International Regulatory Co-operation

THE ROLE OF INTERNATIONAL ORGANISATIONS IN FOSTERING BETTER RULES OF GLOBALISATION

OECD

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OECD
BETTER POLICIES FOR BETTER LIVES

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Preface

The greatest challenges countries face today transcend national borders. The threats posed by climate change, health epidemics, terrorism, tax evasion, illicit financial flows, as well as social and economic crises all have global causes and effects. A multilateral approach is essential in delivering a sustainable world economy.

It is true that in recent years, we have made great progress in fostering international consensus and action in a number of areas: 2015 saw major agreements on the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and on climate change at COP21, to name just two notable examples. At the same time, many countries are experiencing mounting nationalism and facing the concerns of those who feel left behind by globalisation.

In this context, international organisations have a key role to play in promoting multilateral solutions, while respecting the specificities of individual nations. They are well-placed to help governments address the fragmentation that can undermine domestic and regional action, while their institutional setting allows countries to work together to develop joint approaches. The technical expertise of international organisations can also support policy makers to identify and deliver ambitious, innovative and tailored policy responses.

However, despite this obvious potential, international organisations may be limited in their ability to deliver on their mandate for a variety of reasons. They can be burdened by excessive procedures. They may in some instances lack effectiveness or coordination. Ultimately, structured evidence on their impacts remains limited, casting doubt on the relevance of their action.

International Regulatory Co-operation: The Role of International Organisations seeks to fill this gap and to set out the practices and impacts of today's most prominent global standard setters. The study has built on the inputs and co-operation of 50 international organisations to collect, compare and assess practices on governance arrangements, operational modalities, use of quality management disciplines and co-operation efforts. To account for the variety of today's global standard setting, the report analyses different types of organisations – inter-governmental, supra-national, trans-governmental and private – and identifies avenues for making their action more effective, inclusive and relevant.

The study reveals the diversity of international organisations involved in standard-setting and rule-making activities. However, it also underlines the significant commonalities embedded in international rule-making: the increasing reliance on non-binding instruments; the need for greater inclusiveness, transparency and relevance in an ever changing world; the difficulties of monitoring implementation and evaluating the impacts of international standards and legal instruments. Ultimately, despite the great variety of mandates and the scope of actions, international organisations operate in an institutionally-crowded area, in which relevance, flexibility, focus and efficiency are a concern for all.

At the OECD, we believe that it should be the strategic priority of all international organisations to strengthen the impacts and outcomes of the standards they produce and to identify areas where new or revised global standards are needed. To address this challenge, we have launched a comprehensive review of the OECD's legal instruments with a view to ensuring they continue to offer relevant and effective standards and best practices and to respond, in a timely manner, to the needs of governments.

The evidence provided by the study, together with the five case studies detailing the governance and activities of the Food and Agriculture Organisation of the United Nations (FAO); the International Organisation for Standardization (ISO); the International Organisation of Legal Metrology (OIML), the United Nations Economic Commission for Europe (UNECE) and the World Health Organisation (WHO), is an important step in helping us understand how we can improve our contribution to a prosperous, inclusive and sustainable world.

Collectively, international organisations across the globe can build on their respective experience in standard setting, coordinate their action and combine their technical expertise to remain relevant on the global scale. It is our shared responsibility to rebuild trust in the international architecture and in its capacity to deliver better policies for better lives.

Angel Gurría,

OECD Secretary-General

Foreword

This report examines the contribution of international organisations (IOs) to establishing global rules and standards, building on information collected from 50 IOs. Together with case studies and discussions among IOs held by the OECD in 2014-16, it aims to help policy makers, IO management and stakeholders understand the contribution of IOs to establishing global rules and standards and opportunities for improvement.

With the growing movement of goods, services, people and capital and the radical transformation brought out by new technologies, national borders are becoming increasingly porous. Governments, more than ever, need co-ordinated action to address global challenges such as climate change and financial, health and migration crises, secure peace and ensure sustainable economic prosperity and social inclusion. The traditional tools of domestic policy intervention (regulation, budget) need to be complemented by joint efforts, global rules and standards to ensure a sustainable world economy. At the same time, unnecessary regulatory divergence across jurisdictions is increasingly perceived as imposing undue costs on international flows, inhibiting further integration of the world economy.

In this context, international regulatory co-operation (IRC) is increasingly seen as a means for helping governments achieve policy goals and minimise costs on society. Policy makers have made IRC an important element of their commitment to good regulation as illustrated by the adoption of a principle on the topic in the 2012 OECD Recommendation on Regulatory Policy and Governance. The OECD Regulatory Policy Committee subsequently asked the OECD to develop an inventory of possible approaches to IRC. Consequently, *International Regulatory Co-operation: Addressing Global Challenges* (OECD, 2013) highlights the role of international organisations (IOs) in establishing the rules and standards of globalisation, as part of a typology of 11 IRC approaches.

As platforms for continuous dialogue, IOs facilitate the development of common language and the comparability of approaches and practices. They provide the institutional framework and technical expertise to help countries develop international legal and policy instruments and standards, align their regulatory approaches, and build capacity in countries with a less-developed regulatory culture. Even with the best of intentions, however, IOs may be limited in their ability to deliver on their mandate. They may suffer from overlapping agendas and lack effectiveness.

In order to strengthen the information base on the contribution of IOs to IRC, the OECD undertook a survey in 2015 to examine the governance, operational modalities, rule-making practices and approaches to assessing implementation and impacts of a wide range of international organisations. This report compiles and analyses the information collected from 50 IOs.

Importantly, this report provides an analysis that goes beyond aggregated features and contrasts results by nature of IO. Five groups of IOs are considered: open- and closed-membership IGOs, secretariats of convention, trans-governmental networks of regulators (TGNs) and international private standard-setting organisations. The report also analyses results by type of instrument (legally binding instruments, accreditation, technical standards, soft instruments or exchange of information) and IO scope of activities (broad or sector-specific). To some extent, the diversity of IOs and their instruments result in a diversity of rule-making practices. Nevertheless, strong common features are embedded in IO approaches to creating the international landscape of norms and standards.

Finally, this work identifies a number of common issues and challenges that could be the object of further work. The comparative analysis of success factors and challenges in the IRC practices of IOs provides a basis for identifying priorities for joint efforts to improve IO co-operation. There are, in particular, three areas of work that could be further explored by IOs and their membership in support of strengthened global standards: the evaluation of IO instruments, the practices of stakeholder engagement, and the opportunities for co-ordination across IOs.

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The report relies heavily on data collected through the OECD Survey of International Organisations. The final product reflects the significant inputs and comments provided by 50 international organisations throughout the development of the report. The authors are particularly grateful to the members of the core group of international organisations for piloting the survey and providing their informed comments on the project and various iterations of the report, in particular the Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO), the International Organization for Standardization (ISO), the International Organization for legal Metrology (OIML), the World Health Organization (WHO) and the UN Economic Commission for Europe (UNECE).

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The work on regulatory policy is conducted under the supervision of the OECD Regulatory Policy Committee whose mandate is to assist member and partner countries in building and strengthening capacity for regulatory quality and regulatory reform. The Regulatory Policy Committee is supported by staff within the Regulatory Policy Division of the Public Governance and Territorial Development Directorate.

The OECD Public Governance and Territorial Development Directorate's unique emphasis on institutional design and policy implementation supports mutual learning and diffusion of best practice in different societal and market conditions. Its goal is to help countries build better government systems and implement policies at both national and regional level that lead to sustainable economic and social development. The directorate's mission is to help governments at all levels design and implement strategic, evidence-based and innovative policies to strengthen public governance, respond effectively to diverse and disruptive economic, social and environmental challenges and deliver on government's commitments to citizens.

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Acronyms of participating international organisations

AHWP	Asian Harmonization Working Party
ASTM International	(Formerly American Section of the International Association for Testing Materials)
APEC	Asia Pacific Economic Cooperation
BRS Conventions	Secretariats of the Basel, Rotterdam and Stockholm Conventions
CARICOM	Caribbean Community
CBD	Secretariat of the Convention on Biological Diversity
CITES	Secretariat of the Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna and Flora
COMESA	Common Market for East/Southern Africa
ESCWA	UN Economic and Social Commission for Western Asia
EC	European Commission
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations
IAEA	International Atomic Energy Agency
IAF	International Accreditation Forum
IAIS	International Association of Insurance Supervisors
IATA	International Air Transport Association
ICN	International Competition Network
IEC	International Electrotechnical Commission
IFAC	International Federation of Accountants
ILAC	International Laboratory Accreditation Cooperation
IMDRF	International Medical Device Regulators Forum
IMF	International Monetary Fund
IMO	International Maritime Organization
IOSCO	International Organization of Securities Commissions
ISO	International Organisation for Standardization
ITU	International Telecommunication Union
NATO	North Atlantic Treaty Organization
OAS	Organization of American States
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
OIE	World Organisation for Animal Health
OIF	Organisation internationale de la Francophonie
OIML	International Organization of Legal Metrology
OIV	Organisation Internationale de la Vigne et du Vin

OPCW	Organization for the Prohibition of Chemical Weapons
OSCE	Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe
OTIF	Intergovernmental Organisation for International Carriage by Rail
OZONE	Ozone Secretariat (Protection of the Ozone Layer)
PIC/S	Pharmaceutical Inspection Co-operation Scheme
SAICM	Strategic Approach to International Chemicals Management
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNECE	United Nations Economic Commission for Europe
UNEP	United Nations Environment Programme
UNIDO	United Nations Industrial Development Organization
UNODC	United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime
UNWTO	World Tourism Organization
UPU	Universal Postal Union
WCO	World Customs Organization
WHO	World Health Organization
WIPO	World Intellectual Property Organization
WMO	World Meteorological Organisation
WTO/OMC	World Trade Organization

Acronyms and abbreviations

CSDT	Common Submission Dossier Template
EC	European Commission
IFIs	International financial institutions
IGOs	Inter-governmental organisations
IOs	International organisations
IRC	International regulatory co-operation
MoU	Memorandum of understanding
MSPs	Multi-stakeholder partnerships
PIC	Public Interest Committee
RIA	Regulatory Impact Assessment
SADS	Safety Alert Dissemination System
SG-RAR	Steering Group for Reducing Administrative Requirements
SPS	Sanitary and Phytosanitary
TBT	Technical Barriers to Trade
TGNs	Trans-governmental networks of regulators

Executive summary

A wide variety of international organisations (IOs) are involved in promoting international regulatory co-operation (IRC) through their standard-setting and rule-making activities. The United Nations is very active in this area: UN bodies make up half of the IOs surveyed for this study. But new forms of organisation have also flourished alongside the traditional model of inter-governmental organisations (IGOs), with different legal standing and memberships. Private standard-setting organisations and trans-governmental networks of regulators (TGNs) are for instance playing an increasing role.

IOs are actively involved in exchange of information, data collection and development of norms, standards and best practices. By contrast, IOs are much less involved in the downstream activities of the rule-making process, i.e. enforcement, dispute settlement and crisis management. In most cases, international co-operation through IOs consists of sharing scientific or technical information; developing common regulatory goals, strategies or policies; and adopting common international standards. More stringent forms of co-operation such as mandatory harmonisation of regulations, regulatory procedures or inspections are less common. This suggests that IO members are willing to share experience and develop a common language, but are reluctant to give up autonomy and sovereignty for stronger outputs of IRC.

IOs are organised in very diverse ways. There are differences in constituency; for example, IGOs are state led, with different geographic scopes, while TGNs and private standard-setting organisations involve a wider variety of state and non-state actors. There are also differences in the resources of the supporting secretariat. For a number of IOs, the secretariat is quasi non-existent (some TGNs), while others (typically those with important regulatory powers or financial instruments) have secretariats exceeding 1 000 staff and a budget of over EUR 500 million. Beyond these differences, IOs share strong common features in creating the international landscape of rules and standards: the pursuit of consensus in decision-making; the extension of traditional membership to new geographic zones and non-governmental actors; the broadening of funding sources and, to some extent, the roles of the secretariat.

There are three broad approaches to IO rule-making: legally binding requirements that are meant to be directly binding on member states; non-legally binding instruments that are given a binding value through transposition in domestic legislation or recognition in international legal instruments; and statement of intent or guidance. IOs primarily rely on non-legally binding tools, in particular policy instruments, guidance and standards. They are the main instruments of TGNs and private standard-setters. They are also widely used by IGOs and secretariats of conventions, in combination with a variety of legal instruments. However, there is no single and widely accepted definition for instruments adopted by IOs. In particular, what constitutes a legally binding decision, a recommendation, technical standards, a memorandum of understanding, a political declaration and guidance or a best practices document may vary from one IGO to another with the same terms used to describe different realities within the institutional context of

each IGO. This divergence in understanding may create confusion, in particular on the action of IGOs whose "products" are more varied than those of private standard-setters.

Only a limited number of IOs systematically track the implementation of their instruments. This is a critical point, since tracking implementation provides the evidence needed to support the evaluation of the influence of the IO (and, ultimately, its impact), as well as the relevance of the instrument and any need for revision. When IOs do track implementation, approaches vary across the type of organisation and also reflect the legal nature of the underlying instrument. The most common approach is to rely on reporting (mostly voluntary). However, several secretariats of conventions rely more heavily on mandatory mechanisms, reflecting the legally binding nature of their instruments. TGNs and private standard-setting organisations tend to place less emphasis on monitoring implementation, in line with the largely voluntary nature of their instruments.

IOs make limited use of evaluation tools. Most IOs mainly monitor the use of their instruments rather than the outcome of this use, largely because of methodological challenges and lack of resources. IOs – notably those relying on non-legally binding instruments – rarely have the direct control and information mechanisms to carry out evaluation, as these are mainly at the domestic level. Any further consideration of IO evaluation practices will therefore need to include the respective role of IOs and of their membership and the resource implications. The potential benefits of greater *ex ante* and *ex post* evaluation may well be significant, in particular for legally binding instruments and policy instruments transposed in domestic legislation. The consistency of these norms with domestic regulatory frameworks needs to be understood early on in the rule-making process and continuously ensured. Non-binding instruments could also benefit from greater evaluation, as positive evidence of their impact could build a case for their implementation.

On the other hand, most IOs have mechanisms for collecting input and feedback from stakeholders to ensure the quality of their standards and rules. In practice, however, the ways IOs engage stakeholders differ significantly and remain far from consistent and systematic. There are important challenges to ensuring balanced and fair engagement rules at the international level. The limited capacity of certain groups of stakeholders to proactively engage with IOs and the fact that they are rarely organised at the international level further intensify the difficulty. In response, several IOs have undertaken efforts to reform and enhance their engagement with stakeholders as part of their rule-making activity. While the OECD survey was not detailed enough to capture the quality of IO engagement processes, the results show that stakeholder engagement provides a unique opportunity for IOs to learn from each other and test the effectiveness of their respective approaches.

Most IOs operate in institutionally crowded areas. The presence of many IOs (international and regional, public and private) in the same regulatory space means members can benefit from the variety of projects and competencies. However, it also raises challenges of overlapping constituencies and mandates. Fragmented approaches may lead to confusion on applicable rules, inconsistencies among standards, and wasted resources. Co-ordination among IOs is often carried out in an opportunistic manner, and largely consists of information exchange or joint meetings. When more formal co-operation mechanisms are adopted, they tend to concern legally binding instruments. This is an area where better understanding of the regulatory landscape and early and more systematic exchange of information among IOs on future instrument development would be beneficial. Such efforts would need to involve both the IOs and their constituencies.

Chapter 1

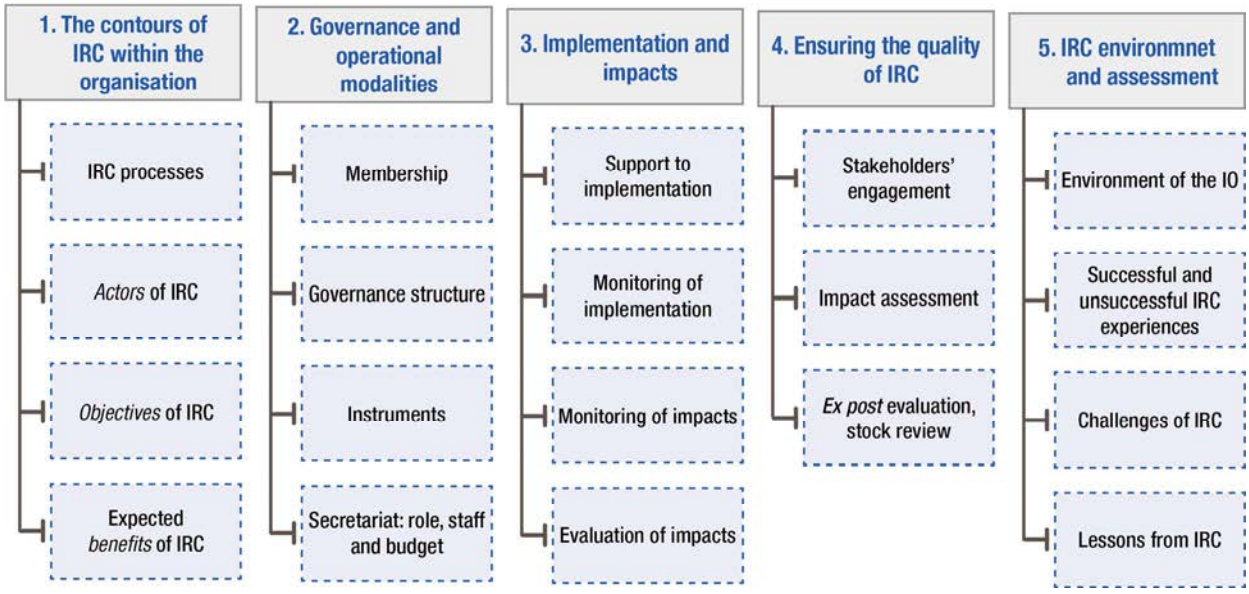
The survey exercise, structure and respondents

In order to strengthen the information base on the contribution of international organisations to international regulatory co-operation, the OECD undertook a survey in 2015 to examine the governance, operational modalities, rule-making practices and approaches to assessing implementation and impacts of a wide range of international organisations. This chapter describes the 2015 OECD Survey of International Organisations and the wide variety of respondents that contribute to international standard-setting and rule-making.

OECD (2013) notes the increased internationalisation of regulation for a variety of reasons including expected economic gains, administrative efficiency and improved safety and strengthened environmental sustainability. Regulatory co-operation can take place through a wide variety of mechanisms – OECD (2013) highlights 11 mechanisms used by countries to support their international regulatory co-operation (IRC) objectives.[1] Among these various IRC mechanisms, international organisations (IOs) play a critical role to support national regulators in their efforts to better co-ordinate their regulatory objectives, rules and procedures. They do so by offering platforms for continuous dialogue and the development of common standards, legal instruments, mutual recognition frameworks, best practices and guidance. Beyond standard-setting, they facilitate the comparability of approaches and practices, consistent application and capacity building in countries with a less developed regulatory culture.

The OECD survey of international organisations

Figure 1.1. **The structure of the OECD Survey of International Organisations**



Source: OECD Survey of International Organisations, 2015.

To date, a sizeable academic literature in international relations assesses the rationale behind the creation of IOs, variation in their institutional structures and their impact on international politics including IRC (Box 1.1). There is, however, little comprehensive and comparative information about the roles that IOs play in IRC, the different ways in which they operate, or the impacts of their involvement. Studies typically focus on a single or small number of IOs. In order to fill this gap and collect systematic information on IOs as global standard-setters, the OECD developed a survey on *International Regulatory Co-operation: the Role of International Organisations* structured in five parts (Figure 1.1).

Box 1.1. **International organisations in international relations research**

There is a sizeable literature in International Relations that focuses on international organisations. In the past, debates focused on whether international organisations were merely tools and reflections of the preferences of powerful states or whether they were of causal relevance in international politics (Mearsheimer, 1994; Nye and Keohane, 1989). The academic debate has now moved on to focus on two questions: why states create and delegate policy tasks to international organisations? How to account for variation in the institutional setup, independence and powers of international organisations vis-à-vis member states?

Based on economic principal-agent models, scholars (inter alia Pollack, 2003; Hawkins et al., 2006) have, in recent years, suggested that states (principals) create and delegate policy tasks to international organisations (agents) for several reasons: 1) To reduce transaction costs and to facilitate information sharing; 2) To provide for neutral monitoring, interpretation and enforcement of co-operation agreements. International organisations are pictured as credible commitment devices in international politics; 3) To provide for an effective agenda-setter for co-operation efforts. In the absence of an agenda-setter, co-operation may break down due to endless cycles of competitive agenda-setting between national governments.

Scholars suggest that the underlying rationale for the creation of an international organisation should influence its institutional setup, independence and powers (Pollack, 2003). If states create an international organisation to facilitate information sharing, policy-making should proceed on a consensus basis and its institutional setup should be geared toward facilitating deliberation. If states create an international organisation as credible commitment device, to monitor, to interpret and to enforce co-operation agreements, the international organisation should be fairly independent and have strong judicial powers vis-à-vis its member states. The need for credible commitment should be particularly manifest, if international organisations are supposed to ensure the provision of global public goods. Global public goods – such as global public health or climate protection – are inherently subject to free riding dynamics, as states may want to benefit from the provision of the public good but may be unwilling to pay for it (Barrett, 2007).

Scholars have nevertheless also noted that the tasks, instruments and functioning of international organisations may be subject to path dependence rather than purposeful decision-making (Hanrieder, 2015; Fioretos, 2011). So instead of asking what do states seek to accomplish through a given international organisation, its specific institutional setup, independence and powers, it may be more illuminating to analyse how this international organisation has evolved over time.

Source: Mearsheimer, J.J. (1994), "The False Promise of International Institutions" *International Security*, Vol. 19/3, pp. 5-49; Nye, J.S., and R.O. Keohane (1989), *Power and Interdependence,* HarperCollins Publishers; Pollack, M. (2003), *The Engines of Europe: Delegation, Agency and Agenda-Setting in the EU*, Oxford University Press; Hawkins, D. et al. (2006), *Delegation and agency in international organizations*, Cambridge university Press; Barrett, S. (2007), *Why cooperate? The incentive to supply global public goods*, Oxford University Press; Hanrieder, T. (2015), "The path-dependent design of international organizations: Federalism and the World Health Organization", *European Journal of International Relations*, Vol. 21/1, pp. 215-239; Fioretos, O. (2011), "Historical Institutionalism in International Relations", *International Organization*, Vol. 65/2, pp. 367-399.

The first part of the survey – *the contours of IRC within the organisation* – focused on the features of IRC practices. It sought to outline the specific processes in support of regulatory co-operation taking place within IOs, the actors involved in these processes and the objectives and benefits pursued. The second part – *governance and operational modalities* – collected information on the organisation of IOs. It focused both on aspects

of governance (membership and the internal structure of the organisation, the organs of the organisation involved in IRC, *etc.*) and on the operational modalities to promote IRC (legal or policy instruments, role of the secretariat, etc.). The third part – *implementation and impacts of IRC* – aimed to collect information on the procedures adopted to supervise and encourage implementation of IO instruments (i.e. the forms of assistance provided, the mechanisms used to track information on implementation, *etc.*) and to monitor their impacts. The fourth part – *ensuring the quality of IRC* – focused on the use of specific tools/procedures to ensure the quality of standard-setting activities, including the use of impact assessment, consultation, *ex post* and stock review. The fifth part – *the institutional landscape in which the organisation operates* – surveyed the context in which IRC takes place (i.e. the presence of different international organisations in the same area of IRC). Finally, the sixth part – *assessing IRC co-operation* – sought to identify the main lessons learnt related to IRC in terms of success factors and challenges.

The survey was sent in December 2014-January 2015 to some 80 IOs, involving a mix of organisations. The survey primarily aimed at collecting information from inter-governmental organisations (IGOs) generally defined as "organization established by a treaty or other instrument governed by international law and possessing its own international legal personality".[2] The specificity of IGOs is that they have states or other IGOs as their members.[3] In addition, the IGOs were selected on the basis that they had a secretariat composed by permanent staff and a permanent address and website and that they engaged in some forms of regulatory activities in the broad sense (e.g. design, monitoring or enforcement of legal instruments and policy standards).

In addition, in order to show the diversity of the international fora in which IRC takes place, the survey was sent to other forms of international organisations with rule-making / standard-setting activities, including trans-governmental networks of regulators (TGNs), international private standard-setting organisations, and secretariats of international conventions. TGNs are defined in OECD (2013) by "co-operation based on loosely-structured, peer to peer ties developed through frequent interaction rather than formal negotiation involving domestic officials directly interacting with each other (through structured dialogue, MoUs, etc.), often with minimal supervision by foreign ministries". OECD work is underway to further analyse the key features of TGNs and their contribution to IRC. Early findings suggest that TGNs compare in many ways to IGOs in offering platforms for regulatory co-operation, but stand out from the broader panel of IOs in terms of their membership and their founding document. They are fora mainly involving interactions among units, agencies or officials of governments – such as ministries, independent regulatory agencies or police forces – based on agreements among participating units, but not treaties among states.

The "simultaneous privatisation and internationalisation of governance", as described in Büthe and Mattli (2012), can be illustrated by the growing reliance on the outputs of international private standard-setting organisations. These IOs can be defined as international bodies established under domestic law and not by a treaty, which differentiates them from traditional IGOs. Their members may be non-governmental organisations or governmental agencies. Their main activity is to produce international standards. It is however worth noting that this category gathers quite a variety of IOs with different governance models. The IO profiles provided in the last part of this report illustrates this point, be it in relation to the profit or not for profit nature of the IO (ISO and IEC vs. IFAC) or to the membership of the organisation (all interested stakeholders in the field concerned for ASTM International, companies for IATA, mixed for the others). The importance of standard-setting bodies is reinforced by the significance of

international standards in the WTO/OMC Agreements on Sanitary and Phytosanitary measures (SPS Agreement), as well as on Technical Barriers to Trade (TBT Agreement) of 1995, which requires WTO members to use relevant international standards as the basis for their technical regulations and conformity assessment procedures (Article 2.4 and 5.4 TBT Agreement), and SPS measures (Art 3 SPS Agreement). Given the growing importance of their instruments, the OECD survey was sent to the major international private standard-setting organisations.

The world of IOs goes beyond IGOs, TGNs, international private-standard setting organisations and secretariats of convention. For example, traditional forms of co-operation among countries have involved international financial institutions (IFIs), whose main mission is to provide development funds. While many of their governance arrangements and operational modalities may be similar to those of IGOs, and their activities may be highly influential, their rule-making activity (i.e. the direct creation of norms outside of their internal rules of procedure) is rather limited or the by-product of their lending activity. As such they were not included in the sample but could be the object of a separate work by the OECD.

New forms of international governance have also emerged, such as multi-stakeholder partnerships (MSPs), which bring together stakeholders from a range of backgrounds – the public, non-profit and commercial sector. These new forms of IOs span diverse policy fields, such as internet, environment, health and development. Examples include the Global Fund to Fight AIDS, Tuberculosis and Malaria among the first, the Forest Stewardship Council and Marine Stewardship Council, IMPACT and ICANN. Their development is promoted by the Sustainable Development Goals.[4] They were not included in the sample and could be the object of future work.

The respondents

In total, 50 IOs responded to the survey. Among this sample, 31 can be categorised as IGOs, 21 "open" IGOs i.e. aiming for universal membership, and 10 "closed" IGOs i.e. with restricted membership (see below and Box 1.2), one is a supranational organisation (i.e. a specific form of IGO), five are international private standard setting organisations, four are secretariats of international conventions and nine are TGNs (Figure 1.2).

Twenty two sampled IOs are related to the United Nations (Figure 1.3).[5] Fourteen are part of the United Nations System of Organizations as Offices, Commissions, Funds, Programmes or Specialised Agencies:

- Offices (UNODC) are internal divisions of the UN Secretariat.
- UN Commissions are subsidiary bodies of the General Assembly and the UN Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC). They have a general policy role. Some Commissions have their own secretariats while others are serviced by the appropriate office in the general UN Secretariat. There are two main kinds of UN Commissions: functional and regional. Functional Commissions are structured like committees of States while Regional Commissions (UNECE and ESCWA) are usually composed of the States in a specific region (but other States are allowed to participate and sometimes do so). It is worth noting that UNECE also serves as the secretariat to over 60 conventions a number of which are open to all UN Member States.

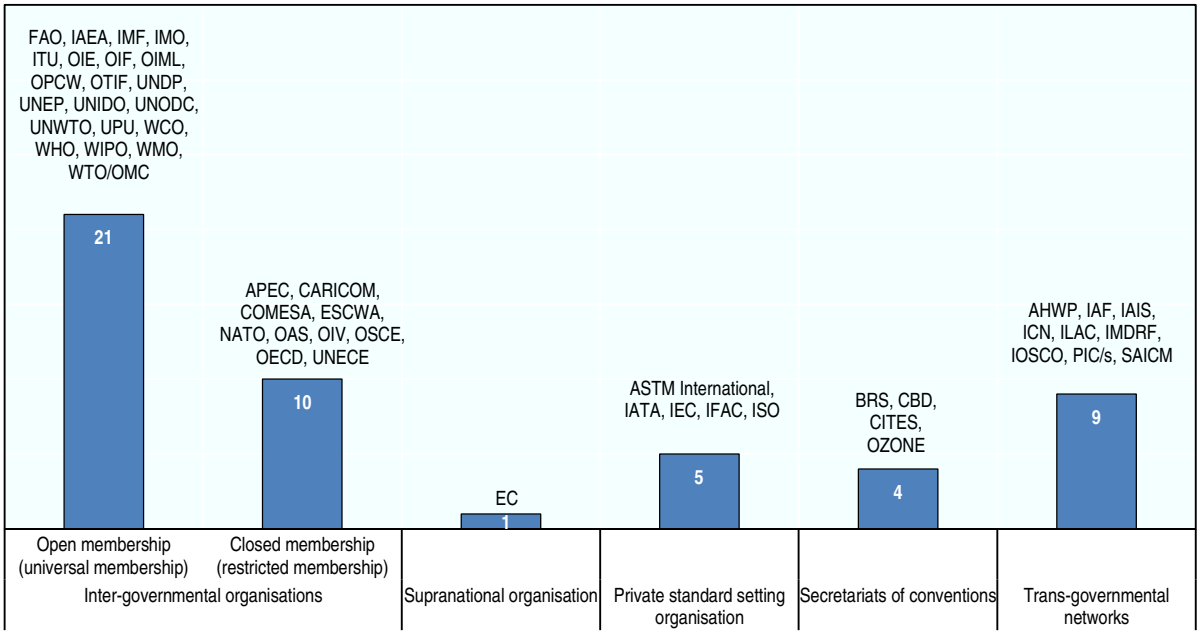
- Programmes and Funds (UNDP and UNEP) are created by the General Assembly and report to it through ECOSOC. They do not have their own specific membership, since they are essentially internal to the UN (for example, UNEP has a governing body with a membership identical to that of the UN). However, they each have specific governance mechanisms and are financed through voluntary rather than assessed contributions (even if UNEP's budget, for example, is partly composed of assessed contributions from the UN Regular Budget). They have an operational role.
- Specialised Agencies (FAO, IMF, IMO, ITU, UNIDO, UNWTO, UPU, WHO, WIPO and WMO) are independent IOs working with the UN under negotiated agreements. They are created by their own treaties and possess their own legislative and executive bodies, secretariats and budgets. They are funded by both voluntary and assessed contributions – the share of which may vary widely across agencies – and in rare cases, by revenues from fee-based services.

Three are Related Organizations (IAEA, OPCW and WTO/OMC), i.e. independent organisations which share some relation with the UN, usually because of the way they were created. For example, IAEA and OPCW report to the General Assembly and the Security Council. They differ in their relationship with the UN System, however. For instance, the IAEA, although a separate international organisation and not a specialised agency, is, nonetheless, part of the United Nations common system of salaries, allowances, and benefits, while OPCW is not.

Finally, the sample of respondents includes four secretariats of conventions to which UNEP provides secretariat or secretariat functions (BRS Conventions, CBD, CITES and OZONE).[6] While these are not part of the UN System, strictly defined, they can be included in the broad family of international bodies related to the United Nations.

Figure 1.2. **The nature of respondents to the OECD Survey of IOs**

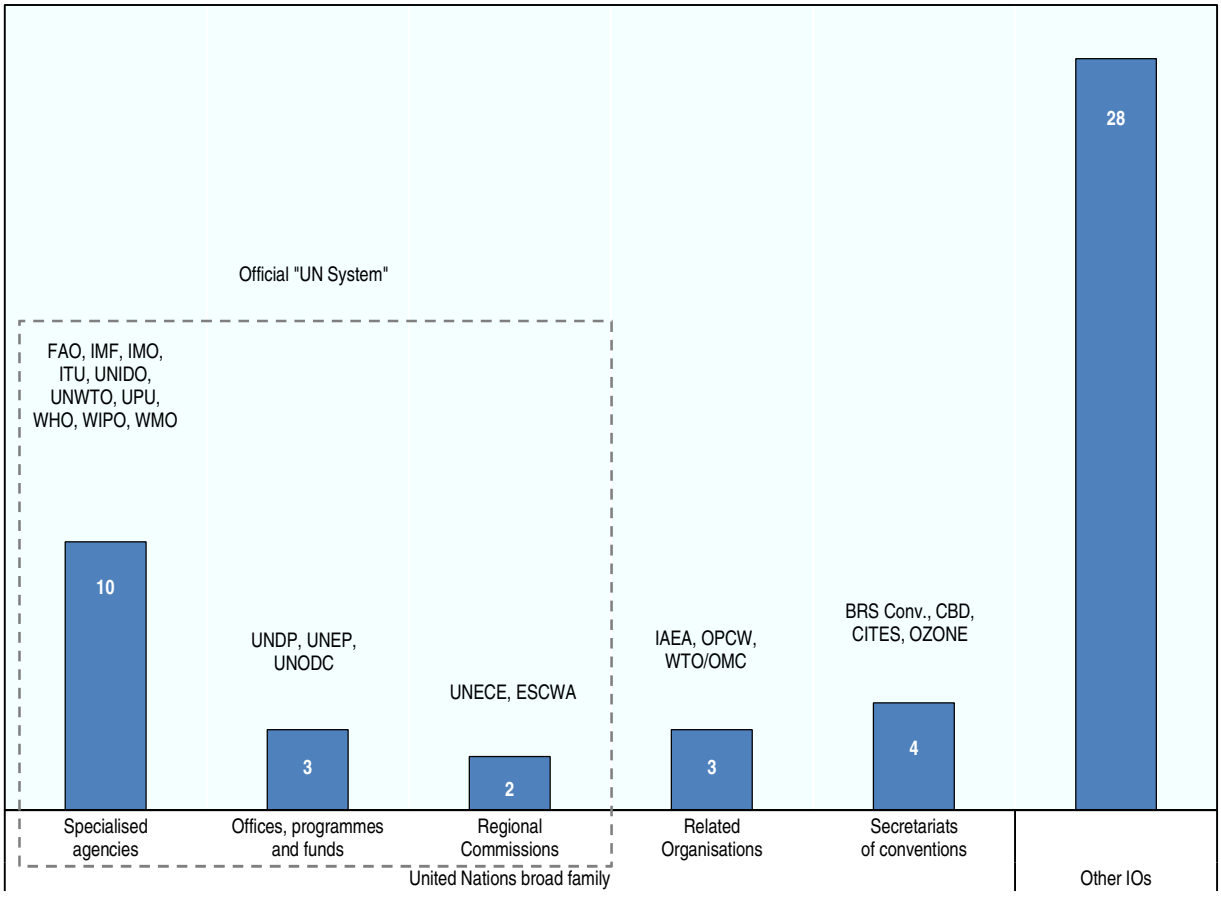
50 respondents



Source: OECD Survey of International Organisations, 2015.

Figure 1.3. **Respondents to the OECD survey belonging to the broad UN family**

50 respondents



Source: OECD Survey of International Organisations, 2015; www.un.org/en/sections/about-un/funds-programmes-specialized-agencies-and-others/index.html.

