Norwegian Save The Children), the Norwegian Refugee Council and Norwegian Peoples'Aid in Norway. Both political influence and professional competence is just as high in these NGOs as in the governmental divisions in charge of the support to the NGOs). There are no indications that this growing influence and professionality within the NGO sector is viewed as a threat to the government bodies handling the support to the NGOs. This indicates that NORAD and the Ministry of Foreign Affairs still primarily sees its function as a controller of the aid channelled through NGOs in spite of NORADs continuing emphasis on the need to discuss aid-specific issues with the supported organisations (Steen 1994).

In order to understand the structure of education on humanitarian and development issues in a small country like Norway it is important to note the emphasis and willingness both by government and private citizens to provide funding for the great variety of different aid projects and programmes run by NORAD and the NGOs throughout Third World countries. There are clear indications that both research and education on humanitarian & development issues are heavily influences by priorities in the aid sector. The co-operation between Norwegian universities and universities in specific areas of the world which is of

special importance for NORAD and the Ministry of Foreign Affairs (for example Zimbabwe, Etiopia, Namibia, South Africa, Costa Rica, Nicaragua, Sri Lanka and Palestine) is yet another indicator of this closeness between priorities in the aid sector and priorities in research& education. Eastern and Southern Africa has for the last thirty years been the main region of cooperation both for Norwegian NGOs and for the Norwegian universities and colleges involved in humanitarian & development issues (see Barkved et al 1993).

A Strategy for strenghtening the capacity of research and education on humanitarian& development issues

Another important country specific element that has had an impact on the volume and structure of education on humanitarian& development issues is the Norwegian government's political awareness and emphasis on different political and humanitarian crises in different areas of the World, which has been made by Norwegian governments for the last two decades. The long-term involvement on the Horn of Africa by Norwegian NGOs (Norwegian Red Cross, Norwegian Peoples' Aid and Norwegian Church Aid) and the Norwegian initiatives in the Middle East conflict (the Oslo agreement) are examples of these major involvements.

Norway has, according to recent OECD surveys, become one of the european countries that have given highest priority to higher education (including post-graduate studies). This is of course an important reason for the relatively large number of students wanting to study international issues in general and Third World issues in specific.

Lasty, the closeness between research and education, is an important element in understanding the Norwegian situation. Both University of Bergen and University of Oslo have clearly defined strategies for their research and education on humanitarian& development issues (After Rio report 6a). In both cases, it is strongly emphasized that research and education on humanitarian& development should be closely linked together.

In January 1999 the Ministry of Foreign Affairs presented their new strategy for strenghtening the emphasis on research and education on humanitarian & development issues (Ministry of Foreign Affairs 1999). The aim of this strategy is to get a better coordination beween the different institutions involved in research and education on humanitarian& development issues. The aim is both to strenghten the capacity and competencebuilding in the South as well as strenghtening the knowledge

on development and humanitarian issues in Norway. The ulitimate aim of both NORAD and the Ministry of Foreign Affairs is that reseach and education financed by the aid budget should serve as a basis for developing a more holistic Norwegian North-South policy and to become an integral part in the planning and implementation of both the Norwegian bilateral aid and the multilateral aid.

Involvement of Norwegian Institutions

The involvement of Norwegian higher education in collaboration with developing countries is substantial. This is reflected in centres for development and environment at four Norwegian universities. It is also reflected in the centres for health and development at the universities in Bergen and Oslo, the centre for agriculture and development at the College of Agriculture, the centre for international education at the Oslo State College, and a number of others. The involvement is also reflected in the variety of new masterdegree programs conducted in English offered by the universities and colleges. Norwegian institutions today offer more than 30 masterdegrees studies in english and another 12 are being planned.

Through the cooperation of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs with NORAD, the Norwegian Research Council and the Council of Universities, programs as the NORAD Fellowship program and the NUFU-agreement have been established.

The NORAD Fellowship program today provides financial support ot 250 students from countries in Eastern Europe and developing countries who want to study at Norwegian universities. An expansion of this programme is under consideration.

The sucessful NUFU program (The Norwegian Council of Universities development-related research- and education-program), which started in 1991, includes support to research cooperation, a fellowship programme, and a number of masterdegree studies and phd. programs. The NUFU-program. The NUFU-program cover program and project expenses, but the participating Norwegian universities must cover administrative expenditures and salaries of their own staff. The Ministry of Foreign Affairs, however, offer some extra funding for those institutions unable to meet the requirements set by the NUFU-agreement. From 1992 to 1999 the NUFUs budget amounted to around 500 million NOK (approximately 65 million ECUs)

Directly under the Ministry of Foreign Affairs there is also a so-called Quota Program for support to students from countries in Eastern

Europe and developing countries who want to join the masterdegree programmes offered at Norwegian universities. A total of 1100 students financed by the Quota Program are expected to come to Norway in 1999. These students normally stay in Norway for 3-4 years before returning to their home countries.

Definitions and terminology

In order to understand the country specific structure and volume of education on humanitarian& development related issues in Norway it is important to comment some of the concepts and definitions that are used in this text.

As it is more or less impossible, both on a theoretical and on a practical basis, to separate or to draw a distinct line between the concepts *humanitarian* and *development,* the concepts are applied together in a holistic way in this presentation. The consequence of such an application is that humanitarian & development studies or projects in this case must be regarded as an overall framework for the five main areas that are defined in this project: human rights, peace studies, poverty and development, humanitarian crises and migration, multiculturality and ethnic conflicts.

It is important to note that while the Norwegian *universities* more or less are equivalent to other european universities concerning their structure of degrees etc., the *colleges* are different from colleges in most other european countries. Norwegian *colleges* include institutions that offer a variety of courses and studies. While for instance Norges Handelshoeyskole (Norwegian School of Economics) in Bergen and Norges Landbrukshoeyskole (Noragric) in Aas offer both masterdegree and doctoral courses on international issues, most of the smaller institutions primarily offer teacher training and pre-school teacher training.

The Norwegian *NGOs* are more or less equivalent to their european counterparts concerning their international involvement, projects and programmes. There is, however, one important difference notably in the actual funding of the organisations. The different government agencies and departments today provide up to 80 % of the total funding for the humanitarian& development assistance offered by the Norwegian NGOs. It is also important to note that there has developed a large degree of interdependence between the NGOs and the government (Hoedneboe 1992, Steen 1994). This is the case both in the actual project and programme activity but it is also visible through analyses of the exchange of jobs and skills between the government and the

NGOs. There is today a flow of personell from the NGOs to the government and vice versa on all levels. A number of NGOs have more or less served a labour reservoir for recruitment in government bodies working on humanitarian& development issues.

Methodology

Relevant Data

The data referred to in this paper comes mainly from the following sources:

- —The report on the map of knowledge and chart of skills in the Nordic countries, undertaken by the finnish co-ordinator. As the data on Norway from this survey is quite fragmented (due to the lack of response from the involved institutions) it has been necessary to supplement the survey with other available sources.
- —The report on units/ courses undertaken by the Humanitarian Development Studies Network
- —After Rio. Report nr.6 and 6a- focussing on research and teaching on humanitarian and development issues. Norwegian Research Council 1996.
- —Report on the NGOs as Channel in Development aid. Evaluation Report 3.95. Centre for development Studies, University of Bergen 1995.
- —A doctoral thesis on the role of NGOs in Norway (Steen 1994).
- —A strategy for strenghtening the emphasis on research and education on humanitarian& development issues (Ministry of Foreign Affairs 1999).

In addition to the available written material, interviews and informal talks have been held with representatives both from the goverment divisions, the University- and College-sector and from the NGO-sector in Norway.

The Sample

Courses and units

The sample includes material from all the five universities in Norway. In addition, some material from relevant colleges has also been used. As the actual survey on courses and units undertaken by

the Humanitarian Development Studies Network only gave a limited picture of the actual present activity at the Norwegian universities and colleges, it was found necessary to supplement this data with the written sources mentioned above.

Skills

The sample includes material from more than 90 Norwegian NGOs involved in humanitarian aid and development assistance in more than 60 different countries. These organisations employ more that 5000 persons, including more than 1000 Norwegians working both in Norway and abroad. The Norwegian non-governmental organisations include labour/ trade organisations, humanitarian organisations, interest organisations, missionary/ church organisations and political organisations (see Steen 1994, 1996 and Tvedt 1995). Also in this case the survey was supplemented by interviews and informal talks.

Presentation of results

Institutional aspects

The five Norwegian universities offer a variety of courses in humanitarian and development related issues. The institutions today spend a substantial amount of their own budgets on these issues which is reflected through the number of personell involved in research and in teaching on humanitarian& development issues, the total expenditures on courses and units offered and the establishments of master degree courses and doctoral courses offered in english. A total of 57 full-time positions (Norwegian Research Council 1996) are today earmarked for research on humanitarian and development issues.

Teaching is widespread on humanitarian& development issues in the five universities both in form of separate studies and courses but also as integrated parts of the "classical" university studies and courses. Only at the University of Bergen it is estimated that more than 80 lecturers and professors are spending a substantial part of their working time on Third World issues. A total of 35 masterdegree courses, taught in english, are today offered by the same universities. These include degrees in development studies, environmental and

development economics, international health, medicine, theology, special education, development geography etc. In addition 5 relevant masterdegree programmes (also taught in english), focussing on humanitarian& development related issues have been established through a financial agreement with NORAD.

We must also note that a number of Norwegian colleges offer relevant courses on humanitarian and development issues both on undergraduate as well as post-graduate level (including doctoral courses on international economics and rural development). It is important to note that while the masterdegree courses primarily are based on financial support from NORAD and on recruitment of students from Third World countries the majority of Norwegian students study humanitarian and development issues through the "classical" subjects such as social anthropology, geography, economics etc.

Both at the University of Bergen and at the University of Oslo the research and education on humanitarian& development issues are offered at the different University centres that have been established during the last decade. As earlier mentiones, these centres have been given a special role in coordinating a large part both of research (and to some extent education efforts) in this field. It can be argued that these centres, which include the Centre for Development and Environment in Oslo as well as the Centre for international Health, the HEMIL-centre, the Centre for Environmental and Resource Studies and the Centre for Development Studies in Bergen, have played a crucial role in the building of competence (in Norway) on Third World issues in general and on humanitarian & development issues in specific.

Organisational aspects

As mentioned earlier, the Norwegian NGO sector is relatively larger than could be expected from a country with 4.5 million people. Due to long and strong missionary traditions and to the increasing support and funding from government sources, the NGOs have strenghtened their position both relatively speaking (in relation to government aid) and in absolute terms (Steen 1996).

The Norwegian NGOs are becoming increasingly populated by personell with an academic background. Only two decades ago hardly any antropologists or social scientists were employed by the organisations. Today the major NGOs' main offices and field offices are dominated by personell with academic degrees in subjects ranging from economics to social anthropology. From the organisations themselves there is an

increasing awareness of the "academication" proocess, and several NGO leaders have expressed worry about this trend.

Approximately two thirds of the Norwegian NGOs include education as one of the project/ programme activity. In addition many of the largest NGOs (for example Norwegian Church Aid, Redd Barna and Norwegian Peoples' Aid) have their own consultants working on educational issues at their respective main offices (Steen 1996). Although most of the educational material produced is meant for the "public", there is also a number of educational units offered for their own personell. The NGOs also collaborate with NORAD in making educational units that are relevant both for NGO and NORAD personell.

Conclusions

The range of available post-graduate studies and courses offered in the field of humanitarian & development issues (in Norway) has been found to be relatively wide. The available material does not indicate that there is a wide gap between post-graduate studies and courses offered by the universities and colleges and the needs expressed by personell in the Norwegian NGOs. Although both NORAD and the NGOs offer a number of specialised education units and courses, there is, however, an expressed need for more high-level specialised educational units and courses focussing both on specific thematic and regional matters. Such educational units and courses prepared by the universities and colleges in close collaboration with the NGOs could open for a closer cooperation between the academics and the practitioners working on these issues.

In Norway, there has not been found strong indications that the emphasis and interest for international issues in general and humanitarian & development issues in particular will decrease the following years. Although there is an increasing interest both by the institutions (universities and colleges) and the organisations (the NGOs) in Eastern European issues, there are no indications that the strong interest in "classical" Third World countries, regions or issues will not prevail in the coming years. On the contrary, the interest and cooperation between both Norwegian institutions and organisations and their respective partners in the region of Eastern and Southern Africa, actually seems to be increasing.

It has also been found that the cooperation on research and education between the Norwegian government and research &

education institutions is stronger than ever. This increasing involvement is reflected in the new strategy for strenghtening the capacity of research and education on humanitarian & development issues recently presented by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs as well as in the increase of programs such as the NORAD Fellowship Program and the NUFU program offering financial support to students from developing countries who want to study in Norway.

B12
Country Report: Portugal

Lurdes Figueiral
Paula Duarte Lopes

Introduction

Historically, Portugal is probably one of the most potentially strategic countries in the world, concerning development aid initiatives. Its recent colonial past as well as its very recent democratic transition and political stabilisation contribute, at first sight, to a potentially powerful and active Portuguese role as a development co-operation agent. Portugal was the first European country of the modern era to have colonies in Africa (since 1435) and the last one to abandon them (after 1974).

Geographically, Portugal also has an historical strategic inheritance, due to its travels and settlements, from Macau, Timor and India, to Africa (on both coasts), to Latin America (Brasil). Portuguese people have been all over the world and have undeniably influenced (for better and for worse) the cultures and peoples it has established relations with. Brasil has always been the "brother-country", but for a long time it has been disregarded as a development Cupertino destiny: too "independent"[1], too far[2], too rich[3] and too socially "intermingled"[4].

---

[1] The independence of Brasil was proclaimed in 1822, by D. Pedro IV, who being the legitimate King of Portugal became the first monarch of Brasil.

[2] Portugal had its own domestic problems with opposing social movements pressuring for and against the end of monarchy.

[3] Brasil was (and still is) a naturally rich country with an enormous potential for development.

[4] Portugal had a part in this "social-mix", since it transferred millions of black African people to Brasil and established white settlements all over the country. These different groups intermixed between themselves and with the native people, which created a very rich social tissue, and therefore a very strong "blending phenomena" of the primitive characteristics of the peoples.

As for the PALOP[5], since their independence, Portugal did not have the capacity to conceptualise, let alone implement, a development co-operation framework of action. Although, at the end of the "50s and beginning of the "60s, the African independence movements proclaimed their own sovereignty, Portugal, under the dictatorship of Salazar, maintained a colonial war in Guiné-Bissau, Angola and Moçambique. Only after the Revolution of 25th of April 1974 and the transition to a democratic regime, did Portugal recognise the right to self-determination and independence of its colonies. However, the domestic situation did not improve in all of these countries. Some of them became a stage for confrontation between different armed groups that started fighting for the national control. With the colonial war and these domestic conflicts, African infrastructures were destroyed and most of its public services, which used to be supplied by Portugal, were totally disrupted. As for the Portuguese population living in these countries, almost all left Africa. The humanitarian consequences were uncontrollable for Portugal, since not only its white-Portuguese population returned ("retornados"), but also the black-Portuguese and non-Portuguese population came to Portugal, running away from the civil wars in their countries (refugees). These people represent 10 % of the Portuguese population, explaining the strength of the emotional ties that still exist between Portugal and the PALOP (OCDE, 1997: 20). These processes were obviously different in each country, and some of these fightings, unfortunately, have not ceased yet (Angola), while others have only very recently stopped (Moçambique).

