ADMINISTRATIVE REFORM IN THE MEDITERRANEAN REGION

Comparative Summary

*Lello Esposito, an important contemporary Neapolitan artist, created and donated the cover artwork, which revolves around the colours of the Mediterranean featured in the web site: blue, green, and yellow

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The views expressed do not imply the expression of any opinion whatsoever on the part of the United Nations and of Italian Department for Public Administration and Formez.
Presentation

The publication, divided in three volumes, is written in English since it is aimed at Italian and foreign experts and officials working on administrative innovation and reform in the Mediterranean area.

The documents that have been gathered are a preliminary but nevertheless significant knowledge base, which had up to now been completely absent at the international level in the field of administrative knowledge and studies. The studies presented here were undertaken with standardised methodologies, in order to allow for reliable comparisons.

The knowledge gathered and presented in the volumes is the result of the work of a team of researchers and experts, and it is one of the first and most significant contributions made by C.A.I.MED (Centre for Administrative Innovation in the Euro-Mediterranean Region), which was created following an international memorandum of understanding between the Italian Government and the United Nations, and whose institutional functions are summarised in an appendix.

The C.A.I.MED, jointly run by Formez and UNDESA (United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs) is a service of these two institutions whose aim is to encourage cooperation, knowledge, and the exchange of best practices between European countries and those of the Mediterranean.

The programming and supervision of the texts presented in the volumes was ensured on behalf of C.A.I.MED by its director Mr. Giuseppe Pennella, and on behalf of UNDESA by Mrs. Adriana Alberti, adviser for governance systems and institutions.

The publication is divided in three volumes, the first being a comparative analysis, and the second and third comprising the individual country reports.

A team of experts was in charge of the translation, linguistic revision, and editing of the publication. The documents gathered in the publications, which do not represent the point of view of the United Nations, the Department for Public Administration, and Formez, and which do not imply the expression of judgements or opinions of any kind on the part of these institutions, have already been presented, as supporting documentation, at the international “Consultative Meeting on Priorities in Innovating Governance and Public Administration in the Euro-Mediterranean Region” held at Arco Felice di Pozzuoli (Naples) on 17-20 maggio 2004, promoted by UNDESA with the collaboration of Formez.

The country papers presented here are an important source of knowledge on the administrative, procedural, and organisational aspects of the public administrations of the countries of the Mediterranean, and are of great usefulness for administrators, officials, and scholars working on administrative cooperation and innovation in both Europe and the Mediterranean.
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COMPARATIVE SUMMARY

ADMINISTRATIVE REFORM IN MEDITERRANEAN COUNTRIES: A PRELIMINARY OVERVIEW(*)

INTRODUCTION

Starting in the early 1990’s, the countries of the Mediterranean basin began a general administrative reform process, often associated with profound changes in the organisation of the State (as in the Balkans) that affected both the bureaucratic machine and its relationship with the citizenry. We attempt to define some of the characteristics of the reform “era”, and to identify similarities and differences in the reform processes undertaken in the countries at hand.

There is a general awareness of the link between democratisation processes and increasingly transparent administrations, made up of a professional bureaucratic corps, disciplined by well enforced rules and growing increasingly efficient and effective.

Centre-periphery relations

In general, intermediate government levels (regional or provincial) do not play relevant roles, while local administrations are important everywhere and are often quite capillary in their reach. However, local administrations remain quite dependent on central administrations.

In particular, the following should be stressed:

- Resources destined to local institutions usually come from the central government, as the former usually lack financial autonomy.
- Local administrations remain strongly dependent on central administrations in terms of appointing top officials and overseeing their activities. With regards to the former, in many cases dependency on the central government is embodied by the government’s responsibility for appointing most or all local entity administrators (as is the case in Syria, Algeria, or Egypt, where the Head of State appoints all 26 regional governors, an important local institution. This double level of responsibility characterises these authorities as “two-headed” entities, since they are both dependent on the state and in charge of local government structures.
- State institutions almost always exercise broad control powers over the activities of local institutions (as is the case in Algeria with the local governor or in Israel with the ombudsman, who is an agent of state control). In certain cases, such as Turkey’s, local administrative systems remain merely a peripheral arm of the central administration.

In this situation characterised by generally weak autonomies, Israel’s case stands out as it invested in greater local autonomy through the introduction of the direct election of mayors in 1975. Reform processes that impact local administrations tend to disproportionately affect Communes and Municipalities, who are the focus of decentralisation efforts both in terms of mere administrative decentralisation and in terms of increasing responsibilities for Communes and Municipalities. A typical example of this are the constitutionally enshrined modernisation programmes in Croatia and Bosnia-Herzegovina.

Communes are often the focus of reform efforts since they are in charge of public services rather than local self-government. The goal of these efforts is to make public services more efficient. Along these lines, many countries, such as Jordan and Malta, have adopted charters marks, and some countries have tried to rationalise the organisation of local entities in order to reach an optimal size for the provision of services. An example of this is the fusion of small Communes into larger ones that Jordan has undertaken.

(*) by Guido Bertucci, Director DPADM/UNDESA
COMPARATIVE SUMMARY

General characteristics of administrative reform

Over the last 10 years, most Mediterranean countries have undertaken modernisation programmes that have particularly emphasised public administration reform. The importance given to P.A. reform is underlined by the creation of ad hoc organisms entrusted with designing and monitoring reform projects, and assisting administrations with their implementation. These organisms are sometimes part of the ordinary administration, which is almost always under government control (this is the case for Jordan’s Administrative Development and Training Department, the Direction of the Office of the Minister of State for Administrative Reform in Lebanon, the Ministry of Modernisation in Morocco, the Cyprus Ministry of Finance’s Department for Administration and Personnel). In other cases there are “special” organisms created in order to launch the reform process, such as the special agency created in Serbia or the three central agencies for change created in Malta.

Reform programmes sometimes formally tackle the problem of separating administrations from politics (this is the case in Serbia and Slovenia), which is associated with the attempt to create a professional bureaucracy, especially at the highest levels of the administration. The following chapter will re-visit these issues.

Reform processes often pay close attention to the reduction and rationalisation of expenses. Jordan, among others, has presented a significant reform project on this issue.

Some countries, such as Lebanon, took the opportunity of using available funding from international organisations such as the World Bank to launch joint administrative reform programmes.

Human resource management

Human resource management is one of the focus area for administrative reform efforts, although interventions in this field are varied in scope. In some cases, legislation has been drafted to valorise the peculiarities of public sector employment, as was the case with the Slovenian P.A.

In almost all cases, efforts are oriented towards the creation of a professional, responsible corps of bureaucrats with high ethical standards. In some cases, such as Croatia’s, these needs are initially felt at the local administration level. Countries such as Lebanon have adopted ethical codes for public sector employees, in part to fight corruption. This problem is keenly felt especially in older administrations and in systems that have historically been highly centralised.

There are many cases in which administrative reform has been accompanied by modern human resource management efforts through introducing performance-based salary scales.

Malta shows a partially different situation where Ministries already have four different management levels, regulated by three-year renewable contracts in which a significant percentage of retribution is tied to performance. Managers are reconfirmed on the basis of a comparative exam, and they are subject to periodic performance evaluations.

The need to intervene on human resource management has sometimes led to the definition of specific rules for public administration employees (Slovenia, Croatia). Sometimes, as in Jordan, the adoption of specific laws on public employment has led to the adoption of recruitment systems and in merit-based and transparent career paths.

The work of the Civil Service Commission in Israel is particularly significant in the field of the disciplinary systematisation of public employment. In that country, where a common law system is
in effect, there was a strong need to gather and order many of the non-written principles upon which the personnel management system was built.

In terms of defining adequate rules and career paths, the case of Lebanon’s Performance Improvement Plan is quite interesting. This plan calls for the definition of “professional families” to replace the existing, rigid classification systems, and for the introduction of performance evaluation systems.

In some cases efforts to rationalise and systematise relations between administrations and their employees have been accompanied by initial contracting efforts in countries such as Morocco, Algeria and Malta.

**Human resource valorisation and development through training**

There is a growing awareness of the need for training activities within P.A. reform efforts, as a permanent way to ensure the professionalism of public sector employees. In cases such as Algeria and Cyprus where particular attention is paid to training, specific training organisms have been created in order to accompany the reform process. In Morocco, two training schools, the ENA and the Training Centre for Staff and Secretaries, were created concurrently with the Ministry for Administrative Reform, thus stressing the need for a greater diversification of professional skills and roles within the bureaucratic corps. In these countries, the influence of the French administrative model is quite evident.

**Relations between the P.A., citizens, and the private sector**

There is a general awareness of the need to improve the relationship between the P.A. and the citizenry through increasingly transparent administrative activities. Increased transparency can be achieved both through adopting clearer rules on procedures (such as the introduction of legislation on mandatory motivations for laws in Morocco) and through adopting legislation on administrative simplification, as was the case in Serbia. This need is also keenly felt in countries that are undergoing democratic reform processes.

There is a strong need to improve the relationship between the P.A. and the private sector, especially in countries that are trying to accelerate their economic development processes, in some cases in light of future integration with Europe. Countries that have identified this need include Turkey, Algeria and Croatia. Some countries, such as Morocco, have activated one-stop-shops for productive activities. In some cases, there are contrasts between static, traditional French-based models and the need for more elasticity and faster implementation times than those offered by traditional models.

Administrative experiences, deriving both from European (especially French) and socialist traditions have led to the presence in Mediterranean countries of procedures that refer to public employment statutes, which are intended more as a system of guarantees and principles rather than general behaviour and transparency rules that must be followed.

**Development of e-government models**

There is a general awareness of the need to accompany reform efforts with massive investments in information technology. Reform projects include the development of e-government systems. These projects are more extensively developed in the case of North African countries, or for Lebanon and countries in the Balkans that have received funding from international organisation for ICT projects. Although many countries have planned significant investments in ICT, the day-to-day use of such technologies in public administrations remains limited. Central governments and administrations have important roles to play in proposed e-government projects.
Administrative Reform, Innovation and Maintenance

SUMMARY OF ALBANIA

ALBANIA

The current administrative system in Albania is based on the Council of Europe’s Charter on local self-government (art. 108) and arises out of the 1998 Democratic Constitution and both subsequent and previous legislation, in the latter case only if such legislation has not explicitly been repealed. At the programming level, Albania’s system is rather straightforward, and has three levels: central, local (or territorial), and peripheral.

The central Public Administration is made up of 16 Ministers, each in charge of their respective sectors.

The newly created Department of Public Administration, a department of the Prime Minister’s Office, co-operates closely with the Ministries and with other central level institutions in order to help them achieve their goals.

The Department of Public Administration:

- Prepares drafts for regulations regarding the structure, functions and tasks of the Public Administration and submits them to the Government for approval.
- Is responsible for elaborating a general policy on training, recruiting and promoting public officials, drafting ad hoc regulations on the matter, and monitoring their implementation.
- Is responsible for salary reform and insurance for public sector employees, along with the Ministry of Labour and Finance.
- Manages and co-ordinates technical assistance furnished to the Public Administration.

1 The Department of Public Administration:
The organisation and functioning of local governments are based on the principles of independence, local autonomy, and decentralisation.

Key sources include:
- The 1998 Constitution (art. 108-115)
- The decentralisation law (n.8652 of 31.07.2000).

The latter is a law that sets out principles, and has only partially been implemented.

The local government model, at least on paper, is described below:

At the local level, the basic government unit is the *Bashkia* (Municipality). Traditionally, only relatively large urban agglomerations are considered *Bashkia*.

Smaller towns and villages are classified as Communes; these are the smallest local government entities.

Within both Communes and Municipalities smaller administrative units can be created to serve parts of the territory.

Prior to the decentralisation law, Communes and *Bashkia* (Municipalities) were parts of the Districts, which numbered 36 and were in turn parts of the Regions.

The new model, outlined by the 1998 Constitutional Charter, eliminates Districts, and the Communes and Municipalities become the basic administrative units within the Regions. A Region is made up of various local government units linked by traditional economic ties and common interests. Currently, there are 309 Communes, 65 Municipalities, and 12 Regions in Albania.

A Region is an administrative unit whose territory includes Communes and Municipalities with traditional, geographic, economic, and social ties and with common interests.

The law on decentralisation called for Districts to remain (they existed already prior to the creation of Regions) as subdivisions of the regions, but subsequent legislation – in force today – eliminated them.

Regions are responsible for drafting and implementing regional policies to be shared by all the local government units contained within them, and for harmonising these policies with State policies.

They also have responsibilities that have been conferred upon them on paper but that they have not yet had the opportunity to exercise, as well as responsibilities whose modalities have yet to be defined by detailed legislation.

Furthermore, because the decentralisation process is still in an experimental phase, Regions will have to decide, based on experience, whether they should take on additional responsibilities. The Region is represented by a Regional Council, and the executive power is held by the President of the Regional Council.

These councils are made up of representatives that Municipal and Communal Council elects from its own members (in proportion to their population, with each council having at least one representative in the Regional Council).

The mayors of each Region’s Municipalities and Communes are also member of their respective Regional Councils.

The fact that Regional representatives are not directly elected is one of the main reasons why many people working on administrative reform in Albania (university professors, government members, public sector managers, public opinion) remain unconvinced that decentralisation is truly necessary.

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2 June 1999
Effective decentralisation is still far off, especially when one considers that the resources that the State has devolved to Regions, Municipalities, and Communes in order to decentralise amount to just over 10% of total state revenue.

Increased resources may be devoted to this task once local government units begin to establish local revenue collection systems that can cover the costs of the services these units are responsible for providing, but the road ahead is still very long.

While it is likely that further resources will be earmarked for decentralisation, it is also possible that the reverse will occur, with steps being taken towards “de-concentration” rather than decentralisation. This would be motivated in part by the fact that Albania is a small country in which a decentralisation process based on the subsidiarity principle (bottom-up government) may not be necessary.

Prior to 1990, local governments in Albania had limited self-government units (Elective Councils) that were decentralised within a highly centralised decision-making system, with responsibilities that covered detailed economic planning and implementation.

After 1990 Albania began to head towards a decentralised local government model, until the August 1992 reform (law on the functions and organisation of local governments) that for the first time set up politically autonomous local governments (Municipalities and Communes) with direct responsibilities, but without fiscal and managerial autonomy. The almost total lack of resources made it very difficult for them to provide the services they were responsible for, and hindered public participation in local politics. This made it both difficult and inefficient for Albania to move away from a centralised model.

It was only in 1998, with the new Constitution, that local governments acquired the authority to manage their own funds, without however having adequate budgets; during the first years of the transition most of the attention was concentrated on central level reforms to create key institutions (Parliament, Government, and Magistrature) based on democratic models.

Public administration reform in Albania is part of an overall transition process that began right after the fall of the former regime in the 1990’s. This transition involves a shift of the entire political, cultural and economic systems towards western European cultural, political, and administrative models.

The overall transition took place in three phases:

1. The 1st phase (January-December 2000) dealt with immediate reforms, especially for local revenue collection systems, with local taxes being set by local governments.

This goal required extensive legislative simplification that took into account the new principles on decentralisation set by the Constitution.

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3 The three phases help monitor and evaluate the decentralisation process.

On the basis of the results that have been achieved, Albania will be able to evaluate the process’ success and if needed, make future changes in strategy.

The monitoring criteria are as follows:

Conformity with the principles of the European Charter on local self-government through a simple table that identifies them one by one.

- Speed of key reforms

  The speed with which key reforms are implemented is one way to measure results. This can be measured, for example, by determining when local entities assume full responsibilities over local public services or urban planning.

- Quantitative measures of fiscal decentralisation

  These indicators include local fiscal revenues and expenditures.

Another important indicator is the perceptions that citizens have of the ongoing process.
In 2000 two important laws were introduced: the aforementioned law on the “organisation of local governments” (L. n. 8652 of 31.07.2000) and the law on the “territorial division of local governments in the Republic of Albania” (L. n. 8653 of 31.07.2000).

The 2nd phase (January – December 2001) included the adoption of a framework law on local governments that set the geographic boundaries of such governments and that outlined their functions and competences as well as their relationship with the central government. The law was meant to define central government supervision on local management, both in terms of issues and modalities.

This phase included the following steps:
• Outlining local government structure (identifying essential elements, internal organisation, local choices to adapt government structures to the needs of the community);
• Finding ways to address regional interests and encourage cooperation among local authorities;
• Defining electoral rights (including referendums) and election procedures for local officials;
• Adopting a framework law on local finances that defines budget terms, revenue sources for local governments, roles and ways to ensure transparency and openness in local public finance.

On 12. 12. 2002 Albania passed law n. 8982 “on local taxation systems”.

The 3rd Phase (from January 2002), was the longest and included the law on urban planning, on additional social functions (health, education, police, and civil defence), and on delegated functions. This law has not yet been passed, and some important parts of it have not yet been completely drafted.

The professionalisation of PA personnel is another cornerstone of the Albanian reform process. The planned administrative apparatus is based on three fundamental principles:
• Information
• Publicity
• Transparency

The new administrative procedure code (all.2) – L. n.8485 of 12.05.1999 – is a key law. It is rather generic in some aspects and therefore will be integrated with future legislation.

To some extent, this has already happened with regards to the professionalisation of public sector employees, with law n. 8549 of 11.11.1999, which will be further integrated in light of the principles included in the framework law on ethics that is still being discussed in the Parliament.

It will be very important for Albania to increase the adaptability of local structures so that they will be able to efficiently support technical staff, improve training and encourage the sharing of experiences. One way to meet this goal will be through the creation of a National Centre for Information and Training in Local Governments. This centre will undertake a study to identify the training needs and methods and the levels of foreign assistance necessary for an overall training effort.

The European Union is the most important foreign body supporting the evolution of the Albanian administrative system, within the framework of a broader economic stabilisation process and with an eye towards association.

The European Commission’s support will have two main guidelines:
• development and improvement of Albania’s administrative system, through strengthening the key institutions of the Albanian Public Administration (such as the Civil Service Commission, the General Secretariat for Public Administration, the Department of Public Administration and the School of Public Administration).

This is the goal of the latest PHARE programme for 2002-2003.
The emission of CARDS for priority areas in order to bring Albania closer to EU standards and to give the Stabilisation and Association agreement adequate momentum. These areas include:
- Public finance (including conventions, tax burdens, fiscal controls) in order to raise revenue and fight corruption and fraud.
- Standards for public acquisitions, in accordance with the clauses of any future stabilisation and association agreement;
- State supports and free competition;
- bringing statistics and data analysis in line with European standards.

Administrative reform in Albania includes many actors in addition to the so-called institutional ones, and many organisms have developed programmes and strategies to assist this reform. Among these actors, the United Nation Development Programme (UNDP) has played a particularly important role. The UNDP’s Local Governance Programme supports the Albanian government’s efforts to strengthen the decentralisation and sustain democratic local government systems and basic institutions in order to promote equitable development models that can help reduce poverty and guarantee the country’s security.

IDRA (Institute for Development Research Alternatives) is one of the main non-governmental organisations currently supporting administrative reform...
The Democracy and Government Programme/Initiative for fiscal decentralisation enjoys the support of the World Bank.

As part of the project, two documents were drafted that proved very important and useful for both cities: “Community’s Profile” and “Economic Development Plan”. The first is a portrait of each city that offers useful information on their social and economic environment, and was drafted with the help of municipal specialists and each city’s economic commission. The “Economic Development Plan” includes concrete actions to be undertaken by the municipalities and other city institutions in order to valorise existing skills, create new ones and generally revitalise trade and the job market, thus improving the quality of life of every citizen.

Another IDRA project in this field is the Local Government Budgeting in Transition Countries project, which is a comparative study of four central and eastern European countries (Albania, Croatia, Poland, and Romania).

The MSI group (Management System International) has also put IDRA in charge of the USAID-financed project on “Reducing Corruption in Albanian Civil Society” for three years. This project, which began in November 2000, aims to create a public/private partnership to fight corruption in Albania professionalize public sector employees.

During the project’s first year IDRA worked on evaluating the central government’s anti-corruption programme, which included all the initiatives undertaken by the Albanian government, international donors, and civil society.

The Open Society Foundation for Albania (OSFA) is a hybrid between a donor agency and an ONG, and is very active in the field of institutional reforms.

During 2002 OSFA’s activity was concentrated in four priority areas:
- promoting good governance and institutional reforms;
- strengthening social cohesion;
- Increasing opportunities for young people;
- creating a favourable trade climate.
OSFA’s work over the last few years has been invaluable at the institutional level, especially regarding efforts to improve public employment, decentralise the government and fight corruption and illegal trade.
ALGERIA

Algeria’s colonial past, starting with the French invasion in 1830, profoundly impacted the country’s history and its institutions, up to independence in 1962, through the years of single-party regime, and finally through the latest constitutional reforms and the election of the current President.

This analysis pays proper attention to the roles played by Islam and by the so-called Arabisation (the expansion of Arabic language and culture). Since the 7th century, Islam has played an extremely important role in the Arab world, by guaranteeing the preservation of an Arab identity. For over 300 years, starting in the 16th century, Algeria was a province of the Ottoman Empire, with Algiers as its capital.

Historical analyses – necessary in order to understand the framework within which an attempt is being made to introduce radical changes in the Algerian state and public administration – have shown that Algeria has long been characterised by the absence of a democratic state, and that the first attempt to create one met with considerable challenges. To this day, it has not yet been
completed. The precarious state of the national economy, along with numerous internal difficulties, has not helped create a fertile environment for democratic reforms, which are still far from being fully implemented.

The current Algerian government system – born out of the 1996 reforms – is a presidential republic with a separation of powers that includes the division of tasks and responsibilities among various institutions typical of such systems, with the added twist of the peculiarities associated with the fact that Islam is the official state religion.

The President of the Republic and the government holds the executive power, the Parliament holds legislative power, while the Courts hold judiciary powers. The last presidential elections were held in June and December 1997. The 1996 constitutional amendment replaced the 200-member Conseil National de Transition (National Transition Council) with a bi-cameral legislature. The latter includes a lower chamber and an upper chamber, respectively the 389- member Assemblée Populaire Nationale (Al-Majlis al-Sha’abi al-Watani), and the 144-member Conseil de la Nation (Al-Majlis al-’Umma).

The State Council, created in 1998, is in charge of regulating administrative justice. It is the seat of judiciary power, and guarantees the uniform application of administrative justice in the country as well as respect for the rule of law.

With regards to local communities, Algeria is divided in three administrative levels: Departments (Wilaya), Sub-departments (Daira), and municipalities (Communes). Because of Algeria’s colonial past, these divisions match in part those of the French colonial administration. Indeed, Wilayas are the equivalent of French departments, while Dairas are the equivalent of French arrondissements; furthermore, each municipality is divided into Douars, which however do not have legal status.

Since 1969, each of the 48 Wilayas has its own Popular Assembly (APW) made up of 30 representatives elected every 5 years – its deliberative body – and an Executive Council. These administrative districts of the state enjoy financial autonomy, and their responsibilities include the territorial organisation of state services, the regulation of agriculture, tourism, school systems, road networks and medium-size industries, as well as all activities related to private sector development. The Municipal Popular Assemblies (APC) are the governing bodies for Municipalities. They are made up of 10 to 80 members elected every five years, and are responsible for local administration, economics, finances, social and cultural activities, and planning.

There are several reasons for paying close attention to Algeria’s economic context. One of the main reasons is the deep economic crisis that has characterised Algeria’s recent history, leading to widespread poverty and degradation and enhancing political and ethnic conflicts. Furthermore, a significant share of public administration reform efforts, especially in the past, have focused on sectors such as foreign trade and economic development. Another reason is that Algeria is trying to join the global economy on even terms and thus improve internal growth, thanks in part to the significant role it plays in the hydrocarbon sector. Finally, numerous international organisations have long supported efforts to favour long term sustainable development in Algeria, through direct and cross-cutting programs that often overlap with those aiming to reform the administrative system.

After independence in 1962, Algeria launched a nationalisation process involving its petroleum resources and most of the industry and service sectors, while agrarian reform efforts focused on the dominant role played by large state farms. The adoption of a socialist economic model gave good results in the short term, but they were short-lived. The first decade of industrialisation, from 1965 to 1975, saw the creation of huge industrial centres, with some of the highest investment rates in the world: 40% of GDP, rising to over 50% in 1977. The first sectors to show inefficiencies in production were agriculture and light industry, and by the late 1970’s priority
sectors such as public industry and infrastructure began to encounter increasing difficulties, despite the boom in public earnings caused by the oil shocks of 1973-74 and 1979-80.

When oil prices fell by 50% in 1986, the Algerian economy began a crisis that even today, 18 years later, has not yet completely ended. The current economic recovery plan aims to put a final stop to this crisis. The crisis’ effects have been dramatic: per capita GDP dropped from 2800 dollars in 1986 to 1800 dollars in 2000. After the fall in oil prices, Algeria reformed its agricultural sector, broke up its collectivised industries, and granted managerial autonomy to large public-sector firms. The violent clashes of 1998 led to a process of increased political openness and accelerated economic reforms.