The available academic literature, while acknowledging the diversity among IOs, identifies several typologies of IOs (Box 1.2). Two dividing lines are the most recurrent: i) the distinction between IOs with open- or closed-membership and ii) between IOs with a broad or sector specific purpose. "Open" IOs place no theoretical limitations on membership. In contrast, "closed" IOs inherently limit membership to a subset of international actors, often according to geographic or cultural proximity. "Broad purpose" IOs can intervene in all areas, whereas "specific purpose" IOs limit their intervention only to certain areas, which are defined more or less precisely. Given the many faces of IOs and the resulting important limitations of any such classification, this typology is not used as a rigid framework of analysis, but should rather be kept in mind as a possible explanatory factor for certain common features of IOs.

Consequently, with a view to contrast the results according to their characteristics, the IOs were grouped by their nature and openness of IGO membership (as provided in Figure 1.2), their main activity, and the scope of their activity (broad / specific). Tables summarising their allocation across categories are provided in Annex A.

Box 1.2. **Typologies of IOs identified in the literature**

Daillier et al. (2009: 642-644) "La définition des organisations internationales reste assez large pour englober des institutions très diverses. Pour introduire plus de clarté dans l'analyse, il est souvent opportun de les étudier par grandes catégories, sur la base d'une typologie qui sera le plus souvent fonctionnelle".

Amerasinghe (2005: 9-12) "International organizations may be classified in numerous ways, depending on the purpose for which the classification is being made. Four primary distinctions may be made as being relevant to the structure and functioning of international organizations: i) the distinction between public, governmental (or inter-state) organizations and private organizations; ii) the distinction between universal (open) and closed organizations; iii) the distinction between supra-national organizations and those that are not supra-national; iv) the distinction between general organizations and functional or technical organizations".

Alvarez (2005: 11-12) "There have been many attempts to classify types of IOs. Some have preferred to distinguish those that aspire to universal state membership from those with more regional aspirations. Some have made distinctions based on policy agenda, attempting to distinguish administrative or technical organizations from political or judicial organizations. […] Knowing that a particular IO has universalist aspirations implies outcomes with respect to the admission, suspension, or expulsion of members. The technical nature of the subject matter dealt with by some organizations (such as civil aviation) may suggest fewer political controversies or what game theorists might describe as a 'coordination game', leading to speedier and more effective forms of inter-state co-operation, including possibly law-making".

Klabbers (2002: 23-27) "A first point often made by scholars is that organizations may be classified in accordance with their stated functions. […] Other classifications point to the membership of organizations as being of distinctive value. Thus, some organizations aspire to universal or near-universal membership […]. Other organizations, however, may rest satisfied with a limited membership, and usually such limitations may derive from their overall purpose. […] A distinction sometimes made which refers to notions of integration theory is that between political and functional organizations. […] Finally, a distinction often made is that between intergovernmental and supranational organizations, but here as well we may wonder about the value of the distinction: does it really clarify things".

Sands and Klein (2009: 17-18) "Different types of classifications may be envisaged, such as that based on functions or membership. […] It may therefore be broadly possible to distinguish between the "political" organisations, concerned primarily with the preservation of international peace and security, and the administrative organisations with more specific technical aims in the economic and social fields. […] There is indeed a clear distinction between organisations of a "global" membership and those of a "regional" membership. […] Finally, a distinction may be made between organisations aiming at a closer legal and political integration of member states, such as the European Union, and those limiting themselves to ensuring the co-ordination of the activities of their members in a specific area".

Schermers and Blokker (2003: 48-64) "International organizations can be classified in many different ways, depending on the purpose of the study for which the classification is used. […] The most fundamental criterion and, moreover, the criterion which seems to be most useful in a comparative study of the institutional law of international organizations seems to be […] related to the notion of function […] principally from three points of view"; [citing Virally (1974) "The first question concerns the extent of the co-operation that it is the organization's mission to bring about: is it open to the international community as a whole, or reserved for certain of its members only? Second, what is the range covered by this co-operation? Can it extend to all the sectors in which a need for it may be felt, or is it confined to a clearly delimited filed of action?[…] [T]he distinction between supranational and intergovernmental organizations is the most significant [as the third sub-criterion"].

Box 1.2. **Typologies of IOs identified in the literature** (*cont.*)

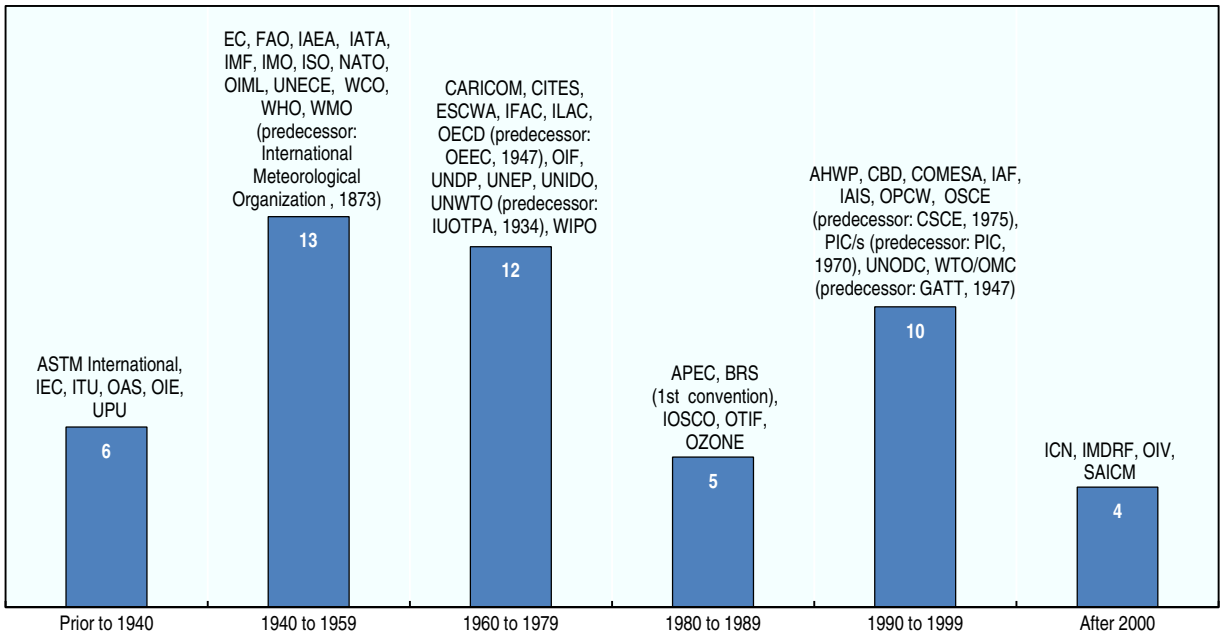
Lagrange (2013: 67-68) "Si elle a longtemps occupé la doctrine, la taxinomie des organisations internationales (à une époque, intergouvernementales) présente un intérêt relativement limité. Le recours à 'l'élément fonctionnel', en tant qu'il commande tous les autres, induit une triple classification: 'organisations mondiales v. organisations partielles', 'organisations générales v. organisations sectorielles', 'organisations de concertation v. organisations décisionnelles v. organisations opérationnelles' (Virally, 1972)".

Source: Alvarez, J. (2005), *International Organizations as Law-Makers*, Oxford University Press, Oxford; Amerasinghe, C.F. (2005), *Principles of the Institutional Law of International Organizations*, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge; Daillier P. et al. (2009), *Droit international public*, LGDJ, Paris; Klabbers, J. (2002), *An Introduction to International Institutional Law*, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge; Lagrange, E. and J. Sorel (eds) (2013), *Droit des organisations internationales*, LGDJ, Paris; Sands, P. and P. Klein (2009), *Bowett's: Law of International Institutions*, 6th edition, Sweet & Maxwell, London; Schermers, H. and N. Blokker (2003), *International Institutional Law*, Martinus Nijhoff Publishers, Leiden; Virally, M. (1972), *L'organisation mondiale*, Éditions A. Colin, Paris.

The year of establishment of IOs involved in the survey spans a full century (Figure 1.4). Among the earliest IOs, ITU was established in 1865, UPU in 1874, OAS in 1889, ASTM International in 1898, IEC in 1906 and OIE in 1924. In the 1940s and 1950s, in the aftermath of the Second World War and the creation of the UN, a number of (mainly) IGOs were established. More recently, and in particular since the 1980s, TGNs have been developing fast.

Figure 1.4. **Year of establishment of the respondents to the OECD Survey of IOs**

50 respondents



Source: OECD Survey of International Organisations, 2015.

Notes

1. The 11 mechanisms identified by the OECD are namely (from the most formal and comprehensive to the least): Integration / harmonisation through supra-national or joint institutions; Specific negotiated agreements (treaties/ conventions); Regulatory partnerships between countries; Inter-governmental organisations; Regional agreements with regulatory provisions; Mutual recognition agreements; Trans-governmental networks; Formal requirements to consider IRC when developing regulations; Recognition of international standards; Soft law; and Dialogue/ informal exchange of information.

2. United Nations International Law Commission, (2011), Draft Articles on the Responsibility of International Organizations, Article 2(a), http://legal.un.org/ilc/texts/9_11.shtml.

3. See e.g. the definition in the Max Planck Encyclopaedia on Public International Law. The definition consists of four generally accepted constitutive elements of IOs: "(i) the formal basis of the organization is a treaty; (ii) its members are States (and possibly also other subjects, like other IOs); (iii) it has its own organs and hence an institutional structure distinct from that of its Member States; (iv) it possesses a degree of international legal personality" and further provides that: "Among these four elements, the two key ones are that the organization groups together States (intergovernmental organization) and that it has an institutional structure of its own".

4. States should "Encourage and promote effective public, public-private and civil society partnerships". (Goal 17.17) and "Enhance the global partnership for sustainable development, complemented by multi-stakeholder partnerships". Goal 17.16."

5. www.un.org/en/sections/about-un/funds-programmes-specialized-agencies-and-others/index.html.

6. While the convention secretariats are accountable to their respective conference of the parties for programme delivery, the chief executive officers of those conventions administered by UNEP are accountable to the Executive Director of the UNEP. They operate with sufficient autonomy to discharge the functions that the various independent intergovernmental conferences of parties to the conventions have reposed in the Executive Director (ST/SGB/2006/13, Section 18).

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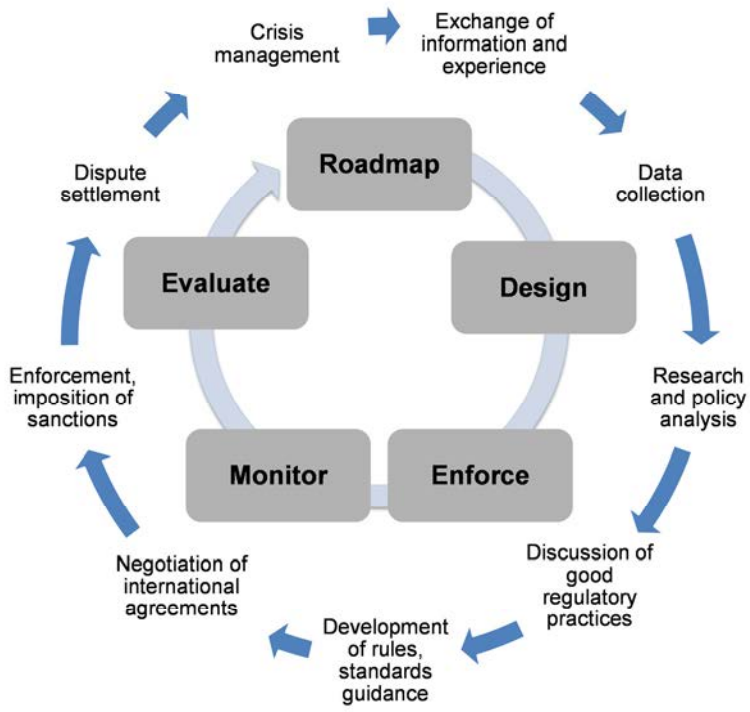
Chapter 2

The contours of international regulatory co-operation within international organisations

International organisations contribute to regulatory co-operation among their members through various ways. They facilitate the development of common language and the comparability of approaches and practices across jurisdictions. They provide the institutional framework and technical expertise to help countries develop international legal and policy instruments and standards, align their regulatory approaches, and build capacity. Sometimes they contribute to dispute resolution among members, and facilitate crisis management. They do so by providing platforms for continuous discussions across members and by engaging with various stakeholders. This chapter analyses the answers to the 2015 OECD Survey of International Organisations on the activities of international organisations in support of regulatory co-operation, the actors involved and the objectives pursued.

OECD (2014) identifies a number of areas where international organisations (IOs) contribute to international regulatory co-operation (IRC) among members. These areas can be mapped against the cycle of regulatory governance as provided in OECD (2011) from the design phase of rules to their monitoring, evaluation and feedback into the rule-making process. Against this background, the survey identified nine areas where IOs are active and provide their members platforms and opportunities for co-operation. They involve exchange of information and experience, data collection, research and policy analysis, discussion of good regulatory practices, development of rules, standards and guidance, negotiation of international agreements, enforcement activities including imposition of sanctions, dispute settlement and crisis management (Figure 2.1).

Figure 2.1. **Areas of regulatory co-operation and the rule-making cycle**



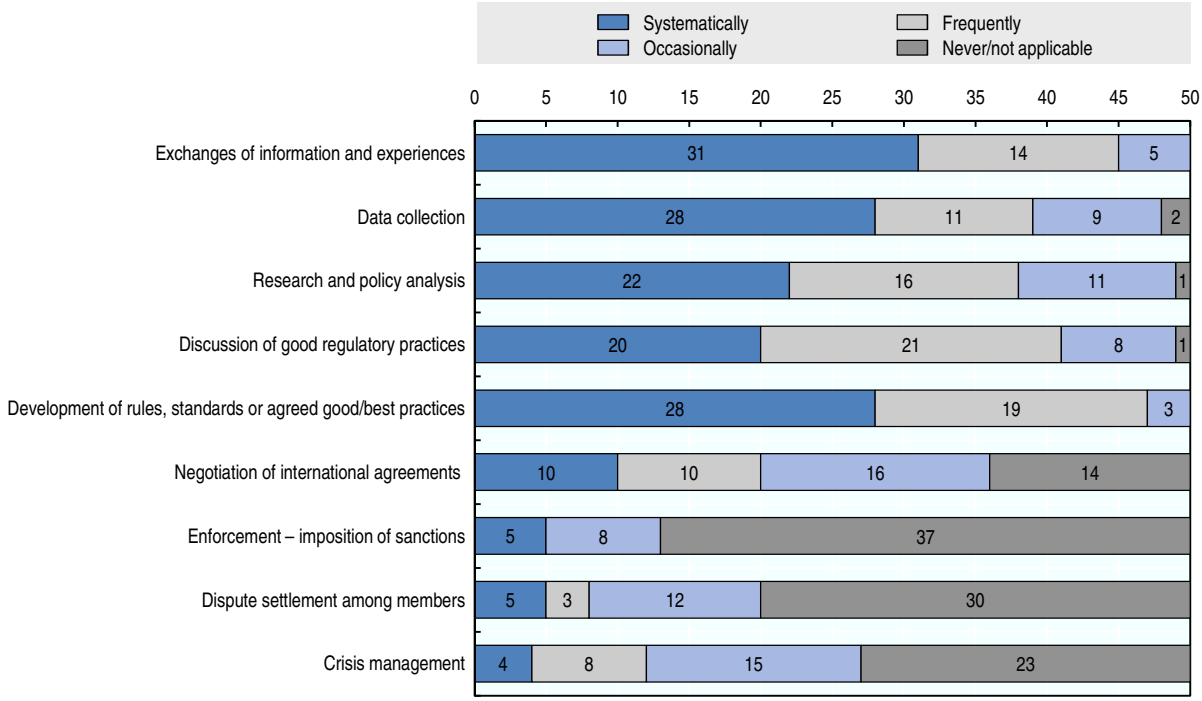
OECD (2014), *International Regulatory Co-operation and International Organisations: The Cases of the OECD and the IMO*, OECD Publishing, Paris, http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264225756-en.

IRC processes and activities

The survey results show the strong involvement of the responding IOs in the upstream activities of the policy cycle (Figure 2.2). All IOs, without exception, are involved in the development of rules, standards and best practice either systematically, frequently or occasionally (for only 3 IOs). All are also involved in exchange of information and experience. Most, but less systematically, undertake data collection; research and policy analysis; and provide for discussion of good regulatory practices. The formal area of negotiation of international agreements is less systematically undertaken by IOs (but remains an important activity for 20 IOs, either systematically or frequently). By contrast, the downstream activities of enforcement (systematic for 5 IOs), dispute settlement (systematic for 5 IOs, and frequent for 3) and crisis management (systematic for 4 IOs and frequent for 8) are clearly much less covered by IOs.

Figure 2.2. **Which of the following IRC processes take place within your organisation?**

50 respondents



Source: OECD Survey of International Organisations, 2015.

The case of the OECD illustrates this result well (OECD, 2014). The OECD is involved in the activities that precede standard-setting, including the collection and exchange of information and the setting of agendas, goals and strategies. The development of legal instruments and policy standards is not systematic but frequent. The OECD also contributes to the monitoring of its legal instruments. However, even for the few legal instruments that provide some kind of dispute settlement mechanisms (e.g. the Codes of Liberalisation and the Guidelines for Multinational Enterprises which form an integral part of the Declaration on International Investment and Multinational Enterprises), the OECD does not have a formal sanction regime.

Another illustrative example of IO activities is provided by the OIE. The OIE is systematically involved in exchange and dissemination of information to member countries on global animal disease situations. It is also very active in collecting data and producing scientific information on animal disease control. The development of legal instruments (normative documents, standards and guidelines relating to animal disease control methods and to preventing the introduction of diseases via trade) is also systematic. By contrast, the OIE does not have a mandate to "enforce" the implementation of its standards and norms and it cannot apply sanctions. However, given its recognised status under the WTO/OMC SPS Agreement, the standards adopted by the OIE may in some cases be relevant to specific WTO/OMC dispute settlement cases. Other downstream activities, such as dispute settlement or crisis management, are occasional. For instance, OIE collaborates with UN agencies (particularly WHO and FAO) on the management of global health crises.

Table 2.1 provides a list of IOs directly involved in the downstream activities of the policy cycle. Beyond the limited number of examples, the table illustrates the fact that the nature of the IO has, to some extent, an impact on the types of IRC activities. While all IOs are involved in the development of rules, standards and best practice regardless of their type, the IOs involved in the downstream activities of dispute settlement and crisis management are almost exclusively IGOs or secretariats of convention (e.g. state-led). The sampled trans-governmental networks of regulators (TGNs) and international private standard setters do not perform such activities, except on an occasional basis. The peer to peer nature of the co-operation among regulators and other stakeholders is likely to explain these results. As horizontal collaboration, they support the development of agreements among their members but do not necessarily provide means to manage crisis and disputes. In addition, many of the IGOs involved in downstream activities are regional organisations. The size of membership and potentially the homogeneity and geographical proximity of members may explain these results: the smaller and more homogeneous the membership, the easier it might be for the IGO to venture in these resource-intensive downstream activities.

Table 2.1. **IOs involved systematically or frequently in downstream activities**

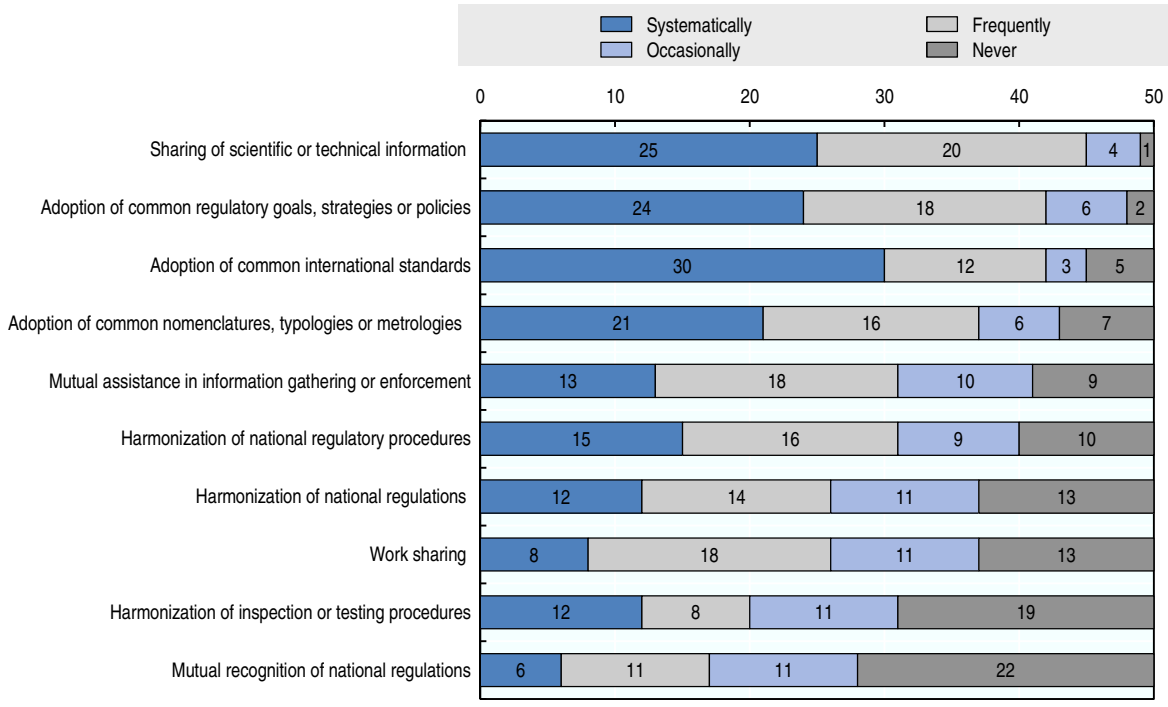
	Systematically	Frequently	Selected examples
Enforcement	IAF, ILAC, CITES, OZONE, WTO/OMC		CITES recommends sanctions in the form of "trade suspension" (Reeve, 2006). In some cases, these recommendations have been followed by sanctions by the UN (www.cites.org/eng/news/sundry/2014/20140203_un_sanctions.php).
Dispute settlement among members	EU, CITES, OZONE, WIPO, WTO/OMC	OAS, COMESA, CARICOM	In 2001 CARICOM member States signed a specific agreement establishing the Caribbean Court of Justice to address treaty disputes. WIPO is very active in the settlement of intellectual property disputes between private parties (via its Arbitration and Mediation Center: www.wipo.int/amc/en/center) while WTO/OMC deals with dispute settlement between States only (www.wto.org/english/thewto_e/whatis_e/tif_e/disp1_e.htm).
Crisis management	EU, CITES, IAEA, OZONE,	OAS, COMESA, UPU, OSCE, UNIDO, IMF, NATO, UNWTO	Through its Incident and Emergency Center (IEC), the IAEA works as a centre for co-ordination of international assistance in emergency preparedness and response to nuclear and radiological safety or security related incidents and emergencies. The IEC co-ordinates inter-agency response to nuclear and radiological safety or security related incidents and emergencies under the "Joint Radiation Emergency Management Plan of the International Organizations".

Source: OECD Survey of International Organisations, 2015.

Regulatory co-operation may be embedded in various forms, outputs and activities (Figure 2.3). Based on the survey answers, in most cases, co-operation through IOs materialises in the sharing of scientific or technical information (systematic for 25 IOs and frequent for 20), the adoption of common regulatory goals, strategies or policies (systematic for 24 IOs and frequent for 18) and the adoption of common international standards (systematic for 30 IOs and frequent for 12). Somewhat less frequently but still important, co-operation takes the form of the adoption of common nomenclatures, typologies and metrologies (for 43 IOs among which 21 do it systematically).

Figure 2.3. **How frequently do the rules, standards and other forms of IRC adopted by your organisation incorporate the following activities?**

50 respondents



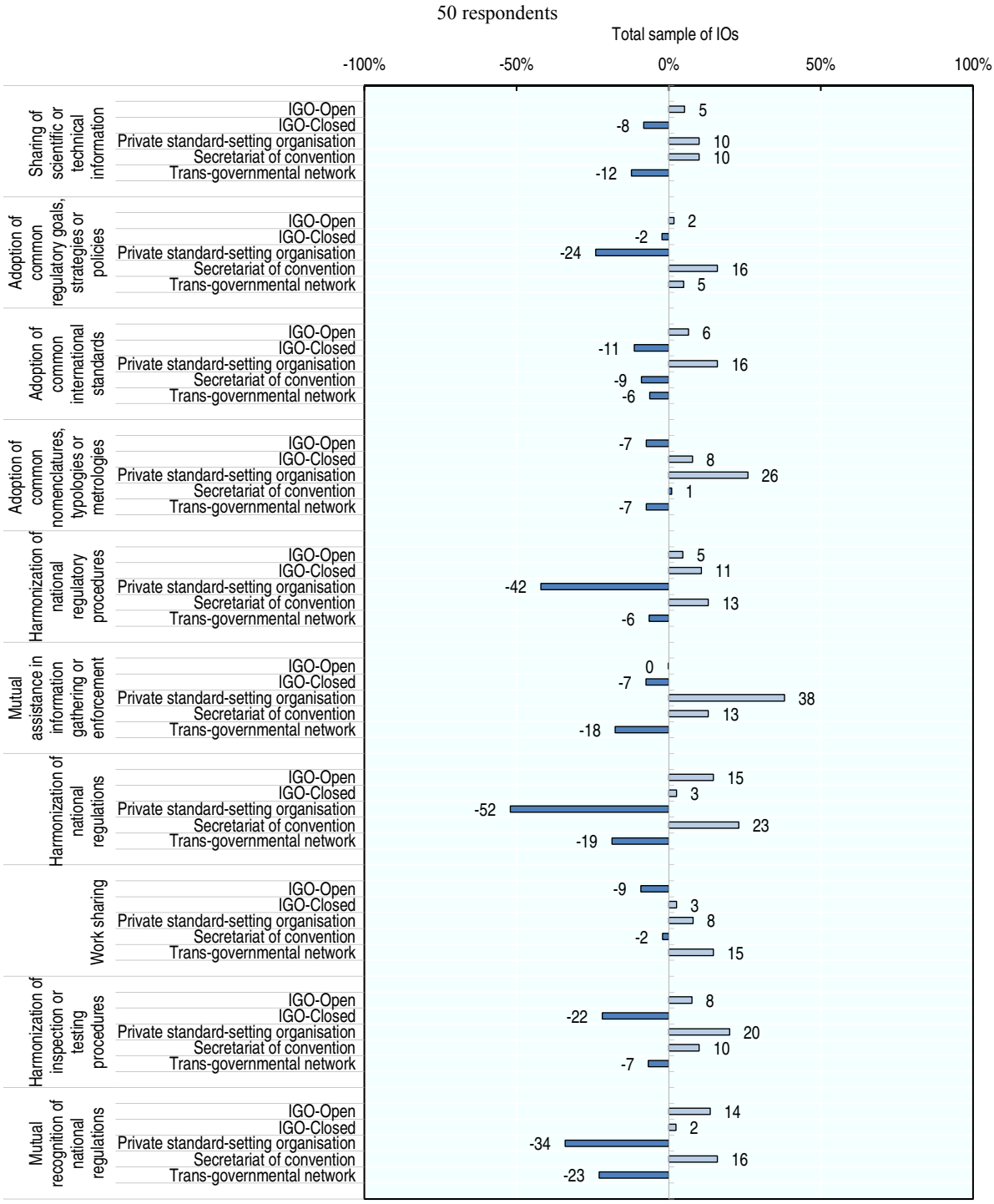
Source: OECD Survey of International Organisations, 2015.

More stringent outputs of co-operation such as harmonisation of regulations, regulatory procedures or inspections are less common among IOs, although they are not completely absent:

- For instance, the UNECE offers a framework for globally harmonised regulations on vehicles, by hosting the World Forum for Harmonization of Vehicle Regulations (WP 29).
- PIC/S is engaged in the harmonisation of procedures for handling rapid alerts and recalls arising from quality defects or the standard operating procedure on inspection report format.
- OIML, in order to harmonise national regulatory procedures, has developed some specific guidelines and documents, such as the OIML D1 that provides guidance on the issues that should be considered when elaborating a law on metrology.
- IMO has produced some guidelines for flag State inspections, certificates and Memoranda of Understanding (MoUs) of port State control in order to harmonise inspection procedures.

Mutual recognition is the least reported activity. As an example, the ILAC resorts to it frequently but, at the same time, suggests that mutual recognition can be a challenge where national regulations vary from international standards. Similarly, OIML has been attempting to expand its mutual acceptance arrangement for test results for regulated instruments, but with limited take up.

Figure 2.4. **IRC activities by nature of organisation**



Notes: The figure considers both the IOs that answered "systematically" and "frequently" and compares the averages for the specific IO groups to the average for the total sample of IOs. In this figure, the EC is included in the category of closed-membership IGOs.

Source: OECD Survey of International Organisations, 2015.

These results may illustrate a greater willingness of IO members to share experience and develop a common language – sharing information; adopting common nomenclatures, goals and standards – than to co-ordinate and align action – work sharing; harmonisation of procedures and regulations; mutual recognition of regulations – in line with the level of autonomy and sovereignty they are willing to give up in the interest of international co-ordination.

Figure 2.4 maps IRC activities by nature of organisation as defined in chapter I (the classification of IOs across types is available in Annex, Table A.1). It compares the occurrence of a specific IRC activity for a specific IO group to its occurrence for the total sample of IOs. A negative value underlines an activity that is less represented in the group under consideration compared to the full sample of IOs. A positive value underlines an activity that is more represented.

Compared to the full sample, private standard-setting organisations are more heavily involved in the adoption of common standards and nomenclatures and less in the adoption of common regulatory goals, harmonisation of regulations and mutual recognition. There are also important differences across types of IOs in relation to more stringent outputs of co-operation such as harmonisation of national regulations (less common for private standard-setting organisations and more common for secretariats of conventions), harmonization of inspections (less common for closed membership IGOs and more common for private standard-setting organisations), and mutual recognition (less common for private standard setting organisations and TGNs, and more common for secretariats of conventions).

It is also noteworthy that IGOs are involved in all types of activities, sometimes within the same organisation. As an example, UNECE may serve in some sectors as a standard-setting organisation (e.g. for fresh fruits and vegetables) and in others for the harmonisation of regulations (WP29 as referred above).

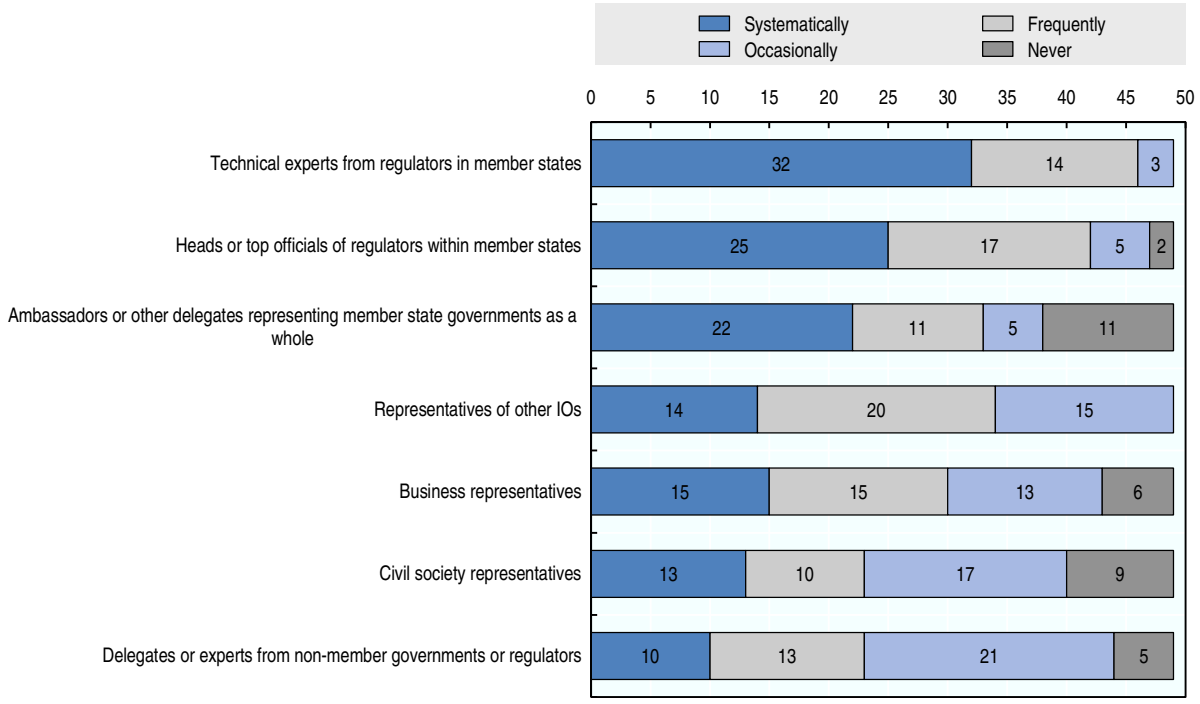
Actors of IRC

In line with the strong involvement of IOs in technical activities, such as exchange of information and practices, most IOs report strong participation of technical experts in the IRC processes (Figure 2.5). The survey indicates that official country representatives (ambassadors or other delegates) and top officials also follow closely the IRC activities of IOs. For 34 IOs, representatives of other IOs participate either systematically or frequently in the IRC processes, a feature likely to support greater co-ordination of agenda and action across IOs.

Although the survey results show that the IOs primarily provide a platform for peers (regulators or experts in a specific field) to meet and exchange, business and civil society representatives are also frequently involved. They contribute to the IRC processes of 45 IOs, at least occasionally. The only IOs reporting that neither business nor civil society representatives participate in their IRC processes are IAEA, NATO, OTIF and WTO/OMC. By contrast, 11 IOs systematically involve both business and civil society representatives (ASTM International, BRS Conventions, CITES, EU, IMO, ITU, SAICM, UNECE, UNEP, UPU, WMO). Discussions held as part of the OECD meetings of international organisations underline the willingness of many IOs to increase this participation, as well as the challenges they face to make it meaningful and effective (see also the chapter on “How do international organisations ensure the quality of their rule-making process?”).

Figure 2.5. **Which of the following actors participate in IRC processes within your organisation?**

49 respondents



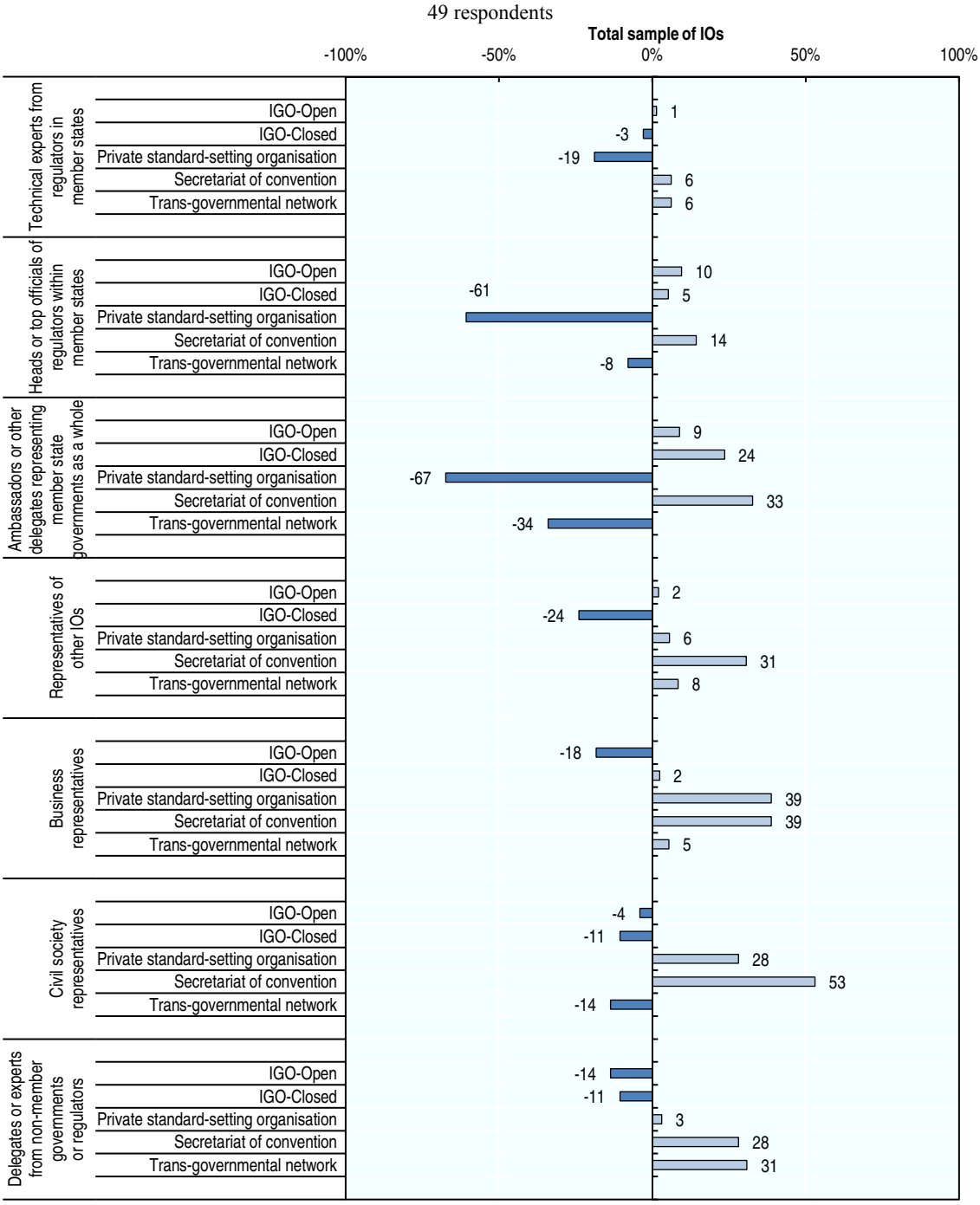
Note: The information is missing for IEC.