All these events, along with the Portuguese governing instability in the revolution aftermath, have evidently determined the nature of Portuguese development co-operation policy. With the consolidation of a democratic regime, Portugal assumed its role in the international system and in the international democratic institutions and organisations. This internationalisation process was sealed with the Portuguese membership of the EEC (European Economic Community) in 1986.

The concentrated emphasis towards the sea, as well as its strong and prolonged presence in Africa, comprise most of the Portuguese international relations, particularly those which rely on development co-operation. During the 1990s, Portugal tried to articulate this traditional Atlantic involvement with the new European partnership. This effort departed from an enmeshement of historical, cultural, sociological,

[5] Países Africanos de Língua Oficial Portuguesa (African Countries with Portuguese as the Official Language).

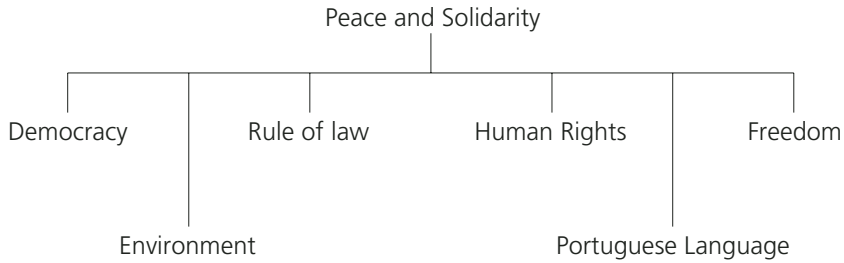
economic and political factors, diffusing perceptions and contradictory feelings (Lopes, 1997: 14).

As a result, Portugal seems to sustain a highly potential for development co-operation and, during this last decade, the initiatives have proliferated —not only from the governmental structure, but also from the civil society, local municipalities and individual institutions (public and private). Consequently, this short analysis on the adequacy of the Portuguese educational system to its development co-operation agents' needs is of a strategic value.

Demand Side - Development Co-operation

At the end of the 20th century, the international system of development co-operation demands a thorough analysis of its activities during the last 50 years, in order to define new strategies for the next half-century (OCDE, 1996: 3). Although Portugal has only, more or less, two decades of development co-operation initiatives, it is also participating in this effort to evaluate what has been done and to try to define its own development co-operation policy.

Portuguese Foreign Policy is developed along four lines of intervention: the Multilateral, the European, the Bilateral and the Development Co-operation perspectives. The Development Co-operation Policy (DCP) constitutes a fundamental axis of Portuguese international activities. Its framework of action is currently defined as follows (internet):



As for the main objectives of Portuguese Development Co-operation Policy, the African Continent holds an unquestionable importance[6].

[6] Although Portugal has recently included other countries in its development co-operation targets, such as, Maroc, Brasil, Senegal (OCDE, 1997: 32).

Since the Revolution of 25th April 1974, all the different Portuguese governments have reiterated their commitment to establish and develop close co-operation ties with the newly independent PALOP — Angola, Cabo Verde, Guiné-Bissau, Moçambique and São Tomé e Princípe. Even though, it took several years "to cool passions and close wounds originated with the decolonization process", both in Portugal and in the newly independent states (MNE, 1995: 10).

The development problems are particularly intense in Moçambique, where it is important now to take advantage of the establishment of a democratic regime. In Angola, all the small steps that had been taken in order to promote the necessary reconstruction and to sponsor a political and economic stabilisation are at a stand still and, in many cases, have actually reversed, due to the re-starting of the fighting. As for the other three countries — Guiné-Bissau, Cabo Verde and São Tomé e Princípe — the development co-operation priorities should entail the implementation of a good management of public affairs and an economy based on a dynamic private sector (OCDE, 1997: 7).

Between 1991 and 1997, Portuguese total bilateral Official Development Aid (ODA) added up to around US$ 1 billion[7] (MNE, 1999: 14). The PALOP received almost 90 % of this ODA. In 1997, this tendency became even stronger, with these countries receiving 97.5 % of Portuguese ODA. Moçambique has been the main beneficiary, with 54.7 % of the total ODA during that period (1991-1997).

Table B12.1
Distribution of Portuguese ODA by Country
(1997 - %)

Angola	11.7
Cabo Verde	4.9
Guiné-Bissau	6.5
Moçambique	35.7
São Tomé e Princípe	4.6
Others and Multilateral	36.6
Total (*thousands of escudos*)	***43 912 610***

Source: Abridged from MNE, 1999: 18-19.

Due to the existence of development co-operation projects in all different governmental ministries, Portuguese development co-operation

[7] US$ 1 = 185$00.

covers a broad array of sectors. Nevertheless, infrastructures and social services constitute the most important areas. The cultural and linguistic ties between Portugal and the PALOP explain the importance given to the educational sector, through scholarships, teaching qualification, educational material and institutional support. The health sector has also a significative place in the Portuguese ODA, through the support of hospitals, the evacuation of sick people and the qualification of health professionals. Other projects have been and are being developed in different sectors, such as the media (radio and television channels), the environmental protection and, obviously, production sectors (particularly agriculture, fishery and tourism). (MNE, 1999: 15)

Table B12.2
Distribution of Portuguese Bilateral ODA by Sector of Activity
(1997 - billions of escudos)

Infrastructures and Social Services	**7.85**
Education	3.98
Health	1.80
Public Administration and Civil Society	0.50
Others	1.57
Infrastructures and Economic Services	**1.86**
Transport and Communication	1.18
Energy	0.31
Others	0.37
Production Sectors	**1.04**
Agriculture and Fishery	0.54
Industry, Mining and Construction	0.22
Commerce and Tourism	0.28
Multisectoral	**0.30**
Environmental Protection, General	0.20
Women and Development	0.00
Others	0.10
Program Aid	**0.28**
Debt Related Initiatives	**16.27**
Food Aid and Emergency Aid	**0.07**
Administrative Expenses	**0.08**
NGO Support	**0.43**
Non Specified	**0.37**
Total	**28.55**

Source: MNE, 1997: 16.

The implementation and management of the Portuguese development co-operation policy is under the responsibility of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs (MFA), through his Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs and Co-operation. In order to carry out the MFA's policy, there are three main institutions: the Portuguese Co-operation Institute (PCI), the Economic Co-operation Fund (ECF) and the Camões Institute (CI). Still, all other ministries and public institutions contribute significatively to Portuguese ODA.

Table B12.3
Distribution of Portuguese ODA by Ministries
(1997 - %)

Ministry of Foreign Affairs	18.00
Portuguese Co-operation Institute	14.53
Camões Institute	1.24
Economic Co-operation Fund	1.72
Science and Technology Ministry	1.93
Education Ministry	2.83
Finance Ministry	66.99
Health Ministry	2.97
State Secretary for Social Communication (Media)	2.02
Municipalities	1.06
Total *(thousands of escudos)*	***43 912 610***

Source: Abridged from MNE, 1999: 18-19.

The PCI has the responsibility to co-ordinate all the activities related to Portuguese development co-operation policy, including those of the other ministries. For this purpose, the other ministries should clearly identify the sums they spend related to development co-operation. Nevertheless, this is a difficult task, since all these institutions are very reluctant in creating in their own budgets a development co-operation item, since that would not allow them to spend those amounts in any other activity. As for the ECF, it develops its activities in a very autonomous way. It was first created in 1991 to promote Portuguese investment and commercial interests in developing countries, but currently many of its activities are similar to those performed by the institute to promote Portuguese economic and trade interests abroad. Finally, the Camões Institute has become basically inactive, but its attributions were focused on the promotion of Portuguese language and culture abroad, particularly in the PALOP.

Portuguese Development Co-operation is essentially bilateral and focused on the PALOP, but still is complemented by different multilateral activities. First of all, Portugal obviously participates as a member in the definition, implementation and evaluation of the European Development Co-operation Policy. In addition, Portugal has trust funds related to UNDP and UNESCO and makes frequent voluntary contributions to specific programs and projects developed in the UN system, besides being a member of DAC/OECD. However, in all these different *fora*, Portugal still assumes a role of a privileged agent for the African matters, in general, and the PALOP situations, in particular. A quite recent organisation corroborates this Portuguese core priority — the Portuguese speaking countries — the CPLP[8], which includes Portugal, the five PALOP and Brasil.

Portuguese municipalities have developed an important component of Portuguese Development Co-operation, namely through "Twinning Agreements"[9]. In 1997, municipal development co-operation activities added up to US$ 2.5 millions. According to 1996 data, 42 % of the funds were spent in education initiatives and Cabo Verde received 46 % of those funds. As a response to this municipal dynamism, the PCI signed in 1998 an Agreement with the Municipalities National Association. This Agreement establishes a specific financing line for Intermunicipal Co-operation, as well as a jointly conceived annual co-operation program to be also jointly implemented.

The involvement of the civil society is essential if one seeks to optimise all the resources available to development co-operation, be they financial or human. The Non-Governmental Organisations (NGO) are very important for this matter, and are recognised by the PCI as privileged agents, whose role should be recognised and promoted. In this sense, the PCI signed in 1997 a Protocol with the Portuguese Platform of DNGO (Development NGO). This Protocol envisages the establishment of a stable relationship between the PCI and these DNGO, based on mutual rights and obligations. Still, this agreement has found some problems, due to the financial difficulties of most DNGO. Therefore, the Parliament approved in 1998 a new law giving the co-operation donations the same statute as the cultural donations[10].

---

[8] Comunidade de Países de Língua Portuguesa (Portuguese Language Countries Community).

[9] Different villages and towns sign "twinning agreements" with foreign villages and towns, in order to promote direct closer relations in different areas (economic, cultural, educational, and social).

[10] Tax deductibility.

Besides these specific NGO, there are hundreds of other NGO, cultural and scientific foundations, religious organisations and solidarity associations that entail development co-operation activities, also with a special focus on the PALOP.

Although its experience is recent, Portugal now has a basic normative framework with respect to development co-operation. Still, this framework has several flaws. Its decentralised *modus operandis* has weakened and challenged its co-ordination capacities. As for its attempt to surmount this problem with the promotion of a horizontal oriented co-operation, it has resulted in an *ad hoc* solution. Since the activities are dispersed, many of the means become inefficient.

As a result, the MFA has decided to improve its performance by trying to truly centralise all development co-operation activities in the PCI. The idea is to allow the PCI to fully assume its main assignment — co-ordination. And the emphasis is also set on stability, since a lot of the ODA projects were implemented on the basis of personal and private contacts.

The new proposed axis of Portuguese Development Co-operation Policy for 1999 are:

—cultural and human resources improvement;
—development aid promotion, through the ECF;
—intermunicipal co-operation; and
—co-operation reinforcement at the multilateral and European levels.

The main priorities identified are basic education (primary school), poverty eradication, institutional consolidation, economic development and local power.

In spite of this apparently dynamic national system, education for development co-operation in Portugal is still extremely limited (OCDE, 1997: 20).

Supply Side - Educational System

The education system in Portugal is quite similar to most of European countries:

—nine years of compulsory general studies, divided into two cycles (primary and secondary);
—three years of more vocational-oriented studies, based on a more technical approach (mechanics, commerce, …), on the one side,

and on a more academic approach (humanities, science, arts, …), on the other[11];

— undergraduate studies, either at universities (four to six years) or at polytechnic schools (three to five years).

Portuguese education system is mostly public. If private educational institutions do exist, they must be officially recognised. The *curricula* of the first twelve years of studies do not include any courses on development co-operation, and polytechnic schools do not develop this area of knowledge at all. Therefore, the universities' *curricula* are the main element of analysis.

Development co-operation courses are almost non-existent at Portuguese universities. Most public universities have courses on Development Economics or Development Sociology, but the contents are very basic, abstract and historical. There are a couple of private universities that develop a strong emphasis on African development co-operation courses, both at an undergraduate as well as at a graduate level. But the issue is that this fact is not very relevant, since public universities are generally of better quality (with a few exceptions), which gives these degrees a marginal importance in the system. There are only two public universities that run undergraduate studies with a significant emphasis on development co-operation courses, both International Relations degrees. One of them has a whole area of studies concerning development co-operation — international development co-operation, development aid institutions, development co-operation projects and evaluation and refugees and asylum seekers in the international system. As for graduate studies, there are also only two or three programs running on this area. And with the exception, once again, of a couple of degree programs, which may include traineeships during the undergraduate studies, all the other programs are strictly academic. Only one public university has a Centre for African Studies, where different research projects are developed.

Therefore, the training that exists in this area is done on-the-job, by *ad hoc* official initiatives or by civil organisation programs. NGO such as AMI[12] (1984), CIC[13] or the Marquês de Valle Flôr Institute (1951)

[11] This whole system is very recent. Nevertheless, there is already a new proposal for its revision, since the results have not fulfilled the objectives.

[12] Fundação Assistência Médica Internacional (International Medical Assistance Foundation).

[13] Associação para a Cooperação Intercâmbio e Cultura (Exchange and Culture Co-operation Association).

develop humanitarian aid and sanitation projects. No previous training is required for the volunteers working in these projects. Sometimes they run short-term courses (two to twelve weeks) about specific aspects that they will have to deal with, once they start their work. Most of the DNGO develop an on-the-job training system. The IED, for instances, promotes a variety of publications about development co-operation and social and educational issues. As for specific training in this area, the IED[14] runs a course for African people arriving in Portugal, but there are no development co-operation training initiatives. The of Leigos para o Desenvolvimento[15] volunteers are given training prior to their departure, although the DNGO does not have a training department. Volunteers work for two years in São Tomé and Princípe, Moçambique and Angola, in different areas — health, education, social action and development. One year before their departure, the organisation offers specific training, which includes spiritual exercises, personal guidance, thematic meetings, a Faith Initiation Course, a Human Relations course, and a two-weeks Working Camp, besides a written paper on a chosen topic (Leigos para o Desenvolvimento, 1996).

The Portuguese Platform of DNGO is part of the European NGO working group "Education for Development", therefore, some of them develop education for development projects nationally. OIKOS (1988) and CIDAC[16] (1974) are two of the most influential Portuguese DNGO, due to their range of action and to their role in the Portuguese civil society. On the contrary to most Portuguese DNGO, they both have quite structured training projects, satisfactory suited to their beneficiaries.