Between 1989 and 1992 Algeria obtained credit from the International Monetary Fund, and in the late 1980’s payment of external debt used up 80% of the income earned from the sale of hydrocarbons, while the prices of consumer goods soared.

After a brief interruption, economic reforms resumed in 1994, following a new agreement with the IMF, accompanied for the first time by the multi-lateral re-adjustment of foreign debt. This led to some good results, due chiefly to a flourishing hydrocarbon sector, which accounted for 40% of the GDP and made up 80% of national fiscal revenue, and 95% of foreign revenue.

Today, the Algerian economy is still dominated by two sectors – agriculture and hydrocarbons – that account for about 40% of GDP (up to almost 50% in 2000 thanks to a significant increase in the production of hydrocarbons and an increase in their international price). Development strategies based on heavy industry clearly failed (the manufacturing sector today only accounts for 7-9% of GDP). The Algerian economy therefore remains closely tied to fluctuating petroleum prices.

Algeria is currently trying to launch comprehensive structural reforms that take into account all the aspects of development: political, administrative, structural, and economic.

These reforms are included in current President Bouteflika’s programme, as part of the so-called “reform construction” (judiciary reform, reform of public administration structures and tasks, reform of the educational system). There are also policies to support economic reforms (banking and financial reforms, investment promotion, development of agriculture), reforms of the cultural and health care systems, and in more general terms the improvement of infrastructure and all the other factors that are pre-requisites for long-term sustainable development in Algeria.

This is a vast, ambitious programme that includes actions that impact every aspect of the country’s political and administrative framework. It has only recently begun taking its first steps, and is far from complete, with the exception of a few specific cases, such as management control and relationships with the private sector.

In fact, an initial phase of reform had been launched with the 1996 Constitution, which introduced notable innovations, both with regards to the role of the administration – such as the introduction of impartiality criteria – and with regards to the role of administrative officials, whose status is now governed by law and no longer subordinate to executive power.

A few sporadic initiatives where then launched in specific sectors, especially with regards to activities tied to economic and territorial development (foreign trade, customs, etc.). In 1998 the State Council was created. Its goal is to valorise the role and tasks of administrative justice. Furthermore, the Algerian ISC (State Audit Court) has played an important role in planning and implementing functional and structural administrative reform, in particular with regards to the training of staff who can act as agents for change and for the diffusion of modern know-how. The Court has also played an important role in administrative reforms trough the appointment of staff members as experts working in various commissions.

Among the economic reform initiatives we would like to underline the creation of the National Investment Council (CNI) whose general secretariat is entrusted to the National Agency
for Investment Development. This has led to the creation of one-stop-shops and of customs reform, which began in 1994.

At the institutional level, various institutions have been entrusted with administrative reform since 1962, when the Direction Générale de la Fonction publique (General Directorate for Public Administration) was first created. It was then put under the control of the Presidency of the Republic in 1977, and of the Prime Minister’s Office in 1984, with alternating fortunes.

A General Directorate for Public Administration is still part of the Prime Minister’s Office, and it is in charge of public administration management and reform.

The economic recovery strategies and systemic actions launched by the country are an integral part of the government’s programme, and they aim to intensify the socio-economic reform process and the liberalisation of the national economy. They are closely connected to state and administrative reform since “good government”, equality, transparency, and human rights have been recognised by the Algerian government as the basic principles behind any development strategy.

Algeria has also received valid support from international institutions – especially the EU and the United Nations – through specific programmes aiming to help the country’s recovery.

Since 1994, the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) has helped Algeria in all its structural adjustment programmes.

The UNDP, through a multiple partnership between government, the private sector, trade associations, and the donor community, has been able to implement programmes to modernise the banking and financial systems as well as the public administration, to privatise and restructure industry, and to create a favourable climate for national and foreign investment promotion.

The current cooperation framework (CCP- Cadre de Cooperation de Pays 2002/2006) is quite wide-ranging, and is the product of joint planning between the government and the UNDP. It is mostly based on the action programme presented by the government in September 2000 and on the mid-term economic recovery support programme launched in April 2001.

In accordance with the government’s official programmes, the CCP identifies the following three key problems as the priority areas for intervention:
- Fighting poverty and stabilising incomes;
- Protecting the environment and improving the quality of life in Algeria;
- Completing ongoing administrative and economic reforms.

The CCP will implement programmes to decentralise and modernise local public administrations through the use of new communication and information technologies (ICT), in particular by linking different administrative levels in a single ICT network.

Specific activities launched with UNDP support include those sponsored by the Ministry of Justice. Their goal is to institutionalise the protection of human rights by improving citizens’ access to justice and by modernising the judiciary system.

EU programmes are implemented through MEDA, the main financing instrument for the Euro-Mediterranean Partnership, which offers technical and financial support to the socio-economic structural reforms launched by the countries that signed the Barcelona agreement in 1995.

The current MEDA programme (2000-2006) has identified the following priorities:
- Economic support for economic liberalisation and transition processes through increased competitiveness and private sector development in order to achieve long-term sustainable development.
- Strengthening the social welfare structure through taking appropriate social policy measures to cut the short-term costs of economic transition.

Algeria has undergone profound economic, political, and social changes, not just in the last twenty years.
A public administration that was conceived to serve a centralised state characterised by a centralised, planned economy is incapable of responding to the economic, political, and social needs of a changing society, and is unable to rapidly change into a tool for a democratic state whose priorities include the needs of the citizenry, a free market economy, and overall development. Only a thorough, profound, and coherent administrative reform could have supported and facilitated the political changes that have happened in Algeria, through a renewal of the public administration that remained inextricably tied to state reform, starting with the definition of the public administration’s role and tasks.

The current government has indeed undertaken a profound and unified reform process, in contrast with the efforts undertaken in previous years, which often lacked an organic approach and focused on tackling urgent problems, almost exclusively in the economic arena (customs, foreign trade, etc.), in order to favour Algeria’s integration in the global economy, with the belief that only economic growth could have encouraged the country’s development.
SUMMARY OF BOSNIA AND HERZEGOVINA

BOSNIA AND HERZEGOVINA

The current structure of the Republic of Bosnia and Herzegovina arises directly from the peace agreements signed in Dayton on December 14, 1995, putting an end to three and a half years of violent conflict: the Constitution of the Republic itself is an integral part of the peace agreement.

Bosnia Herzegovina is organised according to a three-part structure, featuring a central state and two so-called Entities enjoying considerable political and administrative autonomy: the Federation of Bosnia and Herzegovina (Muslim Croatian), whose majority is Bosnian-Croatian, accounts for 51% of national territory, while Repubblica Srpska, whose majority is Serbian, accounts the remaining 49%4.

Successively, in 2000, international arbitration awarded the status of autonomous district on the city of Brcko, which is located in the country's north-east and is overseen by an international supervisor.

by the Presidency and the Council of Ministers, and judiciary power is held by the Constitutional Court and the court system.

4 In this document, the following abbreviations are used:
   Bosnia Herzegovina: BiH
   Repubblica Srpska: RS
   Federation of Bosnia and Herzegovina: FBiH
The State Constitution explicitly lays out the Republic of Bosnia and Herzegovina’s competences, entrusts the two Entities with authority over all remaining matters, and gives the State overall authority on the coordination of the two Entities’ activities, and on carrying out those tasks that the two Entities agree to devolve to state institutions.

The bi-cameral Parliament is made up of the House of Peoples and the House of Representatives; in both cases, two thirds of the members are delegates from the Federation of Bosnia and Herzegovina, while the remaining members are delegates from the Repubblica Srpska. The former is made up of 15 members, while the latter is made up of 42 representatives, elected in their respective districts according to the modalities established by the State electoral law.

The Presidency and the Government hold the executive power. The Presidency is made up of three members, a Serb, a Bosnian, and a Croat, appointed by the Entities to 4 year terms, who assume the title of President on a rotating basis every eight months. The Council of Ministers is currently regulated by a law approved in December 2002 that widened its membership (eight ministers instead of six) and is made up of a President (who appoints two deputies, chosen among the ministers) appointed by the Presidency of BiH, and eight ministers appointed by the President of the Council of Ministers.

The Federation of Bosnia and Herzegovina is divided into federal units called Cantons, who have residual authorities over all matters that are not explicitly under the authority of the Federal Government.

The Federal Parliament holds legislative power, and is made up of the 98-member House of Representatives and the 58-member House of Peoples, whose membership must proportionately represent all the constituent ethnicities.

The executive power at the federal level is made up of a President and two Vice-Presidents who must represent all the constituent ethnicities, and by the Government; the President and Vice-President are elected from a list of three candidates elected by at least one-third of the Bosnian, Serbian, and Croatian groups in the House of Peoples. The three elected candidates serve for 4 years, during which they alternate their titles on a yearly basis.

The President appoints the Federal Government after consulting the two Vice-Presidents and an appointed Prime Minister: these nominations must be approved by a majority of the House of Representatives.

The Federal Government is made up of 16 members: the Prime Minister, a Deputy Prime Minister, and the Ministers, each one of who has a deputy. The ethnic composition of the Government is as follows: 8 Bosnians, 5 Croats, 3 Serbs, and a final member - belonging to the most numerically consistent constituent ethnicity - appointed by the Prime Minister.

The BiH Federation has a highly fragmented decentralised system, based upon four different levels of government: Entities, Cantons (10) that enjoy wide-ranging administrative responsibilities, municipalities (about 70), and cities.

The Cantons’ governing bodies are the single-chamber Cantonal Parliaments, with a number of deputies who serve for 4 years and whose number is proportional to the Canton’s population, and the Government, with a Prime Minister who is appointed by the Parliament’s President.

Repubblica Srpska, is also organised according to the principle of a three-way separation of powers: the 83-member National Assembly, in which each constituent ethnicity must have at least 4 representatives, holds legislative power.

The President of the Republic is directly elected to a four-year term by the citizenry, along with two Vice-Presidents.

The Government is made up of a Prime Minister, his deputy and by the ministers; it is approved by the National Assembly and remains in power for 4 years. The Prime Minister is
appointed by the President of the Republic and must present the Government’s programme to the National Assembly along with the list of ministers. The latter must be composed of 8 Serbs, 5 Bosnians, 3 Croats and a final member chosen from the other ethnicities. A majority vote in the National Assembly is necessary to approve the government.

In the RS, there are no intermediary bodies between the central administration and local units, which are based on Municipalities (64 of them) and Cities. By law, Municipalities have the following bodies: the Municipal Assembly, the Head of the Municipality, who holds the executive power and the Municipal Government, in charge of local government and of meeting the needs of the Municipality.

The three part structure of BiH, and especially the considerable autonomy granted to the two Entities, led to an asymmetric development of the administrative system, which is highly centralised in the RS but strongly decentralised in the BiH Federation.

There are no provisions for dealing with the specific aspects of the administrative decentralisation system at the state level in the Constitutional Charter, which entrusts the two Entities with this matter.

The institutions in charge of administrative reform are different in the two entities:

**Bosnia and Herzegovina:**
On March 28, 2003, the Council for the Implementation of the Peace Agreements (PIC) created the Inter-Governmental Task Force for Public Administration Reform. Its main task is to supervise and coordinate all the activities regarding public administration reform.

**Federation of Bosnia and Herzegovina:**
The Justice Ministry’s Institute for Public Administration is directly in charge of matters regarding public administration reform, especially with regards to introducing modern and professional working methods within the administration, training staff, creating local government systems, and the political and territorial organisation of the Federation.

**Repubblica Srpska:**
The Ministry for Local Government and Administration is in charge of state administration, organising and managing administrative units, and with the political and territorial organisation of the Republic.

Public administration reform is undoubtedly a very high priority for BiH, since reform is not only an internal issue but also plays an important role in the country’s foreign policy. BiH is pursuing the goal of future integration with the EU, and since 1999 it has been inserted, along with other Balkan countries, in the Stabilisation and Association Process (SAP), within which it enjoys the technical and financial support of the EU through the CARDS project.

The current administrative reform programme’s priorities include the following:

1) Reform of the central state institutions:
   - Creation of the State Border Service, whose goal is to guarantee the security of the state’s borders.
   - Reform of the Council of Ministers, through an increase in the number of Ministers (from 6 to 8), strengthening the role of the President of the Council of Ministers, and the creation of technical and political bodies to support the activities of the Council of Ministers and of the President.
   - Introducing IVA at the state level.

2) Decentralisation: reform of the law on local authorities in the RS, who asked for the input of the Council of Europe on this matter, and streamlining of the institutional structure of Cantons in the FBiH.
3) Introduction of the public employment law which includes new norms on recruitment and introduces principles of transparency and efficiency.

4) Relations with the citizenry: planned appointment of an Ombudsman, in order to protect basic human rights and freedoms and revoke the political and administrative measures imposed by the systematic ethnic cleansing programme that took place during the civil war of the 1990’s.

5) Relations with the private sector: In 1998, the Federal Agency for the Promotion of Investment in Bosnia Herzegovina (FIPA) was created under the supervision of the Council of Ministers. FIPA is charged with the ambitious goal of activating cooperation between the private and public sectors in order to create a positive synergy that will encourage private investment in Bosnia.

6) ICT and e-government. BiH is severely lagging in the ICT sector, since it only began taking its first steps in this field in 2000. The public administration is even farther behind than the public sector, since it has no overall strategy for either e-government or e-procurement, and legislation regulating the ICT sector is lacking.

7) Transparency and simplification: the law on access to legislative acts is rightly considered a milestone for the development of civil society, since it enshrines citizens’ rights to access information as the fundamental principle on which public sector activities at all levels are based. Public authorities have a duty to release information in their possession.

8) Privatisation: The privatisation process in the RS is disciplined by a new law that abrogated preceding legislation from 1996 and 1997. It is inspired, in accordance with the constitution, on principles of equity, transparency, and public access. In the FBiH the privatisation model is focusing on the post-war reconstruction efforts, rapid economic recovery, increase in the employment level and payment of the foreign and internal debts accrued by banks, private sector firms, and the state.

Planned activities include the following, which enjoy the support of international institutions:

1) European Union CARDS regional programme identifies four priority areas for 2000-2004:
   - Promotion of the integrated management of state boundaries;
   - Support for democratic stabilisation;
   - Increased responsibilities for state institutions;
   - Strengthening of regional institutions and of environmental development.
The € 63 million CARDS national programme for BiH in 2003 explicitly supports public administration development and in particular the development of administrative skills, including capacity building for state institutions for the control and management of tax revenues.

2) The U.K’s Department for International Development’s aid programme is a 21 million pound five year plan (1999-2003).

3) The United States Agency for International Development, which has been working in BiH since 1995, has three on-going programmes: economic restructuring; democracy, conflict, and humanitarian aid; and support for the return of minorities.

4) Project on Local Democracy Agencies, which are instruments available to municipalities, regions, and civil society organisations. These agencies aim to develop, as efficiently as possible, support activities for the Balkans and Eastern Europe, and promote concrete initiatives to consolidate democracy and strengthen institutions at the local level through sharing of knowledge and training of local public administration staff.

5) The OECD is sponsoring Cantonal Assistance Project in the BiH Federation. This project was launched in 2001 in response to the requests for training and assistance on the part of cantons.
Its goal is to encourage the use of modern public management instruments within legislative and administrative bodies in order to facilitate the necessary reforms.

6) The United Nations Development Programme sponsors three projects in BiH:
- RMAP Programme, based on the innovative idea of a joint project to support human rights and development.
- Programme to support the management and co-ordination of development resources: aims to allow the central state and the two entities to assume responsibility for the management of development processes, by increasing their capabilities in planning and identifying development priorities.
- CSSC Project: The programme is tied to public sector employment reform and aims to modernise public sector employment and improve government activities in this field through the creation of a college planned and managed by BiH (CSSC): The College will offer training and technical support for public sector employees and for ongoing public administration reform efforts.
The Republic of Cyprus is a recent republic, having obtained independence from the United Kingdom in 1960, following the anti-British campaign spear-headed by the EOKA, the Greek Cypriot guerrilla movement headed by Archbishop Makarios, the head of the Greek Orthodox Church in Cyprus.

The Independent Republic of Cyprus was born on August 16, 1960, and was dominated by Greek Cypriots, with effective guarantees for the Turkish Cypriot minority and British sovereignty over military bases. The entire government structure was set up so as to separate the two communities and safeguard their privileges.

An inter-ethnic conflict began in 1963 and led the UN to deploy a peace contingent on the island. From then on, the southern part of the island has remained under the control of the Government of
Cyprus, while the northern part is controlled by an autonomous Turkish Cypriot administration, which is bolstered by the presence of Turkish troops on its territory.

In 1984, this administration proclaimed itself as the “Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus”, but it has so far been recognised by Turkey only, while the Government of the Republic of Cyprus is internationally recognised as having jurisdiction over the entire island. The 1960 Constitution continues to be in effect, although the norms regarding the division of power between Greeks and Turks have been suspended. The Turkish Cypriot entity adopted a new Constitution on May 5th, 1985.

Bilateral relations between Cyprus and the European Union are governed by the Association Agreement signed on December 19, 1972, which entered into force on June 1, 1973. The Republic of Cyprus applied for membership to the European Community on July 3, 1990.

With the completion of the preparatory process for membership, in December 2002 the European Council in Copenhagen admitted Cyprus as a new European Union member effective May 1, 2004, despite the fact that the European Council reiterated its preference for EU membership for a unified Cyprus. Due to the lack of accords regarding this issue, the membership application for the northern part of Cyprus will be suspended.

The President of the Republic is both the Head of State and the Head of Government is elected to a five year mandate by universal suffrage, and exercises executive power by appointing the Council of Ministers and its President.

The President of the Republic is the Head of State, and according to Article 37 of the Constitution, he represents the Republic. The office of President is incompatible with that of Minister or member of the House of Representatives, but also with that of mayor or member of a city council.

The Council of Ministers is nominated jointly by the President and the Vice President, but it only answers to the President. The President heads the Council of Ministers and has veto power over decisions that affect foreign policy, defence, and national security.

The Council of Ministers is made up of the President of the Republic, who is also the Head of Government, and by 11 Ministers at the head of 11 ministries.

Cyprus has a single-chamber parliament that exercises legislative power: the House of Representatives (Vouli Antiprosopon) has 80 seats, 56 of which are occupied by Greek Cypriots, while the remaining 24 are nominally reserved for the Turkish Cypriot community, which has abstained from participating since 1963. Since Turkish Cypriots abandoned the Republic’s institutions, the House of Representatives has functioned exclusively with Greek Cypriot members. The 56 members of the House of Representatives are elected to five year terms through universal suffrage with a proportional system.

The Magistrature is in charge of administering justice. The 1960 Constitution called for the following judiciary institutions: the Supreme Court of the Republic, the Court of Assizes, District Courts, Military Courts, Industrial Dispute Tribunals, Rent Control Tribunals and Family Courts. The Supreme Court is the Republic’s final appeals court and has the final say on constitutional matters and administrative laws.

Ministries are organised into Departments and Sectors. Each Department has a strictly hierarchical organisational structure, with clearly defined responsibilities at each level. This organisational structure follows functionality criteria. Along with the 11 Ministries, there are Independent Offices with their own staff and some autonomy. Furthermore, there are some semi-governmental organisations belonging to the broader public sector (Telecommunications Authority, Electricity Authority, Tourism Organisation, etc.) that are in close contact with the respective ministries in charge of each individual organisation (for example, the Ministry for Communications is in charge of the Cyprus Telecommunications Authority). These authorities each have a Board of Directors appointed by the Council of
Ministers. Their annual budgets are approved by the Council of Ministers after a Parliamentary vote.

In terms of local administration, Cyprus is divided into 6 districts, broken down into two types of local bodies: 33 Municipalities and 576 Community Councils. Local administrations do not enjoy organisational and financial autonomy. The District Administrative offices located in every city on the island are under the jurisdiction of the Interior Ministry and therefore their resources come from the central government.

Municipalities and Community Councils play an important role in designing and implementing development programmes. Their responsibilities and functioning are disciplined by respective laws. Municipalities and Community Councils are elected through direct elections. The annual budgets of Municipalities and Community Councils, including staff requests, are approved respectively by the Council of Ministers and the District Officer. The financial resources of Municipalities and Community Councils are therefore exclusively transfers of state funds.

At the district level, there are Department District Offices (District Officers in the Agriculture Department, Land Consolidation, Welfare Service, etc.). District Administrations and District Offices interact with the Interior Ministry and other ministries according to their respective organisational structures, and receive guidelines, instructions and co-ordination.

The Ministry of Finance is in charge of managing public sector economic resources, promoting the use of ICT in public services, and promoting the use and development of human resources. It also deals with public administration reform, in particular through the Public Administration and Personnel Department in charge of designing and implementing policies and projects, of rational use of human resources, and of rationalising public sector organisational structures and procedures, in order to improve the quality of services offered to the public.

The Cypriot public administration is emerging from a years-long institutional and financial crisis. Through a slow but inexorable reform process, it has tried to modify the reference framework and the very way of being of the public administration. The public administration’s attention is gradually shifting away from a focus on the formal respect for norms and procedures towards a results based system.

Public administration reform was launched in part due to the EU application process, but also due to a persistent public budget deficit. It began with the approval of legislative procedures that introduced significant innovations in organisational models, regulations, resource allocations, budgeting procedures and control systems. Internal control systems for tax revenues are currently being revised. An auditing manual as well as a strategic plan are being prepared. Internal and external control systems are almost entirely in line with the EU acquis.

The main ongoing programmes and projects dealing with public administration modernisation include: the creation of an authority for the development of human resources, the introduction of a one-stop-shop for firms and the reform of the national health care system. The strengthening of institutional and administrative capacity plays an important role within the framework of the EU application process.

Cypriot public administration reform policies are currently geared towards integration with the European Union, as evidenced by a series of structural and functional characteristics that underline this trend.

Privatisation policies are among the most relevant of these: the Cypriot government is pursuing market liberalisation and privatisation, especially with regards to public utilities. The EU Commission report highlights the usefulness of these policies. The ongoing reform process is progressively taking political decision-making powers away from politically invested bodies (government, Vouli Antiprosopon, Municipalities and Community Councils) in sectors such as the economy, services, and communications.
Independent administrative authorities play a very important role in the administrative reform process. They enjoy significant autonomy and extensive responsibilities, thus leading to greater transparency and flexibility.

The decentralisation process, with powers, tasks, and responsibilities being devolved from the central government to State District Offices, is also a key part of the reform process. This is evidenced by the growing responsibilities given to District Administrations. This is not an autonomist process, as it involves the peripheral sections of the central government (such as District Administrations), rather than local self administrations, such as Municipalities and Community Councils. This process involves a significant transfer of tasks from the central administration to its peripheral terminals. In the last few years, decentralisation processes have increasingly been aimed at local administrations, who are acquiring increasing powers in the sectors they are responsibility. Within this framework, the EU programmes to support Regional Innovation Strategies are quite relevant.

Human resources also play a key role in the reform process. The Cypriot public sector enjoys highly qualified human resources, since professional staff are attracted to the advantageous conditions offered by the public sector compared to the private sector.

From a legislative point of view, in 2001 several articles of the 1990 Public Service Law were modified, in order to:

- Include merit-based criteria and transparency in staff career mechanisms by better defining the differences between Consultative Committees and the Public Service Commission;
- Ensure the timely filling of vacant posts through fast, transparent selection criteria;
- Implement procedures that are in line with European standards.

Training also plays a central role in reform strategies, with the main goal being human resource training, especially for public sector staff and executives.

Training for new administrative cadres is mostly undertaken by the Cypriot Academy for Public Administration, the European Institute for Public Administration, and the Greek National Centre for Public Administration, whose courses focus on the managerialisation of the public administration, and on the introduction of new technologies. The Cyprus Academy for Public Administration is part of the organisational structure of the Finance Ministry and sponsors numerous training initiatives. Another administrative structure dedicated to the public administration and its reform is the Academy for Public Administration in Cyprus, created in 1991, whose mission is to improve efficiency and efficacy in public administration through the diffusion of managerial culture.

New information and communication technologies (ICT) also play a key role in administrative reform.

The Cypriot public administration is making significant efforts to introduce ICT as one of the key steps towards change. Interactive technologies in particular are the focus of many such efforts. In order to offer qualitatively improved services at a lower cost, the Cyprus government has been perfecting since 1998 a Strategy for the Information System within the State ICT Plan (GCP).

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5 So far, over 100 EU regions have developed Regional Innovation Strategies. In order to deal with the expansion of the EU in 2004, the Commission sponsored 16 new RIS-NAC programmes in Cyprus and in Central and Eastern Europe. These projects were launched between late 2001 and early 2002. Regional Innovation Strategies use various measures to introduce innovation as a central aspect in legislative and regulatory reforms at the regional level. These include programmes to support innovative small and medium size firms, to stimulate the diffusion of knowledge and technology in regional economies, and to encourage policies that are favourable to innovation. These programmes can use European Structural Funds to their fullest extent. For countries that have applied for EU membership, RIS projects are particularly important since they ease the application process.
A significant number of Departments are now fully ICT compliant. Cyprus also developed a State Data Network and a government Internet portal, and implemented an Office Automated System (OAS) that manages documents thanks to an electronic database on the work undertaken by Ministries, Departments, and Services. The OAS’s goals include improving the efficiency and efficacy of public service through easier, faster, safe and multiple public access to information. Within the next five years, all Departments will be fully compliant with the OAS system, with priority given to Departments that deal directly with citizens or firms.