Source: OECD Survey of International Organisations, 2015.

Private standard-setting organisations differ from the rest of the sample in relation to actors of IRC (Figure 2.6). They neither involve ambassadors or other delegates representing member state governments, nor the heads or top officials of regulators. They involve much less than the rest of the sample technical experts from regulators in member states, or delegates and experts from non-member state governments or regulators. By contrast, they involve more business representatives and civil society than the rest of the sample. Similarly, reflecting their nature of peer to peer platforms, TGNs involve less ambassadors and top officials than IGOs.

Closed-membership and open-membership IGOs enjoy relatively similar involvement of representatives from governments or regulators (technical experts; heads or top officials of regulators; ambassadors or other delegates), civil society representatives and delegates from non-members. However, closed-membership IGOs tend to involve more high-level representatives (ambassadors) than open-membership IGOs and less representatives from other IOs than the total sample. Open-membership IGOs tend to involve less business representatives than the total sample. Secretariats of conventions seem to provide strong stakeholder platforms both for government and non-governmental representatives: they involve all levels of government representatives, but also representatives of other stakeholders – such as business and civil society representatives, delegates from non-members and from other IOs – more so than the total sample.

Figure 2.6. **Actors involved in IRC processes by nature of organisation**



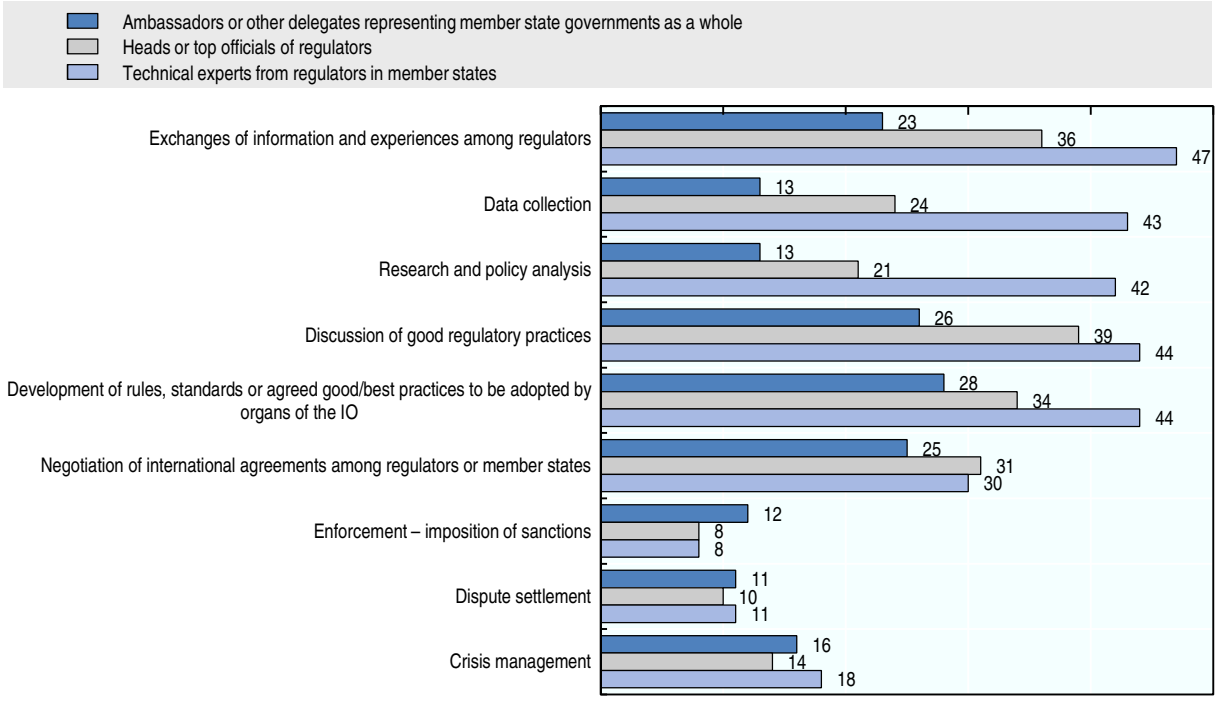
Notes: The figure considers both the IOs that answered "systematically" and "frequently" and compares the averages for the specific IO groups to the average for the total sample of IOs. In this figure, the EC is included in the category of closed-membership IGOs.

The information is missing for IEC.

Source: OECD Survey of International Organisations, 2015.

Figure 2.7. **The participation of officials in IRC processes**

48 respondents

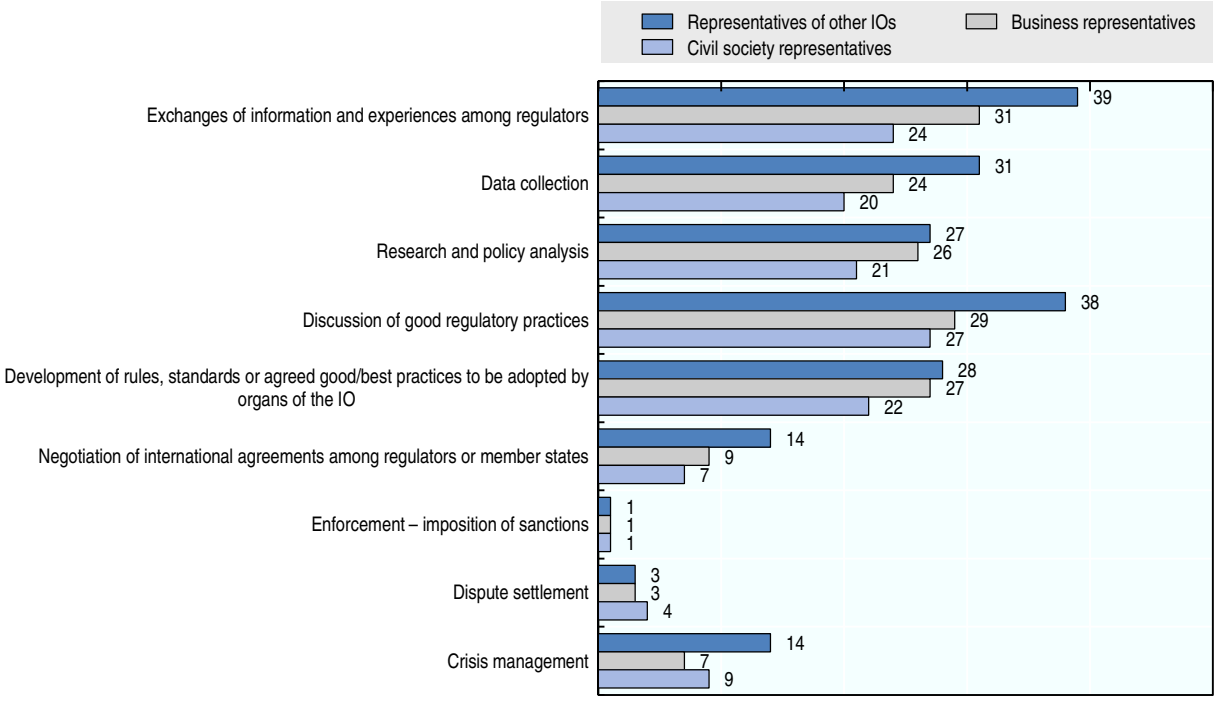


Note: The information is missing for IEC and OTIF.

Source: OECD Survey of International Organisations, 2015.

Figure 2.8. **The participation of other stakeholders in IRC processes**

48 respondents



Note: The information is missing for IEC and OTIF.

Source: OECD Survey of International Organisations, 2015.

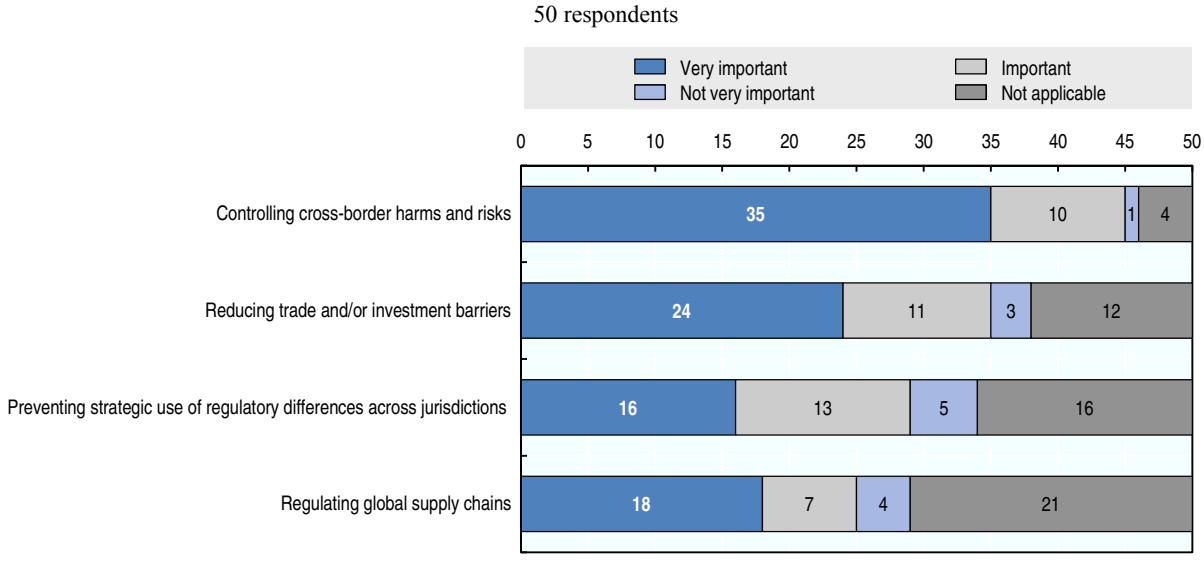
Mapping the actors involved in specific IRC processes (Figure 2.7) confirms the heavy involvement of technical experts in the technical phases of the work: i) exchange of information and experiences; ii) data collection; iii) research and analysis; iv) discussion of good regulatory practices; and v) development of rules, standards and best practices for adoption by the IO. The formal activity of negotiating international agreements and the downstream (also formal) activities of imposing sanctions, dispute settlement and crisis management, involve proportionally higher and more political representation from members (top officials and ambassadors). Similarly, key stakeholders – business representatives, civil society representatives and staff from other IOs – are mainly engaged in the technical (upstream) phases of the work (Figure 2.8). They are largely absent from more formal activities, especially enforcement and dispute settlement.

Objectives and benefits of IRC

A large majority of IOs pursue IRC in order to control cross-border harms and risks (Figure 2.9). Reducing barriers to trade and investment is an important objective for half of the respondents. These results show that most IOs see their role as supporting the promotion of societal objectives. While important, the economic agenda – including market openness – comes second (after the societal imperative of controlling harms and risks). This confirms the finding of OECD (2013) and subsequent OECD work that the IRC agenda goes beyond trade and economic considerations and contributes to achieve the regulatory objectives of countries.

A number of IOs volunteer additional objectives (Box 2.1), including developing quality system requirements (PIC/S), enhancing resilience to political and economic shocks (ESCWA), promoting growth, job cohesion, regional and sustainable development (EC), consumer protection (OIML), conflict prevention, management and resolution (OSCE), and creating a regulatory framework that supports global connectivity (IATA).

Figure 2.9. **Which of the following objectives does your organisation pursue by providing a forum for IRC?**



Source: OECD Survey of International Organisations, 2015.

Box 2.1. **Objectives and mandates of a sample of IOs**

The main objectives pursued by the OAS are: i) to develop, promote, and implement the Inter-American Program for the Development of International Law; ii) to provide advisory services concerning international law and the development and codification of inter-American law; iii) to support the follow-up mechanisms for certain inter-American conventions; iv) to serve as a depository and source of information for inter-American treaties and the agreements of the OAS and its organs; v) to disseminate information on the legal instruments of the OAS and its legal programmes; and vi) to provide other services related to inter-American legal co-operation.

The mandate of the IAIS is to promote effective and globally consistent supervision of the insurance industry in order to develop and maintain fair, safe and stable insurance markets for the benefit and protection of policyholders, and to contribute to global financial stability. Established in 1994, the IAIS is the international standard-setting body responsible for developing and assisting in the implementation of principles, standards and other supporting material for the supervision of the insurance sector. The IAIS also provides a forum for Members and stakeholders to share experiences and understanding of insurance supervision and insurance markets.

UNODC is mandated to assist member States in their struggle against illicit drugs, crime and terrorism. In the United Nations Millennium Declaration, member States also resolved to intensify efforts to fight transnational crime in all its dimensions, to redouble the efforts to implement the commitment to counter the world drug problem and to take concerted action against international terrorism. The three pillars of the UNODC work are: i) field-based technical co-operation projects to enhance the capacity of member States to counteract illicit drugs, crime and terrorism; ii) research and analytical work to increase knowledge and understanding of drugs and crime issues and expand the evidence base for policy and operational decisions; iii) normative work to assist States in the ratification and implementation of the relevant international treaties, the development of domestic legislation on drugs, crime and terrorism, and the provision of secretariat and substantive services to the treaty-based and governing bodies.

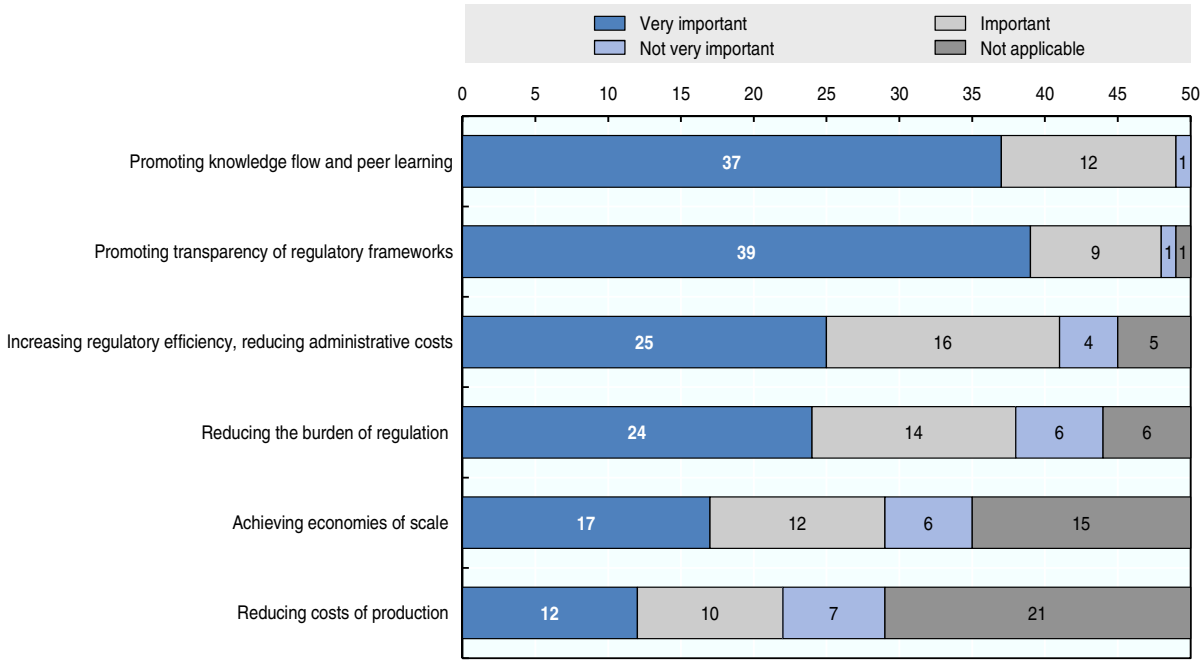
The OIE is the international reference organisation for animal health. The main objectives of the organisation are: i) to ensure transparency in the global animal disease situation; ii) to collect, analyse and disseminate veterinary scientific information; iii) to encourage international solidarity in the control of animal diseases; iv) to safeguard world trade by publishing health standards for international trade in animals and animal products; v) to improve the legal framework and resources of national Veterinary Services; vi) to provide a better guarantee of food of animal origin and promote animal welfare through a science-based approach.

Source: OECD Survey of International Organisations, 2015.

For most IOs, the main benefits provided by their IRC activities come from increased transparency of regulatory frameworks, knowledge flow and peer learning through exchange of information (Figure 2.10). A second set of benefits includes the efficiency gains and reduction of regulatory burdens that IOs can promote through the sharing of tasks and increased coherence across regulatory requirements. Finally, for a quarter of the sample, economic benefits such as economies of scale and cost reductions represent important benefits. A number of IOs volunteer additional benefits, including ensuring the safety, effectiveness and quality of imported products (PIC/S), allowing developing countries to learn from the experiences of developed countries (SAICM), protecting human health and the environment through the development of standards (BRS Conventions), confidence-building in political/military area (OSCE), and improving information for consumers and other stakeholders (IATA).

Figure 2.10. **What are the benefits your organisation offers to its members by providing a forum for IRC?**

50 respondents



Source: OECD Survey of International Organisations, 2015.

For a substantial number of IOs – some 21 of them –, the objectives of IRC have changed with time. In many cases, these changes reflect environmental transformations or the advent of new political priorities for members (see Box 2.2). For some 16 IOs, the objectives of IRC have not changed in themselves, but their activities to continue fulfilling their mandate and objectives have evolved. For instance, from 1971 to 1995, PIC/S consisted of a Mutual Recognition Agreement (MRA) between contracting States on inspection certificates called the Pharmaceutical Inspection Convention (PIC). In the early 1990s, to continue the objectives of PIC but on a voluntary basis, an informal agreement between regulatory authorities was launched. The initial MRA was replaced by a voluntary sharing of inspection reports. Similarly, the ILAC is currently in the process of expanding its MRA to include proficiency testing providers and reference material producers. In the case of the WMO, the activities have developed in response to the needs of its members, the scientific evidence base, and the complexity of the task to achieve the IRC objectives. By contrast, for a number of IOs, there has been little evolution in the objectives or activities. This, for instance, is the case of the OAS, the BRS Conventions, the APEC and the IMF.

Box 2.2. **The evolution of objectives of a sample of IOs**

The scope of work of the IMO has grown gradually over the last decades, driven by developments in the industry and society. These developments have produced a shift in the objectives and IRC activities pursued by IMO. In the early years the IMO concentrated on developing international safety standards (the majority of conventions were adopted between 1969 and 1979). In the 1980s the attention shifted from standard setting to improving implementation of the conventions, in particular by providing technical assistance to developing countries. From the 1990s the IMO developed a more pro-active and preventive approach, in contrast to earlier periods which were characterised as more reactive to disasters. The last decades have seen the emergence of various new activities related to environmental matters, climate change, maritime security, piracy, armed robbery and ocean governance.

In the case of UNECE, while the main goal has remained the same (i.e. strengthening the economic relations of European countries, both among themselves and with non-European countries), the specific objectives have evolved, reflecting fundamental changes in politics and international relations. During the "cold war", UNECE was the only instrument of dialogue and co-operation between two radically different systems. After the transition, the programme of work of the organisation has shifted to focus on contributing to sustainable development through concrete and result-oriented activities that address the needs of countries of the region and beyond.

In the case of OSCE, the objectives of IRC have changed in response to the dramatic evolution of the global security environment. In particular, the OSCE's work has increasingly focused on tackling transnational security threats.

Source: OECD Survey of International Organisations, 2015.

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Chapter 3

The governance and operational modalities of international organisations

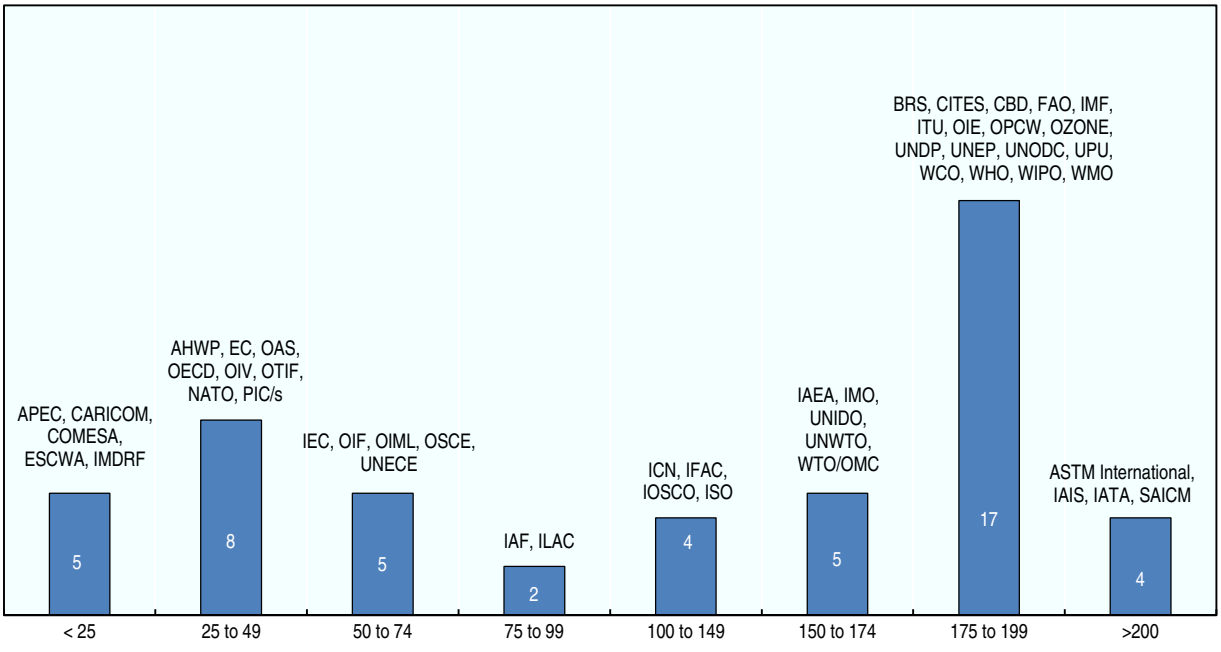
International organisations are organised in different ways to deliver on their normative activities and, more generally, on their contribution to regulatory co-operation. There are differences in their governance arrangements and in their operational modalities. Past decades have seen the emergence of new forms of international platforms - such as the trans-governmental networks of regulators. This chapter analyses the variety in the governance and operational modalities of international organisations based on the answers to the 2015 OECD Survey of International Organisations. It provides an overview of membership, governance structure, decision making processes, legal and policy instruments and budget and staff of international organisations.

According to the *OECD Best Practice Principles for the Governance of Regulators*, to support its activities and ensure that there is confidence in the regulatory regime, a regulator needs a governance structure that combines its human, financial and organisational resources in an effective way. The survey results show significant diversity in the way international organisations (IOs) are organised and in their governance arrangements. There are differences in constituency, as well as in budget and size of the supporting secretariat. Beyond these differences, however, IOs share strong common features – in particular the pursuit of consensus in decision-making; the extension of traditional membership to new geographic zones and non-governmental actors; and, to some extent, some of the roles given to the secretariat.

Membership

Figure 3.1. **Size of core membership of international organisations**

50 respondents



Note: This Figure reflects the number of full members in IOs and not a broader notion of membership to maintain comparability across IOs.

Source: OECD Survey of International Organisations, 2015.

Size of membership of IOs is varied, from 8 (IMDRF) to 293 members (SAICM) (Figure 3.2), with sometimes different levels of membership (e.g. ILAC has 151 members: 90 full members, 6 regional co-operation bodies, 16 associates, 13 affiliates and 27 stakeholders).[1] It is interesting to note that in some cases, associates will be considered as members (ILAC) while in others they will be considered as non-members (OECD). With some 30 000 members, ASTM International provides an exceptional case, where membership does not follow a national delegation principle. Members are individuals representing producers, users, consumers, governments, universities and other stakeholders. Beyond this exceptional case, most IOs are situated at

the ends of the tails: either at the lower end (under 75 members) or at the upper end (over 175 members). This reflects a divide between IOs whose memberships are largely open and IOs with a more restricted membership – in line with their mission/purpose.

The membership of IOs is also varied in terms of the nature of their members (countries, public authorities, private entities such as business groups or non-profit organisations). Members of inter-governmental organisations (IGOs) are "states" and occasionally other IOs. States are also the parties to international conventions, whose secretariats operate as IOs. By contrast, the members of trans-governmental networks of regulators (TGNs) are mainly regulatory agencies or other public authorities. The extent to which they can be regarded as representing their countries/governments varies. TGNs may also involve private entities as members, like the industry sector (e.g. AHWP). Finally, members of international private standard-setting organisations may be public, private or mixed entities (e.g. IEC, ISO), including business groups and non-governmental organisations (NGOs).

Table 3.1. **Average number of (full) members by nature of IOs**

49 respondents

Nature of IOs	Average number of full members	Nature of members
IGO • Open • Closed	**122** 165 33	States
Secretariat of convention	**189**	States
TGN	**115**	Mostly public regulators at the national and/or sub-national level (e.g. IAIS, ICN, IMDRF, IOSCO, PIC/S), including accreditation bodies (e.g. IAF, ILAC). But it can also comprise industry (e.g. AHWP), IOs (e.g. IAIS, IOSCO), or all interested stakeholders in the field concerned (e.g. ILAC, SAICM).
Private standard-setting organisation	**147***	Public, private or mixed (public and private) entities. Mixed, with one representative per country (public or private): e.g. IEC (national committees dedicated to the electrotechnical sector), ISO (national standard bodies) Mixed, with all interested stakeholders in the field concerned: e.g. ASTM International (individuals representing producers, users, consumers, governments, universities...). Corporations: e.g. IATA (airline companies)

Note: The number excludes ASTM International, whose membership reaches 30 000.

Source: OECD Survey of International Organisations, 2015.

Table 3.1 summarises the information on membership and provides the average number of full members by nature of IOs. Overall, and unsurprisingly, the membership of "open" IOs (i.e. IOs aiming for universal membership) is significantly larger than that of "closed" IOs (i.e. IOs with restricted membership). Further analysis using the classification provided in Annex also shows that the membership of "sectoral" organisations (i.e. IOs with a sector-specific purpose) tends to be twice the size of membership of IOs with broad purpose (146 members on average versus 71). This could be explained by the fact that co-operation on specific matters fosters broader participation, which is in turn instrumental in ensuring the global effectiveness of this co-operation. In Figures 3.1 and 3.2, IOs with up to 74 members are "closed" IOs (AHWP, APEC, CARICOM, COMESA, ESCWA, EC, IMDRF, OAS, OECD, OIV,

NATO, OSCE, PIC/S, UNECE), and most IOs with at least 75 members are "sectoral" organisations dealing only with certain policies.

Membership in TGNs – 115 on average – is limited when compared to open IGOs – 165 on average – perhaps because of a focus on an area of interest or competence limited to a smaller number of members. Private standard-setting organisations have a higher average number of members (147) than TGNs. This can be explained by the generally wide acceptance of the standards they develop, at a global scale, calling for wide representation in their membership, as well as by the varied nature of their members.

Further variation in the membership of IOs is found in the status of members. Indeed, several IOs distinguish between "full" members (also simply called members) – which enjoy the full array of rights and obligations for participants – and other participants in the activities of IOs with a somewhat more limited standing (e.g. no voting right). The nature of these participants is eclectic: non-member states, other IOs, NGOs, academics, or more generally, all interested or qualified parties in the fields covered by the IO concerned. The number and specific powers of these forms of participation will vary very significantly across IOs according to the goal they have been given (e.g. first step to full membership, consultation with all relevant stakeholders on technical matters...). In some IOs, these participants are few and/or have a limited role. In others, they may be very numerous and/or central to the IO's activity (e.g. OAS, UNECE and UNWTO). This makes it difficult to compare the size and nature of membership among IOs, or to elaborate a pattern according to membership.

Many IOs have partial/associate/affiliate/corresponding members or observers. When they do, their numbers vary from two to over 400. Their specific status depends on each IO, and the only commonality between them is that they have fewer rights than full members. Nevertheless, some general categories can be drawn from the available literature (Daillier, et al. 2009; Klabbers, 2002; Schermers and Blokker, 2003). Partial members are members of certain organs of an IO, but are not members of the IO as a whole. This status was used for example by the UN to involve in the work of some of its organs certain countries that were not yet members of the UN as a whole. For example, in the UNECE a large proportion of the rule-making activities are open to participation on an equal basis by all UN Member States and in all other activities, all UN Member States are allowed to participate as observers. Associate/affiliate members usually have the same rights as members, particularly with the right to attend the meetings of all or most of the bodies, but with reduced contribution obligations, for instance they cannot vote or hold office (e.g. IFAC, UNWTO).

Observers, in principle, do not belong to the organisation. They have more limited rights – they generally have a limited ability to participate in the IOs' work, lacking the possibility to vote or propose resolutions – and usually only obtain the right to receive some documentation and to participate in activities which directly concern them. They may be permanent (e.g. OAS), as well as more occasional (e.g. OTIF). The number of observers fluctuates. There may be a restricted number of official institutional observers (states or other IOs), in particular in IGOs (e.g. APEC). There may be an unlimited number of observers when any interested party, and notably civil society stakeholders, (e.g. AHWP, ASTM International, OIV), or any qualified/relevant party (e.g. CBD, ICN), can participate. In this case, when there are very numerous and diverse observers (or, more generally, stakeholders without such official status) involved in one way or another in the IOs decision-making process, it becomes complicated to clearly identify the limits set for the membership.

These results illustrate the fact that IO membership has become more complex and varied than 50 years ago. First, new and non IGO forms of IOs (TGNs and private standard setting organisations) have clearly broadened the notion of membership by including non-state actors. Second, IGOs themselves have not been excluded from the broadening of their membership. The IGOs have sought to expand their membership – geographically and/or in their nature – through other forms of participation, such as partial membership (which generally remains a state status); observership or stakeholders' engagement, which has allowed non-state actors to contribute to rule-making. As the world became more interconnected and economic and political powers evolved, IOs have considered that their continued relevance and, in particular, the quality of their rule-making was a function of their capacity to involve a broader range of actors in their activities. As a consequence, the strictly legal perspective about member or non-member rights needs to be overcome in order to better understand their real functioning.

Governance structure

The survey shows that the governance structure of IOs follows a basic model, with specific variations for each IO. The model is as follows:

The "supreme" organ is plenary and generally meets infrequently to decide on major policy and operational issues. In most cases, this supreme body creates an executive organ (plenary or not), which meets frequently to make common decisions. The reason for this sometimes limited number of members is likely that a plenary executive body would not be capable of effective decision-making, so a smaller body needs to be created for this purpose. The distribution of roles between the supreme and the executive body may vary. For example, the executive organ is sometimes made of two or more bodies, with authority in their respective specialised domains (e.g. OAS, ILAC, OIF, OSCE).

In other cases, the same (supreme) body may serve both as the supreme and the executive organ, sometimes with different levels of representation from members (heads of state or government, ministers, permanent representatives, senior national officials, etc.). This is particularly the case for IOs with a limited number of members (up to about 60 members; e.g. OECD, APEC, OAS, OIF, CARICOM, OSCE, NATO). This is likely because in such instances the membership is small enough to make executive decisions manageable by the sole and supreme organ. The governing body and executive organ is also plenary in a number of technical organisations (e.g. CBD, OIML, UNEP, WCO, WTO/OMC), perhaps because very specific technical matters may not lead to as many and as broad discussions as may exist in more general IOs.

Both the supreme and executive organs may create subsidiary bodies to assist them in specific (administrative or technical) areas. As explained above, some of the IOs from the survey (ESCWA, UNECE, UNODC) are subsidiary bodies of the United Nations. The composition of subsidiary bodies is varied. It may imply a form of parallelism between the subsidiary bodies and the organs which have created them (for example, within UNECE, only UN member states are entitled to participate in its activities). However, the survey results suggest that technical bodies may be plenary when their members are representatives of member states (e.g. FAO), whereas administrative bodies will usually not be plenary. Technical bodies can also be made of independent experts (e.g. OPCW), in which case they are neither plenary nor non-plenary.

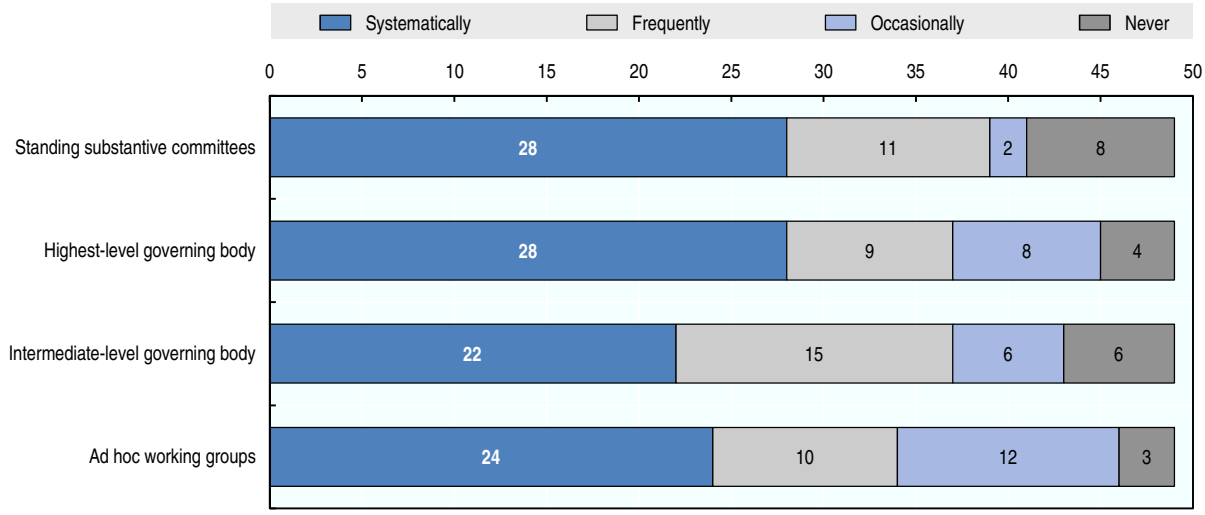
IOs generally have a secretariat, tasked with the administrative management of the organisation and, often, with more substantive assistance with the IO's functions, although the size and specific tasks of this secretariat vary widely (see the section below on the role of the secretariat).

Organs involved in IRC and decision-making process

Overall, IRC takes place at all levels of the IOs' structure (Figure 3.2) and typically through a sequence of organs (Figure 3.3), reflecting the gradual build-up of co-operation through the entire decision-making process. Upstream activities of data collection, exchange of information and proposals are generally managed by technical committees and the secretariat of the IO. Instruments of IRC are then approved by one or more of its governing bodies.

Figure 3.2. **To what extent does IRC take place within specific organs of your organisation?**

49 respondents



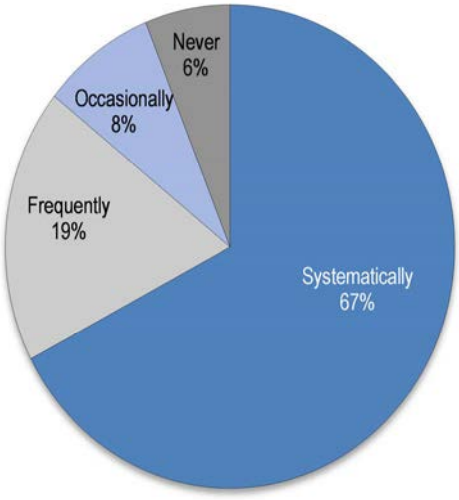
Note: The information is missing for IEC.