OIKOS develops a strong emphasis on training and awareness campaigns, which are intended to call the public opinion's attention, but also to lobby near governmental institutions. Similarly to CIDAC, OIKOS also has a Documentation Centre with articles, magazines, books and thematic films on development co-operation, which are mainly used by university students and academic researchers. OIKOS also provides training to its volunteers, through the African Students Centre and specific projects it develops in association with schools, social movements, labour organisations or religious groups. This organisation also has a training scheme for teachers and working sessions for both teachers and students, at different levels (kindergarten, primary and secondary).

---

[14] Instituto de Estudos para o Desenvolvimento (Development Studies Institute).

[15] This DNGO is associated with Jesuit University Centres and has an explicit religious vocation.

[16] Centro de Informação e Documentação Amílcar Cabral (Amílcar Cabral Information and Documentation Centre).

CIDAC manages a documentation centre specialised in African culture and literature and Portuguese language studies. It also has a training centre for foreign co-operation agents that need to learn Portuguese and to know the specificities of the country they are going to work at. The Education for Development in CIDAC is currently implemented and promoted through three specific projects.

—*Germinal* Project — the main objective of this project is to contribute to the awareness of Portuguese public opinion. Their basic work is based on in-depth studies of development issues, with a special emphasis on the African continent. The project implies the creation of 18 educational units for professors and teachers to use with 13 to 18 years old teenagers. These educational units cover areas such as population and migratory movements; ecology and environment; intercultural dialogue and co-operation; development co-operation or development education. Seminars about these same subjects will also be organised.

—*Futuro com o Sul: que cooperação queremos?*[17] Project — the main goal of this project is also to provide information and promote awareness, especially towards young people, journalists, teachers and political and economic decision-makers.

—*Formar os Jovens para o Desenvolvimento*[18] Project — the idea is exactly to train young people about development issues, providing them with a framework of analysis for the complex, long-term solidarities and co-operation (CIDAC, 1997).

Many of Portuguese NGO, including CIDAC and OIKOS, develop their projects mainly in the PALOP area (with some attention given to Brasil), but lately they have also been developing a very important role related to the East Timor situation. Not only do they provide aid and guidance to Timorese refugees, but they also promote the Timorese culture in Portugal and abroad.

The PCI has also paid some attention, lately, to development education initiatives. Since 1993, it is part of the Junior Professional Officers (UNDP), providing on-the-job training for three graduated young Portuguese. The Institute also attributes annually a prize to the best students in specific courses concerning development co-operation (though only in some degrees). In 1997, the PCI started an upgrading project of its own personnel, through short-term courses (four-weeks),

[17] The Future with the South: which co-operation do we want?
[18] Training Young People for Development.

Masters programs and different workshops provided by the National Administration Institute. There is also some co-operation with a specific university in order to establish a semestral development co-operation course.

Conclusions

The European integration did not erase or erode the historical relations between the Portuguese-speaking nations —the PALOP, Brasil or East Timor. It is based on this common language and connected culture that Portugal holds a potential significant role in international development co-operation initiatives. This potential lies not only on the official institutional structure, but also on civil society organisations and other institutions.

This unfulfilled potential and the multi-level structure operating demand a strong and unequivocal investment on development education and training. This effort should come from governmental institutions and should be developed in association with schools of all levels of education, with NGO and particularly DNGO, as well as with different structures of power (local municipalities, regional co-ordination commissions, etc).

The truth is, on the one hand, Portugal does have a potentially advantageous position concerning development co-operation with the PALOP, and, on the other hand, education for development has not been assumed yet as a priority in Portuguese official education system and its different academic *curricula*. Moreover, there is no indication that there might be an attempt to overcome this incompatibility in a near future.

B13
Country Report: Spain

Aitor Urkiola

Introduction

It is impossible to understand the situation of development co-operation in Spain without first understanding the historical, social and political roots which have provided the background to the development of Spain as a recent democracy. The 1970s meant return of democracy. All political parties were legalised in 1977 and a constitution was promulgated in 1978. In the 1978 constitution a system of 17 autonomous regions was established. The arrival of democracy marked Spain with a deep process of political development that brought with it a social awakening. With economic and political development came a growing feeling among population in favour of poverty reduction and economic re-distribution at both national and international levels[1].

Spain moves in only twenty years from a situation of state control of social organisations to a growth of social fabric. At the international level Spain has gone from a situation of isolation to international involvement, from being considered by the DAC (Development Assistance Committee) of the OCDE as a receiving country[2] to establishing an institutional framework for development cooperation, considered as a main objective of its international policies agenda[3]. Particularly in humanitarian assistance it is significant that during two of the major recent humanitarian crises (Rwanda and Mitch tropical storm in Central

---

[1] Diaz-Salazar, R. (1996) *Redes de solidaridad internacional para derribar el muro Norte-Sur,* Madrid: HOAC.

[2] CAD (1998) *España. Serie Exámenes en Materia de Cooperación para el Desarrollo* Madrid: OCDE, Ministerio de Asuntos Exteriores.

[3] Ortega, M.L. (1994) *Las ONGD y la crisis del desarrollo. Analisis de la cooperacion con Centroamerica,* Madrid: IEPALA.

America) Spain has been one of the countries with a highest contribution as donor in absolute figures[4]. Development cooperation is therefore a rapid and recent developing phenomenon.

A second element of high significance in the context of development cooperation in Spain is the level of decentralisation reached in organising the State in 17 Autonomous Regions. Development cooperation in Spain has to be studied at different levels, from local of the municipality with its budget and development projects, to autonomous regions" governments passing in some cases through the province or regional structures. At the highest level, the State level, ODA is organised since 1985 in Spain through a Secretary of State, *Secretaria de Estado para la Cooperacion Internacional y para Iberoamérica* (SECIPI). The fact that it is called "for International Cooperation and for Latin America" clearly shows the importance of the work undertaken in that area of the world where most of Spanish former colonies are placed at the setting of the framework for development cooperation[5]. In 1988 a governmental agency, *Agencia Española de Cooperacion* (AECI-Spanish Cooperation Agency), was set up.

At the Autonomous Regions level, the first programme for development cooperation was established by the Basque Parliament and Government in 1985 responding to a growing demand from civil society channelled through NGOs[6].The budget to fulfill the social demend was only 60,000 euros.

Education system

The education system has been under revision since 1970 under all different democratic governments starting in 1977 leading to the present situation with a system very flexible and full of options.

At university level, recent events in the Spanish educational system need to refer to the *Ley de Reforma Universitaria* (LRU-University reform Act) passed in 1983. In order to understand the impact of the LRU at the level of university curriculum it is first necessary to consider

---

[4] Alonso, J.A. (1999) *Sistema Vasco de Cooperación al Desarrollo: Diagnóstico y Propuestas.* Informe Confidencial al Consejo Asesor de Cooperación al Desarrollo, unpublished.

[5] Ortega, M.L. (1994) *Las ONGD y la crisis del desarrollo. Analisis de la cooperacion con Centroamerica,* Madrid: IEPALA.

[6] Alonso, J.A. (1999) *Sistema Vasco de Cooperación al Desarrollo: Diagnóstico y Propuestas.* Informe Confidencial al Consejo Asesor de Cooperación al Desarrollo, unpublished.

some figures of the recent development of the university system. There are 57 universities in Spain, 50% of them developed in the last fifteen years. The reflection of this growing process in budgetary terms is that in twenty years the expenditure in universities has turned from 0,26 % of GNP to 1,5 % in 1998, at the level of number of students the average growth since 1983 is 6 % per year. At the level of geographical distribution, one of LRU principles is that universities should be different and compete for students. Considered this principle and the fact that most autonomous Regions have complete authority on university regulation, a new university system where universities are characterised by a high level of autonomy, competitiveness and ability to emulate other centres was developed.

LRU, at the level of curriculum opened university studies at *Licenciatura* level (four or five years except medicine and Architecture) to a credit based system. Where former rigidity gave way to a combined system with specific homogeneity at the level of professional profile centred in obligatory core areas (30-25 %), a capacity for optional credits fulfilling educational complements and free choice credits following personal interests in specific subjects.

At the level of postgraduate studies Masters Degrees are professionally oriented and there is a strong regulation concerning minimum standards in minimum credits and evaluations. Due to that professional orientation, in these studies the level of participation of practitioners and employers in the curriculum as educators and trainers is very high and very much appreciated by the students. At the Doctoral level, programmes have a very important taught component consisting of methodological courses and specific on the area of knowledge. The latest regulation setting a new framework for curriculm procedures at Doctoral level was passed in 1998.

NGDOs and civil society

Though we can trace back to 1942 the beginning of some NGOs under the Church umbrella, we can talk about the process of development of NGOs starting in 1979. Democracy meant putting common interests first and this resulted in a boom of social organisations after years of social control. In 1979 the first democratic local elections took place and new elected local authorities were very receptive to a growing social demand in order to set up a new scheme for international co-operation[7]. They

[7] Ortega, M.L. (1994) *Las ONGD y la crisis del desarrollo. Analisis de la cooperacion con Centroamerica*, Madrid: IEPALA.

focused mainly on working in Central America, specially Nicaragua, Western Sahara and Cuba were most of existing NGOs were developing projects. The framework established at the local level for international co-operation was translated slowly to the national level. The peak of this social development came in 1982 when the Socialist party won the elections and growing funds were available for NGOs.

A new step in the development of NGOs was the establishment of development cooperation institutions and bugetary provisions both at national and regional levels from 1985 to 1988. This policy led to the creation of new organisations, some of them Spanish branches of well-recognised international NGOs. Another key point in this process was the celebration in 1986 of a referendum on the question if Spain should be a member of NATO. Platforms and other forms of social movement flourished all over Spain campaigning against entering the alliance. The momentum gained from this social movement was channelled into the creation of NGDOs. Quick process some authors defined as a boom[8].

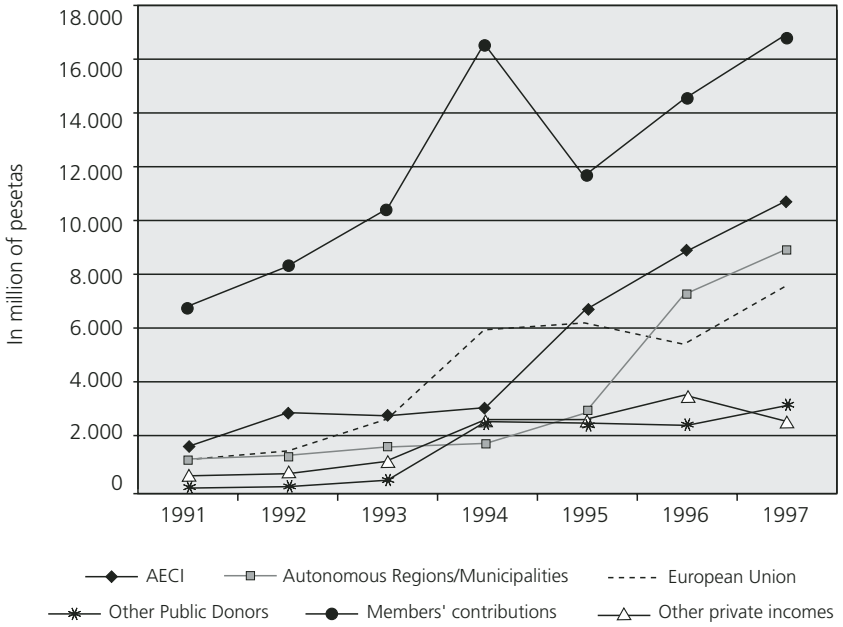
At the level of social support, given the recent and quick process of development of NGDOs in Spain the figures for members are still low though growing: 1.200.000 Spanish citizens are involved in development co-operation activities, 3 % of the population.

Table B13.1
Social support of Spanish NGDOs members of the National platform

Number of Members	Number of NGDOs 1996	Number of NGDOs 1997
More than 500.000	1	1
100.001-500.000	1	4
50.001-100.000	5	3
10.001-50.000	3	5
5.001-10.000	3	4
2.501-5.000	6	6
1.001-2.500	11	12
501-1.000	12	19
101-500	30	23
Less than 100	10	7
No data available	11	4
Total	93	88

Source: Spanish National Platform[9]

[8] Ibid.
[9] Coordinadora de ONGD de España (1999) *Directorio ONGD 1998/99.*



Source: Spanish National Platform[10]

Figure B13.1
Spanish NGOs Incomes Evolution(1991-97)

Analysing the data we can point out that Spanish NGOs are going through a transitional period of stability after a blooming of involvemnt in voluntary solidarity work at the first half of the nineties.

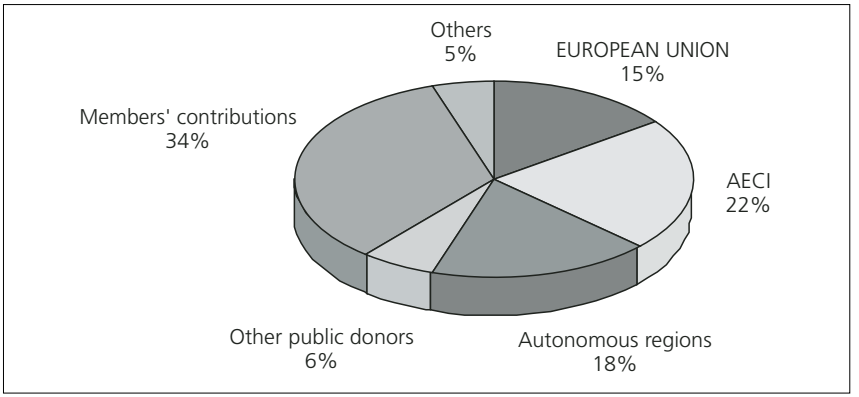
Given this facts, most of Spanish NGOs are characterised not only by their small social support but also by their economic dependence on public funds[11].

Consulting several research on the origin of public funds[12], we can identify the fact that the level of participation of Spanish NGOs in

[10] Coordinadora de ONGD de España (1999) *Directorio ONGD 1998/99*, unpublished.

[11] García-Izquierdo, B. (1998) *El diseño de un sistema de información marketing para mejorar la eficacia en la toma de decisiones de una organización humanitaria,* Doctoral thesis, unpublished

[12] Coordinadora de ONGD de España (1999) *Directorio ONGD 1998/99*, unpublished. García-Izquierdo, B. (1998) *El diseño de un sistema de información marketing para mejorar la eficacia en la toma de decisiones de una organización humanitaria,* Doctoral thesis, unpublished. Fanjul, G. Ed. (1998) *La Realidad de la Ayuda 1998/99*, Barcelona: Intermon.



Source: Spanish National Platform[13]

Figure B13.2
NGOs Funds 1997

European Union funds is still low comparing to neighbouring countries. Recent data also conclude that the involvement of Spanish NGOs in European funds is following a high growth rate that can be verified in the fact that we have become the fourth country in ECHO contracts in 1999[14].