Cyprus’ government is also promoting several activities through an e-government programme:

- Infrastructure development;
- Creation of web sites for every Ministry, Department, and Service. Most of these bodies should have their own web pages by late 2003. These web pages will offer basic information to the public and will include downloadable certificates, application forms, etc.
- Web-Interfaces that will offer various services on-line. Again, all Departments should be able to offer on-line services by the end of 2003.
- Introduction of a citizens’ Smart Card, which will be valid as a drivers license, ID card, health care card, and which will allow citizens to access a wide variety of services.

Simplification is one of the cornerstones of the reform process. Simplification and streamlining of bureaucratic and certification procedures are being aggressively pursued by the Cypriot legislature. The introduction of the One-Stop Shop is a significant development in this field. The pursuit of quality is one of the main goals of certain instruments, such as the Citizens Charters that have been introduced in many Departments (Department of Transports 2001, City Planning 2000, Land 2000, Migration 2001, District Administration – Ministry of the Interior 2001, Department of Welfare Services).

The introduction of Citizens’ Charters fits in quite well in the context of public sector renewal, as it is an innovative instrument that will have a strong positive impact on the path towards efficiency, transparency, efficacy and protection of citizens’ rights in their relationship with the agencies and administrations that furnish public services.

Cyprus’ public administration is strongly committed to simplification and bureaucratic streamlining. These last few years have seen a series of innovative experiments in this field. Various Ministries have been the focus of studies on organisational issues in order to improve their administrative capacities, efficiency and efficacy through a simplification process. The goals of these studies include the improvement of the organisational structure of Ministries, Departments, and Services, the implementation of projects to simplify procedures, and matching the quality and quantity of staff to the quantity and quality of expected output for each organisational unit.
The history of the last decade in Croatia corresponds almost exactly to the country’s history since independence. As soon as the socialist system fell and Croatia gained its independence, it underwent rapid and intense changes, much like the rest of Eastern Europe. Problems tied to the bloody civil war - which ended only in 1995 - and the challenges of globalisation presented an opportunity to change the administrative structure along with the political and institutional one; the entire reform cycle followed a very linear, step-by-step path. The first step was to consolidate democratic institutions. Successively, Croatia tackled the problem of constitutional reforms, which introduced new principles and identified the steps that should be followed in order to head towards decentralisation. Finally, the reform process focused on encouraging the fullest participation of affected parties.

The Council of Ministers is made up of the President of the Council, four Vice-Presidents, and by the Ministers, of which there are currently 19.

The state administrative system includes the following:
- At the central level: ministries, administrative organisations (8), and numerous other institutions.
- At the peripheral level: county offices, including one for the City of Zagreb (which is considered a county). State functions are often delegated to cities and municipalities, thanks in part to the presence of Prefects.

Local administrations are clearly differentiated from the central administration, and are disciplined by separate laws.

According to the law on territorial division, the local autonomy system is made up of Counties, Municipalities, and Cities.

Counties are in charge of regional affairs, such as education, health care, territorial planning, economic development, transportation and infrastructure, design and development of integrated education systems, and social and cultural development.

According to the Constitution, the following entities qualify as local government units: municipalities, districts, and cities (at a lower level of local self-government), and counties (at a higher level of local self-government).

State administration is managed by ministries, state administrative organisations, counties, and by the City of Zagreb. The Constitution defines counties as peripheral state and self-government administrative units. In order to devolve certain central administration responsibilities to the local levels, the Constitution gives counties the right to assume responsibility for regionally relevant central administration tasks.

Within the Yugoslav Federation, Croatia had already established a fairly decentralised system, and has traditionally resisted centralisation. During the 1990’s these traditions were abandoned, and an excessively decentralised system was replaced by a highly centralised system. Local governments were deprived of their competences, independence, and financial means.

In Croatia, each ministry’s reform mission is set by the ambitious “Croatia in the 21st Century” project that was designed by the Racan government elected in 2000.

The reform’s main actors include:
- From a technical and legislative point of view, the Office for Strategic Development (part of the Prime Minister’s Office);
- From a policy-making point of view, the Central Council of the “Croatia in the 21st Century” project, along with other research institutes and consultants;
- From an implementation point of view, the various Ministries, especially the Ministry for Justice, Administration and Local Government and the Ministry for European Integration.

Croatia sought as wide a consensus as possible, along with the help of anyone interested in co-operating with reform efforts. Thanks to this favourable climate, Croatia was able to consult studies, projects, and research from a wide variety of sources. The role played by the United States, and especially the United States Agency for International Development, immediately after the civil war, was particularly important.

Croatia’s entry into the OSCE (Organisation for security and cooperation in Europe) in 1992, and into the Council of Europe in 1996, both stimulated the country’s reform process. Croatia has very clearly expressed its interest in joining both NATO and the European Union, two organisations that have very precise requirements for membership.
CROATIA

Croatia formally applied for EU membership on February 21, 2003, and hopes to become a member in 2007.

Croatia’s political class aims to model the country according to Western institutional models. The main priority for reform at all levels is the decentralisation of tasks and structures. This priority is included in the current government’s programme, in Constitutional amendments and in the strategic guidelines within the “Croatia in the 21st Century” project.

The “Croatia in the 21st Century” project received help from research institutes such as OSI (Open Society Institute) and CLC (Croatian Law Centre), especially with regards to the co-ordination of administrative reform.

Reform is being planned in two phases, for the short term and for the long term.

In the short term, only minor institutional and electoral system reforms are planned. In the long term, there are plans for radical changes and for strengthening local governments.

The Ministry of Justice, Administration and Local Government is promoting the public administration modernisation process, which includes the following issues:

1 – Decentralisation:
   a) The concept of “decentralisation”;
   b) Re-organisation of the state administration and horizontal decentralisation;
   c) Vertical decentralisation and valorisation of local autonomies;
   d) Solving problems related to the implementation phase.

2 – Managerial class

Highly up to date training courses began in 1995, in order to create a new and modern managerial class.

The law regarding local administrations calls for public officials to be elected by representative entities at the local level. The reform also introduces merit-based evaluation systems for public sector staff, in order to promote quality in administrative innovation. One of the main problems is the so-called “moral question”: it seems that corruption in Croatia is more widespread among politicians than it is among public sector staff.

3 – Relations with the citizenry.

In order to complete its transition towards democracy and a market economy, Croatia is trying to make governance more transparent, efficient, and responsive to citizens’ needs at every level. This means that citizens must be allowed a high level of participation and that media organisations should provide balanced information.

Particular attention must be paid to human rights and to the protection and participations of the ethnic minorities living in Croatia. The Republic of Croatia has signed numerous international human rights treaties.

4 – Relations with the private sector.

The development of a competitive private sector is fundamental for Croatia’s future economic growth.

Croatia is planning strategic actions in order to improve competitiveness, based mainly on the promotion of a dialogue between the private and public sectors in order to sustain competitiveness in leading sectors such as tourism and information technology. This initiative also supports marketing, commercial planning, improved access to credit and the increased presence of Croatian firms abroad.
5 – Transparency and simplification.
Transparency is fundamental for any relationship between citizens and the administration that is based on mutual trust. It is therefore important that anti-corruption policies be prioritised, since corruption breaks the trust between citizens and the public administration, and leads to decreased participation in the country’s political life on their part.
Ever since it took power, the reformist Croatian government has introduced measures to fight the political corruption that had become so pervasive during the Tudijman administration. There are serious problems with transparency in the public finance sector.

6 – ICT and e-government.
Croatia enjoys a significant competitive advantage that it has not yet fully tapped, which is the presence of a fibre-optic network that covers the entire territory.
Croatia drafted plans to use this competitive advantage in ICT to its fullest extent as early as 2001. The presence of this infrastructure, together with focused efforts in this field, could allow the country to enter the New Economy.
ICT has gradually been introduced into the public administration.

7 – Privatisation.
The Croatian Fund for Privatisation is the state agency in charge of this issue.
Many of the firms that have been privatised were small and medium size firms that were sold to their employees. Generally, most buyers acquire minority shares.

8 – Institutional communication.
In 1996, an Ombudsman was appointed, whose tasks include drafting an annual report on his or her work. All annual reports so far have stressed the lack of responsiveness that the public administration has shown in fully restoring the rights that have been negated to the citizenry.

9 – Environment and sustainable development
Waste is considered the most pressing environmental issue. Only 63% of municipal solid waste is disposed of legally, and there are an estimated 800/1000 illegal landfills. Another important problem is that of industrial waste. None of the landfills are equipped to gather and treat percolates, while only a few landfills have controls over incoming materials, or safety measures to protect workers.

10 - Transportation
Croatia is one of the most important transportation hubs between Europe and the Balkans. The government has launched a programme to rebuild the transportation network and has adopted laws aiming to reduce the negative environmental impacts of traffic.

11 - Justice
One of the weakest points in the Croatian administrative system is the judiciary system. USAID is one of the many organisations that have pointed this out, and it is carrying out a large number of projects in collaboration with the Ministry of Justice and local governments and administrations.

In general terms, Croatia has greatly benefited from the support of the international community, which has sponsored the near totality of reform and innovation projects. The main ongoing projects include government and local administrative reforms, a social and sustainable development strategy, an analysis of public spending, fiscal decentralisation, etc. USAID is involved in numerous
projects. From an administrative point of view, the most important one of these is known as LGRP (Local government reform project) and focuses on developing new management models for local administrative units in Croatia.
Many events influenced modern Egypt’s political, historical, and constitutional framework: the role of foreign powers (France and Great Britain) in Egypt’s past, especially with regards to the control of strategic nodes for political and economic stability in the area, such as the Suez canal; the independence movements that emerge in response to British colonial rule; Egypt’s complicated position in the Middle Eastern scenario, which has historically oscillated between that of leading country in the pan-Arabist movement and that of a highly westernised country serving as a reference point for western interests in the area as well as a mediator in the Arab-Israeli conflict.

Egypt’s constitutional history is characterised by instability: five constitutions emerged and then disappeared between 1956 and 1971, and in 1980 there were important modifications that led to a partial change in the ideological bases of the Constitution. Egypt abandoned, to a certain extent, the socialist nature of its Constitution and moved towards both liberal and Islamic principles. These amendments give a sense of the historical evolution that the country went through during the Nasser and Sadat eras. Egyptian institutions have not had a strong impact on the country’s society,
EGYPT

in part because some of the texts that defined their functions are too generically programmatic. Nevertheless, the lack of institutional stability has been partly compensated by a certain continuity in leadership on the part of a small number of leaders, who thanks to an increasingly strong presidential system managed to play a forceful role on both the national and international political scene.

The pillars upon which the 1971 Constitution rests include the Head of State, the legislative, executive, and judiciary powers, and the consultative assembly (Shura). The Constitution of the Arab Republic of Egypt, adopted in 1971 and amended in 1980, proclaims that Egypt is an Arab Republic with a democratic system. Executive power rests with the President of the Republic who is the Head of State. The President is elected to a six-year term by a two-thirds parliamentary majority, subject to approval by popular referendum, and can be re-elected. The President formulates general state policy, supervises its implementation and acts as Commander-in-Chief.

The Government is the supreme executive and administrative body of the state. It is made up of the Council of Ministers and presided by the Prime Minister, who oversees the Government’s work.

The Assembly of the People is the state’s legislative arm. It approves general policy, new laws, the budget and development plans. The People’s Assembly is made up of 444 members who are elected directly, and 10 members who are appointed by the President. Members serve 5-year terms. The Council of the Shura (the Senate) is Egypt’s consultative body and submits new laws and regulations to the Assembly of the People.

Judiciary authority is exercised by the court system, through four different categories of courts: the Constitutional Supreme Court, which is the country’s highest judiciary body, the Court of Cassation; the seven appeals courts (one for each governorate – called muhafazat in Arabic), and the summary courts in each district.

Egypt features a multi-party political system: law 40 of 1977 regulates political party formation and prohibits the formation of religious-based parties. There are currently 14 active political parties who represent the entire spectrum of political views; the majority of seats in the Assembly of the People is held by the National Democratic Party.

Egypt is divided into 26 governorates (muhafazah), plus Luxor City. Each governorate is headed by a governor who is appointed by the President. Within each district, local government units provide services and identify industrial areas. Local Popular Councils are elected bodies in charge of local governments along with local administrative units.

The State Ministry for Administrative Development is in charge of administrative reform from an organisational and institutional point of view. The Ministry for Public Enterprise is in charge of implementing reforms that have to do with privatisations: it has promoted a reform process focusing on the liberalisation, privatisation, and de-regulation of administrative activities in order to reach the following objectives:

- Defining a new role for state administrative institutions within the framework of a market economy;
- Adapting administrative reform to emerging global principles of competitiveness, free trade and regional economic unions;
- Adapting the administrative structure to new international and national conditions;
- Implementing a privatisation programme;
- Decentralising and devolving responsibilities (local communities are recognised as the main pillars for the country’s development);
- Implementation of a human resource training and specialisation programme.

Recently, Egypt has paid particular attention to technological innovation: the Ministry for Information and Communication Technology, in collaboration with other State Ministries, launched
a public sector reform initiative aiming to improve the quality of services provided to the citizenry as well as encouraging their participation in the country’s political and institutional affairs. E-government efforts in Egypt go beyond the mere computerisation of public offices, but also aim to facilitate access to services, in line with the principles of efficiency, efficacy, and administrative simplification. These efforts include plans to make documents and information accessible to citizens at the nearest post office, or even from their own homes, 24 hours a day. On September 21, 2002 the Ministry for Local Development and the United Nations signed an agreement to launch a joint project to develop ICT skills within a framework of local community empowerment.

The general situation of the public administration remains quite problematic. Political efforts are aimed primarily at reviving the country’s economy, especially in light of its macro-economic indicators. For a long time now Egypt has worked on the basis of five-year plans that set the government’s goals. These goals are mainly related to balancing the budget, increasing employment levels, increasing female participation in the workforce, improving services in rural areas, and strengthening anti-terrorism measures on the part of the police and armed forces.

The difficult political situation in the Middle East has had a strong impact on Egypt, which has suffered serious blows in key sectors such as tourism. There are nevertheless certain areas of the country’s administrative life in which the administrative reform process has gone beyond mere good intentions, and has achieved measurable results. Despite the large number of ministries (36) in the Egyptian government, the possibility of achieving an efficient administration that can successfully provide quality services and guarantee a good quality of life depends on local administrative units, whose development in Egypt is at times intermittent. Several important development projects could become administrative best practices. Governorates and their dependent units still suffer heavily from a lack of effective devolution on the part of the central government of adequate powers to meet the needs of the citizenry.

Nevertheless, several important projects, developed with the help of institutions that fall outside the country’s administrative structure (United Nations and foreign institutions, private stakeholders), have helped invert a negative trend, and have achieved successful results. They could serve as examples to follow. One such example was in the governorate of Ismailia, where a complex environmental reclamation project for Lake Timash provided a template for administrative action that could be used in the future in different contexts as well. This project also helped test the decision-making abilities of local administrations.

The Cairo University Department of Economics and Political Science’s Public Administration Research and Consultation Centre6 undertook some very interesting research on decentralisation and local government in Egypt: a recent publication7 examines the theoretical

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6 PARC: [http://www.parc.edu.eg](http://www.parc.edu.eg) May 2003
7 Ali El Sawy, The Problems of Local Organisation in Egypt, 1999 (see [http://www.parc.edu.eg/english/publications/administrative/the_problems.html](http://www.parc.edu.eg/english/publications/administrative/the_problems.html), May 2003). The book is divided into four chapters. The first deals with the theoretical framework and the main concepts. It is entitled "The Imperatives of the Local System and Decentralization". It tackles the goals and main concepts of the local system in modern society. The section on concepts includes decentralization, administrative decentralization, the styles of decentralization, and methods of supervision. The second chapter is entitled "The Political Framework of Local Administration in Egypt". It deals with the relationship between the central-local entities in modern Egyptian history. It highlights the roles played by the organs and ministries in relation to local administration. The third chapter deals with "The Organization Structure of the Localities" from the legal, organizational, and administrative dimensions. This chapter analyzes the relations among local organs and the control mechanisms. The fourth chapter is entitled "The Seven Problems of the Egyptian Local System". The chapter examines the main problems of the local system that need to be solved. The solutions vary from the legislative ones (suitable for organizing the relations between the new communities and the old localities) or the continuous training for local human resources.
framework for local administration in Egypt and highlights some of its difficulties. The Egyptian local administrative system is one of the oldest modern local administrative systems, dating back to the local councils created in 1883 during the British occupation. The system was based on a French model, and is based on the possibility of organising local powers in general terms through legislation, giving the central government ample powers to oversee these activities and to provide a certain amount of uniformity in administrative styles. The 1971 Constitution does not say much in terms of local authorities, as it does not refer to the competences of local councils (unlike preceding constitutions). Egypt passed several new laws on the matter in order to better orient these councils.

Fiscal issues play an important role in the debate over decentralisation and on different local government models. The main source of revenues at the local level is from taxes collected by the central government (taxes on imports and exports, taxes on mobile wealth, land, vehicles) of which local governments get a certain percentage. Local governments also have access to several semi-autonomous funds such as the fund for land subject to claims, the fund for housing and local services, and the fund for development. There is thus a fundamental need for better revenue allocation at the local level according to technical criteria as well as political ones, for example by revising the classification parameters for services and resources. In many cases there is a lack of social cohesiveness in the governorates that has a negative impact on the administrative capabilities of local institutions. Two cases are present in Egypt: one where local administrative units were created by political institutions without taking the historical context into account, and another where such units are borne out of shared histories and social identities. It may be useful for Egypt to revise the borders of certain administrative units for the sake of administrative efficiency, but this is clearly not a simple process and must be accompanied by bottom-up cooperative processes.

The priorities of the new approach to public management, at both the local and central levels, include: reducing statism, introducing competitiveness in the service provision system, increasing the powers of the citizenry, and transparent public accounting. The tools that Egypt can use to reach these goals include: territorial and functional decentralisation, and producing services in partnership with local communities, non-governmental organisations and the private sector. The promotion of a decentralised, autonomous model becomes difficult to implement if one considers the difficult conditions faced by the country’s bureaucracy (at both the central and local levels) that greatly decrease its capability to effectively implement reforms.

Several environmental policies, at both the central and local levels, which remain inextricably tied to the tourism sector, an extremely important source of revenues that Egypt wants to protect.
March 2, 1921, the day Prince Abdullah Iben al-Hussein arrived in Amman, is regarded as the beginning of the establishment of a Jordanian state under the name of the “Emirate of Trans-Jordan”. The same year had witnessed the formation of the first Jordanian Government, the Council of Chancellors. In 1928, the first Jordanian constitution was enacted, under the title of “Essential Law of Trans-Jordan”, in order to organise the affairs of the state and its three powers, namely the legislative, executive, and judicial powers. It remained in force until 1946, when Trans-Jordan finally gained independence upon signing the Treaty of London in March 1946.

On May 25, 1946, Prince Abdullah was proclaimed King, and in 1947, a new constitution was declared by issuance of Law N. 3 of 1947 under the name of the Jordanian constitution. On July 20, 1951, King Abdullah was assassinated in Jerusalem, and his oldest son, Prince Talal, succeeded to the throne.
A year after his accession, King Talal stepped down in favour of his son, Prince Hussein, who was proclaimed the King of the Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan in 1952, and a new constitution was enacted and promulgated. Its first Article stipulates that the Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan is an independent and sovereign Arab state, with a parliamentary and hereditary monarchy. After the death of the late King Hussein in 1999 his son, Prince Abdullah, succeeded to the throne. The King is the head of state and the commander-in-chief. He exercises his executive power through the Prime Minister and the Council of Ministers. He also holds legislative and judiciary power.

The Parliament or National Assembly holds legislative power and is made up of a Senate, whose members are chosen directly by the King among former Ministers and high-level state officials, and by a House of Representatives, whose members are elected by universal suffrage every four years by citizens over 18 years of age.

The Government is made up of the Prime Minister and the Council of Ministers. The members of the Council of Ministers are selected by the Prime Minister, and the nominations are delivered to the King for his ratification of the entire Council of Ministers. It must have the approval of the National Assembly, and is responsible for all external and internal state affairs.

The institutional system is organised along three levels: Ministries, Central Departments, and Corporations. Central government institutions include: the Council of Ministers; the Departments, each headed by its respective General Secretary; the High Council for Information and the High Council for Youth. The intermediate level between central and local government institutions includes the Executive Council and the Consultative Council, each headed by a Governor who serves as an extension of the central administration under the supervision of the Ministry of the Interior. Local government institutions include city councils and mayors. In terms of decentralisation, local institutions are responsible for providing services to citizens due to their greater proximity, while the central administration in Amman is in charge of planning, policy making, performance evaluation and external communication.

The 2002 Administrative Reform Document calls for: decision-making autonomy for local institutions in administrative, financial and technical terms within the limits of their responsibilities; modernisation of local institutions in order to provide better services to the citizenry, and granting local institutions the necessary powers to implement renewal projects.

The Ministry of Administrative Development is in charge of public administration reform and has the following responsibilities: developing and updating the Ministry’s structure; simplifying procedures; developing a performance evaluation system; identifying the training needs of ministerial staff and implementing adequate training programmes; regulating administrative services; implementing development projects. The Administrative Development and Training Department is assisted by the National Centre for Training, the Office for Public Administration, and the Office for Administrative Inspection and Control, which has been merged with the Audit Bureau.

The administrative reform effort that was launched in 2001 is a part of the overall socio-economic reform efforts. It seeks to modernise the country’s bureaucracy and raise qualitative standards for public services through restructuring government departments and implementing an e-government plan. In particular, administrative reform in Jordan aims to achieve efficiency, efficacy and transparency in the public administration through a qualitative change process focusing on: improving services provided to citizens, rationalising costs, improving organisation and control, and supporting competitiveness in the private sector.

The reform plan, as approved in the programme presented to King Abdullah II Ibn Hussein and the Economic Council in 2002, focuses on 4 key goals: increasing productivity and efficiency; rationalising expenses and achieving optimal use of available resources; developing competitive
departments and adapting the organisation of the administration to international development needs; improving the quality of services provided to the citizenry.

In order to reach these goals, Jordan identified 5 priority areas for intervention:
- Government and its restructuring
- Human resource development in the public sector
- Service quality
- Adoption of the responsibility principle in administrative action
- Development of information technology (electronic government) and postal administration

These five objectives are reflected in five different programme groups.

Jordan is planning a decentralisation programme that delegates greater authority to government departments, restructures their organisation, and identifies the institutions that need to be privatised and those that need financial and administrative independence.

In terms of human resources, the Civil Service By-Law that was approved by the Cabinet in June 2002 calls for the application of transparent, merit-based systems for hiring and promoting public administration staff. Jordan also launched training programmes for existing staff.

In order to improve the quality of government services, Jordan is trying to improve the performance of the Departments that offer services to the citizenry by promoting increased interaction between them and by applying simplification procedures. The merging of groups of several municipalities into larger single municipalities according to geographic and natural criteria promoted by the Jordanian government was meant to achieve a decentralised administration that allows local authorities to access the financial resources needed to implement development projects as well as those administrative, financial, and technical procedures that improve services provided to the citizenry with the full utilisation of available resources. As a result of this policy, the number of municipalities has been reduced from 340 to 99. Jordan has instituted 37 Charters’ Marks, one for each public agency, and has drafted manuals on working methodologies. Jordan has also reformed and computerised the judiciary system.

In terms of developing accountability in administrative actions, Jordan has begun defining procedures regarding the planning process in all Departments through training staff involved with planning and development and through introducing a performance control and monitoring programme. Furthermore, Jordan plans to set parameters to measure performance in terms of the goals that need to be reached.

Other initiatives deal have to do with the accessibility and transparency of information (to be launched initially in the most strategic Departments) and with relations with the citizenry, particularly with regards to dealing with claims and complaints.

New technologies play an important social role in Jordan, since their use encourages democracy and cultural growth through increased access to information, knowledge and services on the part of all citizens. Jordan therefore plans to devote significant financial resources to this sector. Research has shown that the use of ICT in economic and social processes promotes a significant reduction of costs, increased productivity and improved services; ICT is also a powerful tool to improve the quality and efficiency of government services and create opportunities in areas where resources are lacking and where geography is an obstacle to communication. In 2001, on the wake of the project presented at the 2000 Okinawa G8 summit, Jordan launched its e-government programme aimed at strengthening democracy and the rule of law by putting citizens first and improving the efficiency of essential public services in underdeveloped regions. This project sought to develop a digital public administration model that uses ICT technologies in order to meet the specific needs of individual countries.