Source: OECD Survey of International Organisations, 2015.

Where respondents distinguish between decision-making rules for procedural matters and for substantive matters, procedural issues are decided by simple majority (Table 3.2). On substance, decision-making rules are varied. Qualified majority, when applicable, usually requires two thirds of the votes (e.g. CITES, OZONE, UNIDO). However, consensus has become by far the most applied rules for adopting substantive issues within IOs (Box 3.1 and Table 3.2).Without the need for a formal vote and its advantages over unanimity and majority, it ensures IOs the necessary flexibility to adopt their instruments more easily. Thus, there is a pervasive attempt to always look for consensus (e.g. CARICOM, CITES, FAO, IAEA, IAF, IAIS, ILAC, IMO, OAS, OECD, OIE, OIF, OZONE, PIC/S, UNIDO, UPU, WCO, WHO, WIPO), even despite the existence of decision-making rules providing for other procedures (majority votes, etc.).

Figure 3.3. **How frequently do IRC processes involve a sequence of organs (e.g. committee action followed by governing body action)?**

49 respondents



Note: The information is missing for IEC.

Source: OECD Survey of International Organisations, 2015.

In practice, in order to obtain a consensus among participants, discussions frequently continue until mutually acceptable decision is reached. When every reasonable effort to come to an agreement has been made, but ultimately failed, it may be decided to proceed to a formal vote as a last resort. For instance, CITES makes most decisions by consensus; voting only occurs when consensus cannot be reached. Similarly, the Basic Texts and Organic Rules of the OIE provide that in making decisions to adopt, amend or delete standards, the OIE Assembly shall make every effort to reach agreement by consensus and voting should only take place if such efforts to reach consensus fail. With a decision-making process based on consensus, there is a risk of endless negotiations. To solve this difficulty, some IOs have decided to postpone the vote on the proposed decision to allow more time for participants to reach an agreement. For example, the OPCW rules of procedure provide for a 24-hours delay.[2]

Box 3.1. **Definition of consensus**

Decision-making through consensus allows IOs to adopt a proposal only in the absence of any objection expressed, and without a formal vote. A decision taken by consensus has the same legal force and validity as if there was a vote. Consensus is relatively widespread in IOs. It was an informal decision-making process that emerged from their practice, before being more and more expressly included in many of their constitutive instruments.

- OSCE, Rules of Procedure, "Decisions of the OSCE decision-making bodies shall be adopted by consensus. Consensus shall be understood to mean the absence of any objection expressed by a participating State to the adoption of the decision in question."
- WTO/OMC, Marrakesh Agreement Establishing the WTO, Article IX:1, Note 1, "The body concerned shall be deemed to have decided by consensus on a matter submitted for its consideration, if no Member, present at the meeting when the decision is taken, formally objects to the proposed decision."

Box 3.1. **Definition of consensus** (*cont.*)

- OPCW, Chemical Weapons Convention, article VIII, B, 18), concerning the Conference of the States Parties, "[d]ecisions on matters of substance should be taken as far as possible by consensus".

Consensus differs from unanimity which normally requires a formal vote of all the participants in favour of the proposal. The agreement obtained by consensus is less general, complete than that obtained by unanimity. Nevertheless, consensus is now being applied in priority by IOs because the adoption of a legal instrument (legally binding or not) through consensus is easier: all must compromise and none has a right of veto. In addition, consensus is preferred to a majority vote that, in the context of decision-making in IOs, tends to crystallise opposition by advantaging the interests of the majority, against those of minorities.

Furthermore, it can be observed that the notion of consensus is evolving by deviating from the traditional legal definition. For some IOs, it is not only the absence of any objection expressed, but now a sustained – significant – lack of opposition, that characterises a consensus.

ISO/IEC Guide 2:2004, "consensus: [g]eneral agreement, characterized by the absence of sustained opposition to substantial issues by any important part of the concerned interests and by a process that involves seeking to take into account the views of all parties concerned and to reconcile any conflicting arguments.

Note: Consensus need not imply unanimity"; ISO/IEC Directives, 2.5.6, the notion of "sustained oppositions" "are views expressed (…) and which are maintained by an important part of the concerned interest and which are incompatible with the committee consensus. The notion of "concerned interest(s)" will vary depending on the dynamics of the committee and must therefore be determined by the committee leadership on a case by case basis."

Source: OECD Survey of International Organisations, 2015; Aspremont, J. d', Ventura, D. (2013), "La composition des organes et le processus décisionnel" in Lagrange, E. and J. Sorel (eds), *Droit des organisations internationales*, LGDJ, Paris, p. 422-425; Daillier, P. et al. (2009), *Droit international public*, LGDJ, Paris, p. 694-695; Schermers, H. and N. Blokker (2003), *International Institutional Law*, Martinus Nijhoff Publishers, Boston/Leiden, pp. 523-534, § 771-786.

It is important to note that there may be inconsistencies in the use of "consensus" in survey answers. Several IOs have in fact underlined that the definitions used in the survey for "consensus" and "unanimity" should be interchanged. This may accordingly be reflected in the data, where the prevalence of "consensus" should likely not be understood to mean the agreement of all but rather the absence of objection (e.g. OSCE). Furthermore, it is unclear whether the fact that "consensus/unanimity" is the most frequent decision-making rule reflects the existence of an actual official rule or whether it merely reflects this unofficial push for consensus, while the official rules are in fact some form of (perhaps qualified) majority (e.g. IMO, WHO).

Table 3.2. **Decision-making rules applied for procedural and substantive issues**

Procedural issues (this information is provided by only 12 respondents)		**Substantive issues (this information is provided by 48 respondents)**						
		Consensus / Unanimity			Simple majority			**Inclination to not vote and look for consensus**
Consensus/ unanimity	Simple majority	High-level governing body	Intermediate level governing body	Technical level (Standing substantive committees and ad hoc working groups)	High-level governing body	Intermediate level governing body	Technical level (standing substantive committees and ad hoc working groups)	
8%	100%	79%	77%	81%	38%	44%	42%	54%
OECD (there is only one exception: the vote of the agenda which is by simple majority)	BRS Conv., CARICOM, CBD, CITES, ESCWA, ILAC, OECD, OPCW, OSCE, OZONE, SAICM, WMO	AHWP, APEC, BRS Conv., ASTM Int., CARICOM, CBD, CITES, COMESA, ESCWA, FAO, IAEA, IAF, IAIS, ICN, ILAC, IMDRF, IMO, IOSCO, ISO, ITU, NATO, OAS, OECD, OIE, OIF, OIML, OIV, OPCW, OSCE, PIC/S, SAICM, UNECE, UNIDO, UPU, WCO, WHO, WIPO, WTO/OMC	AHWP, APEC, CARICOM, CBD, CITES, COMESA, ESCWA, FAO, IAEA, IAF, IAIS, ICN, IEC, ILAC, IMO, IOSCO, ISO, ITU, NATO, OAS, OECD, OIE, OIF, OIML, OIV, OPCW, OSCE, OZONE, PIC/S, SAICM, UNECE, UNIDO, UPU, WCO, WHO, WIPO, WTO/OMC	AHWP, APEC, BRS Conv., ASTM Int., CARICOM, CITES, ESCWA, FAO, IAEA, IAF, IAIS, IATA, ICN, IEC, ILAC, IMDRF, IMO, IOSCO, ISO, ITU, NATO, OAS, OECD, OIE, OIF, OIML, OIV, OPCW, OZONE, PIC/S, SAICM, UNECE, UNIDO, UNODC, UPU, WCO, WHO, WIPO, WTO/OMC	ESCWA, FAO, IAEA, IAF, IAIS, IATA, IEC, IFAC, IMF, IMO, IOSCO, OPCW, OTIF, UNECE, UNEP, UNWTO, WCO, WHO	ESCWA, FAO, IAEA, IAF, IAIS, IATA, IFAC, ILAC, IMF, IMO, OPCW, OTIF, PIC/S, UNECE, UNEP, UNWTO, UPU, WCO, WHO, WMO, WIPO	CARICOM, CBD, ESCWA, FAO, IAF, IAIS, IATA, ILAC, IMO, OAS, OTIF, OZONE, PIC/S, UNECE, UNWTO, UPU, WCO, WHO, WIPO, WMO	APEC, BRS Conv. CARICOM, CBD, CITES, FAO, IAEA, IAF, IAIS, IATA, ILAC, IMO, IOSCO, OAS, OECD, OIE, OIF, OZONE, PIC/S, SAICM, UNECE, UNIDO, UPU, WCO, WHO, WIPO, WTO/OMC

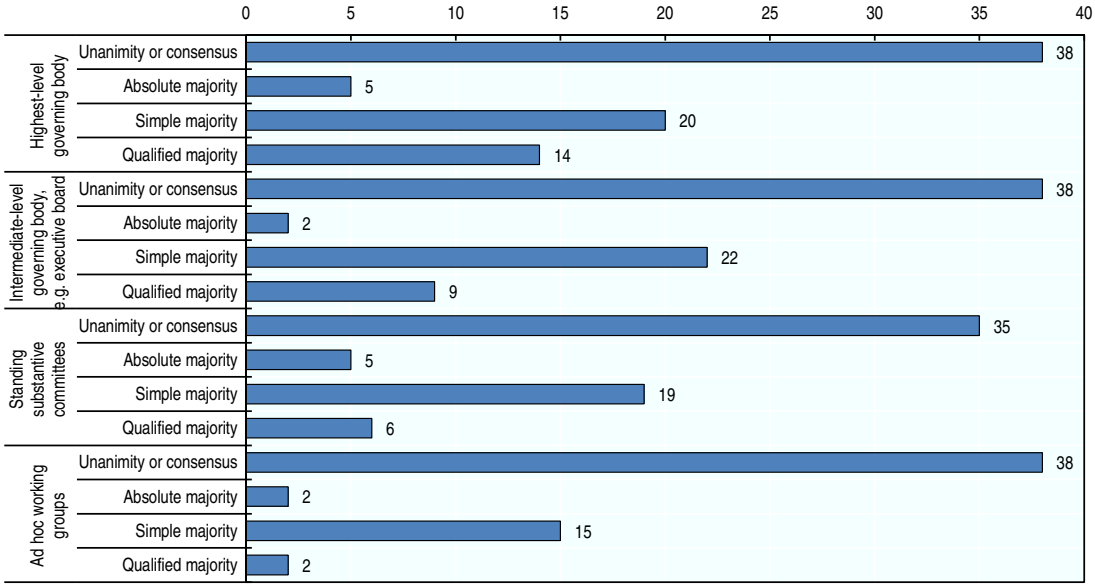
Notes: The information for the EC and UNDP is not included. While the OECD survey did not include a specific question on the decision-making rules of IOs distinguishing between procedural and substantive issues, this table is informed by data collected both from the OECD survey and from the official websites of IOs.

Source: OECD Survey of International Organisations, 2015.

Overall, a significant number of IOs (some 26 out of 48) use both consensus / unanimity and majority decisions (Figure 3.4), while 16 use only the former and 6 only the latter (IFAC, IMF, UNEP, OTIF, UNWTO, WMO). Decision-making rules are usually similar for all organs in a given IO (e.g. IMO, ISO, APEC, OSCE), with, however, the possibility of some form of majority decisions appearing more frequently in higher-level bodies than in technical ones (e.g. IATA, ILAC, OPCW, OZONE). In technical bodies, such as standing substantive committees or ad hoc working groups, consensus is generally dominant. For instance, the OSCE Forum for Security Co-operation (one of the OSCE's two main decision-making bodies) works on the basis of consensus.

Figure 3.4. **What decision-making rules apply to actions by each organ?**

48 respondents

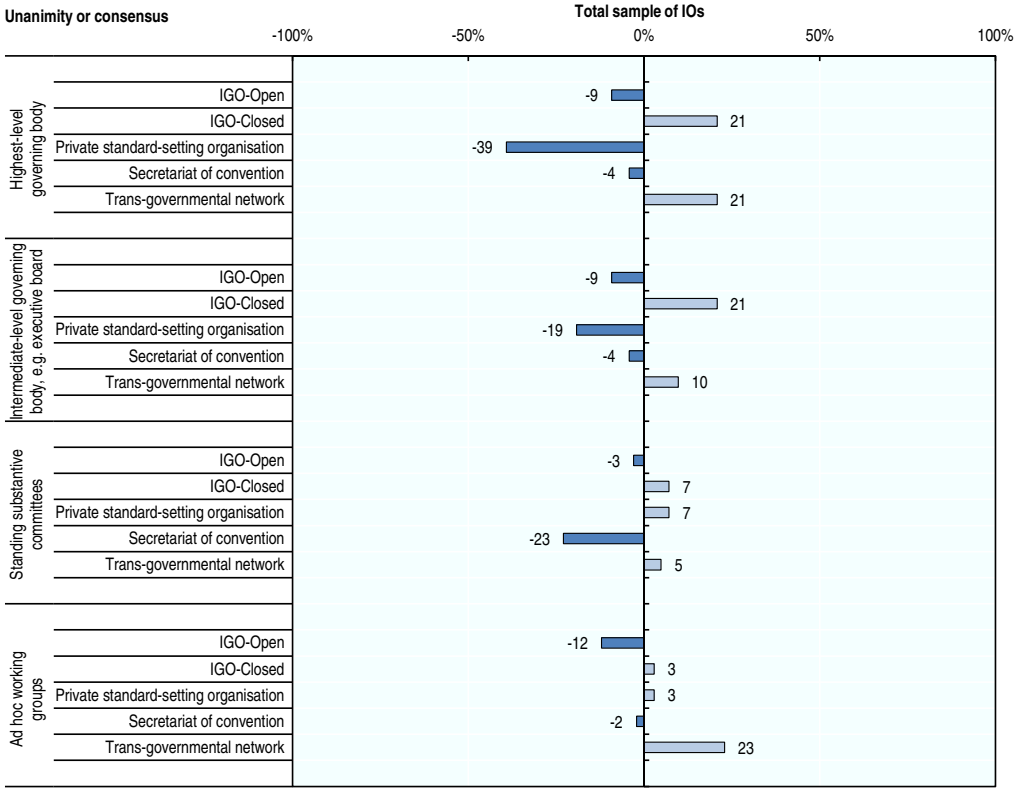


Note: The information is missing for the EC and UNDP.

Source: OECD Survey of International Organisations, 2015.

Figure 3.5. **Use of unanimity or consensus by nature of IOs**

49 respondents

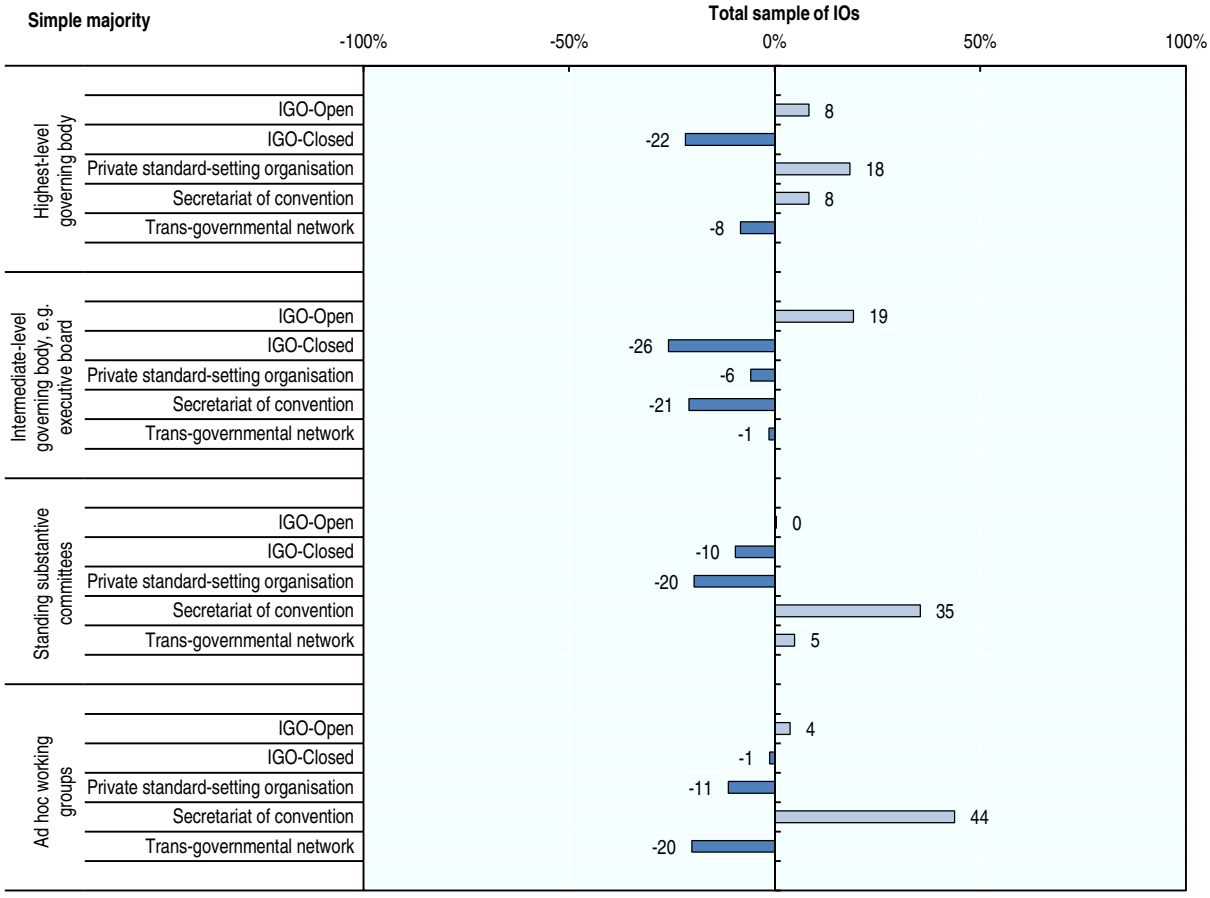


Notes: Excluding the EC and UNDP. The figure compares the averages for the specific IO groups to the average for the total sample of IOs.

Source: OECD Survey of International Organisations, 2015.

Figure 3.6. **Use of simple majority by nature of IOs**

49 respondents



Notes: Excluding the EC and UNDP. The figure compares the averages for the specific IO groups to the average for the total sample of IOs.

Source: OECD Survey of International Organisations, 2015.

IOs with a large number of members (e.g. IATA, UNEP, UPU, CITES, IMF, WHO, WMO, IAIS) are more likely to have the possibility of majority decisions than IOs with smaller membership, which almost always use mutual agreement (e.g. APEC, ESCWA, NATO, OECD, UNECE). This result is reflected in the difference between closed-membership and open-membership IGOs shown in Figures 3.5 and 3.6. Open-membership IGOs tend to use consensus/unanimity decision-making rules less systematically and simple majority more systematically than the total sample. By contrast, closed-membership IGOs use consensus/unanimity more systematically than the sample. Secretariats of conventions, which enjoy a broad number of members and legally binding instruments, adopt simple majority decision-making rules more systematically. Although they also enjoy a broad membership, international private standard setting organisations use simple majority less systematically than the overall sample. This may reflect the voluntary nature of technical standards, their main products. These trends suggest a real-world approach to decision-making, where mutual agreement is required for technical aspects and in organisations with fewer members, but majority vote is used to push co-operation forward in large organisations or to move beyond some reticence at the political level.

Legal or policy instruments used by IOs in support of IRC

The IOs were asked to identify the frequency with which they adopt the following IRC instruments or to volunteer others that they use. The terms were not defined in the survey, but most are widely used in the charters of IOs. An "Other" category made space for any additional instruments used by the IOs – technical standards are one that was suggested. The following commonly used instruments were investigated:

- Treaties are legally-binding agreements between states (and sometimes IOs) which usually enter into force after ratification by states.
- Legally-binding decisions, also sometimes called "regulations" are adopted by IOs and are legally binding on their members.
- Recommendations are non-legally binding legal instruments adopted by IOs. They differ from non-binding guidance/best practices in the way that they are usually more formal and adopted at a higher level (usually the political/supreme level of the IO).
- Model treaties or laws are "ready-to-use" frames adopted by IOs for their members to use when drafting their own treaties/laws, and are in that sense somewhat similar to recommendations even if more detailed and directly useable.
- Finally, "declarations" are usually high-level aspirational and non-legally binding statements adopted by political (not technical) organs.

Despite the fact that the list was generally intended to distinguish legally binding instruments from the non-legally binding (and to reflect the decreasing level of legal force), there appears to be some variation in the understanding of what some of these categories cover (Box 3.2). This is the reason why there is no general typology based on the definitions given by IOs for each legal instrument. However, it is possible to identify three broad approaches to IO rule-making depending on the legal value of the instruments adopted.

The first approach is through legally binding instruments, i.e. requirements which are meant to be directly binding on member states: conventions and treaties (e.g. FAO, OAS, OZONE, UNEP, UNODC, WTO/OMC); agreements (e.g. CARICOM); protocols (e.g. OZONE); amendments (e.g. CITES, OZONE); decisions (e.g. CBD, OECD, UNEP); or resolutions (e.g. CITES, UNEP).

The second approach is through non-legally binding instruments which by their nature/wording are not intended to be legally binding but States can give them (or some of their provisions) a legally binding value (e.g. through transposition into domestic law or recognition in international legal instruments). For example, it comprises instruments listed as recommendations by IOs (e.g. OECD/CARICOM); sometimes with a different name than "recommendations" (such as standards/OIML/IMF/FAO, principles/IMF/IAIS, best practices guide/IATA, recommended practices/ICN, codes/IMF). This category also includes memoranda of understanding (e.g. ILAC, IAIS, IOSCO); models treaty or law (e.g. CITES, ESCWA, OAS, OECD, OIML, OPCW, UNIDO, UNODC); technical standards (e.g. ASTM International, IAEA, IEC, ISO, WMO); or resolutions (e.g. IATA, OIV).

In this group, technical standards should be highlighted. They are developed in response to a need in a particular area expressed by stakeholders through a bottom up approach. These standards are then voluntarily adopted by states – and may thus become

legally binding –, as well as by private entities, because they are perceived as necessary, justified. They have also received an international recognition through the WTO/OMC TBT and SPS Agreements. The TBT Agreement provides that "[w]here (…) relevant international standards exist (…) Members shall use them, (…) as a basis for their technical regulations" (Article 2:4). WTO/OMC Members may choose to deviate from international standards if they consider them 'ineffective or inappropriate means for the fulfilment of the legitimate objectives pursued' (Article 2.4). The SPS Agreement has similar provisions requiring Members to use international standards as a basis for SPS measures (Article 3 in particular), or produce a relevant risk assessment demonstrating the scientific justification for the measure. The TBT Agreement does not provide a list of international standard-setting bodies. However, the TBT Committee has established a set of six principles that help identify whether a standard qualifies as an international standard under the TBT Agreement: transparency, openness, impartiality and consensus, effectiveness and relevance, coherence, and the development dimension (WTO, 2000). The SPS Agreement explicitly cites the standards of the Codex Alimentarius, the OIE, and the Secretariat of the International Plant Protection Convention.

The third approach is through non-legally binding instruments which provide statement of intent with an important symbolic significance or guidance. They primarily express a political will/commitment, such as (political) declarations (e.g. CBD, OAS, OECD, OIF, OSCE, UNECE, UNIDO); recommendations (e.g. OECD); policy instruments/policies (e.g. ISO, UNEP, UNIDO); best practices (e.g. FAO, OAS, OECD, OSCE, UNDP, UNEP), and instruments designated as best practices by IOs (e.g. guidelines/CBD/FAO, resolutions/OIV/WMO).

Box 3.2. **Example of variations in the categories of legal instruments adopted by IOs**

There is no common definition for each legal instrument adopted by IOs. When IOs try to define the legal instruments they adopt in their constitutive charter (which is relatively rare), the given definition is intended solely for the purpose of each respective IO. Only the terms "treaty" and "convention", which are almost synonymous, seem to receive the same meaning (e.g. ILO), notably thanks to the definition of key terms used in the UN Treaty Collection.

UN Definition of key terms used in the UN Treaty Collection defines "Convention as a generic term: Art.38 (1) (a) of the Statute of the International Court of Justice refers to 'international conventions, whether general or particular' as a source of law, apart from international customary rules and general principles of international law and – as a secondary source – judicial decisions and the teachings of the most highly qualified publicists. This generic use of the term 'convention' embraces all international agreements, in the same way as does the generic term 'treaty'"; "In order to speak of a 'treaty' in the generic sense, an instrument has to meet various criteria. First of all, it has to be a binding instrument, which means that the contracting parties intended to create legal rights and duties. Secondly, the instrument must be concluded by states or international organizations with treaty-making power. Thirdly, it has to be governed by international law. Finally the engagement has to be in writing."

In general, there is no single and widely accepted definition for each instrument adopted by IOs (which can create confusion for the members and for the external eye). Sometimes a single instrument can have two definitions, if not fundamentally opposed, at least sufficiently different to create confusions. This is the reason why there is no general typology based on the definitions given by IOs for each legal instrument. However, a classification may be envisaged depending on the legal value of the instruments adopted. This typology could focus on their legally binding character.

Box 3.2. **Example of variations in the categories of legal instruments adopted by IOs** (*cont.*)

For example, among legally binding instruments, it should be noted that the term "decision" is not entirely satisfactory: because of its generality, it is not possible to determine what it could exactly mean. For example, within the OECD, Decisions are legally binding on all those member countries which do not abstain at the time they are adopted. While they are not international treaties, they do entail the same kind of legal obligations as those subscribed to under international treaties. Adherents are obliged to implement Decisions and they must take the measures necessary for such implementation (see also ITU, UNEP).

Among non-legally binding instruments, while the term "recommendation" was intended to target non-legally binding legal instruments formally adopted at a high level and addressed to states, some IOs have a broader view of what a recommendation is, for instance as any non-binding guidance, often adopted at a technical level (e.g. APEC, CBD, CITES, COMESA, ESCWA, IATA, IMDRF, IMF, NATO, OZONE, PIC/S, UNODC). These "recommendations" may also in fact be very close to what other organisations call model laws/regulations (e.g. OIML).

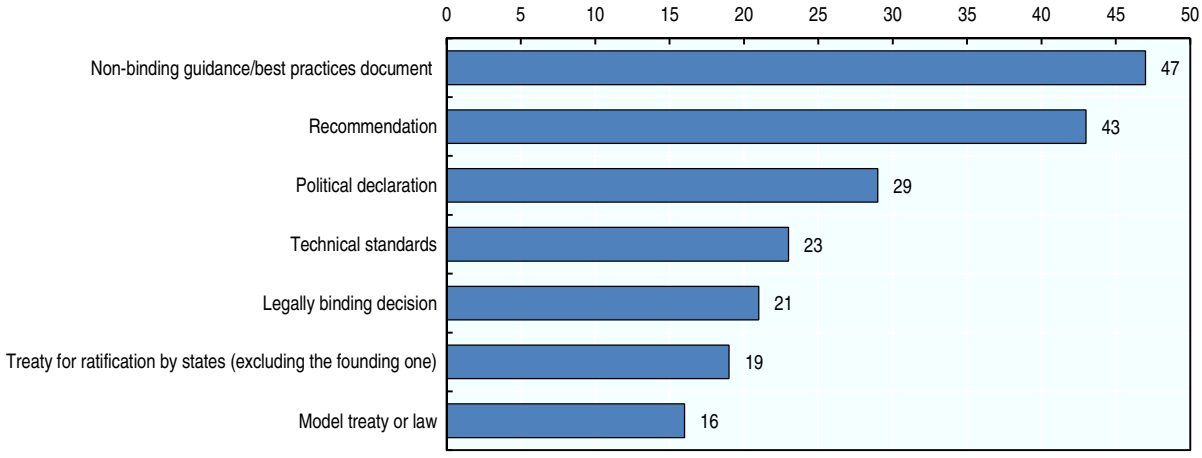
Some instruments may also be legally binding, as well as non-legally binding. According to the definition of key terms used in the UN Treaty Collection, declarations "that are intended to have binding effects could be classified as follows: a) A declaration can be a treaty in the proper sense. (...) b) An interpretative declaration is an instrument that is annexed to a treaty with the goal of interpreting or explaining the provisions of the latter. c) A declaration can also be an informal agreement with respect to a matter of minor importance. d) A series of unilateral declarations can constitute binding agreements". But, not all declarations are legally binding and the "term is often deliberately chosen to indicate that the parties do not intend to create binding obligations but merely want to declare certain aspirations", Similarly, memoranda of understanding refer to "international instruments binding at international law (...) of a less formal kind. It often sets out operational arrangements under a framework international agreement" (UN, Definition of key terms used in the UN Treaty Collection). However, some IOs expressly consider that they are not legally binding (e.g. IAIS, ILAC, IOSCO).

This shows a certain lack of clarity in distinguishing between different non-legally binding instruments, particularly between policy instruments and technical guidance papers.

According to the survey results (Figure 3.7 and Table 3.3), there is widespread use of all types of instruments. However, non-legally binding instruments and policy standards are used much more often than legally binding ones. All IOs adopt soft instruments and it was difficult for some IOs to estimate the number of policy standards (e.g. political declaration and guidance/best practices documents) developed (Table 3.3). While there is a substantial number of IOs that, in fact, adopt only non-legally binding instruments, IOs which adopt legally binding instruments usually also develop non-legally binding ones. It is worth noting that 8 IOs reported the adoption of their own founding legislation as part of treaties adopted by their organisations. For the sake of clarity, they were excluded from the statistics in Figure 3.7 and Table 3.3 to illustrate the occurrence of "new" treaties beyond those establishing the IOs. Almost half of the sampled IOs report developing technical standards. When IOs engage in this activity, the number of standards adopted on average is well beyond the number of other instruments.

Figure 3.7. **What types of legal or policy instruments does your organisation adopt to embody understandings on IRC?**

50 respondents



Note: The figure does not consider the treaties or conventions establishing the IOs as a product of the IOs. For this reason, the number of IOs that adopt treaties for ratification by states does not include BRS Conventions, CITES, COMESA, OIE, OIML, OIV, OPCW and UNIDO, although they are tasked with managing their own funding treaty/convention.

Source: OECD Survey of International Organisations, 2015.

Table 3.3. **Estimated numbers of legal and policy instruments of IOs**

50 respondents

	IOs adopting this instrument	IOs able to provide number of instruments	Total number of instruments provided	Average number of instruments/IOs	Variance
Treaty for ratification by states	19	19	376	20	From 1 (OSCE) to 100 (UNECE)
Legally binding decision	21	14	8 970	641	From 1 (ILAC) to >6 900 (EU)
Recommendation	43	28	6 500	232	From 3 (WIPO) to >2 000 (UNIDO)
Political declaration	29	14	279	20	From 1 (SAICM) to 30 (WCO)
Model treaty or law	16	5	75	15	Mostly 1 and 2 70 (CARICOM)
Non-binding guidance/best practices document	47	22	3 559	162	From 1 (SAICM) to 1 500 (ASTM International)
Technical standards	23	18	48 573	2 699	From 1 (PIC/S) to 21 000 (ISO)

Notes: Reported numbers are estimates based on information provided by IOs.

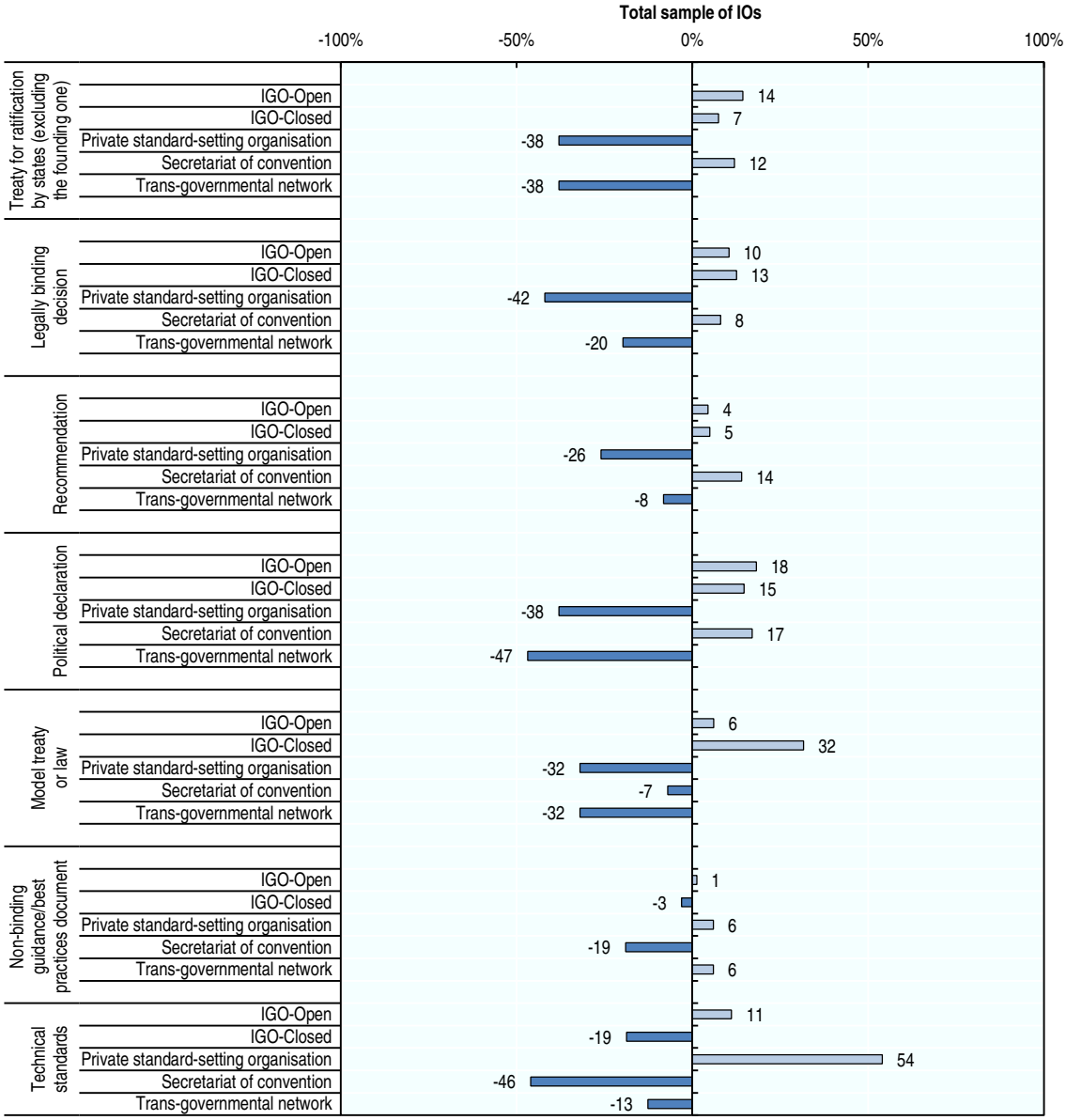
The first row of the table (Treaty for ratification by states) excludes the IOs that reported their founding treaty only (BRS, CITES, COMESA, OIE, OIML, OIV, OPCW and UNIDO).

The information on technical standards is derived from the IO profiles in Annex.

Source: OECD Survey of International Organisations, 2015.

Figure 3.8. **Types of instruments by nature of IOs**

50 respondents



Notes: The figure compares the averages for the specific IO groups to the average for the total sample of IOs. In this figure, the EC is included in the category of closed-membership IGOs.

Source: OECD Survey of International Organisations, 2015.