Official Development Aid

In 1986 Spain entered the European Community. It was time to define a new framework for NGDOs government relations in accordance with international standards. The first governmental agency financing NGO's projects (SECIPI) was established in 1987. Nevertheless, Felipe Gonzalez's socialist government (1982-1996) did not undertake the task of developing an appropriate institutional framework for the issue of development co-operation. It was not until Aznar's Popular Party government that a Development Co-operation Council Act and the International Cooperation for Development Law were passed in 1998. Although some significant improvements to the legislation have been made, there are still further important regulations pending[15]. However, highlights of these improvements are as follows:

---

13 Navarro, A. (1999) *Interview in EL MUNDO newspaper,* 1st May.
14 Ibid.
15 Fanjul, G. Ed. (1998) *La Realidad de la Ayuda 1998/99*, Barcelona: Intermon.

The principal objective, poverty eradication, is promoted, especially with regard to economic relations with developing countries. This places further responsibility in the hands of the Ministry of Economy who should redirect FADs (Fondos de Ayuda al Dessarollo) according to this poverty eradication criteria. When FAD credits are approved, not only Spanish commercial interests should be considered, but also their impact on social development. Consequently, the approval of concessional credits (FAD) against development criteria has been restricted so that they are assigned first and foremost to the poorer countries.

Regarding ODA management and co-ordination, the new law permits, in principle, improvements in this field. The capacity of the Minister of Foreign Affairs as Director and Co-ordinator of total aid has been strengthened. Furthermore, the two existing instruments of coronation (Interministerial commission and FAD Commission) have been supplemented with a third, the Interterritorial Commission, to deal with local and regional aid.

The introduction of a Quadrennial Directive Plan as a planning tool offers improvement in the setting of goals in order to establish an adequate framework for establishing policy priorities.

The survey

Methodology

Map of knowledge. A prepared questionnaire in HumanitarianNet was sent to the 57 existing universities in Spain. The data gathered through the response was complemented by means of direct telephone contact, searching the Internet and the files both from Spanish NGOs' National Platform and government agencies financing courses in relation to university provisions. Five universities in Madrid, Barcelona and Bilbao that had significant density in humanitarian studies were visited and main actors were interviewed

Chart of skills. In relation to NGO training, the questionnaire was sent to 50 main NGOs sampled from the eighty-eight members of the Spanish NGOs' National Platform with 50 % of response. An in-depth analysis was carried on twenty-five organisations responding to the questionnaire, which had either a person responsible for education and training or a human resource department and a personal interview, was held. Most of managers contacted and interviewed were very interested in an issue most research projects do not pay attention to, education. However, the level of response on the part of

those NGOs contacted by means of sending the questionnaire was very low (10 %).

The information about the state of education and employment was complemented by recent surveys and research carried out both at national[16] and regional[17] levels.

Results

Map of knowledge: education at the university level

At the level of geographical distribution, certain major areas providing education in the areas of poverty & development; migration, multiculturality and ethnic conflict; human rights; peace studies and humanitarian crises could be identified in Bilbao, Barcelona and Madrid, growing development in Andalucia and significant examples in some of the fields of knowledge were identified in Galicia, Salamanca, Valencia and Zaragoza.

At undergraduate level the offer is small and centred around optional subjects and educational complements while there is a growing development of Masters courses probably responding to the growing professionalization demand in the sector.

At the doctoral level, the offer is very small with only three examples of complete programmes. This reflects the scarce but emerging number of specific university institutes in the issues of humanitarian development.

In relation to disciplines, findings on the area of Poverty and Development showed that first approach in the 1980s was on the side of economic studies and very research-oriented. In the 1990s the curricula turned into management issues when NGDOs started to demand professionals on this field capable to deal with the growing budgets and complexity of organisational problems.

Traditionally Spaniards have migrated elsewhere for various reasons, mainly political and economic. However the 1980s and 1990s have seen the first immigrants of significant numbers entering the

---

[16] Coordinadora de ONGD de España (1999) *Directorio ONGD 1998/99.* García-Izquierdo, B. (1998) *El diseño de un sistema de información marketing para mejorar la eficacia en la toma de decisiones de una organización humanitaria,* Doctoral thesis, unpublished. Fanjul, G. Ed. (1998) *La Realidad de la Ayuda 1998/99,* Barcelona: Intermon.

[17] Alonso, J.A. (1999) *Sistema Vasco de Cooperación al Desarrollo: Diagnóstico y Propuestas.* Informe Confidencial al Consejo Asesor de Cooperación al Desarrollo, unpublished.

country, still low comparing to other European nations. This may be count as an explanation Migration, Multiculturality and Ethnic Conflict curriculum was limited and very related to Social Work. The development of research in the issue and the international approach that most governments are undertaking in the 1990s has led to consider migration studies in the international law and international relations fields.

Also in the field of Human Rights there are four institutes in Spain but only one has a holistic approach while the rest are focused more on humanitarian law or philosophical aspects. In order to complement that limited scope and provide a more interdisciplinary education, they work more and more with centres oriented to other fields such as development or peace studies.

There is no doubt that the area covered the least in Spanish universities is Peace Studies. Only some centres, both at the university and independent research levels, do carry out some education and research in joint ventures with university departments and institutes. 1994 was a key stone year in the process of developing humanitarian assistance in Spain. The level of response both from NGDO and public to the humanitarian crisis in Rwanda was unique. It was also in this year that the first education opportunity in this field was set up in the University of Deusto in Bilbao within the Network On Humanitarian Assistance (NOHA). This served as a reference point for education provided by other universities at the level of international cooperation, interdisciplinary curriculum and NGO & practitioners involvement in the programme, especially in developing an internship framework. The present trend is to focus on postgraduate studies, which work towards educating and training people in different related areas such as management, anthropology, international law and logistics for use in the field, mainly abroad.

Chart of skills: education and training offered by ngdos

In relation to NGO training, findings allow us to identify two different types of NGDOs classified by means of whether they send people abroad or not Contacts were made with two different types of NGDOs, classified by means of whether they send people abroad or not. On the one hand interviews were undertaken with human resources managers from those NGDOs that take people overseas.

The aim of this research was to identify the level of development and need of Spanish NGDOs training and education courses in the field of development cooperation. If budgets and personnel provisions are good ways of measuring the interest an NGDO has in education issues,

results of the survey showed that 76 % of the NGDOs have either a person or a department in charge of human resources. In addition, most of the NGDOs do carry out training courses at different levels, depending on the target audience. Our findings point out that education for personnel working at the headquarters is undertaken in 72 % of NGDOs. Training opportunities include access to external courses in Universities and other training-centres in subjects such as languages, computer skills, and international co-operation theory & methodology and humanitarian assistance issues. Other provisions include in-company courses with external educators in languages and computer skills as well as in-house training activities in areas such as social work, international co-operation, international relations, humanitarian assistance, solidarity values, team-work, NGO missions, planning and gender issues. Another key area of NGDO training includes volunteers of which 79 % offer training in matters such as international cooperation, humanitarian assistance, human rights, social issues, solidarity values, team-work, NGO missions, planning and gender issues. The level of understanding among NGDOs of the relevance of specific training activities for people that are going to work overseas is very high. Training for field personnel is undertaken in 80 % of NGDOs at the headquarters before departure. The length of training courses varies from three-hour sessions to seventy-two hours in twelve-day intensive courses before departure.

If however, we look at the figures for active human resources in the main 93 Spanish NGDOs, that are members of the Spanish National Platform we realise how small is yet this employment market.

Table B13.2
Human resources in Spanish Development NGDOs (1996)

PLACE OF WORK	SPAIN		ABROAD				
ORIGIN	Spanish		Spanish		Local		
STATUS	Volunteers	Employees	Volunteers	Employees	Volunteers	Employees	TOTAL
1996 1997	18771 19286	1630 1496	828 484	596 634	5873 2558	3149 4248	30847 28706

Source: Spanish National Platform[18].

[18] Coordinadora de ONGD de España (1999) *Directorio ONGD 1998/99.*

We can also appreciate a trend characterised by the rise in the status of workers overseas from voluntary to employed. Trend particularly relevant among local people. The rest of the figures shows a high level of maturity both at voluntary and professional levels.

Discussion and conclusions

Most of the education provided in these fields at the universities is undertaken at a postgraduate level. Masters and Ph.D. courses are the mainstream trend amongst university graduates, providing optional and specialised curricula. But these curricula are still very theoretical if not only research oriented. Even research is still underdeveloped in this field and very dependent on public funds, as is the entire development cooperation area. Due to the fact that public donors have not established a proper independent framework for financing, in this field both universities and NGDOs still watch each other as a possible competitor.

There is a trend towards interdisciplinarity, considered as an important starting point for the development of any curriculum in this broad area of knowledge. Trend especially intereesting considered the relevance most practitioners demand of highly flexibkle skilled personnel.

Though still the number of courses is low, it is growing sector still depending on subsidies but increasing interest from private donors.

It is very important to develop a framework of relationship between education providers and NGOs.

The main gap in development cooperation education in Spain seems to point out to undergraduate studies where a type of less specialised personnel could be prepared.

There is a very important need and growing trend to international cooperation both at the university and NGO levels, identifying new trends and patterns of work.

B14
Country Report: Sweden

Kjell-Ake Nordquist
Kay Svensson

Introduction

Sweden is historically a country with strong ties with its neighbours —from the time of Vikings, over centuries of great power ambitions ending in the 18th century. Since then it is a state adapting to the realities of consolidating neighbouring states in the northern parts of Europe. Since the early 1800s, Sweden has therefore enjoyed peace —the longest period ever among states.

This international dimension of Swedish mentality was a good ground for ideas of humanitarianism when spread over Europe during the 1800s. The belief in an international order where basic humanitarian needs were met —codified as laws of war— and where "right" was not based on might but in equality among states was an early principle in Swedish international relations. For Sweden, this position has been central since then, guiding policies during the period of the League of Nations as well as today, under United Nations.

The 19th century was formative for Sweden's development during the 20th century. Also the modern Swedish NGO-structure is reflecting formative developments in the 19th century Swedish society. The formation of major democratic political parties in those days, in combination with religious, labour, and educational social movements who strongly advocated an independent position visavi the state, laid the foundation for what today is a typical Swedish NGO. Its features are the wide membership base, the democratic structure, the non-paid work among its members and a social commitment as part, if not the whole, of its ideology. The non-governmental feature of these organisations —i.e. of being outside of governmental influence— has been a necessary historic condition for their development, rather than a contingent choice making it eligible for certain types of positions or material support.

However, also in Sweden a large number of recently —comparatively— developed NGOs have emerged, who often draw on the experiences from their now well-established predecessors. However, they also develop new forms for work and action. These organisations deal with new issues, such as the environment, armaments, and international community contacts. Today we find some 280 NGOs in Sweden working on international matters. A common denominator for traditional as well as newly established NGOs in Sweden is their important co-operation with the governmental development co-operation agency, SIDA (Swedish International Development Authority). Some NGOs put a limit on the share SIDAs support can have, as compared to the NGOs' own contribution. Yet, the SIDA relation is crucial to many NGOs.

Development co-operation agencies in Sweden rely primarily on the experiences from century-old NGOs of the kind described above. Also SIDA was in the 1960s developed —under a different name— on the basis of networks and experiences gained by church-based work, primarily in Africa. Swedish development co-operation reflects also today both a historic connection with regions of NGO co-operation, as well as an interest of the Swedish population in general. This is seen as a democratic aspect of modern development co-operation. In order to have support for such co-operation, it should be based on co-operation with areas of which people in general has some kind of understanding.

This is also in an interesting way mirrored in the six goals that govern Swedish development co-operation recently stated by the government:

The overall goal of Swedish development co-operation is to raise the standard living of poor peoples. The Swedish Parliament has adopted the following six specific objectives in order to achieve the overall goal:

1. Economic growth. To help increase the production of goods and services.
2. Economic and social equality. To help reduce differences between rich and poor and ensure that everyone's basic needs are met.
3. Economic and political independence. To help to ensure that countries can make their own decisions on their economies and policies and create the conditions necessary for national self-determination.
4. Democratic development. To help to ensure that people are given greater opportunities to influence developments locally, regionally and nationally.

5. Environmental protection. To promote the sustainable use of natural resources and protection of the environment.
6. Gender equality. To promote equality between men and women.

During the 1970s some major re-organisation and introduction of new research areas at the university level was made, following governmental decisions. The units, research departments and centres established during the 1970s are in many instances active and expanding their work in the 1990s. In particular development studies, peace research, environmental research and medical research with a multi-disciplinary character have become established fields of research in the universities through reforms undertaken during this period. Also research co-operation with developing countries got its share in this process. The agency for this purpose, SAREC, was established in 1975 and has recently been incorporated in a re-organised and expanded Sida. Today, also other forms of development co-operation are tried, the most recent initiative from the Swedish government is the Linnéus Programme, which is a programme of academic exchange between Sweden and developing countries.

During 1997 the total budget for Sida went up to SEK 8 billion. Of this amount 1,700 billion, was allocated to humanitarian assistance. Approximately 11 % of this amount was distributed to Swedish NGOs, 65 % was channelled through United nations, 4 % trough other international organisations, 17 % to the Red Cross Movement and finally 3 % trough others, government included.

After the end of the Cold War, the political freedom gained in many countries and regions of Swedish co-operation, has also influenced the work of Swedish development agencies, whether governmental or non-governmental. This is seen in two ways, primarily.

First, the political dimensions of the work is re-phrased and substantially changed. The economically oriented development perspective, with its connections to material development in general and to the global super-power structure in particular, has lost ground. Instead a wider concept of social development has developed, as well as an openness for a much wider geographical basis of co-operation.

Secondly, certain forms for inter-agency co-operation has been tried, particularly in response to complex situations in areas outside (traditionally) strong areas of work of the agencies.

Today, Sweden includes a variety of NGOs, from well-established, social institutions —such as the labour movement, the free (i.e. non-state) churches, and various sport movements— to newly established organisations with only a few, committed persons, devoted to development

issues. Some of these include highly specialised individuals, who perform very specific tasks in specific situations. At best these organisations can pool their competencies to effective operations, at worst they are developing into a grey mass of "NGOishness" where donor organisation's principles become laws in order to survive. Neither is the situation today, as will be seen of the pages below.

Definitions and terminology

When looking on the courses offered in the Swedish university system one has to bear in mind the structure of the degrees available. The international concept of a master degree is not totally applicable in Sweden even though some of the courses offered in Sweden in fact, as will be illustrated later, are on a master level. Many of the larger units in this area is performed through co-operation between different academic subjects but the requirements for a master-degree in Sweden is in-depth-studies in one academic subject for two academic years (the major subject in the master-degree) and in addition to that one or more minor subjects. The interdisciplinary character in courses as mentioned above makes it hard to adapt to the Swedish qualifications for a master-degree.