On the basis of an analysis of priorities and on feasibility studies, the e-government project in Jordan focused on creating a general management programme for public accounting and an on-line
fiscal program, and developing an e-procurement framework to allow the public administration to acquire goods and services on-line. The Ministry for Telecommunications and Information Technology is responsible this programme.

In the Arab world, Jordan is one of the countries that enjoy the most freedom and pluralism, and its monarchy co-exists with a parliament that plays an effective role.

The support that the United States and Arab Gulf countries have offered the King shows that there are strong national and international interests in maintaining Jordan’s stability, since Jordan has been given a key role by the West in helping stabilise the Arab world.

Starting in 1999, Jordan signed numerous agreements aiming to liberalise the national economy and integrating it with the global market, by encouraging the private sector, rationalising public expenditures, accelerating privatisations, encouraging investments related to exports, reducing poverty and unemployment.

The main agreements include:

- The F.T.A. is a symbol of the U.S.’s recognition of Jordan as a key political partner in the Middle East. It calls for the liberalisation of the goods and services market between the U.S. and Jordan, and aims to increase Jordanian exports to the U.S. in sectors such as ICT, financial services, energy distribution, tourism, health services, transportation and the press. The F.T.A. offers the Jordanian government new opportunities for attracting foreign capital through relocating foreign firms on Jordanian territory, thanks to country’s location at the juncture of North Africa and the Middle East.

- G.A.F.T.A.: Greater Arab Free Trade Area aims to create a free trade area between the member countries with 10 years.

- EU-Jordan agreement: aims to facilitate the free movement of goods, especially agricultural and agro-industrial goods, from Jordan towards the EU by furnishing Jordan with the necessary financial and technical assistance to develop the financial, industrial, banking, and insurance sectors.

- Euro-Mediterranean Partnership: these are association and co-operation agreements between the EU countries and those of the Mediterranean area whose goal it is to create a common area in which peace and stability prevail in order to favour cultural exchanges between different peoples.

The MEDA is the EU’s main financial instrument to implement the Euro-Mediterranean Partnership. It enjoys the support of BEI and Jordan is one of the beneficiaries. Its main goals include: supporting private sector development and open markets; promoting investment; modernising economic infrastructures; supporting reform programmes for sustainable socio-economic development: improving social services, health care, water supply, sanitation and town planning. The main MEDA programmes in Jordan include: MEDA-Campus, which deals with education; MED MEDIA, in the telecommunications sector; MED URBS in urban planning and public administration; MED-INTERPRISE, which aims to favour cooperation between EU countries and their Mediterranean partners; MED-INVEST which aims to favour access to credit for small and medium size firms, industrial collaboration, and the creation of joint ventures.

- W.T.O.: this agreement allows Jordan to operate in the so-called “Free Zones” that offer a series of fiscal incentives such as: exemption from taxes on company profits for a 12 year period; exemption from taxes on income and on social insurance contributions for non-Jordanian employees; exemption from customs fees and from taxes on exporting and importing goods; a 10% exemption on rents for land and buildings to be used for industrial projects.

These Free Zones are managed by the Jordanian Free Zone Corporation and mostly benefit the tourism, transportation, industrial and commercial sectors.

Q.I.Z.: An agreement between Jordan and Israel, under the aegis of the United States, to create so-called “Qualifying Industrial Zones” on Jordanian territory. The goal of this agreement
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is the joint production of goods which are guaranteed free access to the US market. The main goods that are produced in these zones and that are exported abroad include: textiles/clothing, rubber, chemical products, metal goods, suitcases, and foodstuffs...

Arab League: the oldest and most important post-war institution in the region. It was created in Cairo in 1945 in order to pursue the following goals: strengthening the political, social, economic and cultural ties among Arab states; protecting the independence of member states with respect to international problems; resolving controversies in a peaceful manner; forging alliances and relations with non-Arab states and international organisations; mutual defence in case of armed aggression.

Jordan has implemented an extensive privatisation process. The following companies have been privatised: the “Jordan Cement Factory” (33% of the company’s shares were purchased by the French group Lafarge); the “Jordan Telecommunications Company” (40% of the capital was purchased by France Telecom for 316.9 million dinars); the “Royal Duty Free Shop” owned by the flagship “Royal Jordanian Airlines” was sold to the Spanish company Aldessa for 42,6 million dinars; “Jordan Aircraft Supplies” was sold to the English firm Alpha; the “Royal Jordanian Aviation Academy” was sold to a group of local investors.

The Jordanian government has entrusted the English firm Rothschild and Sons with a feasibility study for a project to privatisate the three public companies that supply electricity: the Central Electric Generating (CEGC), the Central Electric Distribution (CEDC) and the Ibrid District Electricity (IDEC). The postal service has been commercialised and is owned by the government. The Arab Potash Company has been privatised; seaports and airports are not privatised yet, and studies on the matter are still under consideration. In 2001, thanks to World Bank funds, the Jordanian government issued a call for tenders for a study on the privatisation of the Jordanian Phosphate Mining Company that has always held a monopoly on the mining and commercialisation of phosphates ever since its creation in 1935. Finally, in 1995 the Jordanian government approved law n. 26 that provides a series of fiscal incentives for the realisation of projects in the agricultural, industrial, tourism, health care, pharmaceutical, transportation, ICT, commerce, and service sectors.

In the environmental sector, Jordan is one of the beneficiaries of the EU’s LIFE programme, which is the EU’s financial instrument to develop and implement EU policy and legislation in the environmental sector. The LIFE programme co-finances programmes in three areas: LIFE environment mostly includes actions aimed at industries, as well as technical assistance to help local authorities implement EU environmental legislation and policies; LIFE Nature includes direct activities to protect wild fauna and flora; LIFE Third Countries offers technical assistance to create the necessary administrative structures for protecting the environment and promoting sustainable development; finally, the Short and Medium term Priority Environmental Action Programme (SMAP) aims to ensure greater visibility and transparency for environmental activities in order to achieve a net positive impact through programmes to prevent environmental disasters and fight desertification.

The UNIDO-ITPO Italy plays a relevant role in the development of the Jordanian industrial sector. The ITPO (Office for the Promotion of Investment and Technology - Italy) was created thanks to an international agreement signed in 1985 by the United Nations Industrial Development Organisation (UNIDO) and the Italian Government. ITPO’s activities aim to promote collaboration between Italian and developing country firms, including Jordanian ones, through the creation of Investment Promotion Units (IPU) that offer assistance to small and medium-size firms who want to develop industrial projects, and at the same time collaborate with local authorities in formulating and managing specific sectorial plans. These programmes review information on the opportunities, laws, and regulations regarding foreign investments in developing countries; search for possible
commercial partners on the basis of specific requests; and prepare feasibility studies for the creation of joint ventures, with co-financing of 50% of the total costs.
Administrative Reform, Innovation and Maintenance

SUMMARY OF ISRAEL

Israel’s administrative system in the last decade shows certain elements of continuity with most Mediterranean countries, but at the same time it includes some unique characteristics. The Israeli administrative model arises out of the administrative framework that was typical of the British Colonial Period (1917-1947), but developed itself along peculiar lines, thus achieving a modern and efficient public administration under certain aspects, but in need of significant interventions in other sectors, in order to meet new and old challenges brought about by a geopolitical situation that is unique on a global level.

The State of Israel never adopted a written constitution in the European sense, since it would contrast with the country’s religious background, which holds that institutional rules are contained within the Torah. The drafting of a continental charter was nevertheless called for in the Declaration of Independence of May 15, 1948, which called for its approval by a Constituent Assembly no later than October 1, 1948.
The basic rules of the national system of government, as well as the relationship between the government and the administration, are detailed in the Basic Laws, whose constitutional nature has been debated for decades, but whose status as primary sources is not in doubt, and who set the basic rules for the workings of entire branches of the national institutional system. The basic structure of the Israeli administrative model is similar to those of many Western countries.

At the central level, the administration is based on a classic ministerial model and the highest administrative charges are appointed through a well-established system of fiduciary nominations. There are 23 ministries. Local autonomies are broken up into six large, homogenous areas for administrative decentralisation, called districts (Mehozot).

At the local level, the administrative structure rests upon the Local Councils and the Municipalities, local decentralisation units that are historically tied to governing authorities through a dense network of hierarchical relationships. In rural areas, the main organisational structure is based on Local Committees and Regional Councils, which are local councils overseeing an area that includes several settlements, and which enjoy a certain level of internal autonomy. These are the typical administrative decentralisation units in rural areas.

These units are inspired on the so-called “rural districts” (Nahiye, run by Local Councils) and the provinces (Vilayet), which already existed during the Ottoman rule over Palestine. The creation of Communes (or Municipalities) dates back to the same period. These are larger urban agglomerations, which had already been recognised by the Ottoman government thanks to Provincial Municipalities Law of 1877.

The Municipal Corporations Ordinance, which came into force in 1943 during the British Mandate, still regulates Cities, Local Councils and other entities, and the decision-making powers over these institutions (once entrusted to the High Commissioner) have now been devolved to the Ministry of the Interior.

The Ministry of the Interior enjoys significant leeway in creating new Local Councils. These Local Councils are divided into two groups depending on the size of their territory and the extent of their powers. In practical terms, the distinction between these two groups is however quite slight. Local autonomies also have the power to emanate special source laws, known as “local laws”. Despite their nomen juris as “laws”, they are in fact sub-primary sources that can only deal with matters included in state laws. They also always need to be approved by the Ministry of the Interior or other competent ministries.

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8 The most important Basic Law, from an administrative point of view, was adopted on March 7, 2001. It introduces radical innovations in the way the Prime Minister is elected, and sets a series of general principles applicable to the relationship between the government and the public administration.

In particular, paragraphs 31 and 32 set some important provisions: the Government now has the power (with the approval of the Parliament) to change the number and responsibilities of Ministries, to set up temporary or permanent ministerial commissions, and to take advantage of so-called residual powers, by taking responsibility for any activity that does not fall under the competence of other public authorities.

Numerous primary sources, most of them dating from the period 1955-1979, regulate many sectors of the public administration, especially those that regard public sector employment. These laws were subsequently integrated and co-ordinated in order to let the system rest on the organic sector law.

The Civil Service Laws are the main laws that discipline ministries and other public agencies, including Independent Regulatory Agencies. These laws are co-ordinated and united into a single body, under the responsibility of the Civil Service Commission, a special co-ordination and general supervision unit that falls under the authority of the Office of the Prime Minister.

9 See section n. 223 of the Municipal Corporation ordinance.
Furthermore, the power to emanate local laws is subject to examination on the part of the Supreme Court, which can invalidate them even in the case of violations of “natural justice laws”, as had already happened in a famous 1972 case\textsuperscript{10}.

Local authorities (especially Municipal Councils) have significant responsibilities in the crucial sector of urban planning: their responsibilities are met through a Planning and Building Commission, whose powers were established by the 1965 Planning and Building Law.

In recent years, the Israeli administrative model has increasingly relied on Independent Regulatory Agencies modelled on Anglo-Saxon institutions. This model has been applied especially in the public service sector and is currently well-established on the institutional scene. Relationships between central and peripheral administrations show that the Israeli system features marked administrative decentralisation, while a territorial entity with sufficient powers to occupy an intermediate level between the state and the main local autonomies (especially Municipalities and Local Councils) is lacking.

Local authorities have de facto responsibility for providing public services on behalf of the central administration, according to a classic decentralisation model.

The functional decentralisation of state functions, which is an exception in many administrative systems, is instead the norm in Israel.

In the early 1990’s, Israeli politicians began to ask themselves whether the country’s public administration was capable of effectively meeting the needs of the citizenry. They proposed a series of measures aiming to improve the relationship between the public administration and the citizenry, by relying on modern and well-established organisational change models.

The Civil Service Commission continues playing a leading role in the renewal of the public administration. This is a special government agency, under the aegis of the Prime Minister’s Office that serves as the engine for administrative change in Israel.

The Civil Service Commission is in charge of implementing public policies in the delicate sectors of public management and of human resource management within the administration. Its tasks are regulated by numerous legislative acts that are now grouped together in the Takshir, a sort of framework law on public sector employment.

The Civil Service Commission assigns the following tasks to the Takshir:

- Approving the organisational structure and the repartition of responsibilities among governmental units;
- Approving legislative acts regarding the organisation of Ministries;
- Appointing public employees;
- Training public service personnel in order to improve their professional expertise;
- Monitoring the quality of work performed by public sector employees;
- Elaborating methodologies to evaluate creativity to support salary equalisation;
- Defining measures to encourage employee motivation and productivity;
-Promoting the qualitative and quantitative improvement of public services;
- Adopting measures to improve the efficiency of the Civil Service Commission.

The Unit for Quality and Excellence, an internal unit of the Civil Service Commission, is entirely dedicated to improve the organisation of the public administration. It plays an important role in identifying and encouraging administrative best practices at the national and international levels, and promotes an active benchmarking policy in order to encourage the maximum diffusion of the most

\textsuperscript{10} Supreme Court decision n. 428 of 1972. see also F.. RESCIGNO, Scritti, cit., p. 143.
useful models. The Unit for Quality and excellence has focused on quality management ever since its creation in 1992.

In its first phase the Unit for Quality and Excellence focused its studies on the following issues:

- comparative study of best practices in quality management at the European level;
- interview-based analysis on users’ perceptions of the quality of the Israeli administration;
- Research and publications in the field of quality management.

Since 1993 the Unit for Quality and Excellence has focuses mostly on raising awareness of the need for public sector employees and managers to focus on the quality of their work.

In 1994, a series of pilot organisms and infrastructures were created in order to implement quality management approaches at the inter-ministerial level, and in order to set a ‘single code’ for best practices at the governmental level.

The Unit for Quality and Excellence was formally established on September 20, 1996, thus providing further impetus for the promotion of quality in the public sector.

In the mid-1990’s, the New Public Management model – which has Anglo-Saxon origins but subsequently spread throughout the world – became widely established.

Although administrative reform efforts focusing on meeting the needs of citizen-users have recently started being implemented throughout the world – became widely established.

This is a pressing issue for an administration caught between two apparently contrasting needs: on the one hand the need to fully implement the difficult tasks it inherits from an extremely complex geo-political situation and on the other the desire to fulfil its obligations without giving up its democratic model, especially in a context such as the Middle East’s.

The National Assessment Project for the Public Administration (NAPPA-IL) is a citizen-driven initiative that arose thanks to the efforts of individuals outside the public administration – many of them in academia – and that has seen the full involvement of private stakeholders ever since its conception.

The public administration is involved in the NAPPA-IL project only as the focus of research activities, and as the end user of the final results, that will be used to re-program future institutional activities.

Experts in organisational issues from the University of Haifa played a key role in this process, and reports on the project’s results have been published and are available on the Internet.

The theoretical and practical justifications for NAPPA-IL arise from the increasing need – in Israel and other democracies – to systematically study, evaluate, and analyse public sector activity and performance, on the basis of evaluations made by citizen-users.

The project’s main contributions to the administrative reform process are as follows:

- The project makes it possible to gather data on public sector performance from a variety of sources, both public and private. In the future, these data sources could be expanded by allowing private sector representatives to express their opinion on public sector performance.

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11 In particular, the Centre for Human Resource Organisation and Management – Department of Political Science, University of Haifa.

- The project also makes an important methodological contribution. Projects such as NAPPA-IL will encourage the development of public sector performance evaluation tools based on a behavioural approach. The systematic, continuous collection of data on these issues will encourage the development of comparative studies spanning different organisations and geographic areas. The project’s designers feel that improving the model could soon lead to the creation of a complete set of indicators in the field of public sector activities, and to the implementation of a Public Sector Performance Index. This index would make it possible to achieve qualitative comparisons of services provided by different operators in order to evaluate and eventually re-program such activities.

- The final important contribution is a social and cultural one. The project’s designers feel\textsuperscript{13} that such initiatives are a very important way to strengthen the links between citizens and the national leadership, between service providers and service users, and between those who are elected/appointed to public office and those who elected/appointed them.

\textsuperscript{13} E. VIGODA, \textit{EAPPA}, cit., p. 12.
Administrative Reform, Innovation and Maintenance

SUMMARY OF LEBANON

The administrative system in Lebanon is characterised by a strong presence of the central state, which includes 22 Ministries, and features a very limited level of delegation of powers to local authorities.

Municipalities make up the only level of local government; districts, or mohafazat, do not play a political role: they do not provide services to citizens, nor do they receive any financing.

Historically, Lebanon featured local governments with strong powers, but the civil war period saw a rapid centralisation of economic and decision-making powers. The Taif agreements of 1989 underlined the need to return to a decentralised structure, but currently, despite the fact that in 1998 municipal elections were held for the first time in 35 years, decentralisation in Lebanon remains at the theoretical stage.

Despite the structure provided for by the law, Lebanese municipalities are only responsible for a few marginal activities, mostly linked to infrastructure re-building and the restoration of the electric grid and water supply system.
Furthermore, even in the case of local initiatives, projects are developed and managed by the central administration, mostly by the Ministry of the Interior (formerly by the Ministry for Municipal and Agricultural Affairs) and its Council for Development and Reconstruction, one of the many government agencies (about 40) currently operating in Lebanon. Among these agencies, there are several so-called control agencies, including:

**Central Inspection Board (CIB):** responsible for monitoring the respect for procedures and the rule of law on the part of public administration employees.

**Court of Audit (CoA):** juridical body in charge of control over public spending.

**Civil Service Board (CSB):** in charge of public sector personnel management.

The public sector maintains a strong presence in the Lebanese economy, since the main utilities (the transportation sector, which includes the Beirut seaport and airport, electricity and telecommunications, the aqueduct) are still managed by the public sector.

The liberalisation of the economy and privatisation are pressing issues on the government’s agenda. In May 2000 the Parliament adopted a “Law on Privatisation” that sets the scenario for the privatisation of state firms.

The EdL (Electricité du Liban), the Société des eaux de Beyrouth and other minor aqueducts, the airport and seaports, and the fixed-line telephone network are still publicly owned, but they are slated for rapid privatisation. Furthermore, the Lebanese Central Bank owns the near totality of the flagship Middle East Airlines’ shares.

The telecommunications and energy sectors are by far the largest components of public infrastructures; both legislative measures call for the creation of regulatory authorities to operate simultaneously with the privatisation process.

In June 1995 the Council of Ministers created the OMSAR, Office of Minister of State for Administrative Reform, with the goal of leading the Lebanese public administration towards the 21st century through the introduction of reforms and the promotion of institutional development and ICT use, in order to increase the productivity of public sector employees and make the administration responsive, transparent and accessible, thus benefiting civil society and the government.

Although the entire administrative reform effort in Lebanon revolves around OMSAR, certain international partners, especially the United Nations, World Bank, European Union and Arab Fund also play a significant role. They often go beyond mere economic support in their projects by also serving as consultants.

OMSAR plans administrative reform and modernisation efforts in partnership with experts from these same administrations.

The length of the civil war and the necessities arising from post-war reconstruction led to a particularly critical situation for the Lebanese administrative apparatus.

The first step towards the preparation of a strategy to tackle the problem was to take stock of the extent of the needed interventions, and of the primary needs of administrative reform. The presence and support of international institutions in this effort, especially in terms of financing administrative initiatives, has made it possible for reform to enjoy technical and methodological support.

In 1994 the Lebanese government launched the National Administrative Rehabilitation Program (NARP), which aimed to bring normality back to the public administration. Thanks in part to support from the European Union and the United Nations Development Program, the Lebanese administration was able to obtain office infrastructure and ICT instruments, and prepared
a first draft for an administrative reform programme, highlighting priority actions. The Administrative Rehabilitation Program falls within the framework of the NARP. This is a more narrowly focused initiative, financed by the World Bank, to provide assistance for the realisation of administrative reforms (revising the mandates and structures of the ministries, revising human resource management policies, including the classification of professional profiles and of salary levels, introduction of measures to guarantee accountability and control over spending procedures, training efforts to raise awareness on international efforts and to encourage internal discussion, ICT infrastructure and training, with a particular focus on facilitating the exchange of info among the various elements of the public sector).

The ARP supported the recovery of the Lebanese public administration thanks to US$ 45.2 million in funds that were distributed over a three-year period. The European Union is currently helping the Lebanese government in its lengthy administrative recovery and modernisation process thanks to the € 38 million ARLA project (Assistance to the Re-habilitation of the Lebanese Administration) that focuses essentially on the transfer of know-how.

Past experiences, in which the lack of commitment to reform efforts led to poor results, led Lebanon to draft more modest initiatives with a greater possibility of success. Nevertheless, the Lebanese government is well aware of the extent of the needs that need to be met.

Current emphasis is on re-structuring (Lebanon also needs to re-build the public administration’s physical infrastructure) and modernisation, rather than on reform: tackling the strategic and structural problems of the public administration could have resulted in conflicts over authority, and Lebanon thus decided to focus on human resources and on organisational development in order to build a network of agents for change that can act from within the public administration.

The main problems currently faced by the Lebanese public administration include:

- The state must focus on key sectors, leaving other functions to the private sector and to NGO’s. The presence of NGO’s remains limited, and there is a great need for opening the Lebanese market, by liberalising and privatising important sectors such as energy, transportations, and telecommunications, on the model of the experiences of western countries;
- The structure of the public administration does not reflect the real needs of the citizenry. Too many centralised structures do not help meet actual needs. There is a need for greater administrative decentralisation and to review and redefine existing structure, which currently are all too often overlapping and poorly defined.
- Inadequate policy making, due to the limited availability of adequate analysis, evaluation, and monitoring instruments (such as consistent data and up-to-date analyses). Many of the existing laws and regulations need to be reviewed and updated in order to reflect developments in Lebanese society.

Lebanon needs to develop techniques and instruments to support public policies in order to contribute to the definition of goals and priorities, as well as to make sure that these policies will be efficient and effective;

- Training of public sector personnel is an integral part of administrative recovery. First of all, there are still about 10 000 unfilled positions, within a public administration that currently has about 22 000 employees. Statistics show that the most critical gaps are among upper level officials (while there is an abundance, and perhaps an excess, of lower level staff, who are generally not selected on the basis of merit) and for technical staff (especially in the ICT sector). This is due both to better salaries in the public sector, and to the fact that a significant proportion of the population left the country during the civil war. There is a general awareness that the problem of staff quality and numbers must be tackled by using different recruitment and career advancement systems, and must be accompanied by successful training efforts;
- Corruption is one of the most keenly felt problems by the citizenry and the private sector. For years the public administration was seen as the place where politically dominant classes took care of their interests, thus seriously undermining institutional credibility;
- The control and accountability systems, both in the administrative and political sectors, remain largely inefficient. The existence of numerous norms and regulations, and of various administrative units in charge of control, is not sufficient to eliminate poor management within the public administration. ICT use in the public sector is still quite limited;
- Administrative culture in Lebanon is not client-oriented and places little emphasis on responsibility. The state and its institutions are seen mainly as self-referential mechanisms and not as tools to serve the citizenry. This problem is enhanced by a vicious circle of procedures that are far from transparent: the continuous emphasis on respect for procedures makes it difficult to listen to the actual needs of the population.

Aid from international organisations and the OMSAR mandate are excellent opportunities for Lebanon to revise its public system.

An analysis of the documentation on the initiatives that have been launched shows emphasis on the macro and micro-structure of the public administration. Although there are no radical proposals, such as the creation of new structures and the elimination of unnecessary functions, much attention is being paid to improving institutional performance. In this case, there are two main types of intervention: revisions of the institutional structure, which generally concerns legislative bills that OMSAR submits to the Parliament thanks to the help of internal experts and external consultants, and interventions on organisational structure that can lead to minor improvements without the need for approval on the part of the Council of Ministers.

There are numerous proposals of both types, but the legislative process is very lengthy, and laws on the revision of the organisational structure of many important institutions. This is probably one of the motives why “softer” initiatives have been prevalent.

Efforts to improve organisation rely mainly on training, especially on issues regarding public management, updating information on relevant sectors, keeping an eye on international development and promoting computer literacy and the use of new ICT systems.

After having contributed to providing ICT infrastructure, OMSAR is working on integrating the ICT systems of the various administrations. E-government in Lebanon is a tool for achieving democratic control over the operations of the public administration. It is a useful tool both in terms of information retrieval, and in terms of interactive service provision. Specific initiatives include the creation of a unified call centre for the central public administration (the web site that currently offers the possibility of downloading documents and forms will become an interactive portal for online service provision) and the creation of charters marks, through which local administrations can provide clear information on the types of services that they offer.

Lebanon has also introduced new procedures to encourage private investment. The most significant of these is undoubtedly the creation on the part of IDAL (Lebanese Authority for Investment Development) of a one-stop-shop for issuing permits and licences.

In such a framework, human resources become the crucial element for successfully implementing policies. OMSAR collaborated with the Civil Service Board to put together the Performance Improvement Plan.

The multi-point plan adopted by the CSB outlines a global strategy for the management of human resources in the public administration.