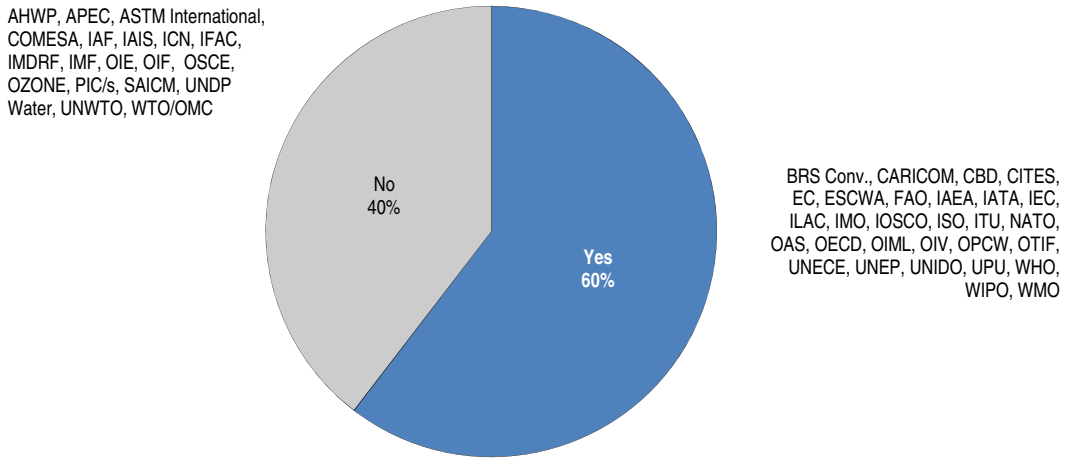
An analysis by nature of IOs shows that, in general, legal and policy instruments (treaties / legally binding decisions / recommendations / political declarations / model treaties or laws) are mainly adopted by IGOs and secretariats of conventions (Figure 3.8). Trans-governmental networks and private standard-setting organisations tend to adopt only non-binding documents. Unsurprisingly, standard-setting organisations strongly focus their activity on the production of technical standards. However, the evidence shows that other IOs, in particular open-membership IGOs also produce technical

standards. Generally, an important finding of the survey results is that IGOs and secretariats of convention adopt a much wider variety of instruments (on average, they have selected 4.8 and 4.3 of the 7 categories offered in the survey, respectively) than TGNs (2.4 categories on average) and international standard-setting organisations (2.8 categories). The relative homogeneity of products of these last two categories is an important feature that differentiates them from IGOs.

A majority of IOs (29) provide flexibility to their members to decide whether or not specific instruments or parts thereof apply to them, for example, through opt-in and opt-out mechanisms (Figures 3.9 and 3.10). However, 19 IOs do not make use of these mechanisms. This feature is not simply explained by the decision-making rules of these organisations which are of much the same kind as IOs that do provide such flexibility. It is more likely related to the formality of the IO and the stringency of its instruments. With a couple of exceptions, it is mainly IGOs and secretariats of convention that provide for these mechanisms. Almost three quarters of these IOs make use of these procedures, while it is only a quarter of TGNs that have this flexibility.

Figure 3.9. **Does your organisation make use of procedures, which allow members to determine whether or not specific instruments or parts thereof apply to them?**

48 respondents

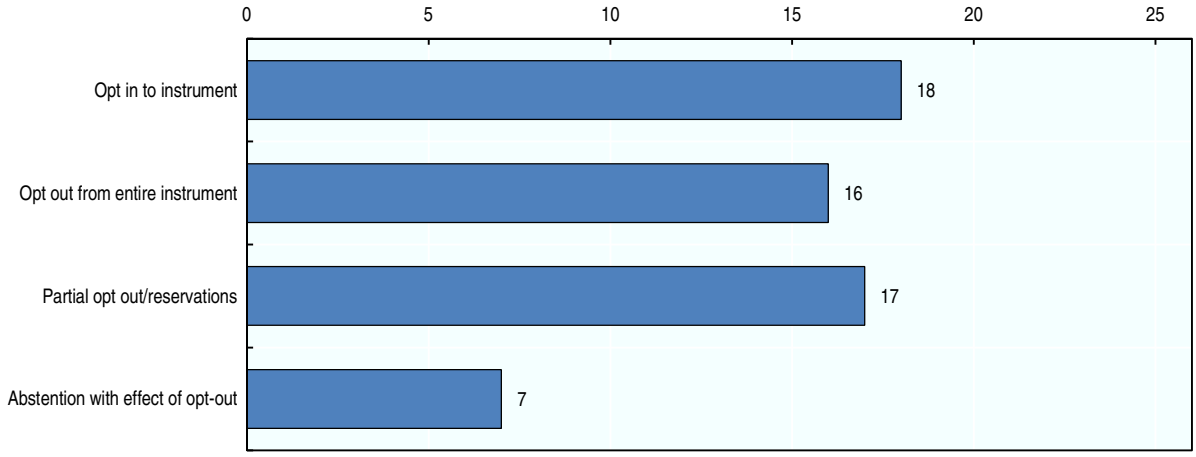


Notes: The information is missing for UNODC and WCO. WTO/OMC does not allow Members to opt out of its instruments. However, there are voluntary plurilateral agreements in force under the WTO/OMC framework in which participation of members is voluntary.

Source: OECD Survey of International Organisations, 2015.

Figure 3.10. **Among IOs that make use of these procedures, which are the instruments used?**

29 respondents



Source: OECD Survey of International Organisations, 2015.

The endorsement of IRC instruments by non-members

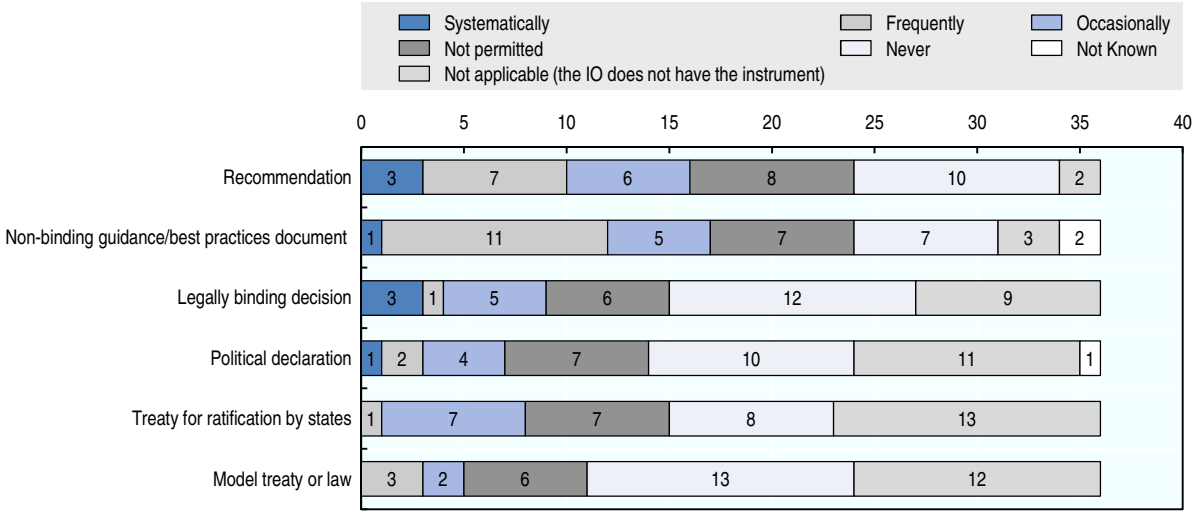
A majority of IOs have established procedures to allow non-members to commit (through adherence or endorsement) to their instruments (Figure 3.11). Nevertheless, 14 IOs have not responded to this question. This shows a widespread effort from IOs to reach out globally beyond their membership, which could be explained by the importance for the relevance and effectiveness of IRC instruments of having the broadest possible adherence. Overall, IOs which allow non-members to adhere to their instruments can be grouped in two profiles: IOs with a smaller membership (APEC, CARICOM, COMESA, ESCWA, IAF, OECD, OIF, OIML, PIC/S, UNECE) and sectoral IOs which have not yet achieved universal membership (CBD, CITES, IAEA, IAIS, IATA, IOSCO, OPCW, OIV, UNIDO, WIPO). The examples of the OECD and the OPCW are particularly illustrative. Conversely, large sectoral IOs which already cover all relevant members have no reason to allow non-members to endorse their IRC instruments (e.g. UPU). This would seem to show an accurate assessment by IOs of their global outreach needs in terms of maximising the impact of their IRC activities.

However, such participation is also sometimes expressly not permitted (depending on the specific instrument, around 20% of respondents do so, with a slightly higher level for political declarations and treaties), either for all the kinds of instruments that the IO may adopt (e.g. NATO, OAS, OTIF, UPU) or for certain kinds of instruments only (e.g. CARICOM, FAO, IAIS, WCO, WHO).

The adoption of express procedures allowing non-members to commit is somewhat in line with the possibility for members of those IOs to opt-out or opt-in. Both likely reflect a more flexible approach to commitments towards their instruments. Indeed, half of the IOs (CARICOM, CBD, CITES, ESCWA, FAO, IAEA, IATA, OECD, OIML, OPCW, UNECE, UNIDO, WHO) that allow flexibility for members to opt-out or opt-in also extend this option to non-members.

Figure 3.11. **How frequently do non-members adhere to or endorse IRC instruments?**

36 respondents



Notes: The information is missing for BRS Conventions, EC, ILAC, ICN, IEC, IMF, IMO, OIE, UNDP Water and Oceans, UNEP, UNWTO, OSCE, WMO, WTO/OMC.

Source: OECD Survey of International Organisations, 2015.

Commitment by non-members is most frequent for non-legally binding instruments such as recommendations, guidance and best practices. This is quite intuitive since the consequences for non-members of committing to non-legally binding instruments are of course much lighter than those stemming from adherence to legally-binding instruments. IOs whose instruments are most frequently endorsed by non-members appear to have more of a general economic policy profile (e.g. OECD, OIML, UNECE). This could be explained by the fact that there instruments can apply and be useful to a wide array of non-members, beyond and despite the idiosyncrasies of their membership. Instruments in other policy domains which may be of interest or apply to fewer non-members are accordingly less frequently endorsed by non-members (e.g. IAEA, OIF). However, it seems to be complicated for IOs to follow and measure with accuracy the adhesion or endorsement by non-members, except when a special procedure exists to authorise non-members to adopt their instruments, or when the use of the norm requires a financial payment (for example, in the case of private standards).

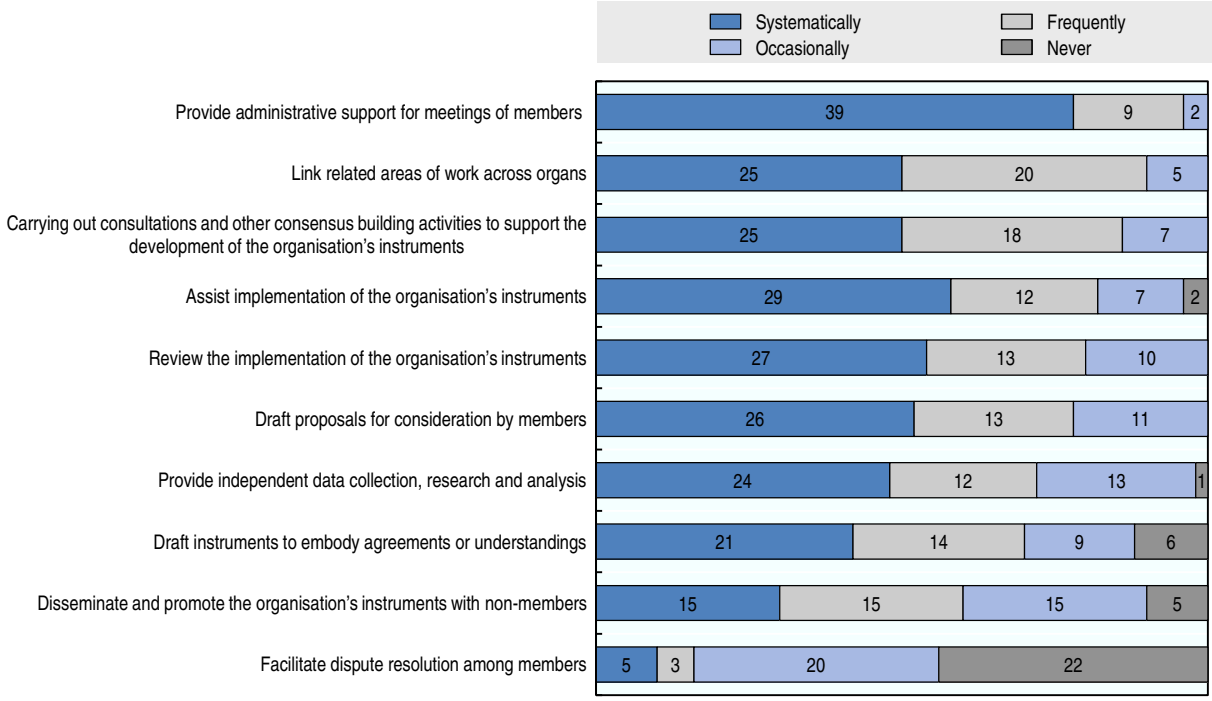
The role of the secretariat in supporting IOs in their IRC activities

The secretariat generally has a large and varied supportive role (Figure 3.12): from administrative/logistical support to data collection, drafting of proposals for consideration by members, consultations, assistance and review of the implementation of the organisation's instruments, and their promotion and dissemination. For the vast majority of IOs, the most systematic or frequent task of the secretariat is to provide administrative support for meetings (e.g. call meetings, prepare agenda, chair meetings). For two respondents only this task is occasional. The other tasks of linking areas of work across organs, carrying out consultations and other consensus building activities to support the development of the organisation's instruments, assisting and reviewing the implementation of the organisation's instruments, drafting proposals for consideration by members and providing independent data collection, research and analysis are also

common secretariat activities. By contrast, facilitating dispute resolution among members is an unusual secretariat activity (AHWP, ASTM International, IEC, OPCW and OZONE answered "systematically"; OAS, CARICOM and CITES answered "frequently").

Figure 3.12. **Which of the following roles does your organisation's secretariat play in support of IRC?**

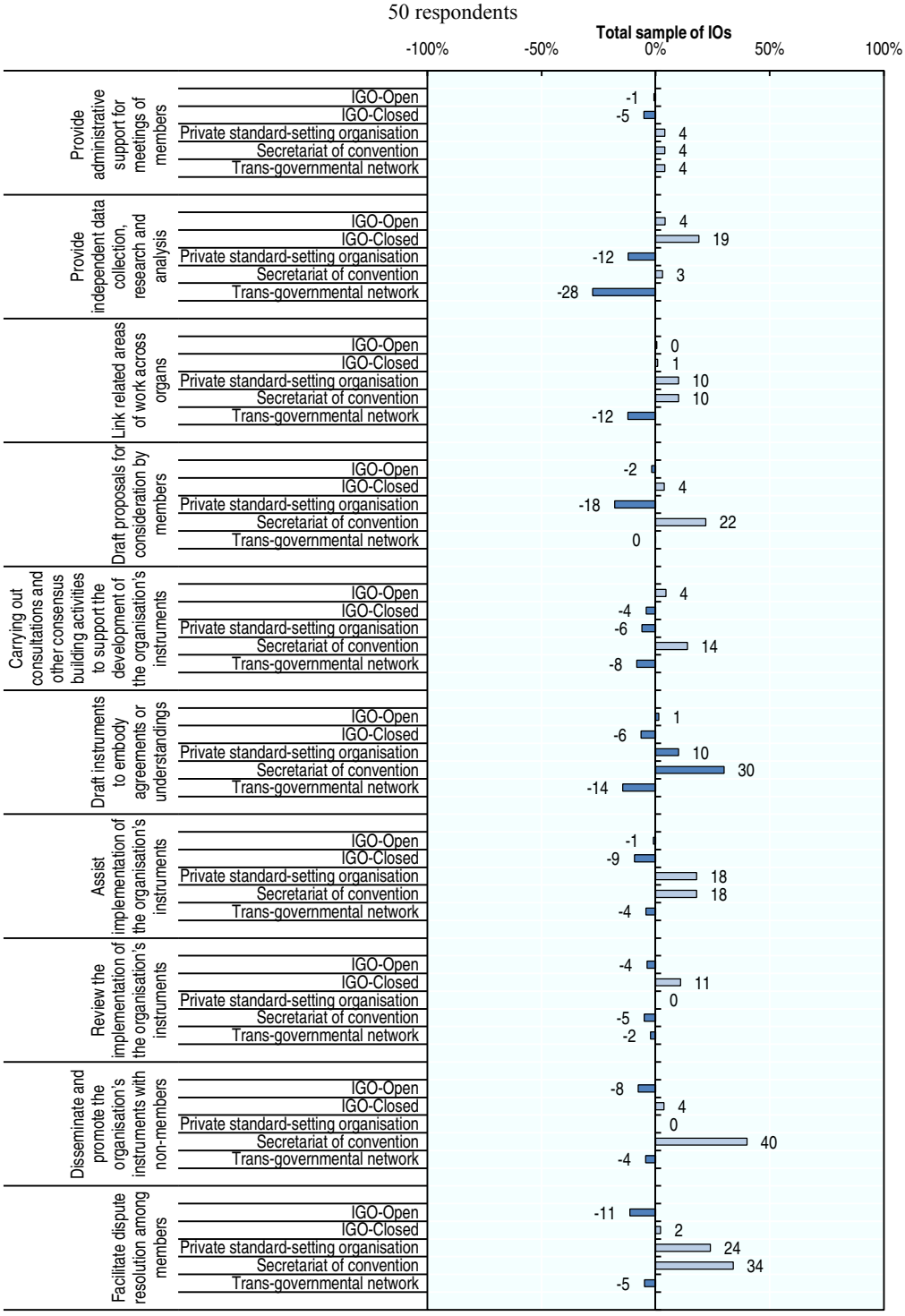
50 respondents



Source: OECD Survey of International Organisations, 2015.

There is generally little difference (hence great homogeneity) across IOs in relation to the four major roles of the secretariat (Figure 3.13): providing administrative support for meetings of members, linking related areas of work across organs, carrying out consultations, and assisting in the implementation of instruments. Variations are more prominent in the other areas. Private standard-setting organisations and TGNs tend to be less involved in data collection and research; and drafting proposals or instruments for considerations by members. By contrast, secretariats of conventions are more involved than the overall sample in disseminating and promoting the organisation's instruments with non-members, facilitating dispute resolution among members, drafting instruments to embody agreements or understandings, and drafting proposals for consideration by members. Generally speaking, secretariats of convention and the European Commission, i.e. IOs with stronger legal powers, seem to enjoy a greater range of secretariat activities (more than seven over the ten proposed in the survey) compared to IGOs, TGNs and international private standard-setting organisations (between four and five activities on average).

Figure 3.13. **Roles of the organisation's secretariat by nature of IOs**



Notes: The figure considers both the IOs that answered "systematically" and "frequently" and compares the averages for the specific IO groups to the average for the total sample of IOs. In this figure, the EC is included in the category of closed-membership IGOs.

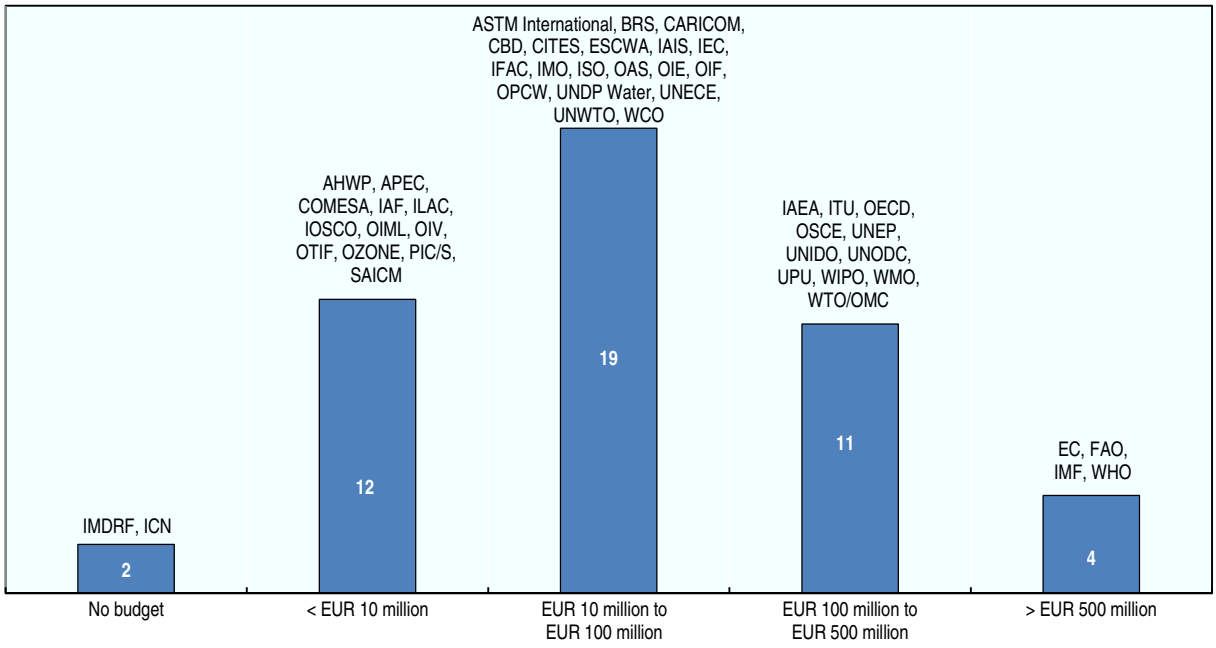
Source: OECD Survey of International Organisations, 2015.

The budget and staff of IOs

The total budget varies widely across IOs (Figure 3.14). This is clearly related to the size of the secretariat (Figure 3.15) and appears to reflect the mandate of the different IOs and/or the extent to which work is mainly undertaken by the secretariat or by member states themselves (e.g. ISO, ILAC, OIML and TGNs more generally). Indeed, when the work of the IO is carried out by staff from the members, even though it is organised by and presented as the result of the IO, it will not show in the IO budget and staffing. As such, the size of the secretariat and of the budget cannot be used as a direct indicator of the scale of the IOs' activities.

Figure 3.14. **What is the annual total budget of your organisation?**

48 respondents



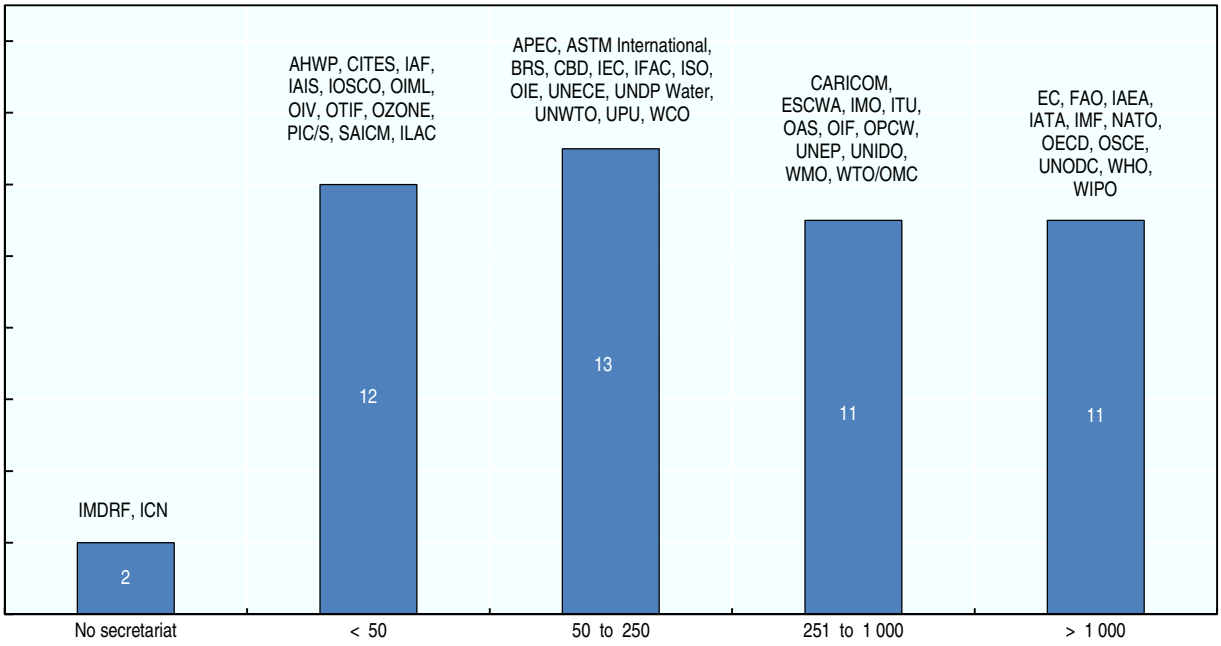
Note: The information is missing for IATA and NATO.

Source: OECD Survey of International Organisations, 2015.

TGNs are all at the lowest end of the distribution in terms of both total budget and staff numbers. Two network organisations (IMDRF and ICN) have no formal structure (no budget or staff) since the members take care of the resource and staff requirements. By contrast, IOs enjoying the greatest budget in the sample (above EUR 100 million) are all IGOs. The four IGOs in the upper tail of the total budget distribution all have a significant secretariat and substantial powers – the EC for instance as a supra-national regulator, the WHO and FAO with large secretariats and the IMF with a broad financial mandate. Despite their significant powers, secretariats of convention are all in the middle range of the budget distribution, in line with a more specific mandate and smaller secretariat. International private standard-setting bodies (with the exception of IATA) are also in the medium range of budget and staff size.

Figure 3.15. **Approximately how many staff members does your organisation have?**

49 respondents



Note: The information is missing for COMESA.

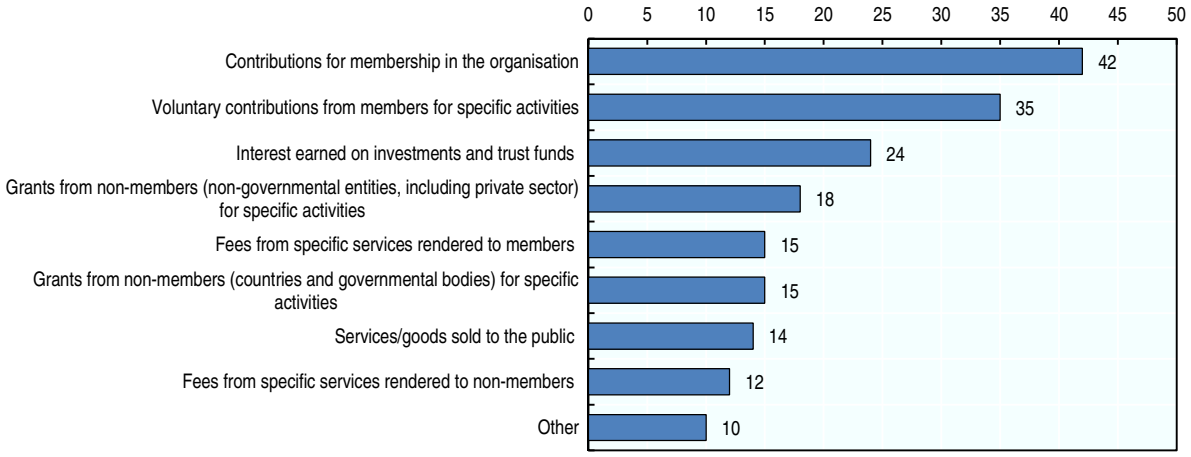
Source: OECD Survey of International Organisations, 2015.

Funding sources are also varied (Figure 3.16). A large majority of respondents report relying for their total budget on contributions from their membership, a consistent feature across all types of IOs although less prominent for TGNs (Table 3.4). This is however shortly followed by voluntary contributions from members for specific activities, a prominent source of revenues for most public-led IOs (IGOs, secretariats of convention and to a lesser extent TGNs). This source is not reported by the sampled international private standard-setting organisations.

Most IOs combine several sources of funding, although the mix of these sources may differ widely even across similar types of IOs. For example, assessed membership contributions only contribute to 5% of WIPO funding, while the remaining 95% come from the registration services it provides and for which it charges a fee. Secretariats of convention rely mostly on a mix of public funding, from their membership (either through assessed and voluntary contributions or grants) or non-members but not from commercial activity).

Figure 3.16. **What are your organisation's sources of funding?**

50 respondents



Source: OECD Survey of International Organisations, 2015.

Table 3.4. **Sources of funding by nature of IOs**

50 respondents

Nature (number of IOs in this category)	**Membership contribu-tions**	**Voluntary contribu-tions from members**	**Interest on invest-ments & trust funds**	**Grants from non-members (non-governmental)**	**Fees from specific services (members)**	**Grants from non-members (governmental)**	**Services/ goods sold to the public**	**Fees from specific services (non-members)**
IGO-open (21)	19	19	11	10	8	4	7	8
IGO-closed (11)	10	7	3	5	2	5	2	1
Private standard-setting organisation (5)	5	0	3	1	1	2	5	1
Secretariat of convention (4)	3	4	4	2	1	2	0	0
TGNs (9)	5	5	3	0	3	2	0	2

Note: The information corresponds to the number of IOs that report receiving the specific source of funding. The shaded cells show the prominent sources of funding by type of IOs.

Source: OECD Survey of International Organisations, 2015.

Some IOs report relying on interest earned on investments/trust funds and income from the commercial use of their instruments. All international private standard setting organisations rely on a combination of membership contributions and revenues from the sales of their services to the public (plus possibly but less consistently other sources of funding). For instance, ISO collects revenues from the sales of its standards to businesses. Most of ASTM International's income is derived from the sale of standards and other

publications; other services, such as proficiency testing, training, and certification and declaration also generate income. Other types of IOs also rely on commercial sources of funding. For example, PIC/S reports receiving royalties from the commercial reproduction of documents. The EC collects revenues from custom duties, certain fees, etc. A number of IOs receive support from a sponsoring or host organisation or from other IOs. This is the case of OPCW, which receives funds from the EC, and of SAICM,[3] which is administered by UNEP.

Notes

1. See http://ilac.org/about-ilac/facts-and-figures/.
2. See OPCW, Rules of Procedure of the Conference of the States Parties, Rule 69, "If consensus is not attainable when an issue comes up for decision, the presiding officer shall defer any vote for 24 hours and during this period of deferment shall make every effort to facilitate achievement of consensus, and shall report to the Conference before the end of this period. If consensus is not possible at the end of 24 hours, the Conference shall take the decision by a two-thirds majority of the Members present and voting unless specified otherwise in the Convention."
3. Decision SS.IX/1 of the UNEP Governing Council requested the Executive Director to establish and assume overall administrative responsibility for the SAICM secretariat. As secretariat, UNEP manages as well as contributes to the SAICM funds. Through the same decision, however, SAICM may receive voluntary funding from other sources including governments, regional economic integration organisations, intergovernmental organisations, non-governmental organisations, and private sector.

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Chapter 4

Implementation and impacts of the instruments of international organisations

There is generally limited structured evidence on the impact of the activities and instruments developed by international organisations in support of global rules and co-ordinated regulatory approaches. The difficulty is amplified by the fact that implementation of global standards relies strongly on national levels and its monitoring may be outside the scope of the responsibility of international organisations. This chapter analyses how international organisations support and track implementation and impacts of their instruments based on the answers to the 2015 OECD Survey of International Organisations.

The 2015 OECD Regulatory Policy Outlook notes that "[r]egulatory implementation and enforcement remain the weakest link in regulatory governance" at national level. Similarly, OECD (2013) underlines among the perceived challenges faced by inter-governmental organisations (IGOs) the weakness in enforcement and compliance. While developed at the international level, the instruments of international regulatory co-operation (IRC) of international organisations (IOs) are usually meant to be applied and enforced at domestic level. As seen in the previous chapters, relatively few of IO instruments can be considered directly legally-binding on member states. IOs are therefore usually not directly in charge of the implementation and the enforcement of the instruments that they help develop – which is left to their members. They may however encourage and / or monitor the implementation of the instruments that they develop. Tracking implementation has the additional benefit to provide the evidence needed to support the evaluation of the influence of the IO (and, ultimately, its impact), as well as the relevance of the instrument and any need for revision.

Implementation mechanisms

Most IOs encourage implementation of IRC instruments through the use of soft tools (Figure 4.1) such as benchmarking of progress, voluntary peer review and, to a lesser extent, positive incentives for implementation (22 IOs, of which only 2 do it systematically). Formal mechanisms, such as sanctions, dispute settlement procedures and mandatory peer reviews are less commonly used, but not inexistent. The EC and OAS are two examples where dispute settlement is a key feature of the framework provided by the IOs. Other IOs have put in place dispute settlement procedures. However, their use may in practice be limited. This is the case for example of the OSCE Court of Reconciliation and Arbitration established in 1994, which has yet to receive a case. Sanctions (such as the suspension of membership fees) are systematic for 3 IOs (CITES, IFAC and UPU). They are frequent for OZONE, although threat of sanctions is generally enough to ensure return to compliance. Fourteen IOs resort to mandatory peer review of individual members; including six on a systematic basis (EU, IAF, ILAC, IMF, IMO and WTO/OMC).

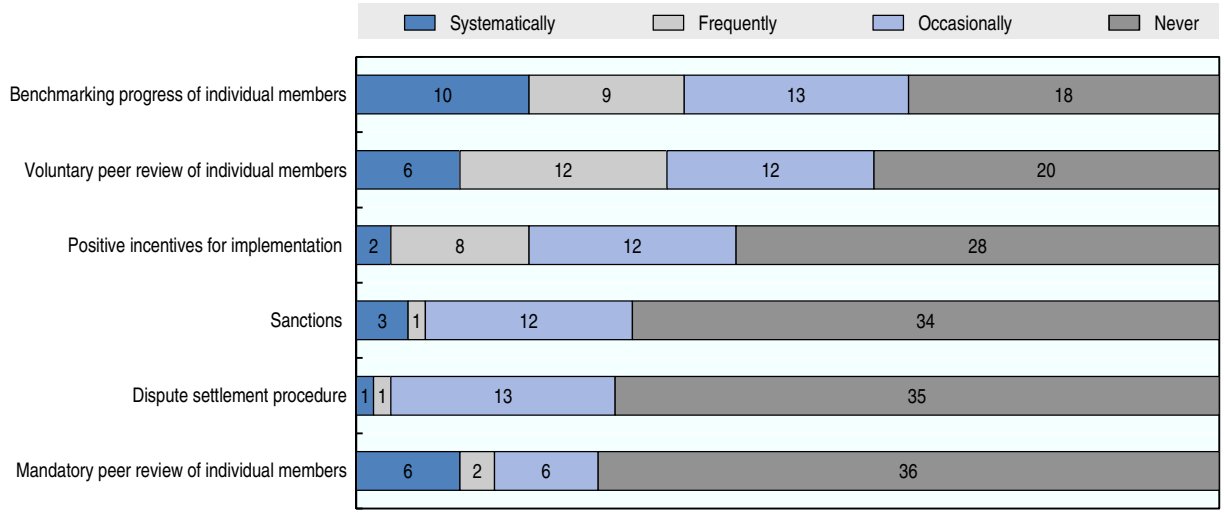
These features reflect the limited use of legally binding instruments by IOs and the fact that non-legally binding instruments are more common. Secretariats of convention, the IOs enjoying more legally binding instruments in the sample, generally use more formal mechanisms to encourage and supervise implementation. These features also most likely demonstrate the challenges for horizontal, non-hierarchical forms of co-operation to provide for remedies and dispute settlement procedures to their members.

All IOs provide some kind of assistance for the implementation of their IRC instruments (Figure 4.2). Generally, assistance takes the form of training programmes or tools/guides supporting implementation. These activities are so frequent across IOs and they may in some cases be such a substantial part of the IO missions that they may be considered as a separate form of IRC activity. In some cases, IOs also extend technical assistance. This is common for the IMO, the IMF, the WCO and the WTO/OMC. In a more limited number of cases, the IO can make financial assistance available to its members. A number of trans-governmental networks of regulators (TGNs) (SAICM, ILAC), secretariats of conventions (BRS Conventions, CBD, OZONE) and regional organisations (COMESA, EC, and OAS) are in this situation. Secretariats of environmental conventions provide a financial assistance to their members through their own financial mechanisms (e.g. OZONE and the Multilateral Fund for the

Implementation of the Montreal Protocol); or through international financial mechanisms (such as the Global Environment Facility).