As is the case also for example in Norway it is very hard to separate or draw a clear distinction between the concepts of humanitarian assistance and development issues when describing the situation in Sweden.

Methodology

The sources of information used in this paper are as follows: The report on skills concerning Humanitarian Development, conducted by the Finnish co-ordinator, Lalli Metsola. In addition to that there is also a survey undertaken through interviews with the largest NGO's in Sweden concerning their need of education.

Education from an NGO-perspective

All the major NGO's in Sweden have their own education and training of their personnel. This training is intended to complement a person's earlier education and work experience with specific topics of

importance to humanitarian organisations. The length of this special training ranges from one to several weeks and includes subjects like: humanitarian assistance methodology, country specific information, development issues and of course also language courses. Other important issues are security and crisis management. The courses can be described as practically oriented and mostly of a short character.

The smaller NGO's (and to some extent even the bigger ones) with no possibility to arrange their own courses, often use SIDA's education and training program for humanitarian assistance. SIDA is also frequently engaged for their language courses. The NGO's also turn to the university for courses in Human Rights and Democracy and to the department of International Child Health (ICH) for issues concerning health care in developing countries. Also the different Christian NGO's use these courses when they train their personnel for field work. Some of them also have a missionary training with more or less the same subjects covered as the other organisations.

Even though most of the NGO's seem to think that an academic background is valuable, it is not the only criteria by which they choose their staff. Some even feel that the academization of the NGO's might be a danger. Instead, one of the most important factors is work experience, foremost from a developing country, but also from other relevant areas. Another quality that is stressed is the personality of the employees. Not everyone is fit to perform the kind of work required in the field.

Nearly all the NGO's believe that a combination of theoretical studies and practice would prepare the student much better for work in the humanitarian field. The work experience could also be achieved through other forms of practice or through voluntary work in a developing country. The NGO's also mean that the students should try to combine subjects in a way that would make them more attractive on the labour market

Presentation of Results

Institutional aspects

A number of international tasks are confronting those involved in situations of humanitarian disaster and politically complex situations. In certain instances an integration of different types of activities can be expected, which requires knowledge over traditional professional boundaries. Preventive operations, including security as well as humanitarian

components, nation-building operations, including administrative, democracy-building and humanitarian components are but examples of combinations that are likely to be necessary in the future.

The military training system for the different tasks in various missions will not be included here. It deserves to be said, however, that there is an a certain dual-use of civilian and military resources in education and training in this field. Thus teachers and experts from non-military institutions are frequently used in military, as well as the opposite. In addition, military personnel may participate in courses and training programs organised by the Churches or a peace movement, for instance in conflict resolution, as well as peace movements may participate in large scale military training, serving as civilian resistance groups, mediators or in other capacities. The degree of resource exchange between the military, the educational system as well as the civil society is increasing and an interesting feature of Swedish training in these fields.

The education and training relevant for our purpose is in Sweden found within the following types of education.

In Sweden a number of universities offers a wide range of courses in the field of Humanitarian assistance and development. Some of them are particularly designed to meet identified needs within the area while most of the courses and particularly the smaller units are found within established and what we can call "classical" academic subjects as law, anthropology, medicine, political science to mention some.

The academic context of the courses particularly designed to meet the demands in relation to these issues differs among the universities. Some of the courses are to be found within faculties of Social Sciences while others are located in the faculties of Law, Medicine Theology or Agriculture.

When focusing on the larger units among the courses and a more established organisational structure around these studies some universities and university Colleges turns out to be more central in the Swedish context. In Gothenburg most of the work are centred around Department of Peace and Development Research also called Padrigu. They offer courses and research within the field of international relations and development issues.

International Migration and Ethnic Relations (60ects) at CEIFO, Stockholm university is a well reputed course which deals with global migration from a historical perspective, refugees, the historical basis for ethnicity and the relation to nation-building and its role in contemporary societies. In addition to that You also find smaller units in Stockholm as for example Globalisation and Food Security in Poor Countries (7,5 ECTS)

Human Rights education is in Sweden available both in established universities as well as in university colleges. Stockholm School of Theological provides an important educational program, in particular for NGOs working in developing countries, in the filed of minority and human rights.

Lund University offers a variety of courses on these issues and among the larger units in this area Intercultural Understanding: Community-Culture-Learning (60 ECTS) has to be mentioned. Although in terms of the number of students the Raoul Wallenberg Institute of Human Rights and Humanitarian Law is rather small it is of significant importance in the Swedish context. It offers courses in human rights and humanitarian law in Sweden as well as in developing countries especially in Asia and Africa.

In Uppsala are a number of units where courses with a focus on development and/or humanitarian assistance issues are being dealt with. Department of Peace and Conflict research (PCR) is probably in terms of staff and number of students the largest one. Within the Faculty of Social Sciences one can also find a number of smaller units within other academic subjects. The NOHA course on Humanitarian assistance is a co-operation between five departments in the university and the Department of Theology is co-ordinating the course. Further more, within the Faculty of Medicine the unit for International Child Health (ICH) is located. In terms of research this unit is probably as large as PCR. In addition to ICH, the area is also covered in a number of units and research groups in the Faculty of Medicine dealing with for example Nutrion and Maternal and Reproductive Health to mention some. On the university level all work in relation to development and humanitarian assistance is collected in the Council for Development and Assistance studies which is an umbrella organisation in the university. Through this council contacts with other universities as well as the governmental SIDA is given a structured form.

In Uppsala we also find the Swedish University of Agricultural Sciences which contribute to the number of courses in Uppsala mainly through its Department of Rural Development Studies. The offer undergraduate courses for one semester in the area and further more the have a research-program. With their studies they focus on productive eco-systems, assured food supply, manageable population dynamics, sustainable livelihoods and rural communities.

Since the courses are a regular part of the programme within the universities and the university colleges they are also financed by the state and therefor no fees are paid by the students. The actors within the field of humanitarian assistance and development issues

therefore can make use of the different courses offered without any particular arrangements.

To understand the Swedish situation one has also take in to consideration the Sida Centre at "Sandö-skolan" which partly in co-operation with the university of Gothenburg provides the actors within developmental and humanitarian area with highly professional short-term training in a variety of fields for those preparing to go out in a particular missions. Languages courses (1998 in 22 different languages) courses in personal security, preparatory courses for newly recruited personnel, and a 3 month development course, targeted against job categories who them form the back-bone in Sida's recruitment register to mention some examples. In addition to that the centre also offer a one year course with distance learning on development issues.

Finally the folk high schools has to mention in this context. They are very special component in the Swedish educational system. The are free to create almost any kind of courses they find interesting. They are not considered to give training on university level but in some context as for example when it comes to development issues one can find a number of rather advanced courses in this field with qualified participants who later find heir ways into a job in different NGOs.

The folk high school system consists in Sweden of 147 schools, i.e. residential adult education schools, all which significant support from the state for its long (1 year) and short courses. Most folk high schools have clear connection to NGOs, such as the Swedish Red Cross, churches, and trade unions. 44 folk high schools provide courses of an international character. 11 of them give course in development co-operation and /or studies of developing countries

Concluding observations

Education and training in Sweden, and with relation to development and relief work, has historically been of two types: short in-house programs introducing work-life professionals into specific tasks and into their new position, and trial-and-error based competence building over the years within organisations. In both cases formal education in development studies and international relations may have been part of the individual's competence, but in general formal education has traditionally been seen as not particularly important for NGOS, which might be understandable for organisations that have developed successfully as NGOs over a century without relying on academic or other formal competence. The folk high school system —a residential

adult education network formed by NGOs, churches and parties already in the 19th century— took care of the educational needs of their respective organisations.

The challenge today, for all involved parties, is to bridge the gap between formal university training and NGO work. This is, among other, made through specialized university courses, on an advanced and applied level, with great relevance for work-life conditions in the NGO context. The NOHA program is a good example of this. Short specialized courses of particular relevance to NGOs provided by universities is another example.

In conclusion, the educational and training structure in Sweden regarding development, including human rights and humanitarian fields, is both a product of the needs of NGOs and the policies of higher institutions of learning. The result is a mosaic of NGOs, a wide variety of courses and programs for designated purposes, and a fewer number of general university courses in these fields. The last years, however, have seen an encouraging convergence of interest and actions among actors in the field, which bodes well for the future.

B15
Country Report: United Kingdom

Ann Muir

Introduction

Development Co-operation: Structure and Organisations

Since the election in May 1997 (when ODA was reconstituted as DFID and an independent department in the British Government), there has been a major shift in British Government policy on international development. Briefly this can be summarised as a more direct pro-poor approach.

DFID's principal aim is to "refocus international development efforts on the elimination of poverty and encouragement of economic growth which benefits the poor. We will do this through support for international sustainable development targets and policies which create sustainable livelihoods for poor people, promote human development and conserve the environment" [1].

Although DFID is the largest donor for NGOs in Britain there are also other significant donors: Comic Relief (formerly Charity Projects), the National Lotteries Charities' Board International Grants Programme, the British Council and the Commonwealth Development Corporation. International donors include the EU and other European donors, for example Bilance, Caritas and Misereor.

Many aspects of DFID's support for development co-operation organisations are currently under review, and in the longer term changes are expected. Obviously not all development co-operation organisations receive DFID funds, but most seek DFID funding at some point in time: therefore changes in DFID policy and mechanisms can still be expected to have a broad reaching influence. Therefore it is important to note

[1] DFID. 1997. *Eliminating World Poverty: A Challenge for the 21st Century.* White Paper on Development. London: DFID.

new or stronger trends as a consequence of changes, and to anticipate any implications of these for the education, knowledge and training needs of development co-operation organisations.

Trends to note:

—Donor demands:

- for pro-poor and pro active approach to poverty elimination.
- for a stronger multi-disciplinary and inter-sectoral approach to eliminating poverty.
- for greater professionalism in project management.
- for more scoping studies prior to project and strategy design to ensure a consistent approach to poverty elimination.
- for organisations to demonstrate their "added value" and the socio-economic impact of their programmes and projects
- for stronger partnerships between the North and South at the level of government and civil society organisations (CSOs) and NGOs.
- strengthening of local NGO/CSO sectors (UK NGOs are increasingly having to provide information on how they are strengthening southern partners).
- renewed emphasis on improving the access of the poor to basic services —in particular health and education.
- increased emphasis on human and civil rights.

—Increasing competition for funding between development co-operation organisations.
—Diversification of funding sources.
—Increasing awareness amongst donors and CSOs/NGOs of the implications of the fact that development funding is only a small part of north-south transfers. Growing interest in global issues of economic transfers and equity.
—Increased interest in the promotion of ethical trade and fair trade —in part due to DFID funding the Ethical Trading Initiative.
—Increased focus on development education in Britain —to increase public understanding.

British Universities and Links with Development Co-operation

Many British universities are actively involved in consultancy work for development co-operation donors. Four have advisory contracts with DFID to provide sector specific advice —the Centre for Development Studies at the University of Wales; the Department of Social Anthropology,

and the Centre of Tropical Veterinary Medicine at the University of Edinburgh; the University of Greenwich; and the Institute for Development Studies at the University of Sussex.

Other major universities which provide consultancy services include the universities of Bath, Birmingham, Bradford, Cambridge, Durham, East Anglia, Hull, London (including the London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine and Wye), Liverpool, Loughborough, Manchester, Newcastle, Oxford, Reading, Stirling and St Andrews. Other academic or university affiliated institutes include the Edinburgh Centre for Tropical Forestry, IIED, ODI and Springfield Business School. This should not be viewed as an exhaustive list, rather it is intended to illustrate the extent of the linkages between British universities and development co-operation donors.

In addition to advisory and research contacts with universities, DFID invests approximately 5 % of its budget in the dissemination of knowledge and much of this is invested in partnerships with universities, NGOs and the private sector. NGOs which are funded by DFID for research include ACTIONAID, ACORD, IIED and Intermediate Technology.

Development Co-operation Organisations

A wide variety of development co-operation organisations exist in the UK. These range in size from DFID, and several NGOs each with an annual income of UKL50-60 million, to very small organisations which support only one project. It is difficult to accurately estimate the total number. A working figure can be obtained from DFID: approximately 300 NGOs have projects co-funded by DFID's Joint Funding Scheme, and other NGOs are funded through other parts of DFID, for example regional offices, the Emergencies and Disasters Unit and research programme. Moreover, whatever the total figure for DFID, it excludes organisations which have not received funds from DFID, but which are nevertheless engaged in development activities. These include for example development education organisations in Britain; lobbying and campaigning groups; professional associations; chambers of commerce, and local government councils. The total number of organisations with development oriented activities is therefore much higher.

Typology of organisations and terminology

Below is a summary of common types of organisations which are actively engaged in development co-operation in the UK. There is considerable overlap as many organisations fit into several categories.

IGO.

DFID has six regional offices in Asia and Africa. NGO/CSO programmes and projects are funded from the UK, through the Joint Funding Scheme administered by the NGO Unit in East Kilbride; through the Emergency and Disaster Unit; and regionally through the development divisions.

CSOs/NGOs.

These are not-for-profit organisations.

CSO Since February 1998 DFID has been making a distinction between CSOs and NGOs[2]. The term "CSO" is used to describe a wider variety of organisations than the term "NGO", and crucially it emphasises the importance of membership organisations to a stronger civil society. This illustrates the stronger policy emphasis DFID is placing on strengthening good government. It includes for example voluntary associations, foundations, co-operatives, trade unions, religious groups, chambers of commerce, and academic and research institutions.

NGO The term "NGO" is used by DFID to refer to the specific category of voluntary and not-for-profit organisation which is established as an intermediary organisation to improve the conditions of poor people in the South, either directly or indirectly. Some CSOs also fall into the NGO category, for example the CTUC.

Other terms used to describe certain groups of NGOs include:

—Development NGOs
—Humanitarian NGOs.
—Southern NGOs
—Transitional NGOs, for example OXFAM UK/I, Save the Children, Care International and Plan International.

CBO

Is commonly used to refer to southern community based organisations: these may be membership or non-membership based.

NGOs include

Non-operational/operational organisations. Non-operational organisations do not implement projects in developing countries, but only provide funding or support to local organisations (for example, training).

---

[2] DFID 1998 *Strengthening DFID's Support for Civil Society* (p.7). London: DFID.

These include CAFOD, Christian Aid, INTERFUND and INTRAC. Operational organisations implement projects, commonly with a local partner delivering services, for example ACTIONAID, Africa Now, Intermediate Technology and Save the Children,. Some of their programmes may also be non-operational.

Membership/non-membership organisations. This category can be used for UK and southern organisations. UK membership organisations include the Trade Union Congress, Amnesty International, WWF, World Development Movement.