Measures that have already been adopted and implemented include:

- An employee behaviour code, which outlines the duties and rights of public sector employees;
- A new evaluation system for staff recruitment and a description of professional profiles, a necessary step to define needs and to introduce a salary scale for different professional profiles;
- The adoption of a performance evaluation system that will allow for the introduction of a results-based career path system.
LIBYA

Libya is formally governed by the General People's Congress, whose Secretary General is in theory the head of state: in reality, Colonel Mu'ammam Gheddafi has been governing Libya since 1969, despite the fact that he lacks any official title, and the Secretary General of the General People's Congress acts as Prime Minister. The ideological bases for the state are supplied by the Third Universal Theory, a mixture of socialist and Islamic principles written by Gheddafi himself and presented in the Green Book. In 1992, Gheddafi introduced significant changes in the country’s political and administrative system, with the country’s subdivision into municipalities (mahallat) that enjoy legislative, financial, and administrative autonomy, but remain under the control of revolutionary councils appointed by Gheddafi. The decentralisation process made further progress in 1998 with the creation of 26 governorates and in 2000 with the adoption of administrative devolution as one of the priorities of the political agenda.
The Libyan political system (Jamahiriya) is unique. It was founded in 1977 and is based on Gheddafi’s philosophy as presented in the Green Book. It refuses parliamentary democracy and political parties. The Jamahiriya (state of the masses) is based on the direct representation of the people, to be exercised through the Basic Popular Congresses: in reality, although all Libyan citizens theoretically participate in local government through the Basic Popular Congresses, each assembly elects a secretary that represents it in the General People’s Congress, the country’s highest legislative body. The General People’s Congress appoints secretaries, who play a role similar to that of ministers, to the Popular Committee, which can be likened to a cabinet. In accordance with a decentralisation programme that is still being implemented, since 1988 almost all ministers have been transferred away from Tripoli to cities such as Bengasi, Kufra and Sirte. In 2000 the General People’s Congress and government authorities began an ambitious decentralisation programme, abolishing most of the central government’s functions and making devolution to the 31 governorates a national priority. This process highlighted the need to develop the skills necessary to support the decentralisation process, in particular at the governorate level. This process is still ongoing and its ultimate goal is to reduce state intervention, especially in the economic sector: this strategy is thus coherent with the economic liberalisation policies pursued by the government through the de-regulation of non-strategic sectors and the encouragement of foreign investment. Furthermore, these processes provide an opportunity for meeting development needs in a timely fashion through a more precise identification of needed resources. In order to successfully pursue these policies, Libyan central and local authorities will need to better develop their skills in sectors such as ICT and the environment, and bring public services up to date (in 2002 the public sector employed 70% of the overall work force). There is thus a greater sensibility in terms of the needs of public administration reform, but no concrete steps have yet been taken in this direction.

Despite the fact that ever since 1969 Libya has tried to re-organise its government structure with an eye towards decentralisation, there are still no adequate controls on government powers. There are no institutional forces that can counter-balance the government’s tendency to centralise, and the bureaucratic apparatus remains quite complex, as the new institutions that have been created overlap existing institutions. There are four political bodies responsible for regional and local participation and representation: the People’s Committees, organised at the neighbourhood, village, or municipal level; the Arab Socialist Union, the only authorised mass political organisation, the Basic Popular Congresses and the Revolutionary Committees, organised both geographically and functionally. These bodies operate in parallel, and often overlap: their responsibilities are defined somewhat ambiguously, and this occasionally leads to conflict within the government itself.

The General People’s Congress is the Libyan equivalent of a legislature: it operates as a link between the people and the executive branch. It is made up of the secretaries of about 600 Basic Popular Congresses and is headed by a Secretary. Ever since its creation, the General People’s Congress has met once a year, for a two week session between November and December, with the participation of over 1000 delegates. Executive functions are assigned to the People’s General Committee, a sort of cabinet of ministers, whose Secretary General is elected by the congress and serves as the equivalent of a prime minister. The Secretary General appoints the cabinet secretaries, and these nominations are confirmed annually by the General People’s Congress: secretaries act like ministers, and are responsible for the executive functions related to the relevant ministries. In theory, the General People’s Congress has some limited powers to discuss and criticise government institutions. In reality, it has basically no influence as a decision-making body and it simply confirms Gheddafi’s decisions.

Prior to 1969, the judiciary system was based on a network of civil and religious courts: the new 1969 Constitution unifies the two systems, but establishes the primacy of Islamic law (Shari’a).
The Quran is therefore the root source for Libyan law: in 1994 religious leaders were granted new powers to emanate religious decrees (fatwa). The judiciary system includes four levels of appeals: the Supreme Court (whose judges are elected by the General People’s Congress), appeals court, trial courts and summary courts. In 1988 the General People’s Congress created the People’s Tribunals and a People’s Trial Office to replace the Revolutionary Courts: in reality, political and civil rights are very limited, and people can be detained and tried even without evidence. The death penalty is applied for many crimes, including drug and alcohol trafficking and political activity. According to Amnesty International there are hundreds of prisoners being detained for political and religious regions, often without a sentence. Most of them are members of Islamic groups that have been banned by the government.

State organisation (synoptic table)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Libya is technically a Jamahiriya (state of the masses) governed by local committees, but in reality it is a military dictatorship</th>
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</table>
| Executive power | **Head of State**  
The *de jure* Head of State is the Secretary of the General People’s Congress, but the *de facto* head of state is Colonel Muammar Abu Minyar al-Qadhafi who has held power since September 1, 1969  
**Head of Government**  
The Secretary General (prime minister) of the People’s Committee, elected by the General People’s Congress  
**Cabinet**  
People’s Committee, appointed by the secretary general and confirmed each year by the General People’s Congress  
**Elections**  
Indirect national elections though a hierarchical system of popular assemblies |
| Legislative power | General People’s Congress, a single chamber body elected though a hierarchical system of popular assemblies  
Secretary: Muhammad al-Zanati (since 1992) |
| Judicial power | Four levels of appeals (supreme court, appeals court, trial courts and summary courts). There are also religious and military courts, as well as People’s Tribunals and a People’s Trial Office |
| Constitution | 11 December 1969 (amended on March 2, 1977) |
| Judicial system | Based on the Italian civil system and Islamic law (Shari’a). No constitutional provision for judicial review of legislative acts. In 1993 the government promoted a wider application of Islamic law. |
31 governorates |
| Political parties | There are no recognised political parties, but it is likely that several Arab nationalist and Islamic fundamentalist movements are operating underground. |
| Suffrage | Universal and compulsory since 18 years of age |
The development process

Development planning, economic organisation and management of decentralisation are three of the priorities identified as crucial for the development and innovation of social, economic and political structures in Libya. There are three main areas in which the bulk of resources will be invested in the future:

1. Training efforts for the sustainable development of human resources and for public sector reform
   These efforts aim to reach the following goals:
   - Increasing public awareness and debate on sustainable development, and integrating sustainable development policies in national planning efforts;
   - Organising a sustainable development agenda;
   - Increasing national capacity in terms of environmental management and sustainable development;
   - Improvement of standards and efficiency in the provision of public services.

2. Economic diversification
   Economic diversification is a crucial issue for Libya’s development. Unfortunately, growth in two sectors considered to have high potential for development was insufficient: tourism suffered from a lack of specific services and skills, while agriculture and investments in marine and wildlife resources did not reach the expected goals, in part due to inadequate planning and a lack of information. In the future, the following objectives will need to be pursued in this sector:
   - Increasing the skill levels of those working in this sector and providing new job opportunities, especially for women and young people;
   - Increasing natural resource management skills and information.

3. Decentralisation and local government
   The decentralisation programme that Libya has recently launched represents a significant opportunity to reduce imbalances in development and to reach long-term sustainable development goals: Libyan authorities have asked the United Nations to support the decentralisation process, especially with regards to developing needed skills. It is therefore necessary for Libya to pursue the following goals in this field:
   - Increasing the human and financial resources assigned to decentralisation policies;
   - Developing mechanisms to support decentralisation and local government.
The reform process for the Macedonian public administration, which was launched right after independence from Yugoslavia (September 1991), was severely slowed by the political and military crisis of March 2001 that was caused by the exasperation of tensions between ethnic Macedonians and the extremist fringe of the ethnic Albanian population (UCK)14.

The conflict, which lasted several months, ended thanks to the intervention of the European Union and the United States, who promoted the Ohrid Framework Agreement that defines the steps that must be taken in order to avert further crises and re-launch institutional reform processes. One of the agreement’s main provisions is to increase the presence of all ethnic minorities within public sector offices and firms, launch important reforms in education, promote the diffusion of minority

14 The population of Macedonia is made up of Albanians (27% of the overall population), Macedonians (64.6%) Turks (4%)
languages and introduce special parliamentary procedures for all constitutional laws regarding ethnic minorities. Another important aspect of the agreement is the launching of a decentralisation process that should strengthen democracy in the country and bring the public administration closer to the citizenry. The central themes of this process include defining the competences to be attributed to municipalities and identifying the criteria that will characterise the implementation of fiscal federalism.

The implementation of the agreement requires a series of legislative changes that are also necessary in order for Macedonia to be compliant with EU legislation, in light of the country’s future entry into the EU. In order to do this, the Parliament is already undertaking some important revisions to existing legislation. This work requires in-depth knowledge of EU legislation and of international agreements, whose compatibility with national legislation must be evaluated. In order to speed up legislative updates, technical assistance programmes from the international community will be very helpful, and indeed some have been launched already.

Assistance from the international community will also be necessary in order to tackle other important challenges in Macedonia’s development. These include fighting serious corruption problems within the public administration, completing privatisations, promoting entrepreneurship, restructuring the agricultural sector, and reducing poverty.

A survey on the state of the public administration reform process in Macedonia identified and analysed the process’ shortcomings and the sectors in which government action has been concentrated so far. One of the reform process’ main priorities is to redefine the competences and the financing system of local autonomous administrative units (municipalities), which have been recognised by the Constitution. The Constitutions sets out the principles for their functioning and identifies the “Law on local government” as the main legislation disciplining their tasks.

In January 1998 the Macedonian government set up a Commission for Public Administration Reform headed by the Minister of Justice. The Ministry for Local Government is a member of this commission. In February 1999 Macedonia defined a strategy for public administration reform which identified local autonomy as the main axis of the entire reform process.

The Government subsequently produced an Action Plan to analyse the state of the decentralisation process and to increase the responsibilities of local governments.

In March 1999 the Ministry for Local Government launched phase 1 of the Action Plan by appointing a study commission made up of representatives from several ministries (local government, finance, and territorial planning), Mayors, local government experts from the United States Agency for International Development (USAID) and administrative reform experts working on the UE PHARE programme.

The analysis of the status of the decentralisation process shows that the local government system is still too dependent on the central government both in terms of responsibilities and in financial terms.

Regarding responsibilities, there are still strong restrictions on the autonomy of local governments even in sectors for which they are nominally responsible, especially in the case where these responsibilities must be exercised in accordance with other existing and future laws. Local governments have limited or inadequate responsibilities in terms of territorial planning.

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15 The current (1996) Law on territorial division identifies 123 municipalities, seven of which are part of the city of Skopje. In the same year Macedonia ratified the Council of Europe’s Charter on local autonomy.
management and development of public utilities – in disagreement with the Constitution and the European Charter on Local Autonomy – and further decentralisation is thus necessary in these sectors. Public participation in local affairs, as established by article 115 of the Constitution, is still too limited. Furthermore, the legislation on local government fails to respect some of the principles set out by the European Charter on Local Autonomy and will have to be modified in order to meet European standards. Finally, a well-defined division of tasks within the organisational structure of municipalities is still lacking, especially in terms of planning, finances, and road maintenance; more efficient governance models in these sectors are still needed.

In terms of the financial system, the most relevant problem concerns the inadequacy of financial resources assigned to local governments in light of the responsibilities assigned to them by the Constitution and other relevant legislation. This problem is compounded by the fact that local institutions cannot finance themselves through local taxation because of the limits of existing legislation. It is therefore necessary to set up a revenue allocation system that reflects the further responsibilities that will be transferred to local governments as well as eliminating current restrictions on allocating funds in order to be able to more broadly define public spending policies. Local governments also need to implement efficient budgeting and spending control systems, in order to improve their accountability and surmount the difficulties associated with the excessive fragmentation of funds.

The goals of the reform effort also include strengthening the administrative and managerial capabilities of public offices through adequate training policies for existing staff that include incentive systems.

Macedonia received considerable assistance from the international community in implementing its reform process. These initiatives include the following:

**UE PHARE**

*Program of technical and other support of the public administration (1997 – 1999)*

Technical assistance in terms of financial relations between the central administration and local governments; institutional building and human resource development; support for the Ministry for Local Self-Government.

*Programme of support for the development of local self government*

Support for the Ministry for Local Self-Government; implementation of pilot projects at the municipal level in order to assist in implementing existing laws and introduce organisational improvements; developing training programmes on matters of local interest.

**US Agency for International Development (USAID)**

*Programme for technical assistance in the reform of local self government (September 1999 – August 2002)*

Institutional building and human resource development; re-designing the financing system for local governments; improving service standards; supporting legislative innovation; developing skills in terms of collecting funds for local government responsibilities.

**United Nation Development Programme (UNDP)**

*Project on urgent reaction to the effects of the Kosovo crisis in the Republic of Macedonia*
Creation of a municipal development fund to attract foreign financial resources for assistance programmes aimed at local institutions; creation of a Co-ordination Unit for activities proposed by international organisations.

**United Nation Development Programme (UNDP)**  
*Second Country cooperation for FYR Macedonia (2001 – 2003)*

Strengthening the administrative skills of local government administrations; strengthening the accountability and transparency principles in managing the public functions for which local governments are responsible.

Along with local authority reform, other important developments have taken place in education, labour policy, justice and the fight against illegality.

As early as 1997 important reforms were taking place in the education sector, though training programmes for teachers and the definition of a quality control system aiming to improve the skills of young people through the diffusion of ICT and the creation of pilot schools and of regional employment centres that encouraged stronger links between schools and the job market.

In terms of labour policies, Macedonia’s high unemployment rate (32% in 2002) means that effective employment policies must be adopted, such as those implemented by the Office for Employment, which organises and co-ordinates training and re-training courses for both workers and those looking for employment.

The justice sector is another critical sector. It is characterised by highly inefficient management practices that greatly hinder the conclusion of trials, as well as by high levels of corruption among judges that endanger the respect for democracy and the rule of law. The reform process in this sector aims to set up a judiciary system that is free from political interference and that can take adequate measures to fight corruption. At the same time, management procedures must be modernised, in part by making sure that the entire court system has adequate access to ICT.

In the economic field, Macedonia has taken important steps forward in the transition from a centralised economic system towards a free market economy. In order to meet this goal the government has intervened in both the public sector – through privatisations and the tax system – and the private sector – through commercial law reform and the modernisation and strengthening of the financial system. The awareness that creating a competitive, efficient private sector was a crucial step for reforming the economic system encouraged the government to strengthen legislation that protects shareholders, thus creating a favourable climate for attracting investments.

The process to privatise public firms that began in 1989 is being completed. By the end of 2002, 1688 public capital firms had been privatised, while 84 were still being privatised. The 1999 law on privatisations increased the powers of the Agency for Privatisations (which had been created by the preceding privatisation law in 1993), which is the government agency in charge of promoting investments. This same law also modified the modalities for dealing with bankruptcies. A new law on auditing also improved financial reporting for firms subject to privatisation.

The government has also intervened on the financial sector both through modifying legislation and through modernising management systems. With regards to the former, the most important
legislative innovations include the July 2002 law on the banking system (Official Gazette no 63/00) that among other things reduced restrictions on national and foreign investor participation in the share capital of Macedonian banks (by making it possible to own as much as 33% of shares, up from the preceding 20%); and the new law on the functions and role of the Central Bank. With regards to the latter, Macedonia took important steps in modernising payment systems and banking operations by approving a law on electronic payments and the introduction of credit cards and e-banking.

Finally, both legislative efforts and administrative reform have encouraged the entry of foreign capital in Macedonia. One of the main obstacles to foreign investment is the continued presence of lengthy and confusing bureaucratic procedures.

In order to surmount these obstacles, Macedonia launched two important projects in administrative innovation. The first deals with the computerisation of the cadastre, which will allow for quicker updating and transmission of information on real estate and landholdings. This project was implemented by the National Land Bureau, the Ministry of Agriculture, and the Ministry of Justice. The second project is co-ordinated by the Ministry of Economy and regards the creation of a one stop shop that will deal with all the bureaucratic requirements faced by foreign firms that want to operate on Macedonian territory.

Legislation on property rights and on investments does not discriminate against foreigners. Fiscal legislation also encourages foreign investment through fiscal incentives.
Administrative Reform,  
Innovation and Maintenance

SUMMARY OF MALTA

The Republic of Malta’s institutional framework is regulated by the Constitution drafted after independence in 1964, and by the substantial amendments made in 1974 (the year Malta became a republic) and in 1987 (when Malta acquired neutral nation status). The Public Service is one of the institutions that are regulated by the (Chapter X) and it is an integral part of the public sector along with authorities, councils and public firms. The need for administrative reform arose in the late 1980’s, and included the creation of two special entities - the Public Service Reform Commission and the Operations Review) – that will cease their activities once their mission is accomplished.
Currently, the reform process is being managed by several government units, especially the Office of the Prime Minister, and in particular its Permanent Secretary, who is both the head of the public administration and in charge of internal affairs at the Ministry.

The Permanent Secretary therefore plays a key role, since his office is responsible for both long-range ministerial decisions and for reform initiatives that regard the public administration. A discussion of the reform process must start with the historical context in which this process takes place.

Malta’s historical context includes centuries as a colony, during which it enjoyed stability and self-sufficiency, and the sudden emergence of a need to integrate into a wider context. The key question for Malta during the entire 1980’s was whether to join Europe or not. It finally formally applied for membership in July 1990, although this process was not without obstacles. Indeed, the process was interrupted in 1995, when the fiscal reform called for by the agreements with the EU – and in particular, the application of the added value tax – led to a change in the governing majority in the 1996 elections (from the pro-European Nationalist Party to the Labour Party), and the EU application process was frozen. When the Nationalist Party regained power in late 1998, a pro-European government presented its application for membership once again and adopted the EU acquis. Negotiations for EU membership began in 2001 and ended with an agreement signed in Athens on April 16, 2003 that accepted Malta as an EU member starting May 1, 2004. On March 8, 2003, Maltese voters approved entry in the EU with a 53.6% majority during a referendum.

The decision to join Europe was therefore shared by a majority of the population, but also faced significant opposition. It launched a motivational spiral for change and for adapting internal structures to European standards. The public administration is one of the main institutions, in terms of size and complexity, that will have to undergo a radical reform process, which has acquired urgency due to the stagnancy that characterised it for centuries and to the many problems face by the administrative machine (endemic delays, poor service quality, deteriorating infrastructure, corruption and clientelism reaching unsustainable levels).

In 1988, the nationalist government – back in power after 16 years – first launched administrative reform efforts by creating two institutions: the Public Service Reform Commission (PSRC) and the Operations Review. The first was charged with planning overall organisational reform, while the second was responsible for evaluating existing structures and developing an ICT plan.

The measures proposed during that period aimed to re-build the public administration apparatus, establish its organisational capabilities and protect staff rights. The public administration therefore had to be first and foremost a trustworthy institution, especially in light of the negative experiences of the past and of the government’s priority at the time, which was preparing Malta to join the European Union.

In 1990, the preparatory phase for the reform ended, and so did the PSRC’s task. Following the preparatory phase, Malta concentrated on implementing the innovations suggested by the PSRC in two different phases: from 1990 to 1995, and from 1996 until today. This division reflects the substantial changes introduced by the Labour government that won the October 1996 elections.

During the first phase (1990-95), planning and technical support for reform initiatives were entrusted to three newly-created “Central Agencies for Change” under the responsibility of the Office of the Prime Minister: the Management System Unit (MSU); the Management and Personnel Office (MPO) and the Staff Development Organisation (SDO).

The results of this first phase are controversial, and public opinion did not support the reforms that affected human resource management, technological innovation and the re-organisation of the state machinery. This led to decreased public support for the government, which
culminated in the defeat of the Nationalist Party and the hands of the Labour Party in the 1996 elections, which closed the first phase of administrative reforms.

The second phase therefore began in 1996 and is still ongoing today. The Management Systems Unit (MSU) was divided in two: the consultancy and planning unit was drastically reduced and incorporated into the Prime Minister’s Office as the Management Efficiency Unit (MEU), while the ICT unit was transformed into the Malta Information Technology and Training Services Ltd (MITTS). The Staff Development Organisation (SDO), responsible for training, was integrated into the Management and Personnel Office (MPO), responsible for human resource management strategies. The Head of Public Service therefore re-asserts responsibility over the reform process and the three Central Agencies for Change answer directly to him. Furthermore, several ministries will be entrusted with political responsibilities over the reform effort. In particular, the Ministry of Justice will be in charge of service quality and e-government; the Ministry of Finance will be in charge of privatisations and will implement government policy on salary negotiations; the Cabinet as a whole is responsible for internal controls.

Current reform initiatives prioritise concrete action plans and the provision of adequate services.

The reform programme arises in part out of the EU application process: it is therefore important to take a closer look at this process, which lasted over thirty years, by providing a chronological overview and identifying the institutions in charge of this process. The EU application process played a key role in influencing choices and actions. Particularly significant initiatives within the framework of Malta’s reform process include:

- Administrative decentralisation, regarding both the country’s economic system and its territorial organisation, signals an important change in a traditionally highly centralised administrative structure;
- Numerous projects aim to build or improve the administration’s relationship with the citizenry and the quality of services it provides;
- Numerous initiatives focus on technological innovation, such as e-government and m-government (mobile government), leading tools to promote integration with the global information society.

Decentralisation also affected other public activity management tools. Since independence, the tasks of many important sectors of the public administration have been delegated to external entities, set up as corporations or limited responsibility societies (ltd). These first included the Central Bank of Malta and the Malta Development Corporation; and eventually Telemalta, Enemalta, the Employment and Training Corporation, the Water Services Corporation, the Malta Maritime Authority and the Environment and Planning Authority also joined the fold.

The creation of a Parliamentary Ombudsman in 1995 was an important step in improving relations with the citizenry, as was the creation of a “Permanent Commission against Corruption” that aims to protect citizens’ rights in their dealings with the public sector. The Quality Service Charter Programme aims to improve the quality of public services by encouraging departments and government offices to maintain specific quality standards, either for the entire array of the services they provide, or for certain sectors. There are currently 38 Quality Service Charters though which government departments and other organisations commit themselves in writing to furnish quality services, set quality standards and inform the public on available services.

In terms of computerisation, the Maltese government is aiming to create a first rate information society through achieving three main goals:
• Providing high quality services to the public;
• Encouraging citizen participation in public life (e-democracy);
• Standardising the services provided by public structures and reaching greater efficiency levels.

The system is made up of a government portal that serves as the main entry point for all the information and services related to public activities. Two components that support the entire e-government programme are linked to this portal: the electronic payment grid and a safe registration and authentication mechanism.

Another activity in the e-government field is the development of m-government (mobile government) which exploits the opportunities offered by mobile telephone technology and by the widespread use of cellular telephones (65% of the population owns one).

Planned activities include a more efficient use of resources; it is being implemented thanks to proven instruments such as best practices as well as thanks to newer tools.

In the first case, the application of business planning, introduced over a decade ago, allowed for the successful transition from short-term planning to longer-term planning (3 years). This experience can be considered a best practice and allows ministries and departments to make better predictions on their resource needs, using clear and well-defined parameters.

In terms of internal controls, a central unit, the Internal Audit and Investigations Directorate (IAID), under the leadership of the Office of the Prime Minister, replaced the auditing centres that were part of each ministry, in keeping with the EU’s requests. The National Audit Office (NAO) is responsible for external controls. This unit was re-organised in 1997 with the main task of exerting control over the use and destination of public funds.

Reform efforts aiming to improve financial management include a change in the accounting system that necessitated the creation of an internal task force within the Ministry of Finance.

Another step towards increasing efficiency is the adoption of benchmarking techniques in all ministries. In 2002 the Ministry of Finance, with the assistance of the Management Efficiency Unit, set up a series of training activities in this field and produced a handbook. The positive results achieved so far suggest that the programme could be extended to other areas of government as well.

Newer programmes include a plan that is only starting to be implemented but that could have significant developments: a public-private partnership to improve public services through a use of public resources – including human and technical resources – aiming at achieving their full potential by involving the private sector as well.

The implementation of these projects increasingly necessitates a new normative framework that goes beyond the obsolete 1960’s law on public finance that helps consolidate existing reforms and that modernises the management of public finances, especially through reducing inefficiencies and the wasteful use of public funds.

A new piece of legislation, the Public Finance Management Act, will allow the government to operate with the necessary flexibility to reach its medium and long-term goals, including: the gradual change in accounting systems; the management of EU funds that are transferred to Malta; the inclusion of EU directives and regulations in fiscal and budgetary matters into Maltese legislation; and the introduction of electronic transactions as an integral part of e-government.