Figure 4.1. **Which of the following procedures does your organisation use to supervise and encourage implementation?**

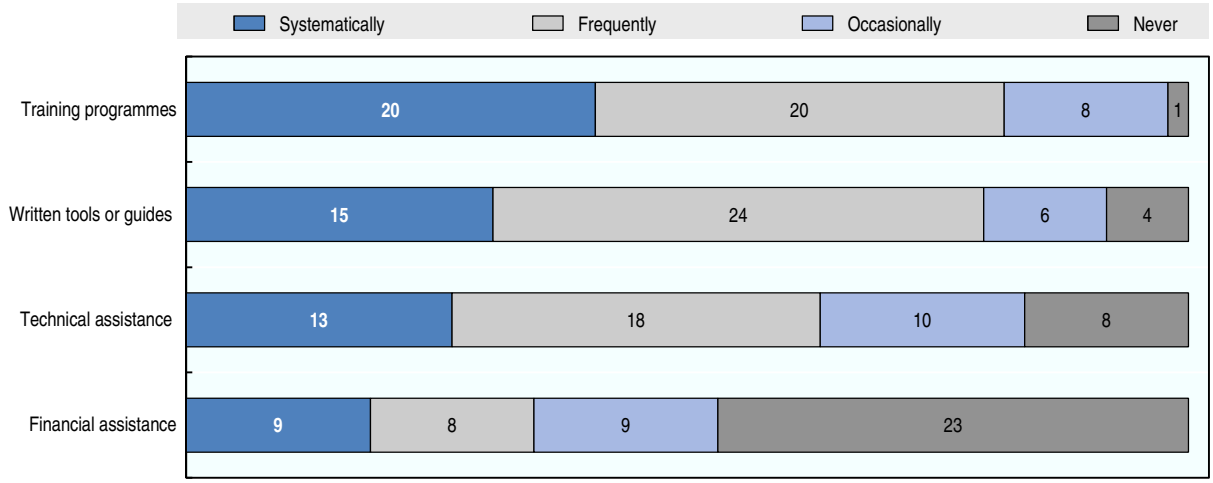
50 respondents



Source: OECD Survey of International Organisations, 2015.

Figure 4.2. **Does your organisation provide any of the following forms of assistance for implementation by members of IRC instruments?**

49 respondents



Note: The information is missing for OTIF.

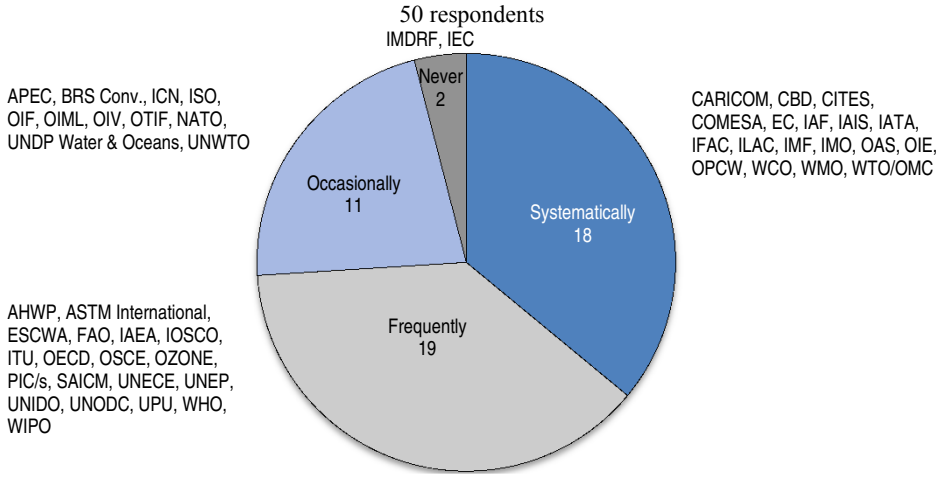
Source: OECD Survey of International Organisations, 2015.

However, only roughly a third of the IOs systematically track the implementation of their IRC instruments (Figure 4.3); 19 report doing so frequently; 11 do it only occasionally, and 2 never do so. In some cases, a subsidiary body is tasked with monitoring implementation. This is for instance the case with the BRS Conventions, for which a subsidiary body was established under the Basel Convention to promote

implementation and compliance (the ICC). The ICC reviews general issues and also individual issues of implementation and compliance.

In other cases, IOs adopt formal mechanisms to track and monitor implementation. For instance, the OAS Follow-Up Mechanisms for Implementation of the Inter-American Convention against Corruption (MESICIC) examine the members' level of implementation of the Convention, and formulate recommendations where they find legal gaps or where further progress is necessary. CARICOM is considering adopting a results-based management approach to achieve the goals set in its Strategic Plan 2015-19. This approach, based on a Balanced Scorecard, will form the basis for monitoring and evaluating the implementation of IRC instruments. Indeed, the system will allow for overall performance analysis by assessing also the degree of implementation of the CARICOM common market and the harmonisation of some functions and responsibilities in member states.

Figure 4.3. **How often does your organisation gather and track information on implementation of legal or policy instruments?**



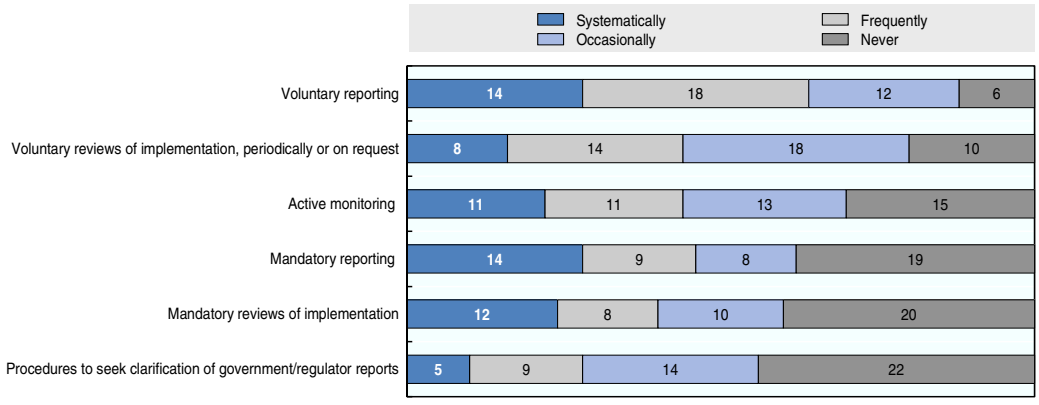
Source: OECD Survey of International Organisations, 2015.

When they track implementation, and in line with previous results highlighting the predominance of non-legally binding instruments, IOs do so primarily through voluntary mechanisms (Figure 4.4): voluntary reporting and voluntary reviews of implementation. Active monitoring is systematic or frequent for 22 IOs. Mandatory mechanisms are less common but are still used by a substantial number of IOs: 31 IOs engage in mandatory reporting, 30 in mandatory reviews (14 and 12 systematically, respectively). For more than four IOs of the sample in five, the secretariat is tasked with reporting to the appropriate organs on implementation of legal instruments and policy standards.

As an example, under the Montreal Protocol, the Parties are required to report to the OZONE secretariat various types of information on production and consumption of ozone-depleting substances. For some of those reporting requirements, guidelines or reporting forms have been prepared (http://ozone.unep.org/en/data_reporting_tools.ph). The secretariat reviews the data and prepares the reports for consideration by the Implementation Committee and the Meeting of the Parties. The latter bodies make appropriate recommendations and decisions following the review of data and information presented by the secretariat.

Figure 4.4. **How frequently does your organisation use the following mechanisms to track implementation?**

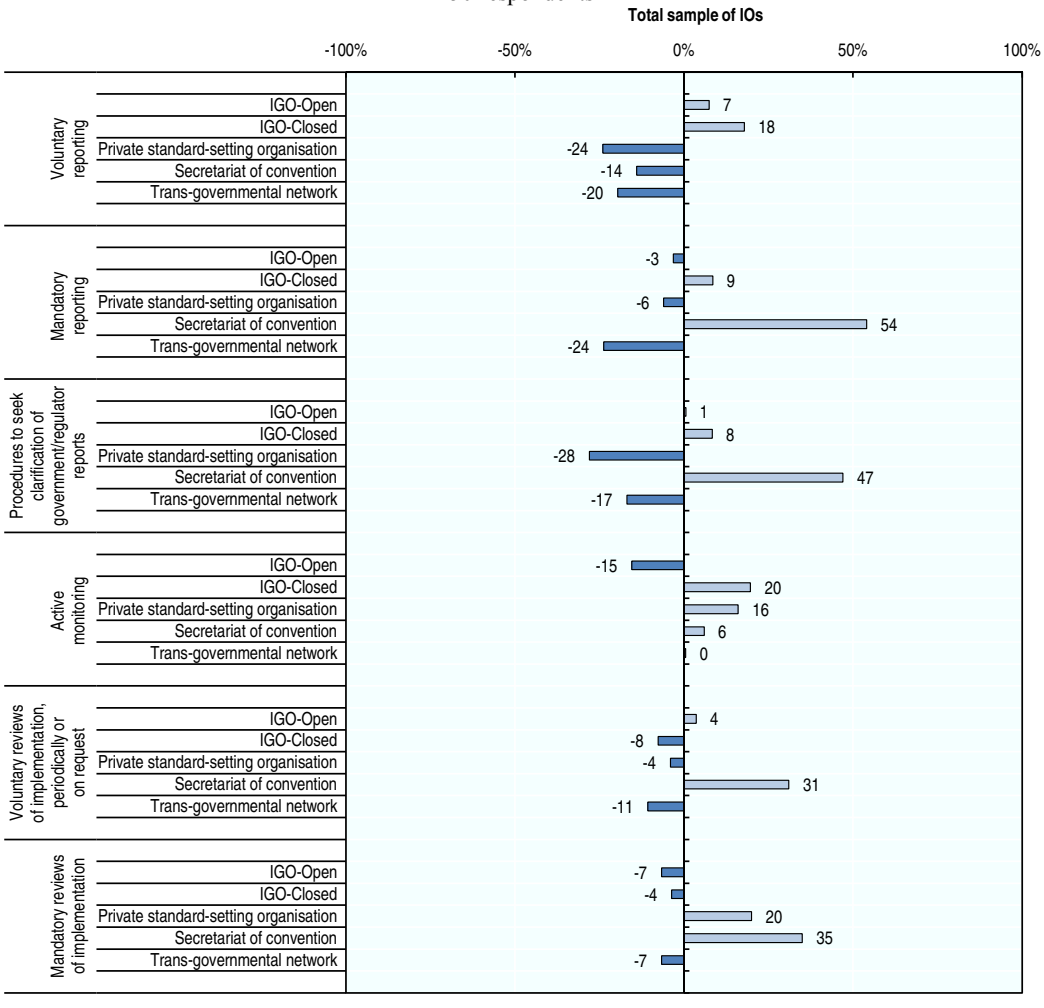
50 respondents



Source: OECD Survey of International Organisations, 2015.

Figure 4.5. **Mechanisms to track implementation by nature of IOs**

50 respondents



Notes: The figure considers both the IOs that answered "systematically" and "frequently" and compares the averages for the specific IO groups to the average for the total sample of IOs. In this figure, the EC is included in the category of closed-membership IGOs.

Source: OECD Survey of International Organisations, 2015.

When the nature of the IOs is taken into account (Figure 4.5), IGOs, in particular closed-membership IGOs, rely on reporting (voluntary mostly) more than the rest of the sample to track implementation. Secretariats of conventions represent the group of IOs that relies the most on mandatory mechanisms to track implementation (mandatory reporting and reviews, procedures seeking clarification). By contrast, TGNs adopt fewer instruments to track implementation than the other IOs.

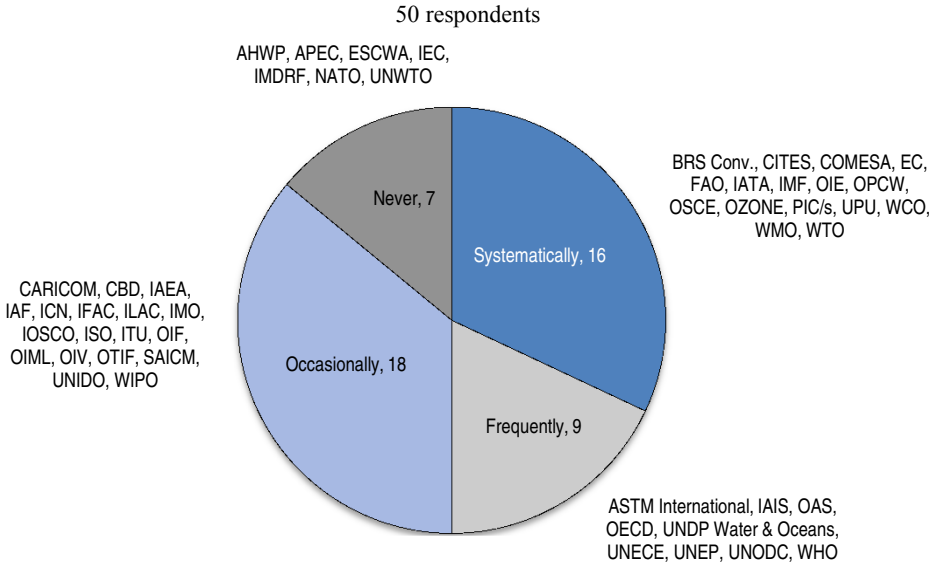
Monitoring of impacts

Monitoring of impacts of IRC instruments on the underlying problems is even less systematic than the monitoring of implementation (Figure 4.6). IOs report doing it systematically in 16 cases, frequently in 9 cases, only occasionally in 18 cases and never in 7 cases. There is a gradation of approaches to the evaluation of impacts, from the mere monitoring of use of the tool to the quantified approach of the ultimate impacts. Given the complexity of carrying out evaluation and the lack of available information, most IOs mainly monitor the use of their instruments (rather than the ultimate impacts).

UNECE notes that for many of its agreements, conventions, and recommendations, a simple metric to assess impacts is the record of national implementations, which is in some cases the entire UNECE membership, and in others includes non-member countries as well. The FAO monitors the reference to FAO instruments in policies, strategies and laws or other governance instrument, as a proxy for implementation. At the other end of the spectrum, the EC carries out *ex ante* impact assessment and *ex post* evaluation (Box 4.1), reflecting the legally binding nature of many of its requirements.

This varying degree of impact monitoring by IOs may reflect the legally binding nature of the instruments and the extent to which implementation is in the hands of members (see also next chapters).

Figure 4.6. **How often do IOs gather and track information on the impacts of their instruments?**



Source: OECD Survey of International Organisations, 2015.

Box 4.1. **The European Commission Better Regulation policy**

The European Commission (EC), as the executive body of the European Union, proposes new initiatives and legislation, which are adopted by the European Parliament and the Council, and monitors the application of European Union law in the 28 member states. While the member states are responsible for the effective implementation and enforcement of European law, the EC has developed a comprehensive *Better Regulation policy* to improve the quality of its rule-making activities and to monitor their impacts.

According to the Better Regulation policy, the EC is required to engage with stakeholders in the early stages of development of major primary and subordinate legislation. Stakeholders are informed of upcoming consultations through roadmaps listing planned new legislation and amendments to existing legislation. The EC is also required to conduct regulatory impact assessments (RIAs) for major primary and secondary legislation. An Impact Assessment Board reviews RIAs and an opinion of the Board is a prerequisite for a proposal to be considered by the EC. A dedicated unit in the European Parliament also conducts an assessment of the RIA once the proposal is submitted to the Parliament. In addition, the EC is also required to undertake proportionate *ex post* assessment of legislation.

Source: OECD (2015), *OECD Regulatory Policy Outlook 2015*, OECD Publishing, Paris, http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264238770-en.

The engagement of IOs in quantitative and/or qualitative assessments of the benefits and costs members may realise from using the organisation's instruments for IRC is even less common. A quarter of the sample report never doing any kind of assessment, even occasionally (this share increases to a third when quantitative assessment is considered). Six IOs report carrying quantitative assessments systematically: BRS Conventions, IATA, OPCW, OSCE, WCO and WMO. Table 4.1 provides more details on the methodologies reported by IOs to assess *quantitatively* and/or *qualitatively* the benefits members gain (and any costs they incur) from using the organisation's instruments for IRC. The most common tools used to assess the impacts are questionnaires to members and country or thematic case studies to collect information on benefits and costs. There are also differentiated approaches between the IOs that favour internal evaluation (OECD, FAO or ISO for instance) and those that undertake external evaluation (OIF or UNODC for instance).

Table 4.1. **Methodologies used for assessing the benefits and costs produced by IRC**

Methodology	Examples from IOs
Cost/benefit analysis	The EC adopted on 19 May 2015 a package of better regulation measures, which includes some methodological information (Better Regulation Guidelines) on how to monitor the impact of new EC initiatives and legislation. The guidelines identify Cost/Benefit Analysis (CBA) as one of the key methodologies to assess the impact of regulatory activities. The guidelines provide also a manual (Better Regulation Toolbox) where specific technical information on how to carry out CBA, both *ex ante* (within impact assessment work) and *ex post* (in retrospective evaluation work), is suggested.
Survey/questionnaire	In 2009, the OECD conducted a survey to determine the savings that governments and industry accrue from their participation in the OECD Environment, Health and Safety (EHS) Programme for chemical safety, focusing on the benefits of harmonisation through the Mutual Acceptance of Data (MAD) system and burden sharing from working together through the High Production Volume (HPV) programme and the costs of supporting the EHS Programme was carried. www.oecd.org/env/ehs/47813784.pdf. Every year ISO performs a survey to identify the number of valid certificates to ISO management standards (such as ISO 9001 and ISO 14001) by country. The ISO survey counts the number of certificates issued by certification bodies that have been accredited by members of the International Accreditation Forum (IAF). www.iso.org/iso/home/standards/certification/iso-survey. ISO also uses annual member satisfaction survey (as well as developers and standards users) IAIS has a specific Field Testing Task Force to perform impact studies on the Common Framework for the Supervision of Internationally Active Insurance Groups (ComFrame). ComFrame is a set of international supervisory requirements focusing on the effective group-wide supervision of internationally active insurance groups. These impact studies evaluate the effectiveness of ComFrame and whether it does not result in excessive costs. The methodologies used involved questionnaires and surveys (both qualitative and quantitative with data gathering in the form of templates) of the firms in the scope (Internationally Active Insurance Groups) and their supervisors. WMO gathers information on benefits by using questionnaires to members every two years. In addition, Departments may send questionnaires to assess the progress and impact of specific activities.
Performance indicators and targets	With the adoption of its Strategic Framework, FAO has developed a systematic approach to monitoring the impact of the organisation's instruments and processes using qualitative indicators and targets that are set out in the Programme Planning, Implementation Reporting and Evaluation Support System (www.fao.org/pir/en/). The UNODC Terrorism Prevention Branch uses several indicators such as the increase in the number of States assisted by UNODC becoming parties to the international legal instruments, the number of assisted countries drafting legislation and the number of national officials trained. The WCO has a Strategic Plan which defines the baseline information, the objectives and deliverables, as well as qualitative and quantitative Key Performance Indicators which are reviewed by the Council, Policy Commission, Finance Committee and Audit Committee.
Country and thematic case-studies (data collection through interviews, review of documentation and staff visits to members)	OIE conducts thematic case studies to identify specific impacts. For instance, the study on Estimating the cost of National Prevention Systems for Animal Diseases and Zoonoses had the following methodology: i) definition of the boundary of the National Prevention System (NPS); ii) identification of main functional units of the NPS at central and sub-national level, to allow comparisons of key cost centres; iii) development of the approach for cost assessment; iv) selection of case study countries; v) data collection through a review of literature and databases, a questionnaire survey, and country visits of the core expert team; vi) comparative analysis of the costs of the National Prevention System in case study countries and analysis of factors that influence these costs. PIC/S has pre-assessment, assessment and re-assessment procedures during which members or applicants are assessed for their compliance to PIC/S requirements. This includes a gap analysis as well as a review of the Good Manufacturing Practice of medicinal products (GMP) inspection system against PIC/S requirements. The gap analysis and review is done according to standardised procedures and tools, which include a qualitative review of the documentation and an on-site assessment visit of the country to ensure that policies and procedures are effectively applied. UNECE receives country reports on the impact of some of its instruments. From time to time it reviews the extent to which its instruments are used. Methodology varies and is determined by the instruments, including inter alia development of specific case studies and ad hoc staff visits to member countries.

Table 4.1. **Methodologies used for assessing the benefits and costs produced by IRC** (*cont.*)

Methodology	Examples from IOs
Gathering of information through dedicated national contact points	IATA uses its network of local managers to gather information in order to have a global view of implementation, and therefore the benefits which subsequently accrue to members and consumers. A business case is typically put together which aids in the quantitative assessment and helps IATA prioritise which standards or programmes to focus on. The numbers and data in that business case are validated by airline working groups.
Use of external consultants/evaluation	OIML has attempted to assess the benefits and costs of its IRC activities by means of expert reports. One example is the OIML report on the Benefit of Legal Metrology for the Economy and Society, www.oiml.org/en/files/pdf_e/e002-e03.pdf. UNODC resorts to audits and independent evaluation. OIF also resorts to external evaluation (see www.francophonie.org/Evaluation-externe-du-Programme.html).
Internal audit	OSCE has an internal audit function that reviews the impact and monitors the adequacy, efficiency and effectiveness of the organisation's work. In addition to reporting by members and staff reviews, the IMF has an internal 5-year review process led by the Executive Board (for example: www.imf.org/external/np/sec/pn/2011/pn1138.htm).

References

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Chapter 5

How do international organisations ensure the quality of their rule-making process?

International organisations have, over the years, developed processes and practices to support the quality of their rule-making. However, systematic evidence on the use of different regulatory quality disciplines in international rule-making is lacking. In order to fill this information gap, the 2015 OECD Survey of International Organisations has collected information on the stakeholder engagement and evaluation practices of international organisations. This chapter provides an overview of the extent to which surveyed international organisations engage stakeholders and carry some forms of ex ante or ex post *evaluation of the norms and standards that they develop.*

At the domestic level, regulators have a range of tools at their disposal to ensure the quality of the regulatory processes. In particular, the Recommendation of the Council on Regulatory Policy and Governance adopted in 2012 by OECD members highlights that "regulatory agencies should be required to follow regulatory policy including engaging with stakeholders and undertaking regulatory impact assessment when developing draft laws or guidelines and other forms of soft law". (OECD, 2012, Principle 7.5)

Similarly, OECD (2014) underlines that international organisations (IOs) have, over the years, developed processes and practices to support the quality of their rule-making – such as consultation mechanisms and impact evaluation. However, evidence on the active use of these regulatory disciplines in international rule-making is limited. More systematic exchange of information and experience would enable IOs to capitalise on lessons learnt and maximise the potential of existing governance arrangements and instruments. Ultimately, it would help them garner greater legitimacy and accountability in their rule-making role, in particular when the international norms that they develop are meant for adoption in national legislation. Box 5.1 provides the specific case of IFAC's governance and practices to ensure the quality of standards.

Box 5.1. **Ensuring the quality of standards, the case of IFAC**

IFAC supports four independent standard-setting boards (SSBs) in the areas of: auditing and assurance, education, ethics and public sector accounting, respectively the International Auditing and Assurance Standards Board (IAASB), International Ethics Standards Board for Accountants (IESBA), International Accounting Education Standards Board (IAESB), and the International Public Sector Accounting Standards Board (IPSASB). While IFAC shares a similar governance structure with the other IOs, the development of standards is undertaken by these four independent SSBs.

The SSBs are set up under IFAC authority and do not have a separate legal status. IFAC provides operational, administrative and financial support to the SSBs. However, they operate and develop standards independently of IFAC. The composition, terms and operating procedures are established for each SSB in their own terms of reference.

The standard-setting process for these SSBs is subject to oversight by the Public Interest Oversight Board (PIOB)—for three of the SSBs—and the Public Interest Committee (PIC)—for public sector accounting. The PIOB and the PIC are independent from IFAC Members and staff. The PIOB must approve that the SSBs have followed due process before the adoption of each standard, including through project proposals, issue papers, consultation papers (where appropriate), exposure drafts (with sufficient comment period), comment letters posted to the website, final standards being approved only after extensive consideration of comments, and a stated basis for conclusions. The PIC reviews and provides recommendations and comments on the same set of topics.

For the SSBs subject to PIOB oversight, a Monitoring Group comprised of international financial institutions and regulatory bodies related to international audit standard setting and audit quality monitors the implementation and effectiveness of these arrangements, as well as the execution by the PIOB of its mandate. The Members of the Monitoring Group are the Basel Committee on Banking Supervision, European Commission, Financial Stability Board, International Association of Insurance Supervisors, International Organization of Securities Commissions, International Federation of Independent Audit Regulators, and the World Bank. The Monitoring Group also performs other tasks to ensure the independence of the bodies operating in the IFAC framework, in particular by appointing Members of the Public Interest Oversight Board (www.ipiob.org/index.php/piob-oversight/standard-setting-process).

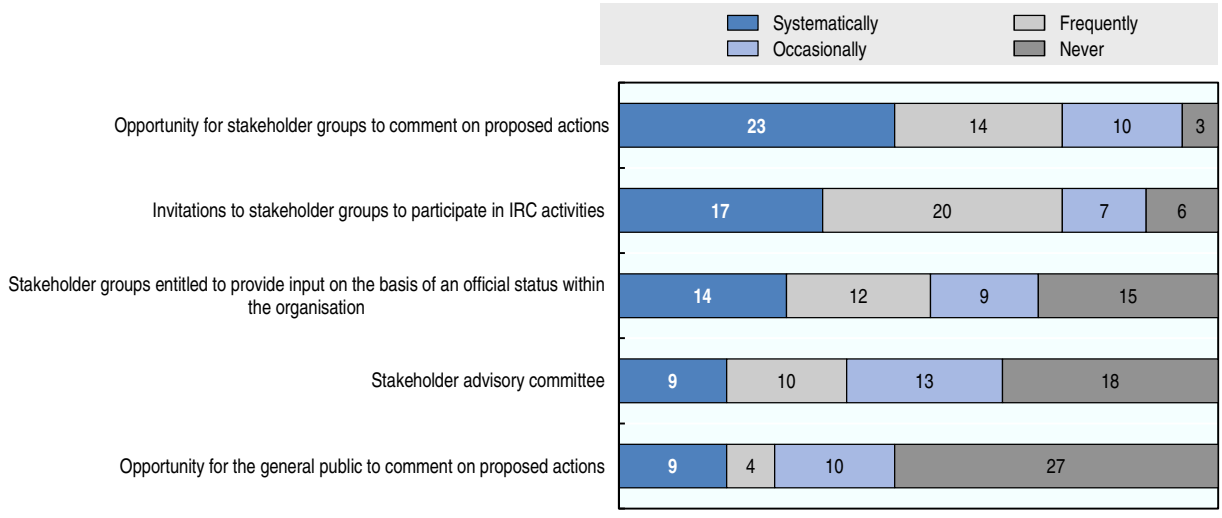
Source: IFAC.

Stakeholder engagement

The 2015 Regulatory Policy Outlook notes the growing attention of countries to stakeholder engagement in making, implementing and reviewing laws and regulations. It underlines that "[t]he central objective of (…) ensuring that regulations are designed and implemented in the public interest can only be achieved with help from those subject to regulations". Stakeholder engagement is seen as both contributing to improving the quality of the rule-making process by providing policy makers with the evidence needed for their decisions and as a fundamental determinant of ownership and trust in government.

Figure 5.1. **How frequently does your organisation use the following procedures to obtain input from stakeholders into its standard-setting and other IRC activities?**

50 respondents



Source: OECD Survey of International Organisations, 2015.

Some IOs have enshrined stakeholder engagement in their membership by allowing it to extend to the various members of society that are affected by the activities of the IO – this is reflected in the IO profiles at the end of this report and in Table 3.1. It is particularly the case of trans-governmental network of regulators (TGNs) and international private standard-setting organisations, whose membership may include industry, civil society and other IOs. Most IOs have set up specific standing bodies or processes to engage stakeholders (in a non-decisional manner) at key points in the development of their instruments. It is illustrated by the answers to the survey that specify that stakeholder engagement practices (as defined in Figure 5.1) mainly take place in substantive committees and working groups, and much less in high governing bodies. A number of IOs, mostly inter-governmental organisations (IGOs), leave the responsibility of engaging stakeholders to their Members.

Regardless of their membership, most IOs have put in place mechanisms to collect inputs and feedback from stakeholders on their standard-setting and international regulatory co-operation (IRC) activities (Figure 5.1). This is in line with the existing literature on the subject.[1] In the overwhelming majority of cases (47), comments are received from specific stakeholder groups. This finding reflects what can be observed in

domestic contexts (OECD Regulatory Policy Outlook, 2015). IOs frequently manage which stakeholder groups are allowed to comment, by specifically inviting particular groups (44 IOs). By contrast, less than half of the IOs offer a process broadly open to the public. This finding may reflect the fact that IOs are relatively remote from the field and may find difficult to engage directly with the public. They rely more heavily on organised groups than individuals. The survey however does not cover the stakeholder engagement practices that may be carried out by IO members directly with the public on IO instruments.

In two thirds of the cases, stakeholders groups are entitled to provide inputs because they enjoy an official status in the organisation and / or serve on specific advisory committees. For instance, there are 3 standing non-governmental stakeholders with consultative status within the OECD: the Business and Industry Advisory Committee, the Trade Union Advisory Committee, and OECDWatch.[2] These provide an interface for business, labour organisations and non-governmental organisations (NGOs) respectively. IMO has granted to date consultative status to 77 international NGOs, including associations representing maritime industries and environmental interests (OECD, 2014). In the CDB, indigenous peoples and local community groups enjoy a special status that enables them to provide inputs on matters relevant to their groups such as on the protection of traditional knowledge.

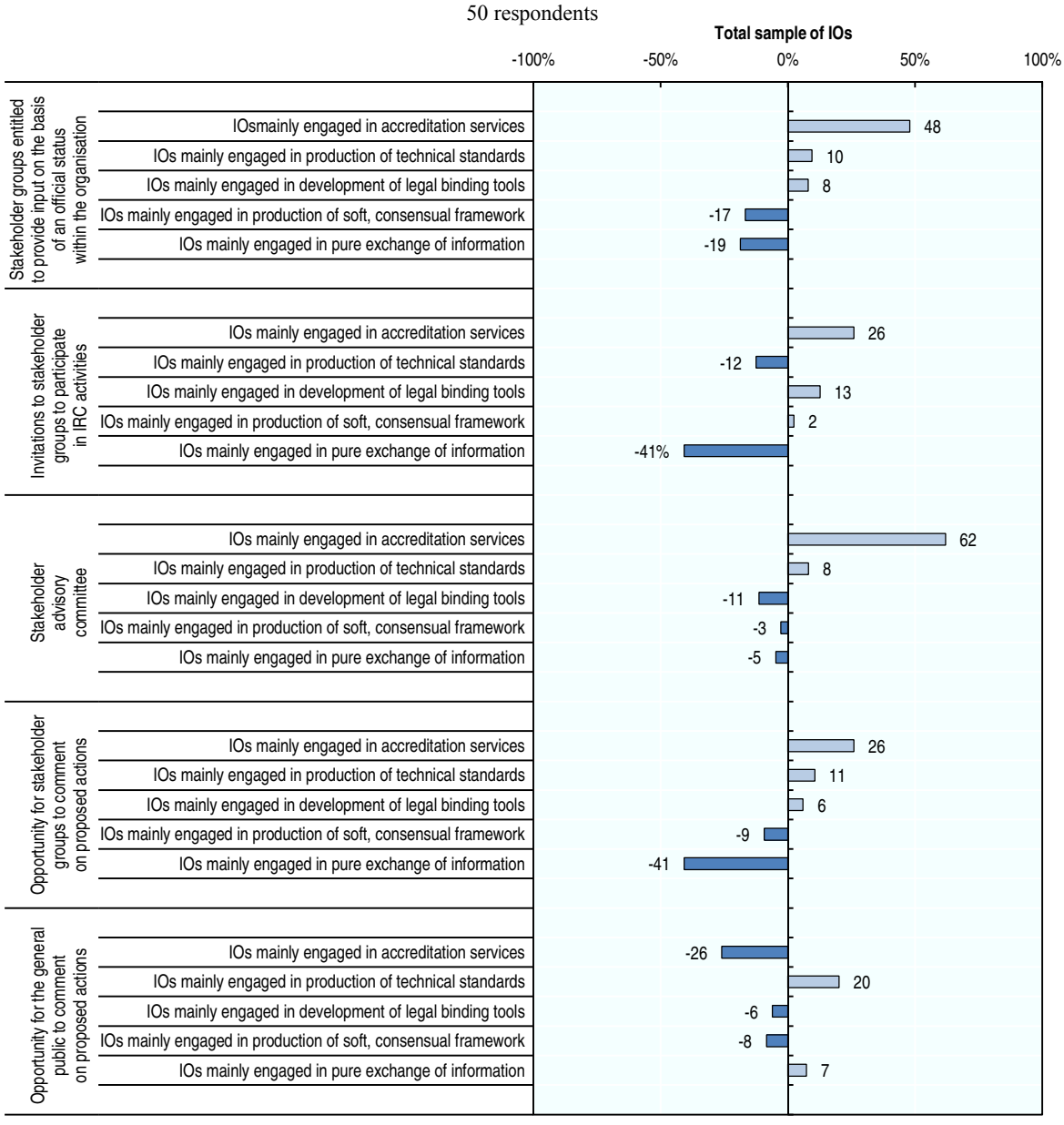
Figure 5.2 displays the use of the different procedures to obtain inputs from stakeholders by type of main activity of IOs (the classification of IOs according to the type of main activity is available in Annex A). According to this classification, IOs mainly engaged in purely soft activities – production of consensual framework and exchange of information – tend to use fewer stakeholder engagement mechanisms than the total sample. By contrast, IOs mainly engaged in accreditation services, in the production of technical standards and in development of legally-binding tools use these mechanisms more systematically. This is confirmed by an analysis by nature of IOs: secretariats of convention, which tend to have more legally-binding tools, also tend to engage stakeholders more systematically. IGOs engage less with stakeholders, in particular with the general public, than the overall sample.

Nonetheless, the general feeling conveyed in the annual meetings of international organisations organised by the OECD in 2014-16 is that stakeholder engagement is complex and resource-consuming. Engaging the right stakeholders to ensure balanced and fair rules and avoid capture is not an easy undertaking. The limited capacity of certain groups of stakeholders to proactively engage with IOs and the fact that they are rarely organised at the international level further intensify the challenge. The capacity of various stakeholder engagement practices to deliver improved IO rule-making also remain a largely unknown area. In addition, even within the same IO, practices in terms of mechanisms, openness and frequency of consultation may widely differ across departments/programmes, making it difficult to provide a global view of IOs.

In the face of these challenges, the question of how IOs ensure the quality of their consultation process, i.e. how they ensure that the process is fair, inclusive and effective in helping to achieve its objectives, is of critical relevance and an area where further exchange of information among IOs would facilitate their efforts. A number of IOs have made some efforts to reform and to enhance their engagement with stakeholders to make it more systematic, homogeneous across the IO, transparent and accountable. In the case of the IMO, any organisation seeking consultative status must demonstrate expertise and the capacity to contribute to the work of IMO, within its field of competence. It must also

show that it has no access to the work of IMO through other organisations in consultative status and that it is international in membership, with its members geographically diverse, usually from more than one region (OECD, 2014). WHO is developing a comprehensive policy to handle stakeholder engagement. This new framework aims to support increased transparency and accountability of stakeholder engagement practices by establishing a register of engaged partners, by institutionalising an annual report on implementing the new framework, and by providing specific guidance.