Sector specific organisations. These are organisations which are recognised to have a specific technical area of expertise, for example:

—Agriculture - Farm Africa, Find your Feet, Harvest Help, Henry Doubleday Research Association, SoS Sahel
—Conservation/Environment - Birdlife International, IIED, PANOS Institute, Pesticides Trust, WWF
—Disability - ADD
—Education - CAMFED, Interfund, International Extension College
—Emergency/disaster relief - ACORD, Care International, Medicins Sans Frontieres, OXFAM UK/I, Save the Children
—Ethical Trading/Fair Trade - Traidcraft Exchange, Twin Trading
—Health - AHRTAG, AMREF, Health Unlimited, LEPRA, Save the Children, Sight Savers' International
—Housing - Homeless International
—Livestock - VetAid
—Small enterprise and business development - BESO, MacIntyre Care, Traidcraft Exchange, Twin Trading
—Technology - APT, Intermediate Technology, SkillShare Africa
—Training - Abantu for Development, BOND, INTRAC, NCVO, World University Service
—Water and sanitation - WaterAid
—Workers' education and trade unionism - CTUC, WEA

Development education organisations focus their activities in the UK, for example providing development education materials for schools and lobbying for fairer trade These include OXFAM UK/I, SEAD, WEA, World Development Movement and many local development education centres.

Volunteer sending organisations - Voluntary Service Overseas, Catholic Institute for International Relations, United Nations Association of International Services, and British Executive Service Overseas.

British NGO co-ordinating organisation. BOND is a membership networking organisation of 165 NGOs which is funded by DFID and its members.

Clearly the term "NGO" covers a wide variety of organisations, and this has implications for meeting education, training and knowledge gaps.

Methodology

NGOs were selected from the Joint Funding Scheme list of UK based organisations which are currently, or have been recently, in receipt of DFID funds. These total 300. To this list alternative trading organisations and emergency/disaster NGOs were added. The questionnaire was also sent to DFID and donor NGOs. The total number of NGOs the study had to select from was 312. Questionnaires were sent to all the major NGOs, 10, and to another 28 medium and smaller NGOs. These were selected to ensure a representative sample by size and type. Prior to sending the questionnaire, where possible the appropriate person in each NGO was contacted by telephone call, and the purpose of the survey was explained. The questionnaire itself was accompanied by an explanatory letter.

Unfortunately for this survey, another larger training needs research survey organised by BOND was taking place, which could account for the very low response rate: eight NGOs returned a completed questionnaire. In the last week before submission eight of the NGOs which had not returned questionnaires were followed-up by a telephone call, and the information provided recorded onto questionnaires. Finally the survey yielded only 10 responses.

Presentation of Results

Organisation size

The number of the Staff and volunteers working in the organisation and based in the UK varies between four and 850. The oldest UK NGO, SCF, was established in 1919. The youngest, CAMFED and Medicins Sans Frontiers UK were established in 1993. The biggest growth of NGOs, in terms of numbers and size, was during the 1980's.

Mission statements

Almost without exception the mission statements of British NGOs, either explicit or implicitly, refers to reducing poverty and suffering. Likewise almost invariably the objectives of an NGO refer to what the

particular expertise of the NGO is working to achieve, for example in the health, agricultural or water sectors.

Training Resources used by NGOs

Generally the larger the organisation the more likely it is to have a training or human resource department. Only three of the organisations which replied to the questionnaire has a training/human resources department. But the majority do provide training, or buy-in training, for staff. This includes training in equal opportunities; residential pre-departure training for volunteers; training in information technology, fund-raising and report writing, and team building workshops.

Training is also resourced externally, for example training in fund-raising from the International Fund-raising Group; management training from the Management Centre and the Industrial Society; short professional courses from some universities; and BOND runs workshops for its members, for example on project cycle management. For one NGO, Medicins Sans Frontieres UK, all training is carried out by its sister organisations on the Continent.

Essentially, however, what training is provided is ad hoc: training is not an integral part of staff development plans in development co-operations organisations.

Organisations which produce published and unpublished technical training literature used by NGOs include VSO, BOND, NCVO, SCF, Intermediate Technology, WaterAid, Interfund, World University Service. This list is not exhaustive, most NGOs produce unpublished reports which could broadly be referred to as training resource materials.

Gaps in training/education/knowledge

The response to the questionnaire was generally poor, and because gaps in NGO training, education and knowledge are inevitably intangible, it is difficult to draw confident conclusions from the questionnaire response.

Gaps identified by the NGOs which did respond include:

—EU reporting procedures and guidelines
—financial reporting for donors
—practical human resource and change management skills
—information technology;
—project cycle management skills;

—how to strengthen partner organisations in developing countries —organisational and institutional development skills;
—specialist practical knowledge in a variety of sectors: these were not specified, but twice advanced information technology was mentioned;
—skills in social analysis and impact assessment, and
—the need for more training to be carried in developing country institutions, colleges and universities.

One NGO suggested this survey could study job advertisements for the sector. However these are very wide ranging, and they do not necessarily indicate gaps, although information on posts which have proved difficult to recruit for, could be informative. Approaching the issue from another angle it was suggested that universities could provide:

—skills training related to students' individual needs —for trainees attached to particular departments;
—more interaction between universities, practitioners and agencies;
—technical expertise for specialised projects, in order to produce level of details required by donors, especially for scoping studies, and
—practical skills and knowledge.

Training materials produced by organisations

Major NGOs producing training materials include ACTIONAID, development education centres (various), IIED, Intermediate Technology, INTRAC, NCVO, OXFAM UK/I, Save the Children and Voluntary Service Overseas[3].

Much of the training material produced is directed at specific technical skills information (in particular agriculture and conservation, credit and micro-enterprise, management of emergencies and disasters, health, and water) and resourcing development education in schools. Other major foci in training material literature include assessment, monitoring and evaluation; children; conflict resolution techniques; gender; participatory project planning and research; project cycle management; refugees and displaced persons, and voluntary organisation management. There is relatively less material on financial issues and techniques, and inter-organisational collaboration.

[3] All these organisations produce catalogues of their publications.

Literature on IGO and NGO employment

It is informative to note that most of the management and training literature is geared towards organisations in the British voluntary sector, rather than the overseas NGO sector. This does not necessarily reduce its relevance, and indeed if the overseas NGO sector moves further into the "contract culture" there could be increasing common-ground. Also, as is likely, if the NGO sector moves increasingly towards strengthening partner Southern NGOs, and being less operational, this will also have implications for employment and staff skills. These trends are not mutually exclusive and it would be prudent to assume that the "contract culture"; will continue to grow and that there will be a shift in the balance to strengthening the capacity of Southern governments, CSOs and NGOs.

Conclusions

Following the elections of May 1997, the new British Government has been reviewing many aspects of development assistant policy. Some trends and changes are already clear, as noted above. These are underpinned by a stronger emphasis on international (global) politics, strategy and strengthening development and educational institutions in the South. All these have far-reaching implications for development co-operation organisations and what education and training is provided by British universities, and how.

C
Overall Results and Concluding Remarks

Julia González
Wilhelm Löwenstein
Mo Malek

The purpose of this study was to assess the current trends in humanitarian development studies in Europe, from two complementary angles. First, to analyse the ways in which humanitarian development studies are offered at the European educational institutions (supply side of the equation) and secondly, how what is offered matches the needs and expectations of the NGOs who are the potential employers of the graduate students from these institutions (demand side). In order to do this two parallel approaches were adopted.

In its first part, this book tries to approach the contents of humanitarian development studies presenting its integral components in thematic chapters. In the second part, reports of 15 European countries draw country-specific maps of humanitarian development studies teaching highlighting the foci of the university education and confronting them with the needs of the NGOs active in the respective country.

From the country reports it becomes quite obvious that the way humanitarian development studies is taught is strongly influenced by the traditions of the countries' university systems. Across Europe, we can identify two different poles: first, university systems that heavily rely on monodisciplinary courses with a strong emphasis on in-depth specialisation. Second, a problem solving oriented approach that produces a university system with strong departments or institutes each of them encompasing different disciplines. Typical representatives of the former are Austria, Finland and Germany. For the latter, Great Britain, Ireland and the Benelux States can be seen as the prototypes. The other European countries can be found tending more to the one or to the other of the two poles.

These differences in the role of the disciplines among the University systems are strongly reflected in the way humanitarian development studies are taught. The country reports clearly show that there are a

group of Universities or higher education institutions in which humanitarian development studies, with few exceptions, are provided as minors or majors in the general curricula of specific disciplines such as economics, politics, geography or law. For example, within a course on law some modules/units on human rights can be found or within the general curriculum of economics "Development Economics" is offered as a minor. As a result, such a university system is not geared to produce specialists in humanitarian development but rather oriented towards training monodisciplinary researchers with varying degrees of awareness of humanitarian development issues.

The problem solving orientation of the second type of the university systems in contrast produces a big variety of problem-solving specialists who are able to document their specialisation by an academic degree. It is not surprising that this system is often an obstacle to an in-depth specialisation in a single discipline but it allows the students to acquire a set of methods and techniques relevant to humanitarian development stemming from a broad range of disciplines.

There are other factors influencing the nature of the courses on offer in the European countries. One observation is that it seems that the stage of economic development (proxied by per capita income) may have influenced on what is included in the curriculum of development studies courses. For example, it seems that the poorer European countries are likely to offer courses directed at their own regional problems rather than the third world countries. If there are refugees in a country, courses on offer provide solutions on how to cope with the refugees problem and the housing and nutritional issues associated with the influx of the refugees within their own borders. It seems that either the academia's awareness of the problems in the South are limited or there is a perceived national priority which downgrades the importance of the general humanitarian studies to the bottom of the ladder.

There is also evidence to show that political awareness and political commitment play a significant role on the number of the courses and diversity of the courses on offer. Denmark, Sweden and The Netherlands are prime examples of the interactions between political awareness and commitments and the diversity of the courses are on offer from these countries.

Despite the differences, European Countries share the characteristic that the humanitarian development studies in general are taught using quite traditional teaching methods. In most countries lectures and exercises are the dominating means of disseminating knowledge relevant to humanitarian development. This seems to be critical as this

way of teaching does not leave much option forthe students to really learn the methods and techniques presented in the course using case studies. A notable example of good teaching practice is provided by NOHA (Network of Humanitarian Assistance) which although a problem oriented course, allows for specialisation without getting lost in mono-disciplinary details and actively integrates case studies into the conventional lectures and tutorials.

Demand for Skills and Skill Gaps

Apart from considerable differences in the University systems and wide variations of the courses and training programmes, a surprising result of our study was that none of the NGOs active in the humanitarian development in the European countries reported any major gaps in the academic knowledge of their applicants in technical or methodological areas. This is even more surprising given the European scene of NGOs is very heterogeneous in philosophy, size, objectives and scope. As it is frequently reported in the country reports, the heterogeneity of the NGOs is a by product of the way different countries organise their development aid and humanitarian assistance.

The country reports also indicate that the relative weight of the NGOs in the provision of humanitarian assistance and development aid, the diversity of approaches and, hence, the number of NGOs is dependent on the existence of mediating structures, i.e. formally independent bodies which channel the governmental funds in nearly all the European countries such as: GADG in Belgium, Danida in Denmark, Gtz and Kfw in Germany, Neda in the Netherlands and NORAD in Norway. It seems as if the existence of mediating structures supports the specialisation and professionalisation of the developmental NGOs, so that the developmental NGO scene is not so scattered as e.g. in the case of humanitarian assistance. In general, the NGOs are satisfied with the academic knowledge of their applicants. This finding is stressed by the fact that none of the European NGOs train their young staff members in self-organised, quasi-academic courses with base knowledge on development or humanitarian assistance. The bigger NGOs only make some efforts to prepare their staff, experienced as well as younger staff members, for either NGO specific techniques or for an overseas mission. Only the smaller NGOs really identified some gaps in the skills of their applicants, e.g. managerial gaps and gaps in the formation of technical knowledge. But it is debatable whether the identified gaps are due to the failure of the universities in providing the necessary skills

or lack of appropriate information on what is on offer. It seems to be more likely that the recruitment process of the personnel done by the smaller NGOs is responsible for the identified gaps. Most smaller NGOs rely on volunteers who enter the NGOs with a lot of commitment and enthusiasm but often with a lack of professional knowledge. The small NGOs are also often lacking the funds to hire professional personnel and it is not surprising that they recognise gaps in the professional formation of their volunteers. So, it seems to be fair to conclude that within the humanitarian development education a division of labour exists between the universities and the IGOs and NGOs and that this division of labour works adequately. The former creates the theoretical base and teach a rather wide variety of techniques in a mono or multidisciplinary way, the latter stream-line the staff in accordance to their specific needs.

Other gaps which were identified by the organisations dealing with humanitarian development issues concerned the personal characteristics of their applicants. They stressed lacking abilities of coping with complex and rapidly changing situations and more specifically:

—Lack of experience to deal with stress
—Lack of knowledge of applying techniques and methods to real world situations.

It is doubtful whether university education is appropriate to fill these gaps in the personal characteristics of the applicants. One effort that might be promising in this respect is a stronger emphasis on case studies and field phases which should be integrated into the teaching of humanitarian development studies. The country papers as well as the book's thematic chapters indicate that stronger ties between universities on the one side and IGOs and NGOs on the other are to be established. These ties can be used to give the universities a feedback from IGOs and NGOs concerning their real needs in a fastly changing environment. These can also be used to integrate universities in the organisations own teaching programmes to make them support the professionalisation of staff (see Figs. 1 and 2).

Our cross European assessment has shown that the NGOs and IGOs expect some key qualification from their applicants. One is Third-World experience. As in a lot of European countries NGO programmes for volunteers exist which allow students to acquire first-hand experiences in the South, again stronger co-operation between them and the universities is recommended to disseminate the information on the programmes to the students.

But what about the job opportunities for the youth in the humanitarian development sector in Europe? We can not answer this question for the whole of Europe but we are able to find some links on the size of the market. Four of the reporting countries tried to cover the labour market with the following results.

Table C1.1
Employment Opportunities

Country	Member of persons		Estimated Yearly Demand	
	At home	Abroad	At home	Abroad
Denmark	1136	618	79	105
Germany	6100	8550	410	1453
Ireland	149	796	10	135
The Netherlands	n.a.	2500	n.a.	425
Total of the four countries	7385	12464	499	2118
Europe, rough estimate	30000	50000	2100	8500

From the reported figures on the total stock of people employed in the sector we estimated the yearly demand by assuming that on a yearly basis 7 % of the jobs at home and 17 % of the jobs abroad became vacant. So, for the four reporting countries, we are talking about a labour market with 2,600 vacancies per year. The reports stress that these vacancies are only to small percentage available to young university leavers as the lion's share is filled by experienced personnel which rotates from one tightly limited contract to the next job. Roughly estimated for the whole of Europe, we are speaking about 10600 vacancies per annum in the sector at present from which 8 to 16 %, i.e. 850 to 1700 will be open to young graduates. That is the situation at present, but things seem to change with an increase in professionalisation of the NGOs and IGOs active in humanitarian development and with an increase of the number and size of humanitarian operations the EU is involved in.