The reform programme outlined in the late 1980’s by the Public Service Reform Commission (PSRC) and by the Operations Review is continuing through the institutions described in this paper, and has not yet been completed. In the introduction to the book “A profile of the Public Service of Malta”, Joseph Grima, Head of the Maltese Public Service, states that “administrative reform is a
journey rather than a destination, and a long journey at that". Some activities have been completed, others are still being implemented, and others still, such as the privatisation of public services, have been modified by the new government and its different political orientation.

Several noteworthy results must nevertheless be underlined: higher quality public services at a lower cost and in less time; better protection for the rights of public administration customers; stronger structures for policy planning and implementation; limits being placed on the central authorities by local institutions, civil society, and the EU.

Malta’s imminent adhesion to the EU permeates the entire reform process. The political community remains polarised with regards to EU membership (as evidenced by the referendum’s results). The main reasons for this polarisation are the doubts regarding Malta’s economic prospects as an EU member; similar doubts had surfaced 50 years earlier about Malta’s future as an independent nation no longer subject to Britain’s colonial rule.

Analysts feel that the current reform plan is more equilibrated and complete compared to the original plan. According to these analysts, its potential impact on change depends on the role that institutions will be able to play within this process.
Administrative Reform,
Innovation and Maintenance

SUMMARY OF MOROCCO

Morocco is a Constitutional Monarchy; its Constitutional Charter, adopted in 1962 (Morocco achieved independence in 1956, after 44 years as a French protectorate), has been modified many times. The last such modifications, on September 13, 1996, feature several important innovations, including the following:

1. The institution of a bi-cameral parliamentary system through the creation of a Chamber called “House of Counsellors”;
2. The approval of the statute for the State Audit Court, a constitutional institution whose mission is to control and oversee the implementation of financial laws and the creation of Regional Audit Courts;
3. The election of the Region as a local administrative unit, along with Prefectures, Provinces, and Communes;
4. The Kingdom’s Constitution now guarantees property rights and freedom of enterprise.
The King represents the country’s unity, appoints the Prime Minister, and after consultation with the latter he nominates the other members of the government. He presides over the Superior Council of Ministers, the Superior Council of the Magistrature, and the other constitutional bodies, promulgates laws, signs and ratifies treaties.

Two parallel bodies head the central decision making structure:
1. The Council of Ministers, headed by the Prime Minister;
2. The Superior Council, which only includes a few ministers and is headed by the King.

The Government is made up of the Prime Minister and the other Ministers as is accountable to the King and the Parliament.

Each Ministry (the list of current ministries is included in the full report) has a local delegation in each Province or Prefecture.

The parliament is bi-cameral:
1. The House of Representatives, whose members are elected to 5 year terms;
2. The House of Counsellors, whose members are elected to 9 year terms. This chamber has similar functions to the House of Representatives, but it ranks above it in importance, and has the power to dismiss the government under certain specific conditions.

The Prime Minister and all the members of Parliament are responsible for legislative initiatives.

Morocco’s administrative structure is inspired on the French model: it is highly centralised but at the same time quite fragmented. At the local level the Kingdom is divided into: regions, provinces, wilayas, and prefectures.

Governors represent the State for prefectures, provinces, and regions and oversee the implementation of laws. They are responsible for implementing government decisions and for the local management of central administrations.

Each prefecture or province is divided into Districts headed by Super Caïd (District Chief). Each District is divided into Caïdates (run by Caïds) that are the equivalents of urban or rural communes and municipalities;

The judiciary system includes:
- First degree courts
- Appeals Courts
- Administrative Courts
- Commercial Courts
- Special Justice Court
- State Audit Court and Regional Audit Courts.

Political elections took place in 2002. The Prime Minister opted for the creation of a single Ministry, the Ministry for Public Sector Modernisation, in charge of orienting administrative reform in continuity with the preceding Ministry for Public Administration and Administrative Reform. The Morocco plans to launch its PA reform programme in 2003, to be completed in 2010 when a free trade area between Morocco and the EU is supposed to come into being.

**The Ministry for Public Sector Modernisation**

This ministry is in charge of elaborating and overseeing government policies regarding the public sector. It is also in charge of promoting and launching all reforms that have to do with improving the organisation and functioning of the public administration and with strengthening its management capabilities.

Public administration reform is one of the Ministry’s main priorities. To this end, the Ministry has already launched, within the framework of the good management pact, a vast effort to publicise the
pact’s main goals among public offices: ethical principles for the public administration, rational management of public funds, and greater openness towards the citizenry.

The Ministry is organised as follows:
General secretariat, general inspectorate, public sector directorate, administrative reform directorate, human resources and general affairs directorate.
Two administrative training schools are also linked directly to the Ministry:
- The National School of Administration (ENA) and the training centre for staff and secretaries have as their mission the training of public administration staff and officials in the general administration, the diplomatic corps, and the economic and financial sectors.

The Ministry of the Interior and the Ministry of Finance and Privatisation are two of the institutions that are most heavily involved in administrative reform.

The Ministry of the Interior
The role of the Ministry of the Interior in administrative reform mainly regards the following four issues:
- The modernisation of territorial administration;
- Efficient management of human resources and promotion of training, control and inspectorate;
- Support for economic activities;
- National promotion efforts to support the creation of employment.

The Ministry of Finance and Privatisation
The Ministry of Finance and Privatisation is closely linked with the Ministry for Public Administration and is in charge of all matters relating to the statutes for employees of the state, public sector firms and local communities, as well as salaries and social security.

The Ministry of Finance and Privatisation assigns and controls the funds granted to the Ministry for Public Sector Modernisation for a five-year plan aiming to implement three large-scale projects:
- Administrative reform, which will mainly deal with the implementation of the good management pact, the simplification of administrative procedures, the revision of judicial texts, the strengthening of the use of the Arabic language, and the improvement of working hours;
- Human resource management, through investing in training and re-qualification efforts, and the transformation of the inspectorate and of control mechanisms;
- Technical resources: planned activities include the promotion of ICT, and the computerisation of the Ministry and the ENA.

The Moroccan administrative reform programme includes three priority measures:
1. the launch of a strong decentralisation effort,
2. the creation and homogenisation of a universal contracting system for public sector employment,
3. The introduction of new regulations and procedures for the simplification of procurement procedures for the PA.

The central administration prepared a document called “The Moroccan Administration and the Challenges of the year 2010” which sets the strategic guidelines for ongoing reforms.

The seven specific areas of intervention have been broken down into 161 measures.

On the basis of the above, the Ministry for Public Sector Modernisation proposed the following seven projects as a starting point for a profound reform of the Moroccan PA:
1: the creation of a governance culture that places ethical values at the core of public service;
2: the application of the administrative decentralisation principle in order to consolidate a new concept of public services that focuses on meeting the real needs of the citizenry;
3: the consolidation of new values in the relationship between the administration and its customers; 
4: the training of human resources and the development of human resource management strategies 
in order to make them an asset for the reform process; 
5: the reform of the salary system for staff in order to properly motivate them and encourage 
productivity; 
6: the increased use of ICT in order to control quality and costs parameters; these are necessary 
steps that Morocco must take in order to enter the electronic administration era; 
7: the simplification of administrative procedures in order to improve the quality of services 
provided to the citizenry.

Prior to these seven projects, the government elaborated a Good Management Pact (PBG) 
that sets concrete initiatives in order to begin implementing change. The Ministry for Public Sector 
Modernisation is the main body in charge of implementing of this programme, along with the 
Office of the Prime Minister’s Strategic Reform Commission. The PBG is structured along the 
following axes: 
1st axis: bringing the administration closer to the citizens. 
2nd axis: rationalising human resource management. 
3rd axis: improving administration capabilities.

ONGOING PROJECTS

Some of these projects are already well underway, since they were implemented by the preceding 
government under the authority of the Ministry for the Public Sector and Administrative Reform; 
other were planned by the current government in late 2002 and are just being launched.

REDEFINING THE ADMINISTRATION’S MISSION: DECENTRALISATION AND 
DECONCENTRATION

The implementation of the administrative deconcentration principle faced many hurdles, 
with the result that the central administration still monopolises the management of human and 
financial resources. 

The creation of external services for ministries (decentralised structures) does not always 
respond to actual needs; indeed with the exception of the Ministry of the Interior, many ministries 
do not have external (services extérieurs) that adequately cover the national territory. Each 
ministry organised its services according to its own vision, while the central administration 
significantly influenced the organisation of these services.

The objectives of administrative deconcentration can be summed up as follows: 
- Improved quality of public services offered to the citizenry; 
- Development of the capabilities of the central administration in terms of co-ordination and 
strategic competence; 
- the creation of external services that adequately cover the national territory and that meet the 
actual socio-economic development needs of provinces, prefectures, and regions; 
- The delegation of decision-making powers to external services for regulating local interest affairs.

HUMAN RESOURCE TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT OF MANAGEMENT MODALITIES

The concept of human resource management has only recently been introduced in 
certain Moroccan administrations (ex: services for personnel in human resource offices). In 
practice, most public administrations do not have a human resource management strategy, nor 
do they have competent staff working on this issue.
The PA must adopt a long-term strategic vision articulated along the following issues:

- **Adoption of an effective human resource management policy:**
  Creation of a reference framework that will ease the transition from a human resource management policy based on legal criteria to one based on managerial criteria.

- **Adoption of a new performance evaluation system.**
  Performance evaluation must be based on the professional skills of staff members and on their capabilities in performing their duties. Evaluators must keep in mind the duties assigned to each staff member, the resources at their disposals, and the ultimate goals of the administrative unit to which they are assigned.

- **Adoption of a new life-long training system**
  In order to tackle all the possible scenarios that may arise, a life-long training strategy needs to be implemented.

- **Reforming the promotions system**
  A new promotions system is needed in order to fill the void in this sector. This system must fit in with an overall reform of salaries, compensation, and administrative cadres.

- **Strengthening mobility**
  Mobility can successfully link needed and available skills, but it can give successful results only if it is considered a strategic human resource management policy aiming to pave the way for change.

### THE SALARY SYSTEM IN THE MOROCCAN PA

The current salary system is hindered by numerous dysfunctions caused by the absence of a clear, appropriate policy on the matter. Salary policies have often been influenced by pressure from certain professional categories aiming to benefit from preferential regimes. This had a negative influence on the overall harmony of the salary system. The new strategy will become a framework law that takes the following principles into consideration:

- Control of the salary mass;
- Introduction of the equity principle among various staff categories and members who have equivalent qualifications and who are at the same staff level;
- Narrowing the gap between high salaries and low salaries; this gape gives rise to widespread frustration among numerous staff categories;
- Adopting a global consultation approach and collective bargaining;
- Integrate compensations into the salary system;
- Facilitating the shifting of personnel between central administrations, external services and local communities.

### RELATIONSHIP WITH THE CITIZENRY

Disequilibrium and uncertainty are the main characteristics of the relationship between the PA and the citizenry, due to a lack of openness on the PA’s part. The main causes of the poor relationship between the PA and the citizenry are as follows:

- Lack of an overall approach to welcome clients and provide them with information;
- Lack of trust in the administration on the part of citizens;
- The number and complexity of administrative procedures and the excessive number of documents that citizens are asked to furnish.
- Lack of means to allow citizens to require transparency, clarity and respect for the law in administrative procedures.
- Lack of diligence on the part of the administration in implementing judicial decisions that go against it.
**Main initiatives**

Numerous projects have been elaborated within the framework of the government’s reform programme. These include:

- The appointment of the so-called "Diwan Al madalim" (*Ombudsman*);
- The approval, on the part of the Parliament, of the law that compels administrations to motivate administrative decisions (law 03-01);
- The creation of regional one-stop-shops in order to promote investments at the decentralised level;

**INFORMATION AND COMMUNICATION TECHNOLOGY**

The promotion of ICT use in ministries and departments is part of a more general administrative modernisation effort. Over the next few years, increasing efforts will have to be made in order to promote ICT as a tool to allow departments to fully perform the tasks they are responsible for.

For over a decade, the Moroccan PA has undergone a progressive computerisation effort. For the most part, the procedures that have been automated mostly apply at the intra-ministerial level, although some of them, such as the integrated management of state personnel allow for data exchange at the inter-ministerial level.

The goal of the Moroccan PA is to continue promoting the use of PA. One word sums up the development strategy for the use of ICT in administrative management: **IDARATI**, this is the French acronym for "computerisation of administrative departments and their networking through the use of ICT". This strategy includes three main guidelines to allow the Moroccan PA to have access to new technologies. The guidelines are:

- Computerisation of the administration, including central and external services;
- Establishing local networks and linking all administrations;
- Using ICT in order to improve on-line administrative services.

**PRIVATISATIONS**

The privatisation programme was launched in 1993; it was strongly desired by King Hassan II. It was conceived as a tool to achieve economic and social modernisation. The programme should help Morocco complete the liberalisation process that began in the early 1980’s. The main measures include:

- Liberalisation of foreign trade,
- Price liberalisation,
- Progressive removal of subsidies,
- Opening the Moroccan economy to foreign investment,
- Fiscal reform,
- Export promotion,
- Restructuring of state firms.

**ETHICS IN BUREAUCRACY**

The starting point for this effort was the King’s preoccupation with putting an end to the pre-eminence of discretionary decision-making in the bureaucracy and the administration. This led to the appointment of the Diwan Al Madalim, (*Ombudsman*). The Good Management Pact calls for concrete and permanent efforts to introduce ethics into the public sector, mostly through sensitisation efforts and preventive measures. The latter include the following:
- Fighting discretionary power in the administration, especially the extensive use of professional secrets and the lack of justification for administrative decisions.
- Endorsing the transparency principle in the management of public finances.
- Modernisation of the role of general inspectorates within the ministries, broadening their responsibilities and defining their modalities of action.
- Creation of a co-ordinating mechanism between the various general inspectorates in order to guarantee the evaluation of sectorial programmes and policies, so that the government can keep abreast of the results achieved by ministries and public sector firms.
- Creation of a general State inspectorate dependent on the prime minister’s office with important tasks such as evaluating and controlling public services and coordinating the various general inspectorates located within each ministry in order to unify public administrative action.

**ADMINISTRATIVE SIMPLIFICATION**

Simplification is the key issue behind the modernisation of the Moroccan PA. King Hassan II and his successor King Mohamed VI both expressed the need to simplify, and indeed this is one of the cornerstones of the PA reform process. Another cornerstone is the Good Management Pact, which recommends the rationalisation of administrative procedures and promotes a closer relationship between the administration and the citizenry. In order to stimulate and coordinate the various simplification measures Morocco created a Central Commission for Administrative Simplification (C.C.S.A.) under the leadership of the Ministry for Public Administration and Administrative Reforms. A group of experts from the C.C.S.A. drafted a general handbook on simplification projects.

The theoretical basis for simplification rests upon two key ideas:

- The administration, with its procedures, formalities, and processes, can hinder economic development. Simplification is thus a way for the administration to become an engine for economic development.
- The administration must reflect the rule of law when dealing with the citizenry, by meeting their needs thanks to simple, efficient procedures, within a framework of legality and equality.

Simplification must achieve two key goals:

1. Facilitate the everyday life of citizens by improving communication between the administration and its end users;
2. Facilitate the activity and the expansion of the private sector.

The public administration reform effort undertaken by Morocco intends to change the way the PA serves the citizenry, through changes in administrative procedures. To this end, many measures have been taken to sensitise and familiarise PA personnel with the need to revise administrative procedures and the obligations that users must meet. These measures include the I.D.A.L.V.16 method prepared by the C.C.S.A.

16 This method is modelled on typical organisational problem solving methodology, which includes five steps that underline the essential elements of simplification: Inventory of simplification focal points; Diagnosis of problems; Analysis of solutions; Implementation; Evaluation of results.
The very recent political events that have led to the creation of the Federal Yugoslav Republic of Serbia and Montenegro have caused a radical change in the institutional framework.

In 2002, the National Assemblies of the two States, along with the National Assembly of the Federal Republic, adopted a formal document that contains the constitutional principles for the Federation of Serbia and Montenegro.
The Union of the States took the name of Serbia and Montenegro and has the typical characteristics of a constitutional republic, with a mixed parliamentary-presidential system. The following constitutional bodies operate within Serbia and Montenegro: the Assembly, the President, the Council of Ministers, and the Court.

Following the formal adoption of the Constitutional Charter, elections for the constitutional bodies were called, with the objective of ensuring equal representation for both Serbia and Montenegro in all state institutions.

The Assembly is made up of a single Chamber that includes representatives from both Serbia and Montenegro, elected according to the electoral laws of each member state, compatibly with the principles established by the Constitutional Charter.

The President is elected by the Assembly of Serbia and Montenegro and is in charge of appointing the members of the Council of Ministers and supervising their work.

The Council of Ministers is made up of five departments: foreign affairs, defence, international economic relations, internal economic relations, protection of minorities and human rights. There are 9 Ministries.

The Court of Serbia and Montenegro, made up of a joint committee of judges from the two member states, is in charge of juridical functions at the constitutional and administrative levels and dictates criteria and modalities of action for each sector of the state administration.

Despite the recent efforts to unify Serbia and Montenegro in a single state, the two countries, although they are now part of a unitary state, still retain significant political and administrative autonomy...

The Republic of Montenegro is a democratic state and is a member of the Union of the States of Serbia and Montenegro. Its main constitutional bodies are: the Parliamentary Assembly, the President of the Republic, elected by universal suffrage to a five-year term, and the Government. There are 16 Ministries. Montenegro launched a reform process aiming mostly at long-term training for public sector employees, thanks to a train and bring staff up to date promoted by the Institute for Public Administration, for which the Ministry of Justice is responsible.

Serbia is a democratic republic, headed by the President who is elected by universal suffrage.

In terms of constitutional organisation, the Serb Republic has a parliament, called National Assembly, made up of 250 representatives elected by universal suffrage every four years.

The Government is made up of the Prime Minister, the Deputy Prime Minister, and 19 Ministers each in charge of a single sector.

Particular attention must be paid to the role played by public institutions operating within the government that are responsible for planning and implementing administrative reform.

Agency for the Development of the Public Administration

The Agency for the Development of the Public Administration was established by the Serbian Government in February 2001 with the goal of addressing and supporting government reforms in the field of bureaucratic and administrative development. It was created in order to support the implementation of the Serbian Government’s reform programme; it is a planning organism and offers skills and operational support in order to reach the standards of a modern public administration, by trying to adapt international best practices to the Serbian state’s available resources. The Agency aims to establish a long-term reform programme that involves all the sectors of the Public Administration, as well as implementing an immediate
programme for change to renew the existing administrative apparatus, and to update human resources management techniques, administrative procedures, the professionalism of public sector staff and of the procedures to offer services to the citizenry. In fulfilling its institutional duties, the Agency is closely linked to the Prime Minister’s Office and to the Council for Public Administration, another consultative body of the Serbian government that was established in February 2001.

PA Reform Unit assigned to the Office of the Prime Minister (PARU)

This unit was recently created within the Office of the Prime Minister. Its internal role is merely consultative. It does not have operational tasks; instead it guarantees the legitimate implementation of administrative reform efforts by favouring the coordination of different administrations at the central level. It collaborates with the PA Council, the Ministry of Justice, institutions in charge of administrative control, the Government’s Secretary General, and the Ministry of Finance.

The PARU is staffed by experts and financed by the State. It has the obligation to report periodically to the government on its research, publication, and training activities.

It is in charge of evaluating the state of the PA, identifying its needs, helping institutions along their reform process, and gathering information and knowledge from other countries.

During the 1990’s the Serb Republic’s organisational model changed drastically from a completely decentralised system to a highly centralised one, in which most of the duties of the public administration were performed by the constitutional bodies themselves. The original 1991 law on Ministries identified the Ministry for Justice and Local Self-Government as the body responsible for implementing administrative policies, without specifying the actual tasks that the ministry had to perform.

This poorly defined legislative framework and lack of a long-term plan was therefore at the root the scarce attention paid to the PA and its lack of unitary, organic development.

Because of this, administrative reform was initially addressed to the highest levels of government, eventually reaching the local level and a direct contact with the population.

The immediate measures taken by the reform effort strongly emphasise macro-economic stabilisation and privatisation. The balance between economic policy and institutional reforms reflects Serbia’s conviction that privatisation, market creation and private sector development are essential components of reform.

Given that the country is not yet perfectly stable from a political point of view, the initial scope of reform focused mostly on the reconstruction and modernisation of the system, with a precise goal: improving policies, improving the public administration’s receptiveness to the needs of the users, and making public services more efficient.

Serbia has been able to rely on basic strategies that have already been used in developed countries in order to manage pressures on the state apparatus: for example, through privatisation processes that are compatible with the structure of the PA and the consequent minimisation of the administrative system, through the direct management of certain public aspects at the hands of private institutions.

The new Serbian government is facing a growing need to integrate with Europe, and has therefore set a goal for itself to reach qualitative standards in state and administrative organisation that match those of Western European countries, in order to improve the efficacy and efficiency of the PA and to orient it towards meeting the needs of the citizens as its priority mission.

Immediate reform efforts have therefore focused on the central government’s primary need to acquire the necessary capacities to set strategic priorities and organise standard state functions.

Immediate reforms that have been undertaken by the governments have mainly addressed the following sectors:
SERBIA and MONTENEGRO

1. Legislation
2. Organisation
3. Personnel

LEGISLATIVE ACTIVITY

Serbia has progressively adapted its existing body of laws to its reform needs, and has evaluated new legislative proposals for sectors in which legislation is lacking:

Numerous other legislative proposals have been made, including a law that would create the institutional position of ombudsman, a general law on PA, new regulations on PA staff, and new legislative proposals regarding territorial organisation in the Serb Republic.

ORGANISATIONAL CHANGES

From a strictly organisational and structural point of view, the public administration reform effort became operational starting from a detailed analysis of the state of the nation.

This was summarised in an official document, the so-called Diagnostic Study on Public Administration: “The central administration of the Serbian government – organisational challenges”, that was drafted in collaboration with experts from Denmark (based on data gathered between April and September 2001).

In May 2002, a law on the organisation of ministries created the Ministry for Public Administration and Local Self-Government, which is a central co-ordinating agency that has become the operational centre for PA reform. This institution’s main goal is to define the guidelines and co-ordinate the activities for the modernisation of public administrations and local authorities. The new ministry complements the already existing Serbian Government’s Council for Public Administration and the Agency for the Development of the Public Administration.

The year 2002 also saw the creation of the Serbian Government Commission for Access to the European Union and the Council for European Integration. This institution aims to harmonise legislation in order to allow the Serbian administration to pursue integration with the European Union, in close co-operation with the Ministry for International Economic Relations.

The Ministry for Public Administration and Local Self-Government also created a central agency for human resource management in the public administration. Its main task is creating a single registry for public sector employees that will allow for continuous evaluation of education levels and professional development, thus creating a database for planning personnel management and introducing modern human resource management techniques.

The Serbian government’s reform efforts have also tried to modernise the public administration by introducing new functions for public administration bodies and special units that focus on planning and implementing reforms.

The initial priority was to homogenise administrative reform in every sector of the PA, by creating European integration departments, centres for the development and management of human resources, and units for the promotion of ICT. The aim of these efforts was offering optimal

17 The main laws that have been adopted deal with the following issues: local self-government (2002); elections for local institutions (2002); procurement and modifications of regulations on public employment (2001) which gave employers the right to evaluate the performance of PA employees on an individual, case-by-case basis; salaries in the PA and in public services (2001); state budget (2002); Ministry organisation and structure (2003); creation of the Agency for the evelopment of small and medium-size firms (2001), creation of Chambers of Commerce (2001); creation of the Agency for privatisation (2001); introduction of regulations to protect consumers (2002).
working conditions and creating the skills necessary for the successful modernisation of the PA, through the application of managerial and professional principles to the public sector.

The next step was to analyse the functionality of ministry structures, in order to determine the adequacy of existing staff and working methods, as well as the needs of the ministries in light of their new responsibilities.

The introduction of ICT in the PA was another important step, especially from an organisational and operational point of view. It started with the purchase of hardware and the subsequent creation of networks regarding human resource management and law preparation. These innovations sped up the decision making process, improved the functioning of the PA as well as its internal communication structure, and increased the efficiency of public sector workers.

TRAINING OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION STAFF.

Reforms in the human resource sector have aimed to improve staff efficiency and efficacy. Serbia tried to create a new profile for its public sector staff, starting with recruitment, which is now focused on the ability and skills of candidates, evaluated according to objective selection criteria. The next step is a series of programs to train workers and update their skills. The overall goal of these efforts is to create a professional class ready to tackle upcoming changes in a positive way.