Figure 5.2. **Mechanisms of stakeholder engagement by type of main activity of IOs**



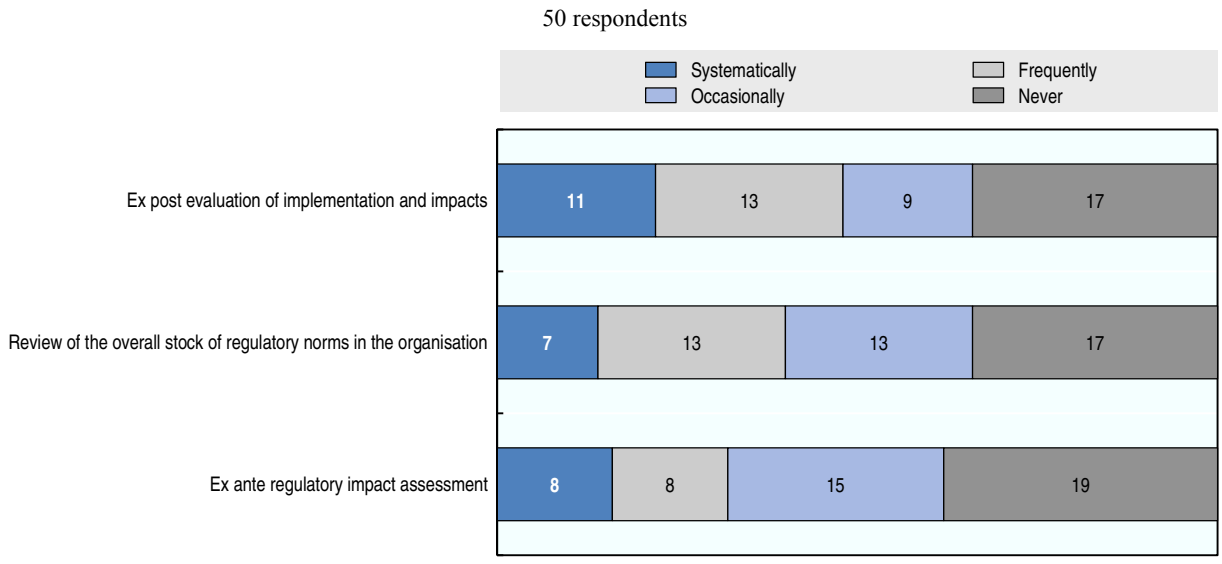
Notes: The figure considers both the IOs that answered "systematically" and "frequently" and compares the averages for the specific IO groups to the average for the total sample of IOs. In this figure, the EC is included in the category of closed-membership IGOs.

Source: OECD Survey of International Organisations, 2015.

Evaluation mechanisms

The 2015 OECD Regulatory Policy Outlook highlights the value in assessing the effectiveness of laws and regulations once they are in force. It is only after implementation that their full effects and impacts can be assessed. It is also only through regular reviews that laws and regulations can be assessed for their continued relevance.

Figure 5.3. **How frequently does your organisation employ the following procedures to ensure the quality of its standard-setting activities?**



Source: OECD Survey of International Organisations, 2015.

Evaluation procedures to ensure the quality of standard setting activities are less widely used by IOs than stakeholder engagement (Figure 5.3). *Ex post* evaluation of implementation and impacts is slightly more systematically used than reviews of the regulatory stock and *ex ante* regulatory impact assessment. Open-membership IGOs and trans-governmental networks resort less to evaluation mechanisms than the other types of IOs, in particular the closed-membership IGOs and the secretariats of conventions (Figure 5.4). This is likely to be a function of the formality of the instruments used (secretariats of conventions) and the practicality of the evaluation process in smaller memberships ("closed" IGOs).

Generally, IOs and their constituencies acknowledge the need to review the impacts of their instrument – in order to assess their continued relevance and / or the need for their revision. This was a clear take away from the second meeting of international organisations (Paris, 2015).[3] The survey results also demonstrate this commitment. In particular, a number of IOs, including OIML, report some sort of periodic review of instruments to decide whether these should be confirmed, revised, or withdrawn. CBD reports conducting mandatory reviews of the effectiveness of its instruments (the protocols). New OECD Recommendations systematically include monitoring and review clauses (OECD, 2014). Box 5.2 provides additional insights into the evaluation practices of selected IOs.

Box 5.2. **Evaluation practices in selected IOs**

OSCE implements review processes on the occasion of yearly implementation assessment meetings such as the Annual Implementation Assessment Meeting (AIAM) which evaluates the way the provisions of the Vienna Document 1999 are implemented.

UPU implements *ex ante* and *ex post* analyses of certain initiatives/projects undertaken by the organisation by conducting surveys with member countries.

UNDP Water and Ocean Governance Programme carries out independent evaluations of all its projects that include efforts to create and/or strengthen national and regional regulations pertaining to the water and ocean resource management. In particular, these evaluations assess the quality of the regulations that have emerged from such projects.

In UNECE most evaluations concern programmes or sub-programmes rather than the implementation or impact of a single legal instrument, standard or convention.

Every three years NATO implements *ex post* review of standardisation documents to ensure technical and operational adequacy. The review of a standardization document does not only concern its substantial operational, material and administrative content; rather, it considers also the terminology and national reservations. If a standardisation document is found to be still adequate then the date of the review revalidating the document is recorded. If it requires changes then it should be amended (for minor changes) or revised (for major changes). Amendments lead to a new version of the standard and standards related documents, but the covering document remains unchanged; whereas revisions lead to new editions of the standardization document and related documents.

Among the IOs that carry out systematic assessment of their instruments, the EC, as a supra-national regulator, clearly stands out. All policy decisions with significant impacts are subject to impact assessment (some 100 a year).[1] *Ex post* evaluations are carried out systematically (some 120 a year).[2] Reviews of the overall stock of regulation have been conducted twice.[3]

1. http://ec.europa.eu/smart-regulation/impact/ia_carried_out/cia_2014_en.htm.

2. http://ec.europa.eu/smart-regulation/evaluation/search/search.do.

3. http://ec.europa.eu/smart-regulation/refit/index_en.htm.

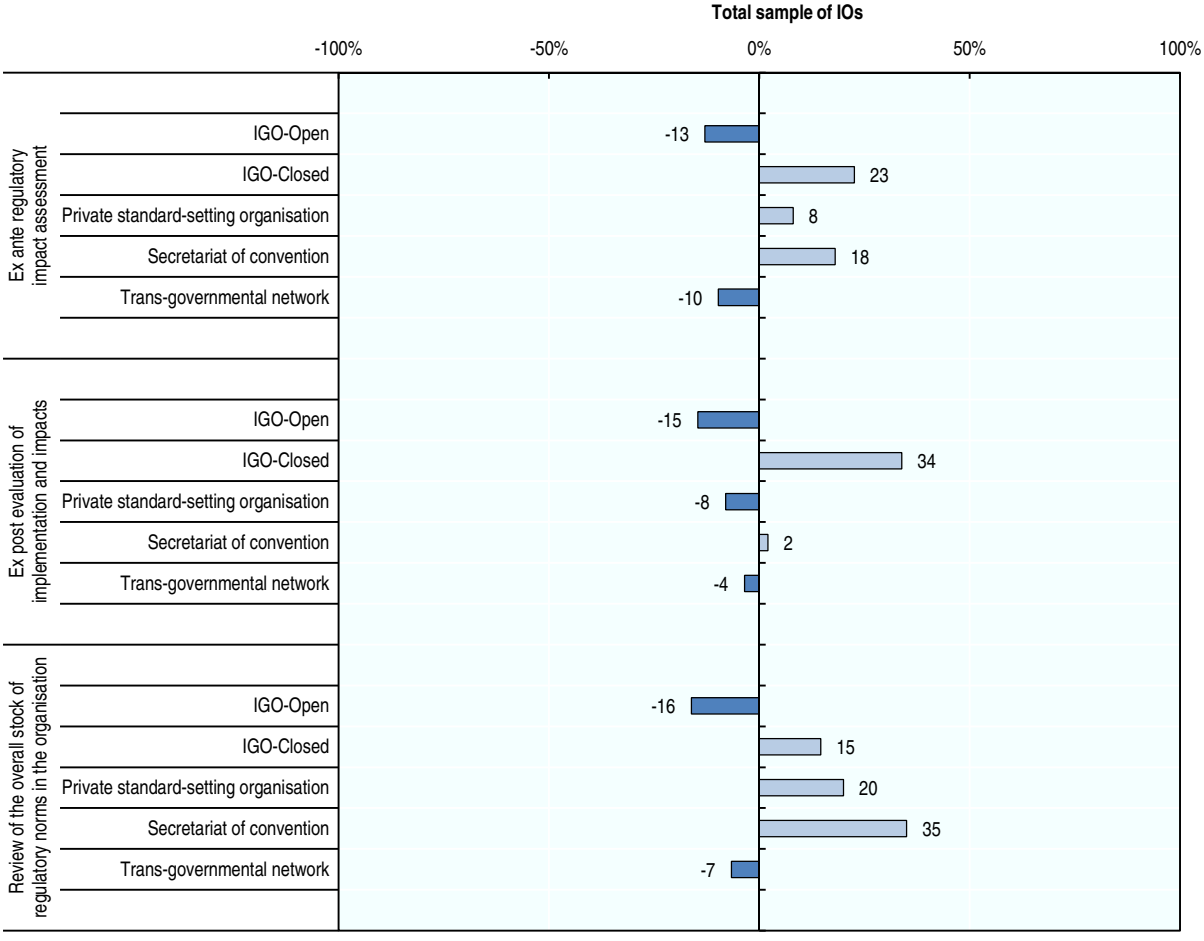
Source: OECD Survey of International Organisations, 2015.

Evaluation is a challenging task for IOs. According to the survey results, the resources for evaluations are an important concern for many IOs (both in terms of staff time dedicated to such activities and necessary funds), which likely explains the above result of less evaluation by those IOs which typically have smaller secretariats and fewer resources (trans-governmental networks) or very large constituencies (open-membership IGOs). Additional challenges, highlighted during the annual meetings of international organisations held by the OECD point to the fact that IOs do not have all the needed control and information levers, which are mainly at the domestic level, to carry out monitoring and evaluation. In a number of cases, they do not have the direct responsibility for implementation of their instruments. Availability of information is also problematic. The methodological issues are not trivial either. For instance, it can be quite complex to disentangle the effects of the instruments of a single organisation when several IOs operate in the same field. IOs with a more restricted membership may have impacts that go beyond their formal members, thus generating spill-over effects that are difficult to identify and measure.

Evaluation is therefore an area where improvements require integrated efforts of IOs with their membership. While IOs may have the expertise and the methodology to carry out evaluation, domestic actors have the knowledge about impacts of IO rule making and its coherence with national regulatory frameworks. In addition, the disciplines of good regulation, and in particular evaluation practices in rule-making, have been developing fast at the national level (OECD, 2015). Lessons could be learnt from this experience to feed in the on-going rethinking of evaluation practices of IOs. It may be argued that evaluation is critical for instruments that are directly binding on member states or aim at transposition into national legislation. It is also likely to be important to ensure increased implementation and impacts of less binding instruments.

Figure 5.4. **Evaluation mechanisms by nature of IOs**

50 respondents



Note: The figure considers both the IOs that answered "systematically" and "frequently" and compares the averages for the specific IO groups to the average for the total sample of IOs. In this figure, the EC is included in the category of closed-membership IGOs.

Source: OECD Survey of International Organisations, 2015.

The IMO presents an interesting case of an IO engaged in a process to reduce administrative burdens. This follows a resolution by the Assembly in November 2011 to adopt a process of periodic review of administrative requirements in mandatory

instruments. Within that context an Ad Hoc Steering Group for Reducing Administrative Requirements (SG-RAR) was established to develop recommendations for alleviating administrative burdens created by IMO regulations. As part of the work of the SG-RAR an Inventory of Administrative Requirements in mandatory IMO instruments identified 560 administrative requirements, addressing a variety of stakeholders, including governments, IMO, manufacturers and equipment suppliers, maritime administrations, masters and ship's crew, port authorities, recognised organisations, shipbuilders and repairers and shippers. A public consultation process was launched in 2013, generating 3 329 responses, which formed the basis of recommendations to alleviate administrative burdens in 2014 (IMO, 2015).[4]

Notes

1. See for instance Tallberg, J. et al. (2013) and current work at the Graduate Institute of International and Development Studies on Rethinking Stakeholder Participation in Global Governance led by Ayelet Berman and Joost Pawelyn.
2. BIAC (http://biac.org), TUAC (www.tuac.org) and OECDWatch (http://oecdwatch.org).
3. The discussions held among IOs as part of the second meeting of international organisations on International Regulatory Co-operation: Fostering the contribution of international organisations to better rules of globalisation held on 17 April 2015 at the OECD highlighted the importance of monitoring the implementation of their instruments and other IRC activities and of evaluating the impacts produced. This reflects a shared heightened ambition for the future of IRC, described so far being largely limited to upstream interventions in the form of soft co-ordination. (…) The discussions showed that IOs were generally under increasing pressure from their constituency to carry out more evaluation.
4. www.imo.org/OurWork/rab/Pages/default.aspx.

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Chapter 6

The institutional landscape in which international organisations operate

International organisations do not operate in a vacuum. Most of them evolve in very dynamic areas, involving the presence of many other organisations and initiatives (international and regional, public and private). This chapter provides an overview of the institutional landscape in which international organisations operate and of their co-ordination based on the answers to the 2015 OECD Survey of International Organisations.

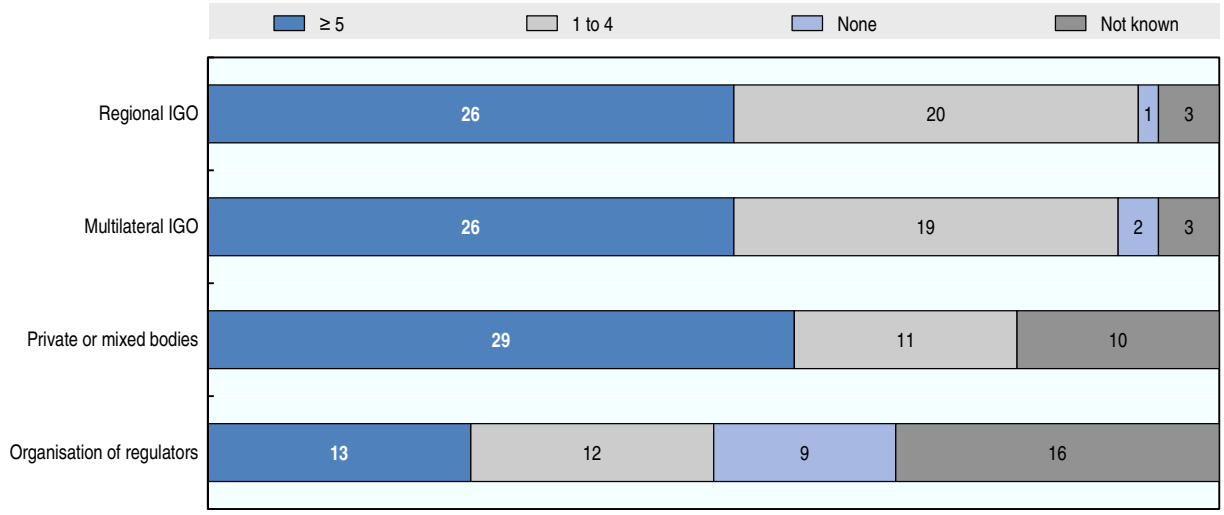
As highlighted in OECD (2013), the landscape of international regulatory co-operation (IRC) is diverse and dynamic. Most international organisations (IOs) operate in fields where many other IOs and international entities are also active.

These bodies may be regional or multilateral inter-governmental organisations (IGOs), private or mixed bodies or organisations/networks of regulators (Figure 6.1). In 19 cases, the IOs operate in an institutional context where more than 5 multilateral IGOs and more than 5 regional IGOs are active in the same field. In 14 cases, the IOs report that more than 5 private or mixed bodies are also part of this already complex institutional set-up. Six IOs report facing more than 5 actors of each of the proposed categories (regional IGOs, multilateral IGOs, private or mixed bodies, organisations of regulators): EC, OECD, OIF, UNIDO, UNODC and WMO. In most cases, the concerned IOs have broad, transversal mandate that cut across the activities of other transversal or specific IOs.

A number of IOs report not knowing the number of other international bodies involved in their field. The number and nature of organisations of regulators and private/mixed bodies may make the precise monitoring of their existence and activities difficult. However, it is more surprising that 3 IOs do not know the number of regional IGOs and of multilateral IGOs involved in their field of activity (there are the same IOs in both cases).

Figure 6.1. **How many international bodies of the following types also engage in some form of IRC within the organisation's area of work?**

50 respondents



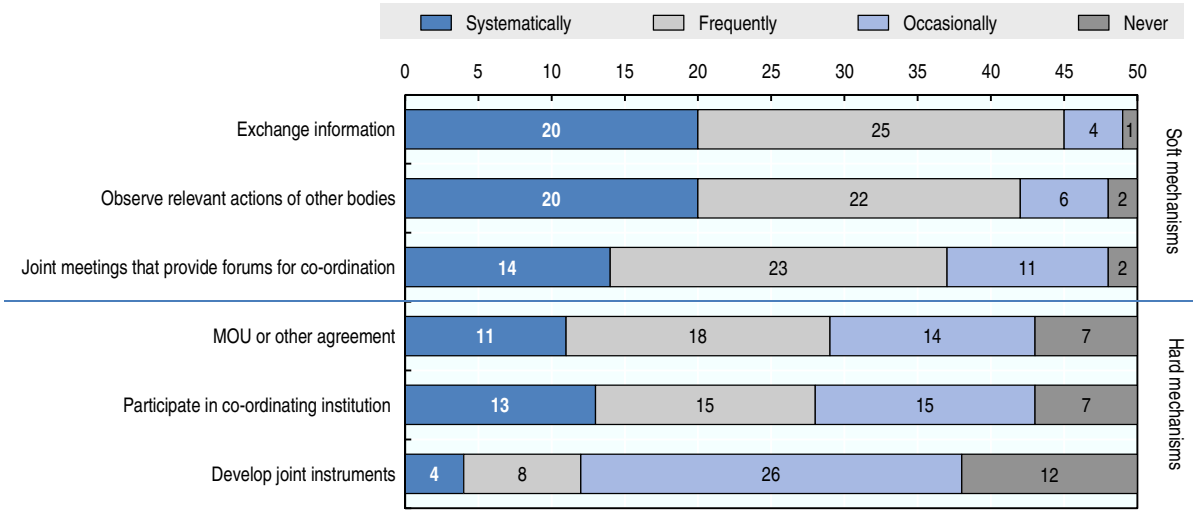
Source: OECD Survey of International Organisations, 2015.

IOs mainly co-ordinate their activities through soft mechanisms, such as exchange of information (all IOs, to different extents), observing action of relevant bodies and joint meetings (most IOs, to different extents) (Figure 6.2). In the framework of ILAC, co-ordination takes place via mutual attendance at each other's meetings. The OSCE often participates in joint staff meetings with other United Nations agencies, the European Union, the NATO and the Council of Europe. The OAS observes relevant actions of other bodies by participating as regional observer in United Nations' meetings. Similarly, many different IOs are observers in OECD committees (for example, the IAIS is an observer in

the Insurance and Private Pensions Committee). The IO profiles at the end of this report provide more detailed information on co-ordination mechanisms and IOs involved.

Figure 6.2. **How does your organisation interact with other international bodies to address gaps, overlaps or conflicts and to co-ordinate IRC activities?**

50 respondents



Notes: The information is missing for UNWTO.

Source: OECD Survey of International Organisations, 2015.

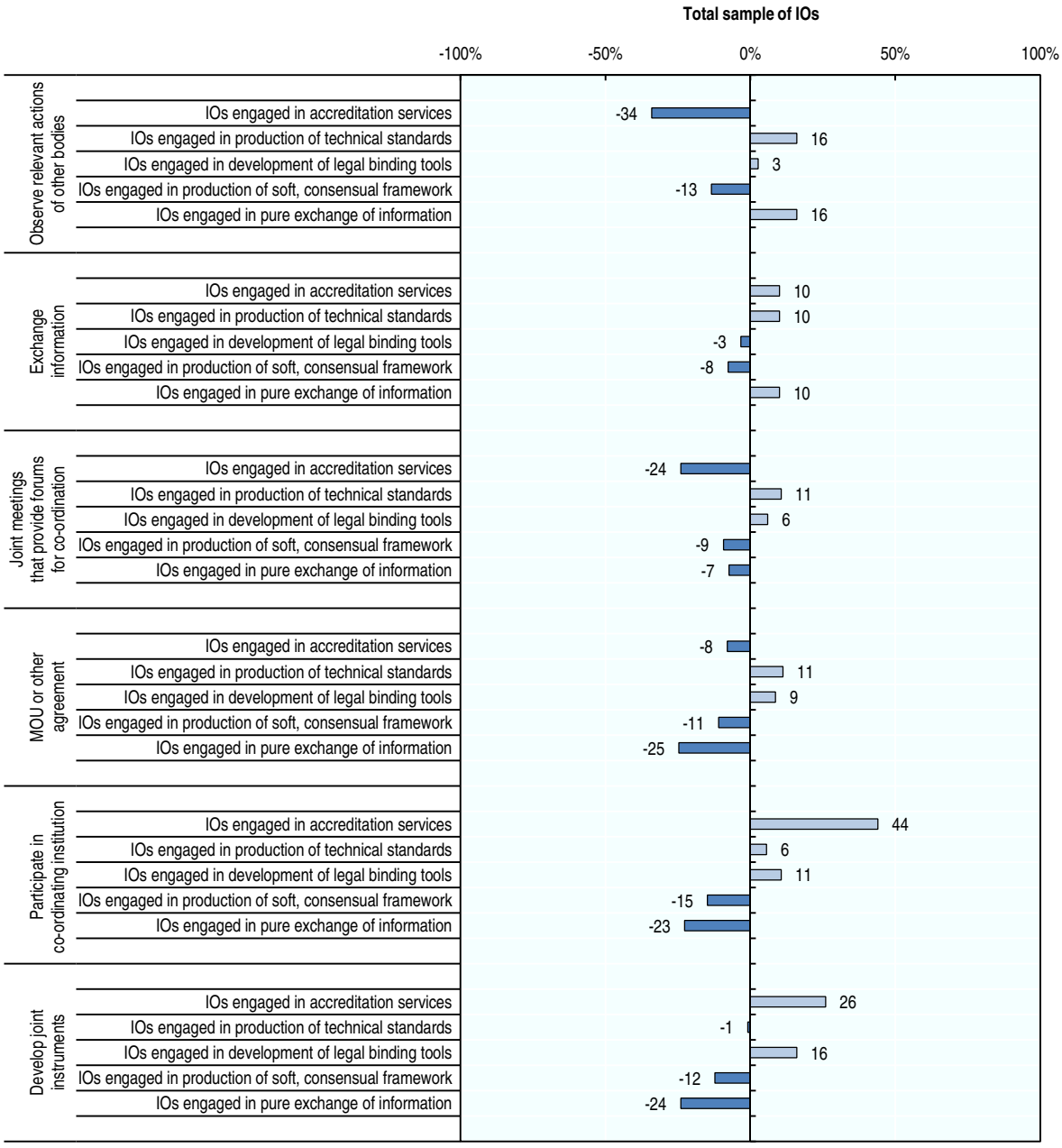
However, a substantial number of IOs report formalising co-operation through participation in a co-ordinating institution or through a legal instrument such as a MoU. For instance, the Inter-Agency Cluster on Trade and Productive Capacity is an interagency mechanism dedicated to the co-ordination of trade and development operations at the national and regional levels. The Cluster is led by the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD) and includes UNIDO, UNDP, FAO, WTO/OMC, UNEP and all United Nations Regional Commissions. The Inter-Organization Programme for the Sound Management of Chemicals (IOMC) is based on an MoU adopted by 9 organisations (FAO, ILO, UNDP, UNEP, UNIDO, UNITAR, WHO, World Bank, and OECD) to promote co-ordination of policies and activities for chemicals management. In addition to these multi-IO efforts, many IOs have bilateral MoUs in place. Examples include the MoU between UNECE and the International Road Transport Union (IRU) on computerisation of the TIR procedure and the MoU between the OIML and the International Electrotechnical Commission (IEC) on technical co-operation, conformity assessment and the development and application of standards.

The systematic or frequent development of joint instruments remains limited: it is systematic for four IOs and frequent for 8. For instance, the FAO and the International Institute for the Unification of Private Law (UNIDROIT) collaborate to develop a legal guide on contract farming. Similarly, IAF and ILAC have developed joint documents for peer evaluations. The purpose of these documents is to assist accreditation bodies under evaluation processes to present information about their performances, and to help evaluation teams to perform their assessments. Another example is the joint declaration establishing guidelines to protect freedom of expression on the Internet developed by many international bodies including the OAS and OSCE. ISO and Codex Alimentarius (the joint FAO/WHO Food Standards programme) collaborate in the development of food

industry standards. Codex Alimentarius, as a joint programme, prepares food standards to assist governments in their statutory and regulatory task of protecting their citizens from health hazards caused by food consumption while, at the same time, ensuring fair practices in the food trade. ISO prepares standards on test methods to assist stakeholders along the whole food chain to fulfil both the statutory and regulatory requirements, as well as the requirements of consumers of these products.

Figure 6.3. **Interactions with other international bodies by type of main activity of IOs**

50 respondents



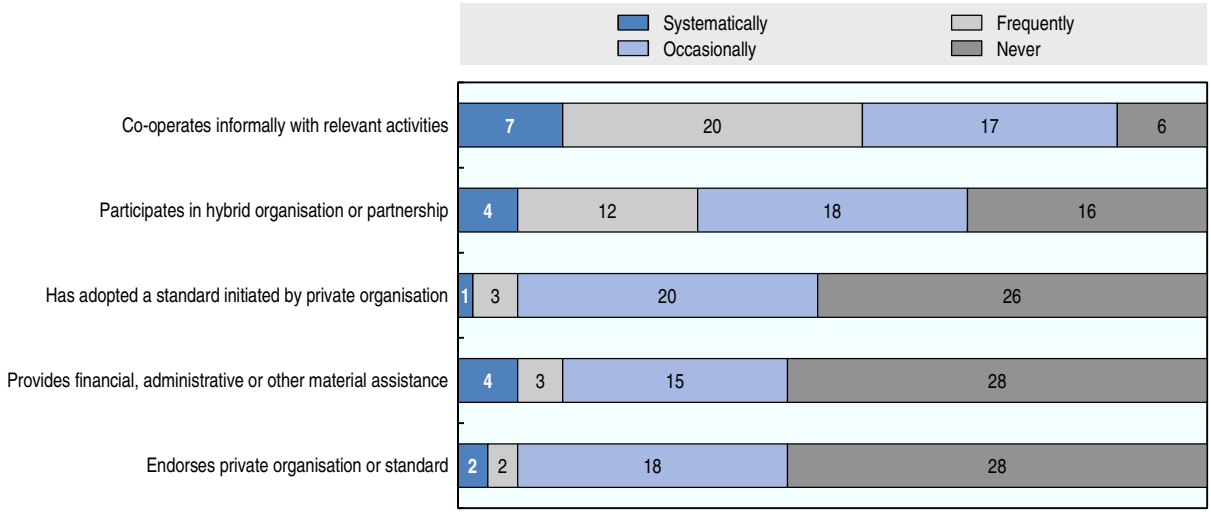
Notes: The figure considers both the IOs that answered "systematically" and "frequently" and compares the averages for the specific IO groups to the average for the total sample of IOs. The information is missing for UNWTO.

Source: OECD Survey of International Organisations, 2015.

The analysis of modes of interaction by type of main activity of IOs (Figure 6.3) reveals that IOs mainly engaged in production of soft, consensual framework or in pure exchange of information tend to adopt less hard co-operation mechanisms (development of joint instruments; participation in co-ordinating institutions; MoU or other agreement) than their peers with stronger standard-setting, regulatory powers/mandates (i.e. IO mainly engaged in production of technical standards or in development of legal binding tools).

Figure 6.4. **How does your organisation interact with organisations of private actors?**

50 respondents



Source: OECD Survey of International Organisations, 2015.

Since the mid-1990s, the academic literature notes that actors from business, civil society and other sectors have created numerous private transnational regulatory organisations (Abbott and Snidal, 2009; Abbott, 2012; Cafaggi, Renda and Schmidt, 2013). These organisations have become influential in a broad range of fields ranging from accounting to climate change to labour rights. A number of these IOs are reflected in the international private standard-setting organisation category surveyed in this report. In addition, in many fields governments and IOs have formed hybrid public-private partnerships with private actors. Some IOs also "orchestrate" private and hybrid organisations, endorsing, supporting and steering them to help achieve the IOs' own regulatory goals (Abbott et al., 2015).

As Figure 6.4 shows, the IOs in the sample engage less actively with private organisations than with other governmental bodies. However, a vast majority engage in informal relationships (44 IOs, of which 7 do it systematically). A majority of IOs also participates in one or more hybrid organisations, although most do so only occasionally and only 4 systematically (IATA, IEC, IFAC and WMO). In this sample, however, support, endorsement and other tools of orchestration are relatively uncommon.

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Chapter 7

Assessing the success of international regulatory co-operation as provided by international organisations

There is limited systematic analysis and research on the successes and failures of international organisations in promoting international regulatory co-operation. This chapter provides an overview of the answers provided by international organisations to the 2015 OECD Survey of International Organisations on their perceived factors of success, challenges and lessons learnt in facilitating co-operation across members.

Preliminary results from the survey suggest that the self-assessment of the international regulatory co-operation (IRC) practices of international organisations (IOs) is a challenging task and does not lead to a systematic evaluation. Indeed, only few IOs provide detailed information on the main lessons learnt from cases of successful/unsuccessful IRC processes and the relevant factors/challenges concerning these practices. Based on the information provided by IOs, it is however possible to outline in a qualitative manner some examples and lessons from IRC practices of IOs. Box 7.1 provides examples of successful IRC processes as volunteered by IOs.

Box 7.1. **Selected examples of successful IRC processes volunteered by IOs**

The training of good manufacturing practice for medical products (GMP) inspectors is one of PIC/S' success in terms of IRC. GMP inspectors are highly specialised and their training needs are very specific. For most regulatory authorities it is not possible to provide specialised and high-quality training to their inspectors. For this reason, by pooling resources together, PIC/S has been able to develop a diverse training programme, which is opened to PIC/S participating authorities as well as non-members. The distinct feature of PIC/S training is that it is a training programme run by inspectors for inspectors. Senior inspectors and experts specialised in specific fields will share their knowledge with junior or less experience inspectors. The training is also very important in order to harmonise both GMP standards and inspection procedures around the world. Indeed, the interpretations of GMP requirements may vary between continents and sometimes even between neighbouring countries. Training is thus an important harmonisation tool, which facilitates the sharing of inspection reports and the exchange of information between members.

The Terrorism Prevention Branch of UNODC is the key technical assistance provider within the United Nations of legal and capacity building assistance in terrorism prevention. The work of the Branch focuses on four main areas: i) promoting the ratification of the 19 universal legal instruments against terrorism; ii) supporting the drafting and review of national legislation in order to incorporate the legal standards of these international legal instruments; iii) building the capacity of national criminal justice officials to implement these standards; and iv) supporting regional and international co-operation in criminal matters, in particular in relation to requests for mutual legal assistance and extradition.

The OPCW Internship Programme for Legal Drafters is aimed at qualified legal officers and qualified members from national authorities of states members, providing the technical capacity and requisite skills to enable them to complete a draft of national implementing legislation and also to pursue its adoption upon their return. The objectives of the internship are to provide tailor-made assistance to states members that have not yet started developing the initial draft of their national implementing legislation, or those that have challenges in this regard. Through the programme, the legal drafters of the participating States members would have developed an initial text of draft legislation that is fully in line with the provisions of the OPCW Convention, meets the requirements of their respective national legislative bodies, and is suitable for submission to Parliament.

AHWP has developed guidance for the preparation for a Common Submission Dossier Template (CSDT), which allows to prepare technical documentation on medical devices in an agreed format. The standard format helps eliminate differences in documentation requirements among member economies, thus decreasing the cost of establishing and documenting regulatory compliance and allowing patients earlier access to new technologies and treatments. AHWP has also established a Safety Alert Dissemination System (SADS), i.e. an on-line system for disseminating safety alerts of medical devices among AHWP members. Through this system, regulatory authorities of member economies can actively communicate on safety information related to medical devices as part of the post-market surveillance activities.

Source: OECD Survey of International Organisations, 2015.

Based on responses from IOs, several factors can explain the success of IRC processes:

- Mutual trust and close engagement among members (APEC, BRS, ESCWA, IMF, ITU, OIF, OPCW, OSCE, PIC/S, SAICM, UNECE, UNEP, UNIDO, and UPU).
- High technical skills and solid scientific competences within the organisation and relevant experience of member delegates (FAO, OAS, OIML, PIC/S, UNECE, UNEP and UNODC).
- The capacity to oversee and monitor implementation of IRC instruments/decisions (FAO, OAS, OPCW, and WCO).
- A good institutional architecture for the decision-making processes taking place within the IOs (IAEA, IMO, and PIC/S), with clearly designated roles and responsibilities and a permanent secretariat supporting the organisation of activities (AHWP).
- Clear definition of objectives (COMESA, FAO, OIF, and UNIDO).
- Open and inclusive consultative processes (FAO and WMO).
- Availability of resources (BRS Conventions and FAO).
- Quality of communication (OTIF).
- Effective *ex post* assessment procedures (OAS).

In the case of unsuccessful co-operation processes, failure may take the form of a lack of agreement among members, inadequate implementation of the agreements or standards; or ineffectiveness of the agreements or standards to address the underlying problems. Owing to the sensitivity of this information, only a small number of IOs volunteered examples of unsuccessful IRC processes.

For example, the early UNEP attempt to develop a global legal instrument for operationalising the Rio Principle 10 related to the Aarhus Convention failed because of a lack of familiarity of a number of countries with the Aarhus Convention. However, ten years later, the subject had matured, and many governments had become ready to engage in the debate. In 2010, the UNEP Governing Council adopted an international guideline for the development of national legislation on the same subject.

Most IOs recognise that their instruments may be simply disregarded by main stakeholders. In the context of the APEC-OECD Integrated Checklist for Regulatory Reform, the self-assessment process did not have the expected success, as only six APEC economies underwent it. In part, the problem was related to the fact that some APEC members did not understand the benefits to participate in this process. Similarly, some of OIML's Mutual Acceptance Arrangements have not made as much impact as had been hoped because of low "buy-in" from member states.

While weak implementation is more likely to occur with non-legally binding instruments (the majority of IO instruments) since by nature their use is not framed by strong enforcement power but relies on the commitment of parties, it may also happen with legally-binding instruments. They, for instance, may be agreed upon but not ratified by enough members to enter into force or may not be translated into domestic law. WHO reports the case of the Protocol on illicit trade in tobacco products to the Framework

Convention on Tobacco Control, which was adopted in November 2012 but (as of November 2016) has not yet entered into force due to lack of sufficient ratifications.

In cases where the agreement is negotiated by parties that do not have the jurisdiction to enforce it – for instance by federal authorities in countries where the issues are under sub-national (for instance state or province) authority – implementation may be hard to harness. This critically raises the question of the representativeness of members in IO platforms.

The process of development and adoption of IRC instruments, as well as their effectiveness, may in some instances be undermined by the financial constraints faced by members. Faced with this challenge, some FAO statutory bodies have established special trust funds to support the participation of developing States in IRC processes and to assist them in the implementation of IRC instruments. For example, in the International Treaty on Plant Genetic Resources for Food and Agriculture (ITPGRFA), a special fund to support the participation of developing countries was established to facilitate participation to ITPGRFA meetings, including to the compliance committee's meetings, by representatives of developing countries.

The development of IRC instruments may span over a substantial period. In that time, unforeseen events may occur and political priorities evolve in members that may change the dynamics of the discussion among members. In 2000, PIC/S started to develop a new mechanism to reduce the number of foreign inspections for good manufacturing practice for medical products (GMP) of participating authorities by sharing inspection reports through a common database called the International Medicinal Inspectorates' Database (IMID). IMID was, however, frozen a few years after its launch in 2003 in order to avoid duplications with a similar database (the EUDRA GMP Database) developed by the European Medicines Agency (EMA).

Challenges to successful IRC identified by IOs are diverse. They however usually pertain to the difficulty in garnering and maintaining strong consensus and commitment to multilateral action among members and in ensuring the financial and human resources over time to match the level of ambition of IRC.