In general the sub-market for the employment of the staff in the NGO and IGO sectors is not different from the rest of the labour market. The fact that the University sector has an important role to play

in the life-long learning and re-training of the people in general, and those engaged in the NGOs, is part of this general background of a flexible labour market which is already upon us.

The need for professionalisation of the NGO was a theme constantly repeated in responses of all those surveyed in the 15 European countries and echoed in the Bilbao Symposium.

Bilbao Symposium

In March 1998, the result of this research was presented at an International Symposium in Bilbao, Spain, to an invited audience of academics, governments, officials, representatives of NGOs and the European Community. There were two Open Sessions allocated to the formal presentations from selected NGOs in which their perspectives on the nature of the issues were discussed at some length. Several important issues emerged which need to be elaborated upon:

1) First, we often talk about NGOs as if they constitute a homogeneous mass with a unified philosophy, ideology and functionality. This is not the case. There are differences among the NGOs with regards to their size, their origin, their philosophy and their modus operandi. The sector in which they operate may also have some influence on their evolution, as well as those factors mentioned before (i.e. philosophy, ideology and function). These factors inevitably affect the way they perceive their organisation and the way they operate and the categories of staff they need as well as the training programmes they perceive to be suitable for their staff. There is a world of difference between an NGO such as MSF and that of, for example, SCF. Competency Profile, the level of knowledge, specialism, skills and attitudes of the personnel required for taking the jobs and accomplishing the tasks required from the staff therefore would be different in each of these organisations which we have broadly categorised as NGOs. For example, the Symposium heard from Dr Jorge Castilla, representative of MSF in Spain, that apart from formal medical training, they hardly have any needs for specialist training from the universities. The distribution of the staff in MSF reflects that self-sufficiency (see Figure C1.3).

2) On the other hand, the responses to the questionnaires received in nearly all the 15 European countries point towards a universal trend towards professionalisation of the NGO manpower. This message was repeated and reinforced by other participants in Bilbao Symposium. How are we going to reconcile these differing views?

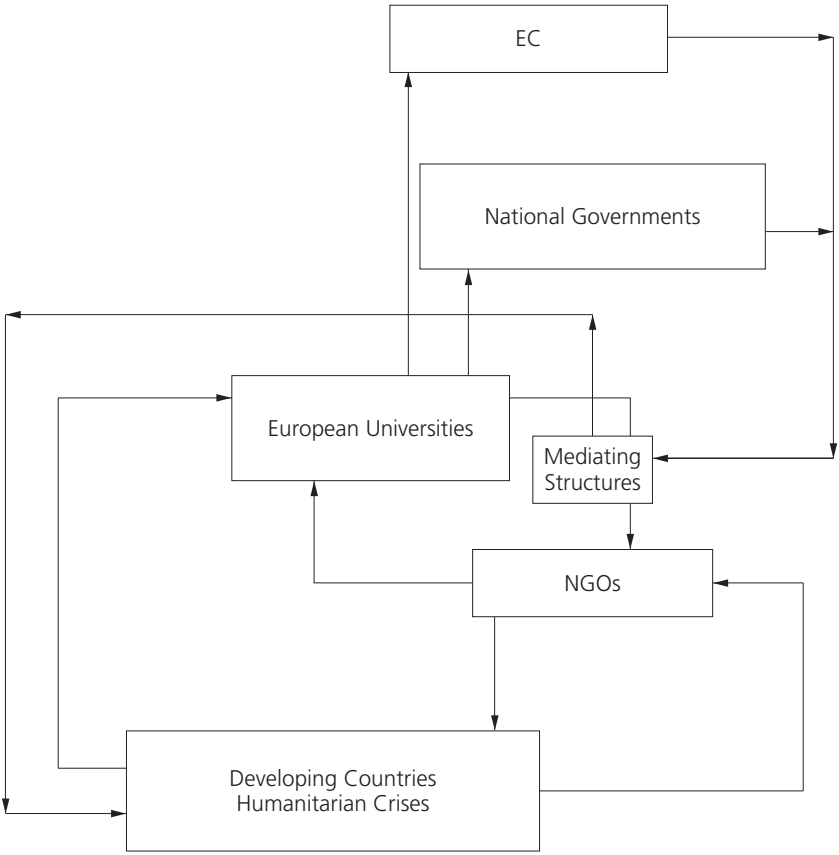


Figure C1.1
Position of the Universities in the Context of the Stakeholders

The answer seems to do more to the type of the NGO and the underlying philosophy of the NGOs. For example, in the case of MSF, the raison d'être of MSF, its principles, its history and ethical foundations determine the *why* and *how* actions are accomplished and the organisational structure and competencies of its staff. Therefore it is not surprising the MSF uses "outside" training sparingly and relies on self-sufficiency. Cateris Paribus, the narrower the function organisation, the more clearly defined is the skill requirement of the manpower of that organisation will be.

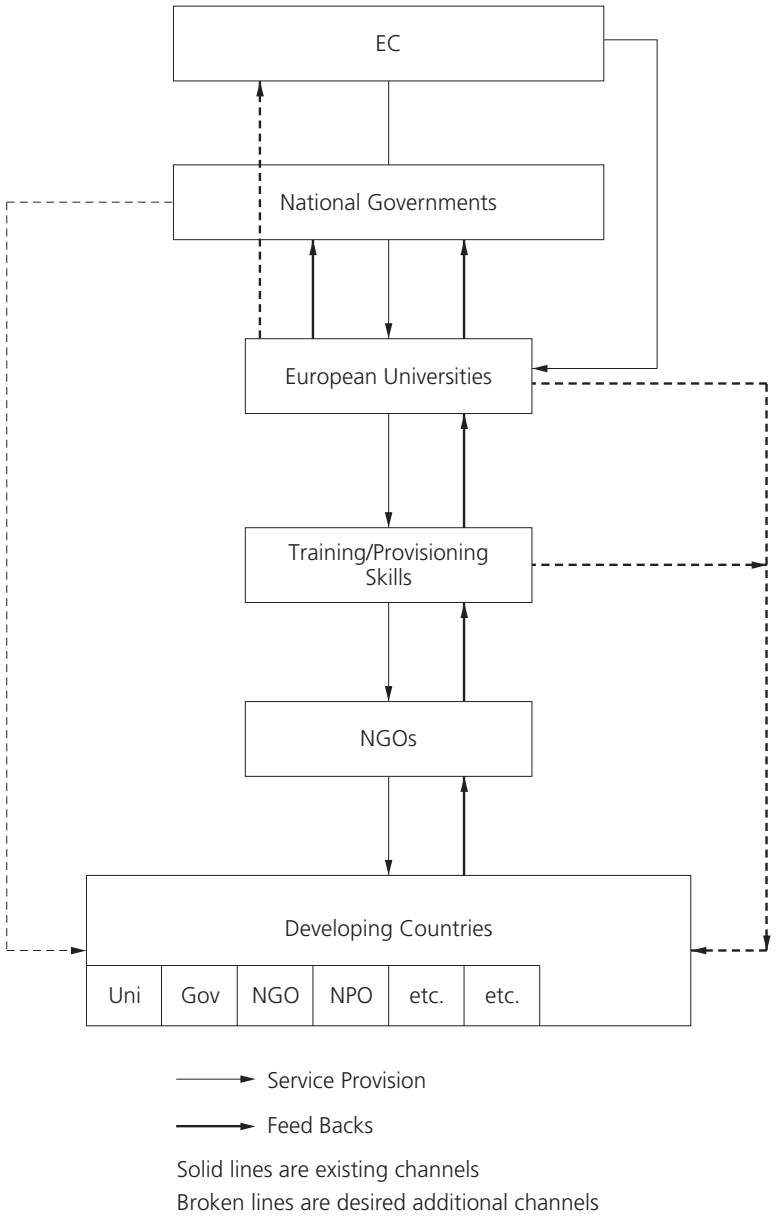


Figure C1.2
A revised Structure of the European Universities

On the other hand, an NGO like Oxfam which has a much broader remit and deals with a variety of issues and has to deal with a variety of circumstances needs a much more flexible set of skills for its staff to enable them to cope with changed circumstances rapidly.

3) There has always been the seeds of an implicit "tension" within the NGOs. On the one hand, the very nature of the function of an NGO, NPO or any organisations which relies on the *volunteers* for a major part of its operations, requires personal traits and qualities among which commitment, dedication and selflessness loom large, to mention but a few. The volunteers by very definition are mostly "amateurs" (and I use this not in a derogatory manner, but in contradistinction from the "professionals"). Being amateurs and offering their labour for less than its market value (often at zero price) makes these organisations function at a much lower operating cost, but often with a lower productivity. On the other hand, bringing the professionals into the organisation increases its productivity (however it is measured) but at the same time not only increases the costs, but also has tremendous implications its underlying philosophy. Increasing trend towards "professionalisation" partly redresses the balance, but the real question would be:

i) How much professionalisation?
ii) At what organisational level do we start professionalisation, i.e. at the foot soldiers level? Middle managers? Or are we talking only at the top managerial level of the NGOs?

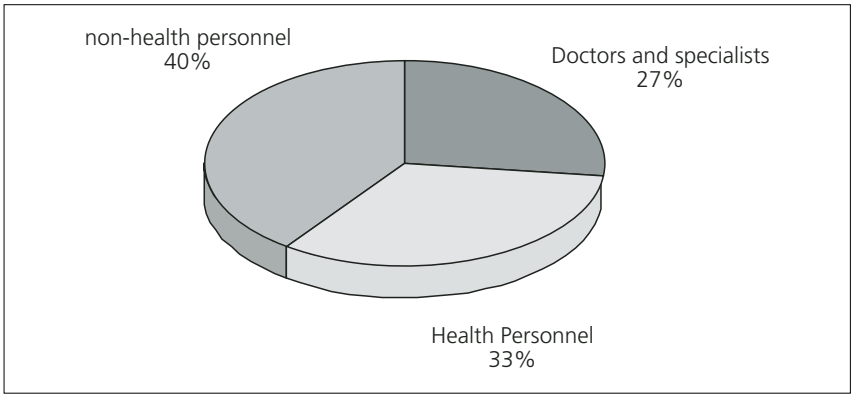


Figure C1.3
Composition of the Staff in MSF reflects that self-suffiency

4) Another issue which needs to be addressed is whether the universities are equipped to deal with the training requirements of the NGOs and the nature of the link between the universities and NGOs. The response from the questionnaires as well as hose who were present at the Bilbao Symposium was there is sufficient expertise available at European universities to meet the need of the NGOs. As for the nature of the link between the two actors. The response is more sophisticated. On the one hand there is reluctance on the part of universities to use NGO people for lecturer purposes other than in exceptional circumstances where, for example, a background or field worker's first hand knowledge could contribute to the enrichment of the academic debate. On the other hand, the response was unanimous to the role of NGOs in feed back and monitoring of the curriculum and the changes necessary to accommodate the needs of the NGOs.

5) There was an extensive debate on broadening the definition of the "link" and its extension backward and forward. Backward extension in this context means going over the head of the NGOs and fostering direct responses from the developing countries. To evaluate the needs of the people at the coal face without going through the medium of the NGOs would be desired and useful as there is no guarantee and the NGOs have been 100 % right in assessing the needs correctly. Past experience has shown that they are as likely to make bad judgement as any other organisation, or at times even more so.

Forward extension means to getting the issues to the policy makers (national governments, aid agencies, European Community, etc.) and to play a proactive role of bridging the gap and disseminating information to these bodies. AT both national and European Community levels there are often numerous agencies dealing with a specific aspect or issue of the humanitarian assistance, without knowing of its overlap and/or implications for other projects undertaken by another department or an NGO. It is necessary for the universities to bridge this information gap.

The HumanitarianNet should strive with the help of its members and associations of other potential stakeholders to initiate preparation for a cheap readily available flexible "virtual European degree" in Humanitarian Assistance. This degree should be designed with the need of the developing countries in mind. We should be revolutionary not only in thinking breaking down the barriers between the European Universities (which we are already doing) but also spearheading a revolution in the delivery of a degree such as this.

Unmediated dialogue between the European Universities and the Third World countries is crucial for achieving the ultimate objective of "sustainable development". The mediation of the NGOs in transfer

of knowledge at times would add an unnecessary additional layer and enhance the bureaucratisation of the process. If we accept that education as a means of enhancing access and social mobility is crucial while the contribution of the NGOs at the Primary and Secondary level is very much appreciated, there is no reason why European Universities should not establish direct links with the Universities in the LDS.

Bibliography

ALDECOA, F. *Cooperación para el desarrollo: textos jurídicos y políticos de los Estados de la Unión Europea* Vitoria-Gasteiz: Gobierno Vasco, 1998.

ALONSO, J.A., *Sistema Vasco de Cooperación al Desarrollo: Diagnóstico y Propuestas.* Informe Confidencial al Consejo Asesor de Cooperación al Desarrollo, unpublished, 1999.

APSO, *Agency for Personal Service Overseas Annual Report 1996-97* APSO, Dublin, 1997.

ASHORN, U.; ASHORN, P.; RIMPELÄ, A., *Selvitys kehitysyhteistyöhön liittyvästä koulutuksesta Suomessa ja muissa Pohjoismaissa.* University of Tampere, Department of Health, Tampere, 1998.

AUSTRIAN FEDERAL MINISTRY FOR FOREIGN AFFAIRS, Department for Development Cooperation (VII), *Drei-Jahres-Programm der Österreichischen Entwicklungszusammenarbeit 1997 bis 1999.* Wien, 1996.

BAIGES, S., *Las ONG de Desarrollo en España. Dilemas de la Cooperación,* Barcelona: Flor del Viento, 1996.

BARASH, D., *Introduction to Peace Studies,* Wadsworth Publishing Company, 1991.

BARKVED, E. & MANGER, L. & STEEN, O.I. & TVEDT, T., *De private organisasjoner som kanal for norsk bistand. En tilleggsstudie.* Centre for Development Studies, University of Bergen, 1993.

BEGROTING BUITENLANDSE ZAKEN, *Ontwikkelingssamenwerking, 1994, 1997, 1998.*

BODSON, A. & BERLEUR, J., *Quelle urgence pour une politique universitaire en communauté française,* p. 21 à 27, 1998.

CAD España. *Serie Exámenes en Materia de Cooperación para el Desarrollo* Madrid: OCDE, Ministerio de Asuntos Exteriores, 1998.

CIDAC, *Projectos em Curso - 1996/1997.* CIDAC, Lisboa, 1997.

CLAUS, B.; WOLFF, P., *Berufschancen für Deutsche Hochschulabsolventen in der Entwicklungszusammenarbeit.* German Institute of Development (DIE), Berlin, 1994.

CLAUS, B.; WOLFF, P., *Berufschancen für Deutsche Hochschulabsolventen in der Entwicklungszusammenarbeit.* German Institute of Development (DIE), Berlin, 1998.