In general terms, the Serb Government’s administrative reform programme focuses on the following areas of intervention:

- Distinction between politics and administration and clarification of professional roles for public administration officials.
- Administrative decentralisation and creation of a new relationship between different levels of the administration.
- Improving service quality, efficiency, and efficacy.
- Public, transparent, and coherent decision-making processes.
- Simplification of procedures and of employment policies in the public administration.
- Developing and updating personnel skills in order to upgrade the professional level of public administration staff, in order to improve productivity and efficiency in providing services to the citizenry.
- Introduction of quality standards and ethical principles in order to fight corruption (in 2001-2002 the Council for the Fight against Corruption was created as a consultative Government body).
- Development of channels of communication with the citizenry and creation of a professional figure for the protection of citizens’ rights (the new legislative programme calls for the appointment of an ombudsman).
- Development of policies and mechanisms to keep public spending under control (creation of a Commission for the Optimisation of Public Spending).
- Progressive image and identity changes in the administrative apparatus in order to establish a new, trust-based relationship between citizens and the state (creation of a Special Commission for the Supervision of the Activities of Public Administration Bodies).
- E-government reform
- Legislative, regulatory, and judicial reform
- Reform for integration with the EU and subsequent membership.
The Syrian Arab Republic covers about 185,000 square kilometres at the crossroads of three continents, in the heart of the Middle East. Its population is nearly 19 million and it is bordered by Turkey, Iraq, Israel, Jordan, and Lebanon. Because of its particular geographic location, at the heart of one of the most important economic and geo-political nodes of the international system, Syria plays a key strategic role. As a meeting point between the East and the West, Syria had always paid a high price to the political, economic and religious clashes between Christianity and Islam.

Syria has been independent since 1944, after centuries of Ottoman domination and twenty years of French administration. It is a presidential republic in which the Head of State is far more important than all the other state institutions. The establishment of a “strong” government, revolving around General Hafez al-Assad, starting in 1971 until his death in 2000, when he was succeeded by his son Bashar, has its roots in the instability that had characterised the country since the mid-1940’s. This institutional fragility manifested itself for over 25 years through a series of short-lasting democratic governments, always interrupted by military coups, and dictatorial regimes.
Although Assad belonged to the Alawite minority, he tried to unify Syrian society thanks to a policy of moderation (theorised in the so-called “Correction Movement”) that gradually led him to abandon socialist doctrine. In March 1971, following a popular referendum, General Assad is elected to a seven-year term as President of the Republic, a role that was then institutionalised with the Permanent Constitution that came into force in 1973.

The Syrian Constitution features a long, ideological preamble, followed by four distinct sections (Fundamental Principles; State Powers; Constitutional Revision, General and Transitory Provisions), who are further divided into numerous chapters, for a total of 156 articles.

The first part of the Constitution establishes a republican form of government, within the framework of a “sovereign, democratic, popular, and socialist state”. National sovereignty lies in the people.

The economic principles laid out by the Syrian constitution not only call for the creation of a socialist planned economy, but also for the establishment of “a certain complementarily with the Arab nation”. Three types of property are recognised: the people’s property, which includes all natural resources, state property, state firms, and nationalised firms; collective property, which includes that of professional, corporative, and popular organisations; and finally private property. The Constitution specifies that the social function of private property must be subordinate the needs of public interest and the national economy.

The Constitution divides state powers into executive, legislative, and juridical, in accordance with European constitutional tradition.

The President of the Republic, around whom the state revolves, is elected by universal suffrage to a seven-year term through a referendum.

The President holds executive power, and is responsible for a series of government functions, including foreign affairs, dissolving the People’s Council, and assuming its responsibilities – even if the Council is exercising its functions – in case of a “serious threat to national security”. The powers attributed to the President can also be extended by popular referendum “in case this is necessary for the country’s supreme interest”.

The Council of Ministers is headed by the Prime Minister, answers to the President and serves as the latter’s executive and administrative arm. There are currently 25 ministries that cover every aspect of the public administration. Various vice-ministers are responsible for a number of sectors.

The “People’s Council” is the country’s leading legislative body. Its members (originally 195, but since 1990 that number has been raised to 250) are elected every four years by universal, secret suffrage by citizens over 18 years of age, in 15 electoral districts. The Constitution dictates that at least half the Council seats be held by “workers and peasants”.

The People’s Council’s responsibilities include: nominating the Presidential candidate, voting on laws, discussing government policies, approving budget laws and ratifying international treaties. The Council has the authority to vote on a motion of non-confidence for the government or a single minister, if this is requested by at least one-fifth of its membership.

The Syrian judiciary system rests on an ensemble of laws of Ottoman, French, and Islamic origin. The civil, commercial, and penal codes are still, with some minor changes, those that were promulgated in 1949 and are based on French models. Islamic courts, which act according to sharia (Coranic law), still play a role in certain areas of the country: the jurisdiction is limited to certain specific civil affairs. In 1955, a “Family Code” was promulgated: it improves women’s conditions and clarifies certain procedures related to wills.
The “High Judiciary Council” is the magistrature’s self-governing body; it is made up of elder civil judges and is in charge of nominating, transferring and firing magistrates. Article 131 of the Constitution states that the President of the Republic presides over the Council and guarantees its independence.

The judiciary system includes three instances of judgement, with the addition of the “Tribunals for State Security”. The Court of Cassation is the highest appeals court. Appeals Courts and First Instance Courts are at a lower level. There are also juvenile courts and other special magistratures, including an administrative court known as the “Council of State”.

The 1973 Constitution introduced a “High Constitutional Court” in charge of overseeing electoral procedures and the constitutionality of laws and decrees. The High Court cannot question the validity of laws that the President submits to popular approval through a referendum. The High Court is made up of a president and four judges appointed to four year terms.

Syria is divided in 14 provinces (Mohafaza). Each province is divided into districts (Mantika), which are divided in turn into sub-districts (Nahiya) or counties. Each province is headed by a Governor appointed by the Interior Minister on the indication of the central government. The Governor is assisted by a Provincial Council, whose members are elected by universal suffrage (three quarters of them) or appointed by the Ministry of the Interior and the Governor (the remaining one-quarter). In addition to the Council, each province has an executive arm that includes between 6 and 10 officials chosen among local assembly members and appointed by the central government. Each one of these officials has specific responsibilities. Districts and Sub-districts are run my officials nominated by the provincial Governor with the approval of the Interior Ministry; they work alongside “District Counsellors”. Some members of these assemblies are elected, while others are appointed. They are always run by a mayor; in smaller towns, the mayor also serves as a delegate for the provincial governor.

The Baath Party plays a very important role. In some ways it can be considered an organ of the state. The Baath is a socialist-inspired party (not communist), and it is the source of all political, economic and administrative officials in Syria.

Although Syria formally adopted a Fundamental State Law as early as 1950 (with two more that followed in the next decade, in 1953 and 1958), the continuous clashes between innovators and conservatives and the cumbersome presence of the armed forces thwarted any effort to develop the country’s institutions towards a representative, parliamentary democracy.

Neither the defeat suffered at the hands of Israel in 1973 nor the humiliation caused by the Israeli invasion of Lebanon in 1981 weakened the Syrian regime. Instead, the population saw them as a demonstration of the need to sacrifice democracy and freedom to a “strong” state, capable of projecting maximum power in the conflict against Israel. Dictatorship was thus seen as the main safeguard for national identity and unity.

In any case, the fear of an internal coup led Hafez al-Assad to launch a series of moderate reforms in the mid-1980’s, due also to a severe economic crisis that ended in the early 1990’s. The reforms started with Law n. 10/1991, which encouraged domestic private initiative as well as foreign investments, and were further pursued thanks to Law n. 7/2000, which clarified certain aspects of the preceding law and added a number of measures to ensure its full implementation.

Thanks to these reforms, which led to improved exploitation of agricultural resources and an increase in foreign trade, the regime managed to overcome the crisis of the 1980’s. Syria then solved the Lebanese question by partly occupying its territory – Lebanon became a de facto protectorate – and the international community did not pay much attention to Syria until recent times.
The new Head of State, Bashar al-Assad, was nominated by the People’s Council in July 2000, and the nomination was ratified by a popular referendum. Counting on the support of the security services, he began to prepare the instruments for political and economic liberalisation (“Document on the priorities of government action”, March 4, 2003). Internal obstacles have however prevented him to pursue an overly active policy in this field.

The new President aims to reform the bureaucracy, the banking and foreign exchange systems, and to encourage foreign investment in the country. While he believes that western democracy is not a suitable model for Syria, he would like for Syria to modernise as soon as possible, within the framework of stability that has characterised it since 1971.

Up to now, the only juridical reforms that have been completed have been those suggested by the High Council for Investment, who loosened the bonds that limited foreign investment, through fiscal exemptions and increased freedom of movement for capital. This initiative renewed what had already been called for by Law n. 10/1991. Law n. 24/1986 has been suspended; it called for rather severe penalties for those who did not respect Central Bank dispositions with regards to currency. In March 2001, Syria passed a new Banking Law (Law n. 28/2001) that, for the first time since the early 1960’s, paved the way for the establishment of private banks, either national banks or branches of foreign banks. Another law created a stock exchange, although this has not been implemented yet, due to the fact that analysts unanimously feel that the Syrian market is still not ripe for such an institution.

Few concrete steps have been taken so far in the field of administrative reform: in this field, Syria has so far limited itself to a declaration of intentions rather than drafting a serious action plan. In any case, the main reason behind Syria’s interest in this issue has been the need to improve the workings of the public administration, which are currently hindered by a series of problems, starting with corruption, that adversely affect the entire state apparatus. The Government has charged several of its offices with studying the problem.

The Syrian government, in accordance with the guidelines set by international organisations, has opted for an economic solution rather than a political or administrative one. It has set a number of priorities, such as the fight against corruption, increased human and financial resources for the public administration, modernisation of systems and methodologies, adoption of processes that respect local social and cultural identities, and a rigorous scheduling of reform.

Currently, although the Syrian government is aware of the urgency of reform, it is equally aware of its inability to implement these efforts on its own, since they require a specific strategy based on a well-defined practical and ideological background.

Reforms adopted (or, more frequently, merely planned) so far by the Syrian governments are heading in the right direction according to international analysts. The problem does not lie in the policies themselves, but rather in their implementation, which is usually slow and halting. The government has stated its intention to reform, but at the moment it lacks both an overall programme and a foundation upon which to start working. In recent years Syria has significantly improved its relationship with international organisations (European Union, UN, World Bank, FAO, WTO, IMF) and it has finally begun to benefit from aid linked to specific development programmes (such as MEDA; MEDAdemocracy; Archimedes; EU-Mashrek Partenariat; Capacity 21; Project Tokten; U.N.D.P.). However, much remains to be done. In this framework, Syria’s participation in the “Euro-Mediterranean Partnership” and its gradual integration in international political and economic institutions will surely have positive effects.
Today, the internal and external challenges that Syria has to face seem immense. Nevertheless, the government can still count on an effective control over public opinion and the state apparatus, and on an economic and financial situation that does not seem too compromised. Syria will be able to successfully achieve administrative development only when it will be able to attract know how and financial resources from abroad.

The question of how to finance reforms remains difficult to solve. Even though Syria is not the poorest Middle Eastern country, and even though its financial and economic situation is not particularly serious, reform programmes remain quite costly. Many analysts have suggested that Syria study the efforts undertaken by China (and to a lesser extent Egypt) during the 1990’s, when these countries achieved an economic and administrative transformation, starting from a situation that in the late 1980’s was quite similar to that of today’s Syria.
This analysis of Slovenia’s administrative system begins by examining the official documents of the European Commission on the state of democracy in Croatia that were drafted during the requirement verification process for Slovenia’s entry into the European Union that was agreed upon at the 1993 Copenhagen European Council. These documents provide an important overview over the formation of the Slovenian political and administrative organisation and offer a useful framework for the analysis of the progress made by the Slovenian government in adapting its internal administrative and regulatory systems to the EU membership guidelines.

In general terms, the European Commission gave a positive evaluation on the progress made by Slovenia to bring itself in line with the EU *acquis*, especially in the fields of agriculture, transportation, energy, culture, private sector rights, audio-visual media and telecommunications. Progress has been slower in regional politics, the free movement of people, social policies, employment, consumer rights, and health care.

The European Commission feels that the Slovenian administration’s capacity to implement the *acquis* is drastically improving, thanks to the identification of the institutions in charge of the implementation, control and regulation of the free circulation of goods, telecommunications, culture and audio-visual media.
SLOVENIA

Slovenia’s recent past, like that of all candidates for EU membership, is strongly marked by the European enlargement process, which in Slovenia’s case was launched in 1998 with the presentation on the government’s part of the first preparatory report for membership.

As a part of Slovenia’s process to join the EU, the European Commission is regularly monitoring the country’s on-going transformations, whose significance goes far beyond the mere harmonisation of Slovenia’s juridical and administrative system with that of the EU.

This scenario encompasses both the first steps towards state and administrative reform that Slovenia took right after achieving independence, and the membership application process, which required a renewed commitment to the modernisation of legislation and state organisation.

This process is still on-going, but it has already led to a complete overhaul of the Slovenian administrative system and the redistribution of powers and functions.

The essential characteristics of the institutional framework are as follows: Slovenia – which until June 25 1991 had been a part of the Federal Socialist Republic of Yugoslavia – is a democratic republic based on the rule of law and on social welfare. Its Constitution was adopted on December 23, 1991, and subsequently amended with the Constitutional Laws of July 14, 1997 and July 25, 2000. The Constitution set up a modern democratic constitutional order and set the foundations for a parliamentary government system. The first parliamentary elections took place in December 1992.

The Slovenian Constitution assigns a specific relevance to local governments. Because Slovenia lacks a regional government system, municipalities are the most important territorial units in charge of local matters, on the basis of a new system to organise the public administration and local self-government that came into force on January 1, 1995.

There are currently 193 municipalities in Slovenia, including 11 are urban municipalities, of which the largest is Ljubljana (276.313 inhabitants). The smallest municipality is Hodos with 371 inhabitants.

Slovenia also features a dense network of decentralised ministerial offices. There are currently 58 administrative units as set out in the legislation. Their task is to oversee ministerial activities at the local level, and they also evaluate the legitimacy of the activities of local self-governing units, even within their sphere of competence.

The Slovenian public administration reform and innovation process is managed for the most part by a specific government programme.

Once the transition towards a democratic order had been completed in November 1997, the government approved a special strategic programme for administrative reform in Slovenia, co-ordinated by the “Directorate for the Organisation and Development of the Administration (D.O.D.A.)”, an new ad hoc institution within the Ministry of the Interior.

The programme’s main goals for administrative reform include the following:
- Decentralisation of decision-making processes and devolution of powers to local authorities, leading to increased flexibility in the administrative system;
- Improved performance and adequate control mechanisms, with a consequent increase in staff responsibilities;
- Introduction of competition and of the possibility of choosing between different suppliers of administrative services;
- Professionally controlled public services, tailored to the needs of end users;
- Improvement of working conditions for staff in order to develop a modern human resource management system;
- Optimal use of ICT in the public sector;
- Improvement of legislative quality.

The reform process impacted the entire public administration organisation: administrative management; local self-government; public services; the protection of citizens’ rights; administrative models and techniques; civil administration including training; and public finance.

This strategic programme has accompanied Slovenia in its efforts to bring its institutions in line with European treaties, and has included the harmonisation of Slovenia’s legislation with that of EU countries.

This project is still ongoing. The procedures adopted so far define the duties and responsibilities of the public administration and the relationship between ministries, administrative units, and local communities, and regulate ministry budgets.

The strategic reform design rests upon three pillars: the law on public administration, the law on agencies, and e-government.

The new law on public administration, examined in-depth by the EU report, consolidates and unifies all previous legislation on the public administration and calls for constitutional amendments to complete the laws on government organisation and on the simplification of government nomination procedures that are being approved.

The law on public administration, adopted on June 11, 2002 and in force as of June 28, 2003, defines a framework for a professional, impartial, and responsible public administration; it introduces the distinction between public administration staff and politically appointed officials, calls for career advancement plans and regulates disciplinary procedures.

According to the government’s statements, the public administration reform law’s goals include improving the preparation, skills, and motivations of public sector employees, improving efficiency by making the public administration more accessible to the citizenry, and improving the relationship between administrative staff and their clients.

The law is divided in two parts: the first regards the public sector in its entirety and sets the common principles that regulate collective and individual work responsibilities and relationships; the second part regulates employer-employee relationships for public sector staff and for state and local community employees, in particular with regards to the various sectors of the public administration.

In January 2001 Slovenia adopted the “Good conduct code” that sets out standards of behaviour that public sector employees must conform to. These codes, as well as the recent law on public administration personnel, include anti-corruption norms, which are estimated to have a significant impact on administrative organisation.

The Administration Academy was set up in January 1997. It is responsible for training public administration personnel, organising training seminars and evaluating the skills of newly hired staff.
The Academy falls under the responsibility of the Ministry of the Interior and is located at Transferrina University. It includes the “Institute for local self-government”, the “Institute for the use of new technologies in the public administration”, and the “Research institute for public sector economics, organisation, and information science”.

In line with the reform needs of the Slovenian public administration, since 1997 the Academy has adopted the most modern training methods as suggested by the Council of Europe, and has begun collaborative efforts with training centres in other countries.

The law on public agencies of May 31, 2002 is also an important element of Slovenia’s strategic plan. It regulates these new entities along principles of autonomy. The law creates these new agencies for areas of activity and for tasks where the European Community acquis requires the introduction of independent, financially autonomous regulatory bodies in order to apply the new principles behind the public administration.

The “E-government action plan until 2004” and the “Strategy for e-commerce in public administration in the Republic of Slovenia in the period 2001-2004” complete the administrative reform process.

The first document, adopted in February 2001, includes the strategic guidelines for computerising the Slovenian public administration for the period 2001-2004. These guidelines aim to bring Slovenia in line with other European countries that are pursuing similar strategies.

The plan aims to fully realise e-government’s potential for the development of the Slovenian public administration and for improving service quality and efficiency. The plan defines key areas and projects that need to be implemented in order to achieve a wide array of general objectives.

The initial phase of the plan – which referred to the introduction of information services – was implemented with relative ease, since it did not require specific changes in the way administrations work and in their internal procedures. Slovenia achieved positive results in this field: users can access useful information on-line for different administrative procedures, find solutions to complete paperwork and procedures and communicate more easily with the relevant administrative office.

The implementation of the second plan – which deals with the development of e-commerce – will allow the Slovenian public administration to orient the strategic choices of economic operators, to gain familiarity with market mechanisms and to improve economic performance.

Slovenia earmarked significant funds for this effort and adopted two important measures, the first on e-commerce and the second on electronic signatures, in line with European legislation.

Within the framework of the 2001 strategy on EU enlargement, in spring 2002 the European Commission and Slovenia jointly elaborated an action plan to strengthen Slovenia’s administrative and judiciary capabilities. The goal of this plan is to provide Slovenia, upon its entry in the EU, with the adequate administrative and judicial capabilities to handle the transition, including aid targeted to crucial sectors to ensure the efficient functioning of a wider Europe.

The action plan is a strategic instrument that significantly impacts many aspects of administrative life and the administration’s relationship with the citizenry and the private sector. Like all the other candidates for EU membership, Slovenia enjoyed the support of the pre-accession instruments financed by the European Commission for the period 2000-2002. These instruments include:

Phare programme: total annual aid to Slovenia amounts to about € 25 million (with an additional € 16.9 million in 2002);
Slovenia

Sapard programme: total aid to Slovenia amounts to € 6.5 million
Ispa programme: total aid to Slovenia amounts to about € 21 million.
These three programmes aim to support political reform and the economic and social
transition phase. They had a significant impact on the private sector and encouraged
exchanges and relations between Slovenia and foreign entrepreneurs. They also strengthened
Slovenia’s administrative and management capabilities in terms of investment support.
Starting in 1987, Tunisia launched an important reform project that focuses on economic development and administrative reform. This last issue in particular is an indispensable condition for achieving development. Over the last few years, Tunisia has opened up its economy, thus improving performance. Thanks to its proximity to the huge European market, Tunisia has confirmed its willingness to host foreign firms and entrepreneurs. Indeed, Tunisian authorities have created a politically and socially stable framework much appreciated by foreign investors. The cornerstones of this framework include: legislation that favours the private sector, a series of simplified administrative procedures, easy access to financing, training for economic operators, etc. Tunisia was the first Mediterranean country to sign an Association Agreement with the EU, on July 17, 1995. This Agreement replaces the former Co-operation Agreements. The new
The Tunisian administrative protocol introduces many of the elements included in the Euro-Mediterranean partnership strategy. In particular, the new protocol introduces clauses on democratic principles and human rights, political dialogue, free trade, cooperation in the economic, financial, social and cultural fields, and the creation of an Association Council. The Tunisian authorities are well aware of the country’s economic achievements and would like to maintain them. They have therefore launched a policy to strengthen the administrative reforms of the last 10-15 years. These reforms are at the root of Tunisia’s social and economic renaissance in 2000.

The Tunisian administrative structure is made up of three levels: central, intermediate and local. At the central level, there are 21 Ministries, organised into general directorates in accordance with the French administrative model.

The Ministry in charge of the public administration and its reform is responsible for the following offices:

- General Directorate for the Public Administration
- General Directorate for Administrative Reform
- Central Office for Citizen Relations
- Directorate for Public Service Quality

The intermediate level includes 23 Governorates that have political representation at the central government level. In 2002 the Council of Regions was created. It is a consultative body in charge of suggesting to the President and the Prime Ministers which activities are needed in order to give local administrations increased financial and decision-making autonomy.

The local level revolves around municipalities. Each municipality is headed by a President elected to a five year term.

Tunisia’s administrative experience is an extremely interesting reference point, as it constitutes a link between the administrative cultures of the global north and of the global south. Starting in the 1980’s, Tunisia’s administration has tried to follow a pragmatic path focusing on economic and social development. After the initial phase, administrative reform became a permanent goal for public administration officials. Indeed, in 1980 the Ministry for Public Administration and Administrative Reform was created specifically in order to meet these needs.

In fact, Tunisia began to modernise even before the end of the colonial period in 1956. As a consequence of this, the adjustment process of the 1980’s was less traumatic for administrative structures: the acceptance of juridical positivism and secularism, the experience of the state administration, and the discovery and application of political liberalism have allowed Tunisia to tackle administrative modernisation more successfully than the other countries of the Maghreb.

The problems faced by the administration in the 1980’s come from different sources: overlapping (many administrative units belonging to different generations are in charge of the same issues), centralisation (leading to calls for decentralisation and deconcentration), and the multiplication of units charged with specific tasks (such as mortgage banks or the Office for Urban Rehabilitation and Renewal – ARRU).

There is a pressing need for the effective decentralisation of local communities, for deconcentration in the central administration, for a simplification of procedures and controls, and for better definition of administrative authority and responsibilities.

The analysis of problems related to administrative organisation focuses on two sectors; the central administration and the external services. Deconcentration and decentralisation are
gradually being introduced, since administrative decisions – especially in matters of social and economic development – are still taken exclusively by the central administration, which remains the centre of gravity for the entire system.

In 1987, Tunisia launched a vast programme of economic and administrative reforms, focusing on strengthening market mechanisms and on opening its economy to foreign markets. The reform’s main goals were private sector development and the improvement of living conditions for Tunisia’s citizens.

The successive partnership agreement with the European Community showed that economic renewal cannot take place without input from the public administration. In 1996, a renewal plan for the administration (PMNA, Plan de Mise à Niveau de l’Administration) was designed in order to re-build the administration with the goal of creating a support structure for economic development within a context of increasing international competition.

During the 1990’s, the pace of administrative reform increased significantly as Tunisia focuses on strengthening the bases of a modern administration that fulfils its duties competently and efficiently while establishing a trust-based relationship with the citizenry. This process quickened in the late 1990’s with the 9th Development Plan, whose implementation coincided with the renewal of the administrative programmes adopted by the various departments. The 9th Development Plan encompassed numerous administrative sectors and activities, including structural re-organisation and better definition of responsibilities, modernisation in the ICT sector, and a clearer division of roles between regional and central administrations and between the latter and the private sector.

The Plan achieved a qualitative improvement of both central and local administration. Additionally, public service quality was improved along with the relationship between the public administration and the citizenry.

Within this framework, a series of measures and regulations proved particularly useful in reaching the desired level of efficiency and efficacy. In particular, these measures focused on:

- consolidating the trust between citizens and the administration by improving welcoming and orientation procedures, in recognition of the role they play in determining the image of the administration.
- improving service quality as a way to support the principle of free exercise of economic and social activities: this led to the abolition of over 60% of authorisations and the institution of a single act for the creation of individual firms through the designation of the tax collector as the single interlocutor and the replacement of old procedures with a single declaration; the simplification of service provision criteria; the creation of a quality system for public services (based on international ISO norms) and its experimentation in administrative services in the economic sector;
- bringing administrative services closer to the citizenry by strengthening decentralisation and deconcentration: this includes the creation of new structures such as the Manouba governorate and various new municipalities, the transfer of additional responsibilities to regions, and the strengthening of regional and local structures thanks to additional human or material resources. These efforts were intensified during the reform implementation phase, in particular thanks to the use of modern techniques for the long-distance provision of administrative services (such as the electronic exchange of information - Liasse Unique project-, the computerisation of the civil status registry, the e-commerce project and the e-currency and virtual desks projects, which allow for the electronic payment
of gas, water, electric and telephone bills as well as subscription, sale, or purchasing procedures).

- re-organising public services and improving administrative action by adopting organisation charts for ministries, reforming archives, adopting a modern administrative document management system, setting up numerous national observatories specialising in analysing and evaluating the performance of certain sensitive sectors, and encouraging consultation in administrative actions.

- promoting human resources, especially with regards to their role in the success of the administrative modernisation process, the improvement in service quality and the elimination of the causes of administrative sluggishness.

When the Tunisian administrative renewal project (PMNA) was launched in 1996, the country took normative, programmatic and concrete steps, characterised by the application of ITC.

This phase aims to “even out” administrative structures through a programme set by decree n°96-49 of January 16, 1996.

At the central level the programme includes: consolidating several national projects to computerise the administration; revising current legislative and regulatory texts; a series of reforms that interest public sector staff (statutes, social security, etc.); reforms on working methodologies; and reforms to improve the relationship between the administration and its end users.

At the ministerial level, the programme includes: computerisation of all ministries; training programmes in ICT for all public sector personnel; identification of responsibilities that can be delegated to the regions; identification of private sector responsibilities; application of goal-based management rules; publication of handbooks for each ministry; adaptation of human resources to the real needs of the administration; simplification of procedures in each ministry; normalisation of administrative printed matter; and a conservation programme for documents and archives.

Within the public administration renewal framework, the following actions have been taken: reduction of authorisations (60% of which have either been substitute by the so-called cahiers de charges or abolished altogether); identification of a single interlocutor for investors who want to set up individual projects; creation of a quality system based on international ISO 9000 norms for several pilot projects in light of a future wide-scale implementation of such norms; creation of a regional administrative mediator.

In parallel with this, Tunisia had to create support and piloting structures to ensure control over the various planning procedures: the Secretary of State for Administrative Reform, who answers to the Prime Minister’s Office; the Secretary of State for ICT and the Internet; the Strategic Programming Committee; the National Commission for the normalisation of administrative printed matter.

Tunisia achieved excellent results with regards to several projects to computerise the administration. The country adopted a strategy to facilitate Internet access and promote the use of ICT. This strategy is based on several high-impact pilot projects and promotes the general use of ICT in all administrative functions.

The main pilot projects include:

- MEDENIA: this project abolishes territorial competence and aims to build an ICT network to link all municipalities in order to allow citizens to access civil status documents in any municipality anywhere in the country;

- SICAD: this is the administrative information and communication system that informs users on the services provided by the administration. For each service, the system
- provides information on administrative procedures and requirements, deadlines, and relevant legislation and regulations. This system is currently on-line.
- SIGER: this system is in charge of the management of citizens requests deposited in public relations offices.
- The Virtual Showroom of the Agency for Industry Promotion offers information on investment and partnership opportunities in the industrial sector, on training courses for budding entrepreneurs, and on studies on communication and competitiveness.
- E-Dinar: virtual currency used to make long-distance payments to the administration for services including university fees, public transportation passes, donations to the national solidarity fund, and payment of electric, gas, and telephone bills and other services provided by the post office.
The Republic of Turkey was proclaimed on October 29, 1923 following the fall of the Ottoman Empire after its defeat during World War One. The Ottoman Empire had been in decline for several centuries, and could not keep up with industrial and scientific developments. During WWI, the core of the empire rose up against the occupying powers and the Sultan and launched a war of liberation which led to the institution of the Republic, the international recognition of the new state and the delimitation of new borders, with the Lausanne peace treaty of July 24, 1923.

Under the government of Mustafa Kemal Ataturk and with a different political system, Turkey began a modernisation process starting with administrative and institutional reforms. Thanks to its position at the crossroads of Asia and Europe, and to its mix of European, Balkan, Mediterranean, Middle Eastern, Caucasian, and Asian identities, Turkey launched a multi-dimensional foreign policy
aiming to establish good relations with countries on both continents and focusing on international co-operation.

The new course taken by Turkish politics evidenced the need for “good governance”, meaning a responsible government that takes into account institutions, traditions, citizen participation and efficient administrative actions.

In this context, good governance means:
- re-organising the fundamental functions of the public administration according to a welfare state model: equal opportunity access to education, health care and social services for all citizens;
- re-organising the administrative structure and paying attention to macro-economic problems: efficient regulation and administration of economic and environmental issues and of social conflicts, with a focus on sustainable development;
- Participation in the political life and decision making processes of municipalities and local communities.

Government modalities in Turkey changed significantly over the last decade, following efforts to increase democracy and develop relations with the European Union, and the problems caused by economic fluctuations and natural disasters such as earthquakes.

Turkey’s application for EU membership, taken during the December 1999 Helsinki Summit, has been the main impetus for the reform effort.

The first consequence of this has been the increased attention that is being paid to transparency in regulations and political decision making.

Turkey’s first Constitution dates back to 1924.

It is inspired on the principle of sovereign nationality present in the 1921 Ottoman Constitution that incorporates both legislative and executive power. The Assembly could remove the Government from power, but neither the Government nor the President could dissolve the Assembly. The Assembly exercised its executive power through the Council of Ministers and its Presidents.

The second Constitution was adopted in 1961 and was based on the concept of the social state. It introduced a bi-cameral parliamentary system. The lower house was made up of 450 representatives elected by universal suffrage, while the Senate included 150 members elected by universal suffrage as well as 15 additional members appointed by the President, the members of the National Unity Committee, and former Presidents. The President represented national unity. The 1961 Constitution introduced the separation of the executive, legislative, and judiciary powers, and created the Constitutional Court.

The third Constitution was adopted in 1982 and is still in effect. It affirms national sovereignty. It calls for the TGNA (Turkish Grand National Assembly) to take its decisions on a majority basis, and that decisions cannot be taken with a quorum inferior to one-quarter of the members plus one. The third Constitution abolished the Senate. Executive functions are exercised by the President and the Council of Ministers, while an independent Court holds judiciary powers.

Article 2 describes the Republic as a democratic, secular, social state governed by the rule of law. The President of the Republic is the Head of State and represents national unity. He is elected to a seven year term by a two-thirds majority of the TGNA, and cannot be re-elected. He has legislative, executive and judiciary functions. With regards to his legislative functions, he convokes the TGNA, publishes laws or sends them back to Parliament for further discussions or to call for a referendum in the case of constitutional amendments or to set up constitutional judgements.

The Prime Minister is appointed by the President of the Republic and chosen among the members of the TGNA. He is responsible for the workings of the Council of Ministers and for verifying government policy. Each Minister answers to him. The Prime Minister also participates to the National Security Council, along with the Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff, the Minister of
Defence, the Minister of the Interior, the Foreign Minister, and the Commanders of the Army, the Navy, the Air Force and the Gendarmerie.

The Council of Ministers is made up of the Council President and the Ministers he/she nominates, who are then appointed by the President of the Republic. The Ministers can be relieved of their duties by the President at the Prime Minister’s request.

The Council presents the government programme to the TGNA, which then votes on its approval. The entire Council is responsible for government policy, and each Minister is also responsible for his/her ministry.

The current organisation is still based on the French system that was imported in 1930. The Turkish government remains highly centralised. The Ministry of the Interior is in charge of feasibility studies for administrative reform. Administrative organisation is laid out in the relevant legislation.

The central administration includes 15 Ministries:

The will to modernise the economic sector is evidenced by the creation of “independent committees”, of which the Capital Market Committee was the first such example (there are now about a dozen such committees). These committees are staffed by bureaucrats and technical experts, independent from the political government, whose tasks include the regulation of numerous sectors, including tobacco, telecommunications (radio and television), and free markets and competition.

This model is shared by many EU countries, particularly Italy: these are authorities that are independent from the government and that have the technical and professional skills necessary for regulating complex, economically important sectors, thus by-passing traditional administrative bureaucracies.

Turkey is divided into 80 provinces, sub-divided into administrative districts. The districts are subdivided into municipalities and villages. The organisation of local administrations is regulated by law.

According to research undertaken by the Centre for Administrative Innovation in the Euro-Mediterranean Region and the report it issued in May 2003, the following administrative structure emerges:

The Turkish Republic is divided into 80 provinces (iller).

Communes are public corporative entities, whose tasks include guaranteeing the rule of law, collecting communal taxes, and supplying public services such as drinking water, gas, electricity, and local transportation. The reform effort calls for assigning further responsibilities to local bodies, in sectors such as health care, education, and national transportation.

Each Commune has an Assembly, a Council and a Mayor.

The Communal Assembly is elected by popular vote. It approves the annual budget, programmes, projects related to public works and city planning and sets various taxes and tariffs.

The Communal Council is made up of the Mayor, by the heads of the communal departments and by the members of the Assembly, who are elected with the proportional system. Its tasks include setting prices, determining tariffs on transports, and taking decisions on hiring and promoting commune employees. The Mayor is elected by a simple majority, represents the Commune and remains in charge for five years.

Provinces are also corporative entities and are regulated by the March 26, 1913 law.

They have responsibilities in sectors including health care, social assistance, public works, culture, training, agriculture and livestock, as well as having economic and commercial functions.

The Governor represents the central administration and heads the province and its executive power.
The Provincial General Assembly is elected to a four-year term with the proportional system, with a minimum cut-off of 10%. It approves the provincial budget has authority over the province’s institutional services.

The Provincial Council – made up of four members appointed to one-year terms by the Provincial General Assembly – controls and approves fiscal procedures, informs the Provincial General Assembly on the state of provincial organisation, and presents the Mayor, upon request, with observations on local administrative actions.

Villages are corporative entities made up of at least 150 people with property in common (land, grazing areas, schools).

The main administrative entity is the Village Assembly, which chooses its chief (Muhtar, in charge for 5 years) and the Council members.

The Council issues recommendations regarding the village’s affairs and plans its activities. The head of the village presides over the village’s projects and services.

There are also some public administrative institutions whose goal is to ensure quality in the management of certain public services performed by central authorities. The personnel of these institutions are under the direct control of central authorities: the state nominates the general director. These institutions include: Directorate General of Foundations, Directorate General of Physical Training, Highway Administration, Directorate General of State Hydraulic works, D. General of State Monopolies, Forest Administration, Directorate General of State Breeding Farms, Directorate General of State Airports and Department of Petroleum.

The reform of local entities that began in 1998 has not yet been completed, and involves both the repartition of power between the centre and the periphery, and the privatisation of services. A significant step towards decentralisation was the involvement at the political level of municipalities in the development programme.

In terms of transparency, the most relevant results have to do with increased possibilities for citizens to be aware of political decisions. Several Ministries have decided to publish their legislative efforts on the Web. The January 12, 2002 Council of Ministers decision approved the “Action Plan for Increased Transparency and Efficient Public Administration in Turkey”, which calls for live broadcasts of parliamentary sessions on Turkish television, the publication of bills of law and laws dealing with public budget certification on the Parliament’s website, and the localnet project, which links 3216 local entities.

The Agenda 21 Programme, adopted by the UN Earth Summit (Habitat 2) in Rio de Janeiro in 1992, has played a fundamental role in the Turkish reform programme with regards to the sustainable development sector. During the City Summit that took place in Istanbul in 1996, the achievements of 85 Agenda 21 countries were incorporated into a UNDP international programme in order to encourage co-operation between the public sector, civil society, and the private sector. Turkey’s participation in the programme has led to a greater emphasis on peripheral administrations and their responsibilities, with a division of powers between the central administration and local administrations.

The implementation of Agenda 21 in Turkey has also facilitated the implementation of Article 13 of the Municipal Law, which calls for public participation in local administrations.

In late 1997, Turkey launched a project called “Promotion and Development of Local Agenda 21”. The project is managed by the International Union of Local Authorities – Regional Organisation for the Eastern Mediterranean and Middle East and is financed by the UNDP.

Originally the project included nine cities that were chosen according to geographic and political criteria in order to achieve a fair representation of the country. Due to the project’s success, at the
end of the year 23 cities were involved. The project document was published on the Official Gazette on March 6, 1998 and the project’s revision, involving even more cities, was announced on the Official Gazette on February 8, 1999.

In terms of public services, Turkey launched a public infrastructure modernisation policy, especially in the health care and education sectors: several public hospitals, for which the Ministry for Health, Education, Social Security and Universities is responsible, have received ISO 9001 and 9002 certificates.

Currently, the privatisation of public services is being hotly debated.

In 1959, Turkey asked to join the one-year-old European Economic Community. The EEC proposed the creation of an association until Turkey had reached the conditions necessary for membership. On September 12, 1963 the Ankara Agreement created a Turkey-EEC Association, which came into being on December 1, 1964. The Agreement was directed towards full integration with the EEC, starting with the creation of a Customs Union. The Association is headed by Turkish and EU ministers. The Ankara Agreement called for the free exchange of goods, people, and capital, but excluded Turkey from European decision-making processes and from the possibility of appealing to the ECJ for solving controversies. Furthermore, it called for collaboration on commercial matters, and the EEC committed itself to furnishing economic aid to Turkey.

During the period 1963-1970, with the First Financial Protocol, the EEC loaned Turkey 175 million ECU. The co-operation did not reach its expected results. In any case, the EEC’s share in Turkish imports rose from 29% in 1963 to 42% in 1972. Furthermore, the Customs Union led to the adoption of a common tariff for developing country imports, and the harmonisation with the European internal market system.

The Ankara Agreement is still the legal basis for the Association between Turkey and the EU.

On November 13, 1970, the Additional Protocol cleared up the modalities for the creation of the Customs Union. It established that the EEC and Turkey would abolish quantitative and tariff barriers for its imports from Turkey (with a few exceptions such as manufacturing goods) once the Protocol came into being, and that Turkey would proceed to harmonise its legislation with EU legislation on economic matters. Furthermore, the Protocol calls for the free circulation of people between the EU and Turkey for the next 12-22 years.

The Additional Protocol led to significant advantages for Turkey’s agricultural exports to the EEC.

Turkey moved its economic policies away from an autarchic model, and opened up its economy to market forces. The abolition of barriers, within the harmonisation process, took place on January 24, 1980.
The September 12, 1980 military coup in Turkey marked a freeze in relations with Europe, which went back to normal after the multi-party elections in 1983.

In light of these new positive developments, Turkey applied for “full membership” in 1987, on the basis of article 237 of the EEC Treaty. Turkey’s application followed the procedures that were called for in the Treaty of Rome. The Council also forwarded Turkey’s request to the commission to prepare an opinion. A similar request on Morocco’s part was rejected by the Council on the grounds that Morocco is not a European country.

The Commission’s Opinion was completed on December 18, 1989 and approved by the Council on February 5, 1990. It stressed Turkey’s eligibility for membership, but delayed a more in-depth analysis of Turkey’s application to a more favourable moment. It also stated that Turkey’s entry into the EC was hindered by the EC’s situation at the eve of the introduction of the Single Market, which made it impossible for the moment to consider further expansion. It also insisted on the need for a vast co-operation programme and added that the Customs Union would have to be completed by 1995, as was agreed. Turkey was not successful in its application, but there was a rapprochement.

When the Customs Union came into being, custom fees and equivalent measures for the import of industrial products from the EU were abolished. Furthermore, Turkey began to set its tariffs on third world industrial imports in accordance with the EU’s Common Foreign Tariff.

Indeed, customs fees for industrial products that had been set at 5.9% were abolished, while tariffs for similar products imported from third world countries dropped to 6% from 10.8%. These tariffs will fall to 3.5% once the EU meets its obligations to the WTO.

Although agricultural goods were excluded from the initial customs agreement, a preferential commercial system was adopted for the agricultural market on January 10, 1998. Further efforts are planned to bring Turkey in line with the Common Agricultural Policy.

In order to achieve further harmonisation with European market rules, Turkey created a Special Authority for Competitiveness.

The renewal programme includes the following sectors:
- Commercial state monopolies, in order to make sure that there are no discrepancies in how goods are produced and sold between Turkey and the EU;
- Standardisation, calibration, quality, crediting, testing, and certification.

The harmonisation of Turkish legislation with EU legislation for cultural, industrial and commercial goods is about to be achieved thanks to laws to protect the consumer that are currently being drafted.

Along with the Customs Union, measures are being planned to integrate other sectors such as industrial co-operation, trans-European networks, energy, transportation, telecommunications, agriculture, environment, science, statistics as well as issues relation to justice and national affairs, consumer protection, cultural co-operation, information, etc...

Turkey has paid particular attention to the current EU expansion process, having played a key role in the dismantling of the Soviet bloc. Nevertheless, with Agenda 2000, the European Commission still excluded Turkey from its expansion plans, and set further conditions in terms of trade liberalisation and consumer protection.

The integration process slowed down when Turkey failed to attend the inaugural meeting of the European Conference, held in London on March 12, 1998.
During the Cardiff Summit of June 15-16, 1998, the Commission’s European Strategy was approved along with the request to make the necessary financial resources available in order to implement this strategy. Nevertheless, the report drafted by the Turkish Foreign Ministry highlighted the difficulties arising out of Greece’s obstructionism.

During the European Council in Köln on June 3-4, 1999, the German Presidency took the initiative to ensure the recognition of Turkey’s candidacy, but did not have a successful outcome.

In light of the Helsinki European Council of 10-11 December 1999, the Commission issued a favourable report on the progress made by Turkey towards entry into Europe.

The Helsinki European Council marked a turning point in EU-Turkish relations. In Helsinki, Turkey was officially recognised, without preconditions, as a full-fledged candidate for membership. While Turkey’s candidature was being recognised, the Conclusions of the Presidency of the Helsinki European Council confirmed the Commission’s proposals made on October 13, 1999. Turkey, like the other candidates, could thus benefit from a pre-membership strategy to stimulate and support its reform efforts. Furthermore, plans were afoot to create a single institution that would co-ordinate all EU financial assistance.

In accordance with the directives of the Helsinki European Council, the European Commission adopted the guidelines for an Accession Partnership with Turkey on March 8, 2001. The Turkish government announced its National Plan for the adoption of the EU acquis on March 26, 2001: it contains short- and medium-term priorities.

The Council of the Turkey-EEC Association and the community’s institutions are in constant contact. The Council of the Association met three times in Luxembourg, on April 11, 2000, June 26, 2001 and April 16, 2002. During the April 11, 2000 meeting, 8 sub-committees were created in order to undertake a critical analysis of the level of harmonisation. During the meetings, Turkey was granted full access to TAIEX. Furthermore, plans were made to create consulting units that should meet regularly in order to discuss matters related to the Consumer Union.

In order for Turkey to become a member of the EU, the country’s political organisation must also be brought into line with the EU. Efforts in this field include:

- Re-examination of the Constitution: 34 articles of the Turkish Constitution were amended in 2001. These Constitutional amendments touch upon a wide series of issues, such as improvements in human rights, strengthening the role of the legislature and re-structuring democratic institutions;
- adopting a new Civil Code, which came into force on January 1, 2002 and which introduced significant improvements with regards to the right of free assembly and association, as well as the equality of the sexes and protection of children’s rights; these reform efforts were supplemented by three legislative packets (February, April and August 2002) on the death penalty and on freedom of speech.

The new government that was formed after the general elections of November 3, 2002 prepared two more legislative agreements. The first was the so-called Copenhagen Agreement. It was presented to Parliament on December 3, 2002 with the goal of consolidating the reform process and eliminating ambiguities. With the
adoption of this agreement, all the legal obstacles for accusing public officials that are suspected of using torture will be removed. In fact, Turkey has banned all mistreatments on the part of public officials.

The second packet of reforms was presented to Parliament on December 4, 2002. It included the extension of second-degree judgement principles on the basis of the sentences of the European Court for Human Rights. This principle had already been introduced as a part of the reform packet presented on August 3, 2002. This packet also revoked the judiciary procedures taken against university students in 2001, along with related documents. It is hoped that Parliament will adopt this packet as soon as possible.

Several steps have been taken to facilitate EU assistance to Turkey for its membership application process. The State Minister and Deputy Prime Minister in charge of EU affairs was appointed “Coordinator for National Assistance” and charged with ensuring EU concessions to the Accession Partnership and to National Programme priorities. Turkey also created a “Committee for Financial Co-operation” charged with setting priorities, preparing annual financial plans and making sure that available resources are allocated according to existing priorities. The Committee is staffed by representatives of the Foreign Affairs Ministry, the Ministry of Finance, and the Ministry for the Organisation of State Planning, as well as members of the General Secretariat for the EU and the Under-Secretariat for the Treasury. A “National Fund” is currently being created within the Under-Secretariat for the Treasury. All EU funds will be transferred to this National Fund, and the sitting State Minister for the Economy has been appointed as the head of the National Authority that will administer this fund. Finally, a “Contracts and Central Finance Unit” is about to be created. It will be in charge of the entire budget, offers, contracts, payments, accounting and financial relations regarding procurements made with EU funds.
The Government of Italy, represented by the then-Minister of the Italian Public Administration Mr. Franco Frattini, and the United Nations, represented by Mr. Guido Bertucci, signed a Memorandum of Understanding on 21 May 2002 in order to promote exchange of innovation in public administration, pursuant to resolution 50/225, through the Department of Economic and Social Affairs (UNDESA) and Formez-Training and Studies Centre- for the implementation of the “Centre for Administrative Innovation in the Euro-Mediterranean Region” located in Naples, Italy.

Centro di Formazione Studi (Formez) is an Italian national agency that assists the Italian Department of Public Administration in the coordination of training policies within the public sector. In view of its experience and mandate, particularly with regard to sustaining public administrative reform processes and strengthening capacities of regions and local entities, Formez was identified, in the framework of the above mentioned Memorandum, as the institution having the appropriate know-how to host the Centre.

Objective of C.A.I.MED.
The objective of the Centre is to promote the sharing of knowledge and experiences in the theory and practice of public administration between Europe and the Mediterranean region. This is with a view towards assisting the countries of the Mediterranean region in their process of public administration reform and promoting their progressive harmonization with models, good practices and innovations observed in European and international administrative systems. By encouraging exchange of information and developments, the Centre will also assist the above countries to have a better knowledge of the European Union (EU) decisional and administrative procedures and legal framework. At the same time, the Centre will encourage the Mediterranean countries to benefit from experience and lessons learned in other countries of the region. The Centre will therefore assist public administrators of the Euro-Mediterranean countries in the development of cooperation models aimed at stimulating vertical as well as horizontal (South-South) collaboration in administrative innovation processes, programmes and projects.

Areas of concentration C.A.I.MED
The Memorandum of Understanding signed UNDESA and Formez will jointly implement programmes and projects in the following areas:

a) Research on the harmonization between national systems of public administration and on comparative public administrative law.

b) Development of and experimentation with new modalities of work in public administration.

c) Development of and experimentation with new modalities and technologies for the provision of public services to citizens.

d) Promotion of capacity building and training of officials responsible for these functions.
e) Promotion of sharing of knowledge, techniques and experiences with other countries, particularly developing countries, in the context of cooperation between Europe and the Mediterranean Region.

f) Inventory of pilot experiences in developing countries. This will include field visits of staff from UNDESA/DPADM and Formez to other countries, and reciprocally to the Centre, which has relevant experience in public administrative reform.

g) Preparation of training packages on innovations in public administration.

h) Creation of an on-line network through the Internet and UNPAN that will be fed by ongoing inputs from sub-regional, local/national, interregional institutions. This network will be a useful tool for the dissemination of best practices in public administration as well as for distance learning and lifelong learning.

i) Mobilization of high-level expertise to organize international workshops, seminars and training activities.

j) Dissemination of the results of the work of the Centre.

**Beneficiaries**

The direct beneficiary countries have been selected following the criteria used by the World Bank in its classification of developing countries:

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<th>Albania</th>
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<td>Serbia and Montenegro</td>
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<td>Republic of Macedonia</td>
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Beneficiaries and partners of Centre activities will be any other countries of the Mediterranean Region, such as: Cyprus, Israel, Malta, Slovenia- France, Greece, Italy, Portugal, Spain.

The activities will be implemented with reference to the following sub-regional areas: the Balkans, Middle East, Northern Africa.

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Steering Committee

According to the Memorandum of Understanding (MOU) between the United Nations and the Government of Italy for the Promotion of Exchange of Innovation in Public Administration between Europe and the Mediterranean Region, a Steering Committee, including a representative of the Minister of Public Administration of Italy, the Director of the Division for Public Administration and Development Management of the United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, and the Director of Formez, will monitor the implementation of the activities carried out by CAIMED. Multilateral institutions cooperating in the Project could join the Steering Committee, upon approval of its members, as appropriate.

The current members of the Steering Committee are as follows:

**Guido Bertucci**
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United Nations

**Carlo Lefebvre**
Director  
Formez - Centro Formazione Studi

**Antonio Naddeo**
Minister's Cabinet Under-secretary  
Dipartimento della Funzione Pubblica

**Sergio Barbanti**
Diplomatic Adviser to the Minister  
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