COLLECTIVE, *Aandacht voor kwaliteit in de vlaamse universiteiten. Verslag van de audit commissie kwaliteit zorg in het academische onderwijs in Vlaanderen.* Editeur Colofond, 1998.

COORDINADORA DE ONGD de España. *Código de Conducta,* Madrid-CONGD-E,1998.

COORDINADORA DE ONGD de España. *Directorio ONGD 1997,* Madrid: Respaldo, 1998.

COORDINADORA DE ONGD de España. *Directorio ONGD 1998/99,* unpublished, 1999.

DACTOGLOU, Pr., *Human Rights,* Sakkoula Publications, 1991.

DANIDA/DANCED, *Miljøbistand til Udviklingslandene. Årsberetning Miljø og, 1996. Katastroferammen (MIKA).* Udenrigsministeriet, Danida, København, 1996.

DANIDA, *Danida's årsberetning 1993.* Udenrigsministeriet, Danida, København, 1994.

DANIDA, *Danidas årsberetning 1996.* Udenrigsministeriet, Danida, København, 1996.

DANIDA, *Danidas NGO-samarbejde 1993.* Udenrigsministeriet, Danida, København, 1993.

DANIDA, *Danidas NGO-samarbejde 1994.* Udenrigsministeriet, Danida, København, 1994.

DANIDA, *Danish Transitional Assistence.* Volume I. Synthesis Report. Udenrigsministeriet, Danida, København, 1996.

DANIDA, *Den rullende 5-årsplan 1998-2002.* Udenrigsministeriet, Danida, København, 1997.

DANIDA, *En verden i udvikling. Strategi for Dansk udviklingspolitik frem til år 2000.* Udenrigsministeriet, Danida, København, 1994.

DANIDA, *Statement on Transitional Assistance.* Udenrigsministeriet. Danida, København, 1989.

DANIDA, *The International Response to Conflict and Genocide: Lessons from the Rwandan Experience. Joint Evaluation of Emergency Assistence to Rwanda.* Udenrigsministeriet, Danida, København, 1996.

DANISH RED CROSS, *Programming Relief for Development.* Copenhagen Workshop. DRC Copenhagen, 1995.

DÍAZ-SALAZAR, R., *Redes de solidaridad internacional para derribar el muro Norte-Sur,* Madrid: HOAC, 1996.

FANJUL, G., *La Realidad de la Ayuda 1998/99,* Barcelona: Intermon, 1998.

FELIPE, A. & RODRÍGUEZ, L., *Guía de la solidaridad,* Madrid: Temas de hoy, 1995.

FERES, C., *La cooperacion de las sociedades civiles de la Union Europea con America Latina,* Madrid: AIETI, 1998.

FISHER, R., *The Social Psychology of International Conflict Resolution,* Springer Verlag, N.Y., 1990.

GARCÍA-IZQUIERDO, B., *El diseño de un sistema de información marketing para mejorar la eficacia en la toma de decisiones de una organización humanitaria,* Doctoral thesis, unpublished, 1998.

GERMAN, T. and RANDEL, J., *The reality of aid 1996. An independent review of international aid,* London: Earthscan, 1996.

GERMAN, T. and RANDEL, J., *The reality of aid. An independent review of Poverty reduction and Development Assistance 1998/1999,* London: Earthscan, 1998.

GOAL, *Annual Report, 1996.* Goal, Dublin, 1997.

GONZÁLEZ, J.M., *La funcion de las ONGs en la ayuda al desarrollo,* Hondarribia: HIRU, 1995.

GOVERNMENT OF IRELAND, *1996 Irish Aid Annual Report, 1997.* Department of Foreign Affairs, Dublin, 1997.

GOVERNMENT OF IRELAND, Irish Government Department of Education, *Brief Description of the Irish Education System.* Communications Unit, Department of Education and Science, Dublin, 1997.

GOVERNMENT OF IRELAND-Irish Government Department of Foreign Affairs, *White Paper on Foreign Policy.* Government Publications Office, Dublin, 1997.

GOVERNMENT OF IRELAND-Irish Government Department of Foreign Affairs, *Irish Aid Allocations 1998,* Department of Foreign Affairs, Dublin, 1998.

HELMICH, Henny & BITTNER, Gerhard (Ed.), *ÖFSE Edition 4: Der dritte Sektor in der Entwicklungspolitik: Zusammenarbeit zwischen Staat und Nicht-Regierungsorganisationen - NROs.* Dokumentation zur ÖFSE-Studientagung April 1996 in Wien. ÖFSE-Wien, 1996.

HOEDNEBOE, K., *Norske myndigheters retningslinjer for private organisasjoners bruk av norske statlige u-hjelpsmidler.* Centre for Development Studies, University of Bergen, 1992.

HOLMES, M., *The Poor Relation: Irish Foreign Policy and the Third World.* Trocaire and Gill & Macmillan, Dublin, 1993.

ILIOPOULOS-STRANGAS, J., *Grundrechsschutz in Griecheland. Jahrbuch des (ffentlichen Rechts der Gegenwart,* p. 395-443, 1983.

INTERMON, *Conferencia Sur-Norte. Juntos para la erradicación de la pobreza,* Barcelona: Intermon, 1997.

LEIGOS PARA O DESENVOLVIMENTO *Presentation Leaflet and 1996/1997 Training Calendar.* Leigos para o Desenvolvimento, Lisboa, 1996.

LOPES, Ernâni Rodrigues, *Economia Africana e Diálogo Norte/Sul.* Paper presented at the Faculty of Economics, University of Coimbra, (unpublished), 1997.

LOVE, A.R., *Cooperación para el desarrollo. La ayuda en transición,* Paris: OCDE. 1995

MANESSIS, A., *Civil Rights,* vol. I. Sakkoula Publications, 1981.

MELLEMFOLKELIGT SAMVIRKE, *Ulandsvejviseren.* Mellemfolkeligt Samvirke, Copenhagen, 1998.

MINISTERIE VAN BUITENLANDSE ZAKEN/Ontwikkelingssamenwerking, *Homogene Groep Internationale Samenwerking,* HGIS, 1997.

MINISTERIE VAN DE VLAAMSE GEMEENSCHAP DEPARTEMENT ONDERWIJS, *Rapport OESO-Thematische doorlichting tertiaire onderwijs,* Ministerie van de vlaamse gemeenschap departement onderwijs, 1996.

MINISTÉRIO DOS NEGÓCIOS ESTRANGEIROS, *Cooperação Portuguesa. Relatório de Actividades 97/98.* MNE/ICP, Lisboa, 1998.

MINISTÉRIO DOS NEGÓCIOS ESTRANGEIROS, *Portugal. Dez Anos de Política de Cooperação.* MNE, Lisboa, 1995.

MINISTRY OF FOREIGN AFFAIRS, *The Foreign Policy of the Netherlands: a review.* The Hague, 1995.
NAVARRO, A., Interview in *El Mundo* newspaper, 1999.
NCDE, National Council for Development Education, *Annual Report 1997.* NCDE, Dublin, 1998.
NORWEGIAN RESEARCH COUNCIL, *After Rio Reports 6 & 6A.* Oslo, 1996.
NUFFIC-Netherlands Universities Foundation for International Cooperation, *Jaarverslag,* 1986.
OCDE, *Directory of NGOs Active for Sustainable Development,* CD-ROM Vol. 1: Europe, 1996.
OCDE, *O papel da Cooperação para o Desenvolvimento no Limiar do Século XXI.* CAD Report, May, 1996.
OCDE, *Série des examens en matière de coopération pour le développement. Portugal.* Paris: OCDE. CAD Report, no. 22, 1997.
O'DWYER, T., *Training and Third World Development, unpublished thesis for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy.* Department of Peace Studies, University of Bradford, Bradford, 1994.
OECD - Development Assistance Committee, *DAC-Aid Review* - Austria. Development Co-operation Series No. 15/1996: Austria, OECD, Paris, 1996.
OECD, *Directory of Non-Governemental organisation active in sustainable development,* Part 1 Europe, 1996.
ÖFSE (Austrian Research Foundation for Development Co-operation), *Österreichische Entwicklungspolitik 1996: Berichte, Analysen, Hintergründe.* ÖFSE-Wien, Südwind, 1996.
ÖFSE (Austrian Research Foundation for Development Co-operation), *Österreichische Entwicklungspolitik 1997: Berichte, Analysen, Hintergründe.* ÖFSE-Wien, Südwind, 1997.
ÖFSE (Austrian Research Foundation for Development Co-operation), *Handbuch Österreichische Entwicklungszusammenarbeit 1996: Teil A: Struktur, Organisation und Institutionen der öffentlichen und privaten Entwicklungszusammenarbeit in Österreich.* ÖFSE-Wien, Südwind, 1996.
ÖFSE (Austrian Research Foundation for Development Co-operation), *Handbuch Österreichische Entwicklungszusammenarbeit 1996: Teil C: Bibliotheken, Forschungskontakte, Universitätsbeziehungen und EZA-Periodika.* ÖFSE-Wien, Südwind, 1996.
ÖFSE (Austrian Research Foundation for Development Co-operation), *Handbuch Österreichische Entwicklungszusammenarbeit 1996: Teil B: Strukturebenen österreichischer EZA.* ÖFSE-Wien, Südwind, 1996.
ONDERWATER, J.J.M., *Working for Development; an enquiry into the potential need for university training programmes for workers in development projects.* University of Groningen, Office for International Co-operation, 1997.
ONTWIKKELINGSLANDEN, *Directie voolichting Ontwikkellingssamenwerking* en Buitenlandse Zaken, 1998.
ORTEGA, M.L., *Las ONGD y la crisis del desarrollo. Analisis de la cooperacion con Centroamerica,* Madrid: IEPALA, 1994.

ÖSTERREICHISCHES STATISTISCHES ZENTRALAMT (Ed.): *Statistisches Jahrbuch für die Republik Österreich 1997*. Wien, 1997.

PAPADOPOULOU, D., *Contemporary World Problems and Scientist's Responsibility,* 1994.

PAPADOPOULOU, D., *Education for Peace and Human Rights,* 1993.

PRONK, J.P., "Beyond the Grand design: research for a grand view". In SCHWEIGMAN, C., WERF, I.A. VAN DER (eds), *Development related research collaboration; a second look at the role of the Netherlands.* Royal Tropical Institute, Amsterdam, 1994.

RAKOS, A., *Fundamental Rights,* Vol II, 1986.

RANDEL, J. and GERMAN, T. (Eds), *The reality of Aid 1997/98, an Independent Review of Development Cooperation,* Earthscan, 1997.

REGAN, C., *75/25: Ireland in an Increasingly Unequal World,* Dschas, Dublin, 1996.

REKOLA, J., *0,28% itsekyyden asteikolla: Raportti kehitysyhteistyöstä lama-Suomessa.* LIKE, Helsinki, 1994.

RYE OLSEN, Gorm, "The Aid Policy Process of a 'Humane Internationalist': The Danish Example", in: *Journal of International Development:* Vol. 9, No. X, 1997.

SCHAUER, Reinbert, "NPO-Forschung in Österreich", in: SCHAUER, Reinbert; ANHEIER, Helmut K.; BLÜMLE, Ernst-Bernd (Hrsg.), *Nonprofit-Organisationen (NPO) - dritte Kraft zwischen Markt und Staat? Ergebnisse einer Bestandsaufnahme über den Stand der NPO-Forschung im deutschsprachigen Raum: Eine Dokumentation*. Universitätsverlag Rudolf Trauner; Linz, 1995.

SCHAUER, Reinbert; ANHEIER, Helmut, K.; BLÜMLE, Ernst-Bernd (Hrsg.): *Der Nonprofit Sektor im Aufwind - zur wachsenden Bedeutung von Nonprofit-Organisationen auf nationaler und internationaler Ebene: Eine Dokumentation.* Linz: Universitätsverlag Rudolf Trauner, 1997.

SENILLOSA, I., *La Realidad de la Ayuda 1994,* Barcelona: Intermon, 1994.

SIMPSON, G. & YINGER, J., *Racial and Cultural Minorities,* 1985.

SOGGE, D., *Compasión y Cálculo.* Barcelona: Icaria, 1998.

STAUB, E., *The Roots of Evil- The Origins of Genocide and other Group Violence,* 1989.

STEEN, O. I., "Autonomy or dependency? Relations between non-governmental international aid organisations and government". *Voluntas* Volume 7, Number 2, 1996.

STEEN, O.I., *Norske organisasjoner i bistand og humantært hjelpearbeid. En analyse av forholdet mellom norske private organisasjoners forhold til det offentlige.* Dr.polit thesis, University of Bergen, 1994.

STEPPUTAT, Finn, *Efter nødhjælpen - fra katastrofe til udvikling?* (*After humanitarian assistance - from disaster to development?*) CUF Notat, september 1994. Centre for Development Research, Copenhagen, 1994.

SUOMEN KEHITYSYHTEISTYÖ 1997. Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 1998.

SVENDSEN, Knud Erik, "Danish Aid: Old Bottles". In: O. Stokke (Ed.), *Western Middle Powers and Global Poverty.* Scandinavian Institute of African Studies, Uppsala, 1989.

TAJFEL, H., *The Social Psychology of Minorities.* Minority Rights Groups, report 38. MRG, London, 1978.
TROCAIRE, *Annual Report 1996/97.* Trocaire, Dublin, 1997.
TVEDT, T, *NGOs as a Channel in Development aid. The Norwegian System.* Centre for Development Studies. University of Bergen, 1995.
TVEDT, T. et al., *De private organisasjonene som kanal for norsk bistand. en analyse av utviklingstrekk i forholdet mellom den norske staten og den tredje sector. Centre for Development Studies.* Evaluation Report 3.92, The Norwegian Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 1992.
UNESCO, *World Directory of Peace research and training institution*, 1994.
VAN DER VELDEN, F. & ZWEERS, J., *Personele samenwerking, Beleid, resultaten en perspectieven,* 1997.
VAN OUDENHOVEN, J.P. & WILLEMSEN, T.M., *Ethnic Minorities -Social Psychological Perspectives,* Swets &Zeitlinger, 1989.
VERA, J.M., *La Realidad de la Ayuda 1996,* Barcelona: Intermon, 1996.
VERA, J.M., *La Realidad de la Ayuda 1997,* Barcelona: Intermon, 1997.
JACQUES, J-M. and GATOT, L., *From Crisis Management to Prevention,* 1999.
RANDEL, J. and GERMAN (Eds) ,*The reality of aid1997/1998,* Earthscan. 1997.
OECD, *Directory of Non-Gouvernemental organisation active in sustainable development,* Part 1 Europe ,1996.
UNESCO, *World Directory of Peace research and training institution*, 1994.

Index

HumanitarianNet

Thematic Network on Humanitarian Development Studies

Thematic Network on Humanitarian Development Studies
European Commision DG XXII

Red Temática en Estudios de Desarrollo Humanitario
Comisión Europea DG XXII

University of Deusto