- The lack of human and financial resources in the secretariats and/or in the members (AHWP, BRS Conventions, FAO, OAS, OIML, PIC/S, SAICM, UNECE and UNODC),
- The difficulty in ensuring an active involvement of members (BRS Conventions, ESCWA, IMF, UPU and WCO),
- The lack of adequate and timely information and/or the difficulty to collect data leading to shortcomings in the problem diagnosis and inadequate recommendations (IMF)
- Differences in the legal framework of members which limit and narrow the scope of IRC (COMESA, IAIS, IOSCO and UNIDO)
- Conflicting objectives and priorities across members (ESCWA and UPU)
- Perceptions of particular specificities and differences in the socio-economic status of members influence the adoption of mutual agreements and regulations (ESCWA)
- Problems in networking with other organisations (OAS and PIC/S)

- The complexity and costs of implementing IRC activities (ICN, OAS, WMO)

Based on their experience, the IOs identify a number of critical lessons learnt from their IRC practices:

- Adopting a long term focus to IRC in order to gradually build support and consensus from members (APEC)
- Establishing precise, specific and realistic objectives for the co-operation, in line with available resources and based on detailed ground work (OIF)
- Developing IRC on the basis of a strong common understanding among members of the issues, challenges and objectives to be achieved (FAO) and on their commitment to (and individual interest into) multilateral action in the specific field (IMF, WMO, IATA, OPCW)
- Reaching common grounds through diplomacy; connecting technical and political experts to work towards common goals; engaging civil society; and minimising administrative overhead costs within the organisation (OAS)
- Expanding the use of stakeholder participation in the sharing of knowledge and information (SAICM)
- A cycle of creation, implementation and evaluation of the work products is crucial for the continuous development and improvement of the activities (ICN)
- Developing better co-ordination and co-operation across IOs in order to improve more efficient use of available resources and streamline initiatives and lessen the burden on Governments by focusing their interaction (ESCWA)
- When decisions are made on the basis of sound science, supported by open and inclusive processes, standard setting through the development of legal or policy instruments has better chance to succeed (UNEP)
- Promoting active and reciprocal co-operation with the members and their involvement in the various good governance process and reviews (i.e. review projects, outputs, outcomes versus planned outcomes, key performance indicators, baselines and deliveries) (WCO)
- The capacity of the organisation to function with a good internal information sharing and knowledge management as key feature for insuring that IRC is successful (OTIF)
- The effectiveness of IRC activity is increased where there are effective structures at regional or sub-regional level as well as at the global and national levels (OIML)

Chapter 8

Profiles of international organisations*

This chapter provides a two-page profile for all international organisations involved in the 2015 OECD Survey of International Organisations. All profiles follow a similar structure: they highlight the key features of the international organisation (membership, mandate, sector of activity, staff and budget) and define its contribution to international regulatory co-operation (activities, instruments and co-ordination mechanisms).

*. The names of countries and territories used in the profiles follow the practice of each of the international organisations.

Asian Harmonization Working Party (AHWP)

Key features

Type of organisation: Trans-governmental network (hybrid network of public and private organisations)

Charter/Constitution:
Terms of Reference: www.ahwp.info/index.php?q=node/29
House Rules: www.ahwp.info/index.php?q=node/264

Membership

- Nature: Representatives from governments (officers from regulatory authorities of medical devices), industry representatives from medical device companies, experts on medical devices
- Number: 26 members (as of Dec. 2015)

Year of establishment: 1996

Headquarters: Hong Kong (China)

Secretariat staff: 5 (2015)

Total budget: EUR 190 000 (2015)

Type of activity: Policy dialogue, data collection and analysis, information exchange, development of legal instruments

Sectors of activity: Medical device industry

Website: www.ahwp.info

Members

Brunei Darussalam, Cambodia, Chile, Hong Kong (China), India, Indonesia, Jordan, Kazakhstan, Korea, Kuwait, Lao People's Democratic Republic, Malaysia, Mongolia, Myanmar, Pakistan, People's Republic of China, Philippines, Saudi Arabia, Singapore, South Africa, Chinese Taipei, Tanzania, Thailand, United Arab Emirates, Viet Nam, and Yemen.

Relationship with non-members

- Annual presentation programme of "Updated Regulations on Medical Devices of Non-member Economies"
- Application for joining as member economy to be endorsed at annual meeting by current members

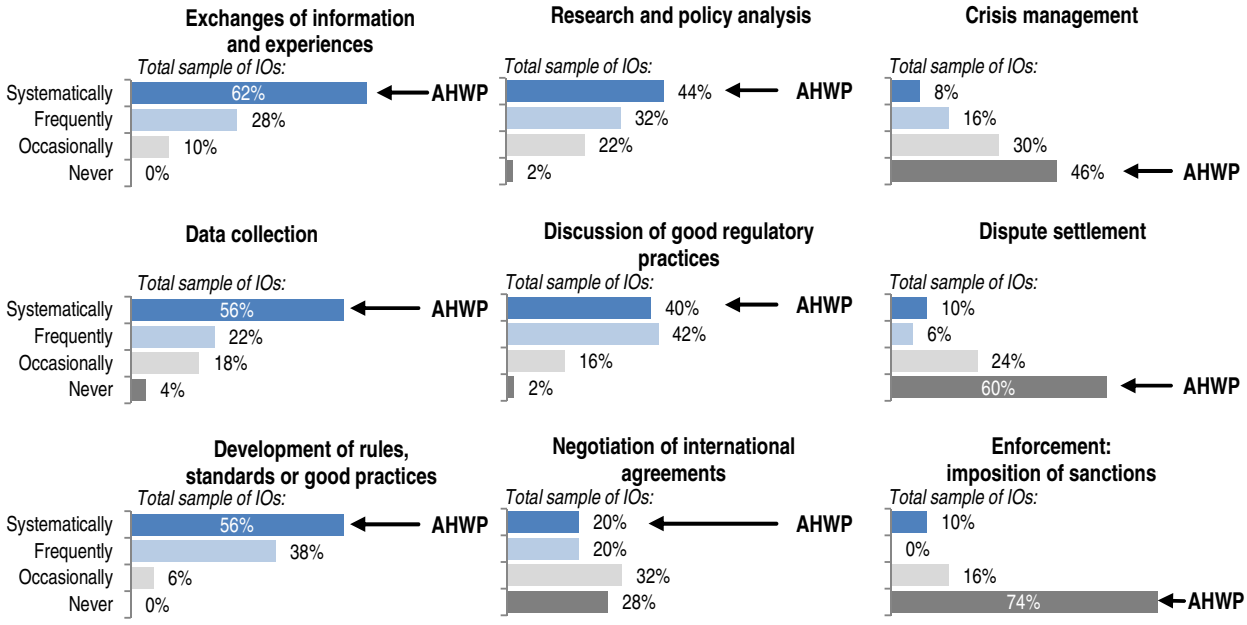
Observers

AHWP aims at spreading and promoting harmonization with observers from different corners of the world participating in the meetings. All AHWP meetings are open to interested parties to join as observers on a space availability basis. ASEAN, APEC, DITTA (Global Diagnostic Imaging, Healthcare IT, and Radiation Therapy Trade Association), GS1 (Global Standard), IMDRF and WHO are usual observers to AHWP annual meetings. AHWP's official liaison members are DITTA and GS1.

Mandate

The goal of the AHWP is to study and recommend ways to harmonise medical device regulations in the Asian and other regions and to work in co-ordination with the Global Harmonization Task Force (GHTF – now IMDRF), APEC and other related international organisations aiming at establishing harmonised requirements, procedures and standards.

IRC processes that take place within the Asian Harmonization Working Party



These figures show how each IO compares to other IOs in its IRC processes. The arrow situates the IO in the overall sample.

Categories of legal and policy instruments

	Is it taking place within the IO?	Approximate number
Treaties for ratification by States (excluding the funding one)		
Legally binding decisions		
Recommendations	√	5
Political declarations		
Model treaties or law		
Production of technical standards		
Non-binding guidance/best practices document	√	27

Interactions with other international organisations active in the field

Mechanisms of interaction		Approximate number of IOs involved	Examples
Develop joint instruments			
MoU or other agreements			ASEAN, APEC, DITTA (Global Diagnostic Imaging, Healthcare IT, and Radiation Therapy Trade Association), IEC, IMDRF, ISO, RAPS (Regulatory Affairs Professionals Society), WHO
Participate in co-ordinating institution			
Joint meetings that provide forum for co-ordination	√	~ 10	
Observe relevant actions of other bodies	√	~ 6	
Exchange information	√	Many	

AHWP history

AHWP was founded in 1996-97 by a group of committed regulatory affairs professionals in Asia Pacific and from the growing interest of regulators in working towards greater harmonisation in medical device regulation in Asia. After the 1998 AHWP meeting in Sydney, Australia, the AHWP member economies began to latch into the Global Harmonization Task Force on Medical Devices (GHTF) principles on harmonisation and co-operation. In September 2000, the AHWP established a technical committee in Ottawa, Canada.

Source of Figures and Tables: OECD Survey 2015.

Asia Pacific Economic Cooperation (APEC)

Key features

Type of organisation: Inter-governmental organisation
Charter/Constitution: No charter or constitution
Membership
- Nature: Representatives from governments
- Number: 21 members

Year of establishment: 1989
Headquarters: Singapore

Secretariat staff: 74 (2014)
Total budget: EUR 4.5 million (2014)
Type of activity: Policy dialogue, information exchange, development of legal instruments (non-binding)
Sectors of activity: Trade, economic and technical co-operation in several sectors
Website: www.apec.org

Members

Australia, Brunei Darussalam, Canada, Chile, Hong Kong (China), Indonesia, Japan, Malaysia, Mexico, New Zealand, Papua New Guinea, People's Republic of China, Peru, Philippines, Republic of Korea, Russia, Singapore, Chinese Taipei, Thailand, The United States, Viet Nam.

Relationship with non-members

- Friendship Agreement between APEC Group of Services (GOS) and the Inter Pacific Bar Association (IPBA) to conduct identified collaboration for the purpose of the smooth implementation of the APEC Legal Services Project.
- Memorandum of Understanding (MOU) between the APEC Food Safety Cooperation Forum (FSCF) and the World Bank (WB) on Food Safety Capacity Building (signed 2011).
- Joint Statement of Intent on Cooperation between the APEC Energy Working Group (EWG) and the International Energy Agency (IEA) (signed 2015).
- APEC Fora grant three-year guest status to non-APEC economies and organisations.
- One-off joint meetings held by APEC and other International Organisations: OECD; EU.

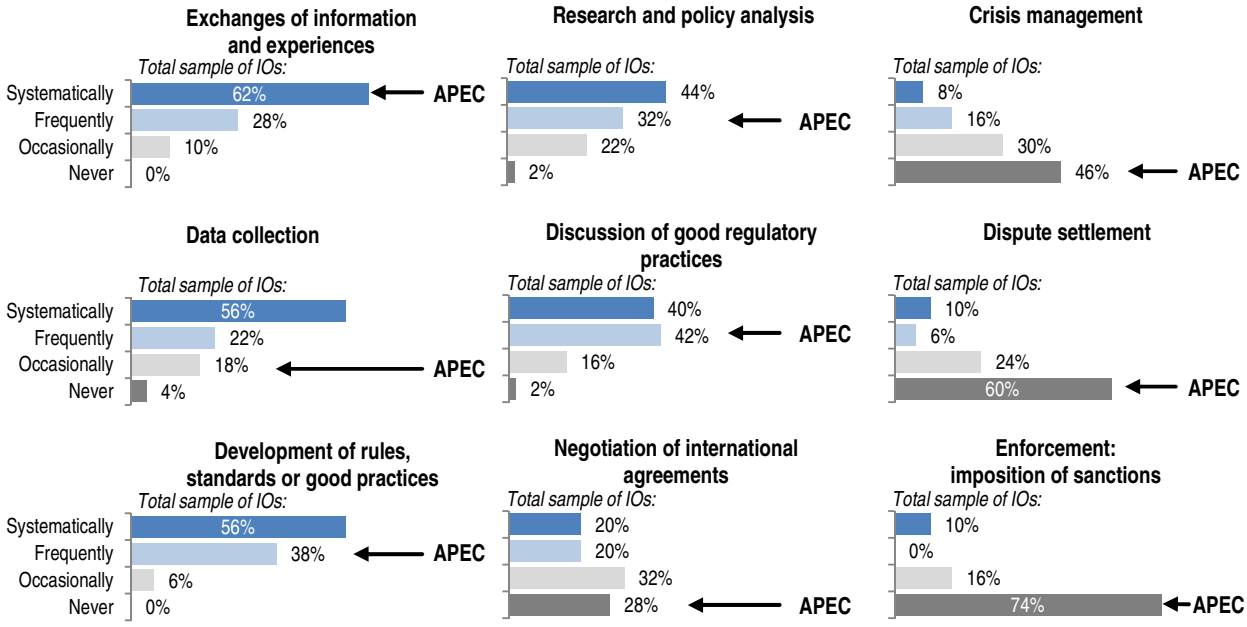
Observers

APEC has three official observers: the Association of Southeast Asian Nations Secretariat (ASEAN), the Pacific Economic Cooperation Council (PECC) and the Pacific Islands Forum Secretariat (PIF). Representatives from these groups participate in APEC meetings and have full access to documents and information related to the work of member economies, helping to track progress and provide guidance in support of APEC objectives.

Mandate

APEC is the premier Asia-Pacific economic forum. Its primary goal is to support sustainable economic growth and prosperity in the Asia-Pacific region. APEC is united in its drive to build a dynamic and harmonious Asia-Pacific community by championing free and open trade and investment, promoting and accelerating regional economic integration, encouraging economic and technical co-operation, enhancing human security, and facilitating a favourable and sustainable business environment. Its initiatives turn policy goals into concrete results and agreements into tangible benefits.

IRC processes that take place within the Asia Pacific Economic Cooperation



These figures show how each IO compares to other IOs in its IRC processes. The arrow situates the IO in the overall sample.

Categories of legal and policy instruments

	Is it taking place within the IO?	Approximate number
Treaties for ratification by States (excluding the funding one)		
Legally binding decisions		
Recommendations	√	
Political declarations	√	
Model treaties or law		
Production of technical standards		
Non-binding guidance/best practices document	√	

Interactions with other international organisations active in the field

Mechanisms of interaction	Approximate number of IOs involved	Examples
Develop joint instruments		Where appropriate most APEC working groups exchange information with relevant IO's including the World Bank, WTO/OMC, World Customs Organisation etc.
MoU or other agreements		
Participate in co-ordinating institution		
Joint meetings that provide forum for co-ordination	√	
Observe relevant actions of other bodies	√	
Exchange information	√	

APEC history

The idea of APEC was first publicly broached by former Prime Minister of Australia Bob Hawke during a speech in Seoul on 31 January 1989. Ten months later, 12 Asia-Pacific economies met in Canberra to establish APEC. Between 1989 and 1992, APEC met as an informal senior official and Ministerial level dialogue. In 1993, APEC established the practice of an annual APEC Economic Leaders' Meeting to provide greater strategic vision and direction to co-operation in the region.

Source of Figures and Tables: OECD Survey 2015.

ASTM International

Key features

Type of organisation: Private standard-setting organisation

Charter/Constitution:
ASTM Charter, www.astm.org/COMMIT/BODCharter.pdf

Membership

- Nature: Individuals representing producers, users, consumers, governments, universities and other stakeholders
- Number: 30 000 members

Year of establishment: 1898

Headquarters: Philadelphia (United States)

Country offices: Brussels (Belgium), Ottawa (Canada), Beijing (China), Lima (Peru), Washington DC (United States)

Secretariat staff: 200 (2015)

Total budget: EUR 60 million (2015)

Type of activity: Data collection and analysis, information exchange, development of voluntary consensus standards

Sectors of activity: Metals, paints, plastics, textiles, petroleum, construction, energy, environment, consumer products, medical services, devices and electronics, advanced materials, etc.

Website: www.astm.org

Members

ASTM International is driven by the expertise and commitment of 30 000 members from more than 140 countries. Individuals representing businesses, governments and other stakeholders collaborate in the ASTM International's technical committees.

Relationship with non-members

ASTM International offers a wide range of tools designed to assist members as well non-member on standards. These tools include resources for professors and students, trainings for engineers, proficiency testing programmes for laboratories etc.

ASTM International MoU Programme is designed to encourage the participation of technical experts from around the world in the ASTM standards development process and broaden the global acceptance and use of ASTM International standards (www.astm.org/GLOBAL/index.html).

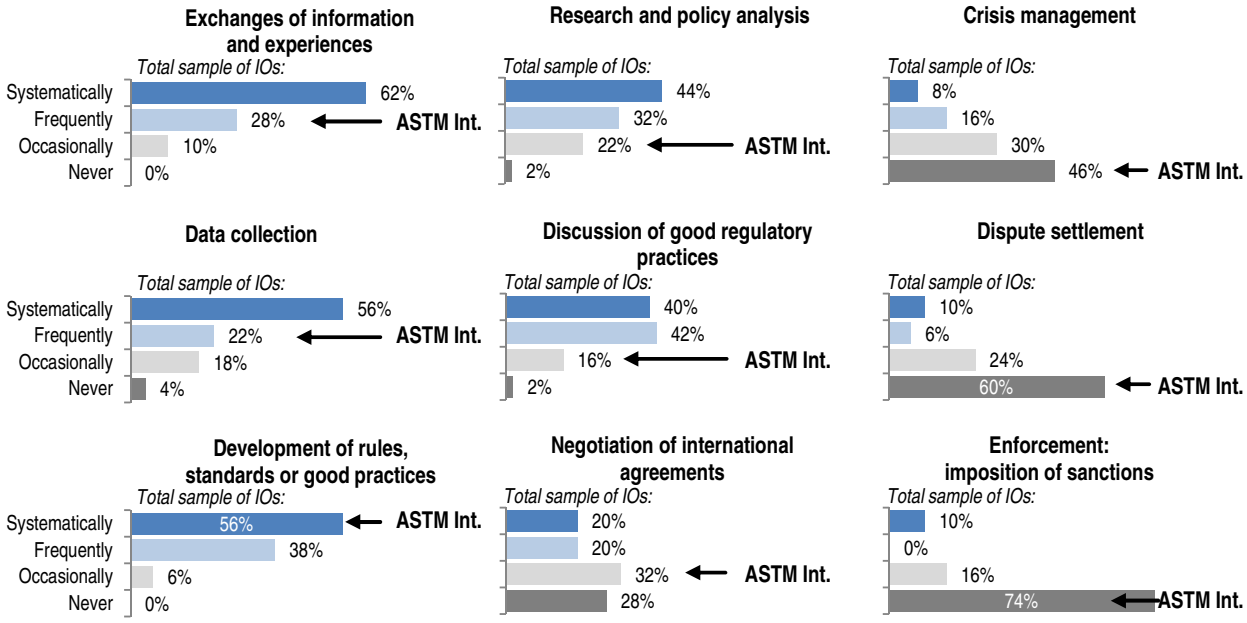
Observers

Anyone, member or non-member can attend ASTM International meetings free of charge. Only "Participating members", though have the right to provide input on standards development. "Informational members" have an interest in ASTM International standards and related technical information, but choose not to participate on technical committees.

Mandate

Committed to serving global societal needs, ASTM International positively impacts public health and safety, consumer confidence and overall quality of life. ASTM International integrates consensus standards, developed with its international membership of volunteer technical experts, and innovative services to improve lives.

IRC processes that take place within ASTM International



These figures show how each IO compares to other IOs in its IRC processes. The arrow situates the IO in the overall sample.

Categories of legal and policy instruments

	Is it taking place within the IO?	Approximate number
Treaties for ratification by States (excluding the funding one)		
Legally binding decisions		
Recommendations		
Political declarations		
Model treaties or law		
Production of technical standards	√	> 12 000
Non-binding guidance/best practices document	√	1 500

Interactions with other international organisations active in the field

Mechanisms of interaction		Approximate number of IOs involved	Examples
Develop joint instruments	√	Mainly 1 (ISO)	
MoU or other agreements			United Nations, OECD, ISO, IEC, EASC (Euro Asian Council for Standardization, Metrology and Certification), SAE International, ASME (American Society of Mechanical Engineers)
Participate in co-ordinating institution	√	10	
Joint meetings that provide forum for co-ordination	√	10-20	
Observe relevant actions of other bodies	√	10-20	
Exchange information	√	10-20	

ASTM International history

On 16 June 1898, seventy IATM members met in Philadelphia to form the American Section of the International Association for Testing Materials. The American Section's first technical committee on steel initiated a series of discussions of testing and material standards for the railroad industry. ASTM International formed several new committees that expanded the organisation's scope beyond the steel industry and responded to the growing need for standards in many areas. In 2001, ASTM changed its name to ASTM International. ASTM International' scope currently covers over hundreds of different industrial sectors from steel and other materials, to consumer products, aviation, nanotechnologies, pharmaceutical processes and many others. www.astm.org/ABOUT/milestones.html.

Source of Figures and Tables: OECD Survey 2015.

Secretariats of the Basel, Rotterdam and Stockholm Conventions (BRS Conventions)

Key features

Type of organisation: Secretariats of conventions

Charter/Constitution:

- Basel Convention, www.basel.int/Portals/4/Basel%20Convention/docs/text/BaselConventionText-e.pdf
- Rotterdam Convention, www.pic.int/TheConvention/Overview/TextoftheConvention/tabid/1048/language/en-US/Default.aspx
- Stockholm Convention, http://chm.pops.int/TheConvention/Overview/TextoftheConvention/tabid/2232/Default.aspx

Membership:

- Nature: governments
- Number: 184 parties (Basel Convention); 155 parties (Rotterdam Convention); 180 parties (Stockholm Convention)

Year of establishment: 1989 (Basel Convention); 1998 (Rotterdam Convention); 2001 (Stockholm Convention)

Headquarters: Geneva (Switzerland), Rome (Italy, co-location of Rotterdam Convention secretariat)

Country offices: 14 Basel Convention Regional and Coordinating Centres; 16 Stockholm Convention Regional and Sub-regional Centres

Secretariat staff: 66 (2014)

Total budget: EUR 24 million (2015)

Type of activity: Policy dialogue, data collection and analysis, information exchange, development of legal instruments

Sectors of activity: Environment, hazardous wastes, hazardous chemicals, persistent organic pollutants

Websites: www.basel.int; www.pic.int; http://chm.pops.int/

Members

The Basel Convention has currently 184 parties: 183 countries and the European Union.

The Rotterdam Convention has currently 155 parties: 154 countries and the European Union.

The Stockholm Convention has currently 180 parties: 179 countries and the European Union.

Observers

Observers can be States not Parties to the Conventions, IGOs, NGOs, as well as – in the case of the Basel Convention – industry and academia, which are qualified in matters covered by the relevant Convention and admitted as observers. Meetings of the conventions' bodies are normally open to observers.

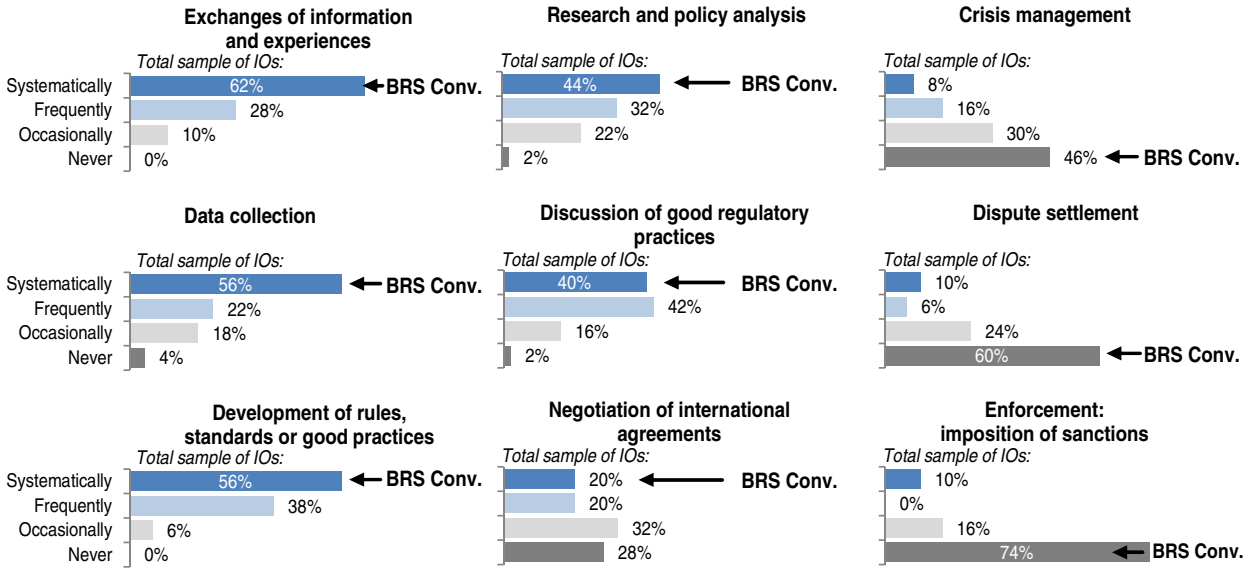
Mandate

The overarching objective of the Basel Convention is to protect human health and the environment against the adverse effects of hazardous wastes.

The objective of the Rotterdam Convention is to promote sound use and shared responsibility in the international trade of certain hazardous chemicals in order to protect human health and the environment.

The objective of the Stockholm Convention is to protect human health and the environment from persistent organic pollutants.

IRC processes that take place within the Secretariats of the BRS Conventions



These figures show how each IO compares to other IOs in its IRC processes. The arrow situates the IO in the overall sample.

Categories of legal and policy instruments

	Is it taking place within the IO?	Approximate number
Treaties for ratification by States (excluding the funding one)		
Legally binding decisions		
Recommendations	√	73 adopted in 2015
Political declarations	√	10
Model treaties or law	√	1
Production of technical standards		
Non-binding guidance/best practices document	√	150

Interactions with other international organisations active in the field

Mechanisms of interaction		Approximate number of IOs involved	Examples
Develop joint instruments	√		UNEP, FAO, IMO, WHO, INTERPOL (International Criminal Police Organization), WCO, ITU, UNITAR (United Nations Institute for Training and Research), ILO (International Labour Office), OECD, IOMC (Inter-Organization Programme for the Sound Management of Chemicals), OHCHR (Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights), GEF (Global Environment Facility), UNDP, WTO/OMC, Bamako Convention, Waigani Convention, UNECE
MoU or other agreements	√	15	
Participate in co-ordinating institution	√	1	
Joint meetings that provide forum for co-ordination	√		
Observe relevant actions of other bodies	√	25	
Exchange information	√	25	

BRS Conventions history

The Basel Convention was adopted on 22 March 1989 by the UN Conference of Plenipotentiaries in Basel, Switzerland, in response to a public outcry following the discovery, in the 1980s, of deposits of toxic wastes imported from abroad. The Convention entered into force in 1992. The Rotterdam Convention was adopted on 10 September 1998 by the UN Conference of Plenipotentiaries in Rotterdam, the Netherlands, as response to the potential risks posed by hazardous chemicals and pesticides. The Convention entered into force on 24 February 2004. The Stockholm Convention was adopted on 23 May 2001 by the UN Conference of Plenipotentiaries, in Stockholm, Sweden, as response to the increasing threats that persistent organic pollutants pose to human health and the environment. The convention entered into force on 17 May 2004.

Source of Figures and Tables: OECD Survey 2015.

Caribbean Community (CARICOM)

Key features

Type of organisation: Inter-governmental organisation

Charter/Constitution: Revised Treaty of Chaguaramas, www.caricom.org/jsp/community/revised_treaty-text.pdf

Membership:

- Nature: Representatives from governments (Heads of governments)
- Number: 15 members

Year of establishment: 1973

Headquarters: Georgetown, Guyana;

Other offices: Barbados, Jamaica

Secretariat staff: 334 (2016)

Total budget: EUR 38 million (2015)

Type of activity: Policy dialogue, data collection and analysis, information exchange, development of legal instruments, dispute settlement

Sectors of activity: Trade and common market, co-ordination of foreign policy, human and social development, security, taxation, functional co-operation

Website: www.caricom.org

Members

Antigua and Barbuda, Bahamas, Barbados, Belize, Dominica, Grenada, Guyana, Haiti, Jamaica, Montserrat, Saint Lucia, Saint Kitts and Nevis, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, Suriname, Trinidad and Tobago.

Five Associate members: Anguilla, Bermuda, British Virgin Islands, Cayman Islands and Turks and Caicos Islands.

Five Associate Institutions: Caribbean Development Bank (CDB), University of Guyana (UG), University of the West Indies (UWI), Caribbean Law Institute Centre (CLIC), Organisation of Eastern Caribbean States (OECS).

Relationship with non-members

CARICOM has concluded a number of co-operation agreements with third states (general or specific in scope), and has also accredited several ambassadors of Third States to CARICOM. On occasion, the organs may invite a third state to attend a specific meeting on a specific item of mutual interest. CARICOM has also concluded free trade agreements as a Community, with Cuba, Costa Rica and the Dominican Republic.

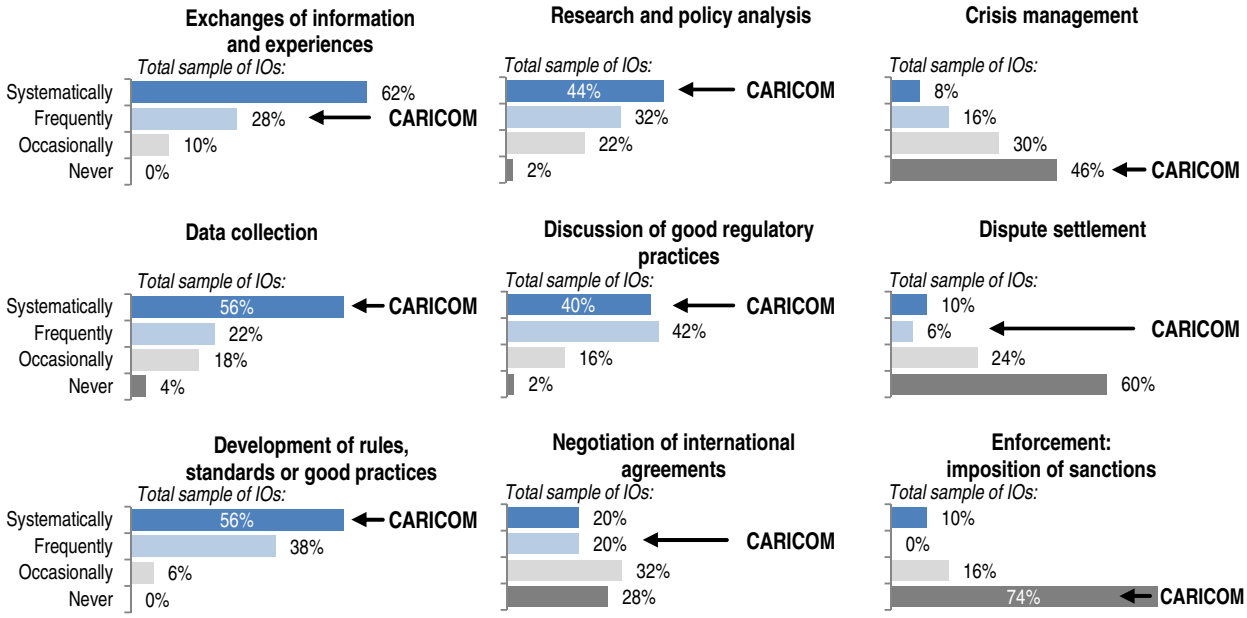
Observers

CARICOM does not provide for third states to be Observers.

Mandate

The Community has the following objectives: a) improved standards of living and work; b) full employment of labour and other factors of production; c) accelerated, co-ordinated and sustained economic development and convergence; d) expansion of trade and economic relations with third States; e) enhanced levels of international competitiveness; f) organisation for increased production and productivity; g) the achievement of a greater measure of economic leverage and effectiveness of Member States in dealing with third States, groups of States and entities of any description; h) enhanced co-ordination of Member States' foreign and (foreign) economic policies; i) enhanced functional co-operation.

IRC processes that takes place within the Caribbean Community



These figures show how each IO compares to other IOs in its IRC processes. The arrow situates the IO in the overall sample.

Categories of legal and policy instruments

	Is it taking place within the IO?	Approximate number
Treaties for ratification by States	√	75
Legally binding decisions	√	>100
Recommendations	√	>100
Political declarations	√	90
Model treaties or law	√	79
Production of technical standards		
Non-binding guidance/best practices document	√	10

Interactions with other international organisations active in the field

Mechanisms of interaction		Approximate number of IOs involved	Examples
Develop joint instruments	√		UN specialised agencies, CELAC, ACS, OECS, OAS, ACP (African Caribbean and Pacific), IMF, World Bank, IDB, WTO/OMC, AU (African Union), Pacific Island Forum, Commonwealth, EU
MoU or other agreements	√	20	
Participate in co-ordinating institution	√	4	
Joint meetings that provide forum for co-ordination	√	4	
Observe relevant actions of other bodies	√	10	
Exchange information	√	20	

CARICOM history

The Caribbean Free Trade Association (CARIFTA) was founded on 15 December 1965, with the signing of the Dickenson Bay Agreement (the Agreement establishing the Caribbean Free Trade Association). At the Seventh CARIFTA Heads of Government Conference in October 1972, Caribbean Leaders decided to transform CARIFTA into a Common Market and establish the Caribbean Community of which the Common Market would be an integral part. The Caribbean Community and Common Market (CARICOM) was established by the Treaty of Chaguaramas, which came into effect on August 1, 1973. The Heads of Government revised the Treaty in 2001, to establish inter alia a Single Market and Economy, new governance arrangements and provision of formal dispute settlement mechanisms including a Court with treaty jurisdiction.

Source of Figures and Tables: OECD Survey 2015.

Secretariat of the Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD)

Key features

Type of organisation: Secretariat of Convention

Charter/Constitution: Convention on Biological Diversity, www.cbd.int/doc/legal/cbd-en.pdf

Membership:

- Nature: governments
- Number: 196 parties

Year of establishment: 1992

Headquarters: Montreal, Canada

Secretariat staff: 102 (2014)

Total budget: EUR 34 million (2014)

Type of activity: Supporting policy development and dialogue, information exchange, data collection and analysis, development of legal instruments, and convening and facilitating meetings

Sectors of activity: Biodiversity, Biosafety, Environment

Website: www.cbd.int

Members

Afghanistan, Albania, Algeria, Andorra, Angola, Antigua and Barbuda, Argentina, Armenia, Australia, Austria, Azerbaijan, Bahamas, Bahrain, Bangladesh, Barbados, Belarus, Belgium, Belize, Benin, Bhutan, Bolivia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Botswana, Brazil, Brunei Darussalam, Bulgaria, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cabo Verde, Cambodia, Cameroon, Canada, Central African Republic, Chad, Chile, China, Colombia, Comoros, Congo, Cook Islands, Costa Rica, Côte d'Ivoire, Croatia, Cuba, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Democratic People's Republic of Korea, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Denmark, Djibouti, Dominica, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, Egypt, El Salvador, Equatorial Guinea, Eritrea, Estonia, Ethiopia, European Union, Fiji, Finland, Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, France, Gabon, Gambia, Georgia, Germany, Ghana, Greece, Grenada, Guatemala, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Guyana, Haiti, Honduras, Hungary, Iceland, India, Indonesia, Iran, Iraq, Ireland, Israel, Italy, Jamaica, Japan, Jordan, Kazakhstan, Kenya, Kiribati, Korea, Kuwait, Kyrgyzstan, Lao People's Democratic Republic, Latvia, Lebanon, Lesotho, Liberia, Libya, Liechtenstein, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Madagascar, Malawi, Malaysia, Maldives, Mali, Malta, Marshall Islands, Mauritania, Mauritius, Mexico, Micronesia, Moldova, Monaco, Mongolia, Montenegro, Morocco, Mozambique, Myanmar, Namibia, Nauru, Nepal, Netherlands, New Zealand, Nicaragua, Niger, Nigeria, Niue, Norway, Oman, Pakistan, Palau, Panama, Papua New Guinea, Paraguay, Peru, Philippines, Poland, Portugal, Qatar, Romania, Russia, Rwanda, Saint Kitts and Nevis, Saint Lucia, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, Samoa, San Marino, Sao Tome and Principe, Saudi Arabia, Senegal, Serbia, Seychelles, Sierra Leone, Singapore, Slovakia, Slovenia, Solomon Islands, Somalia, South Africa, South Sudan, Spain, Sri Lanka, State of Palestine, Sudan, Suriname, Swaziland, Sweden, Switzerland, Syrian Arab Republic, Tajikistan, Tanzania, Thailand, Timor-Leste, Togo, Tonga, Trinidad and Tobago, Tunisia, Turkey, Turkmenistan, Tuvalu, Uganda, Ukraine, United Arab Emirates, United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, Uruguay, Uzbekistan, Vanuatu, Venezuela, Viet Nam, Yemen, Zambia, Zimbabwe.

Relationship with non-members

Non-members (which are known as "Non-Parties") participate in the deliberations of members ("Parties"), are usually invited to take part in the implementation of the obligations undertaken by the Parties and to share information on their activities.

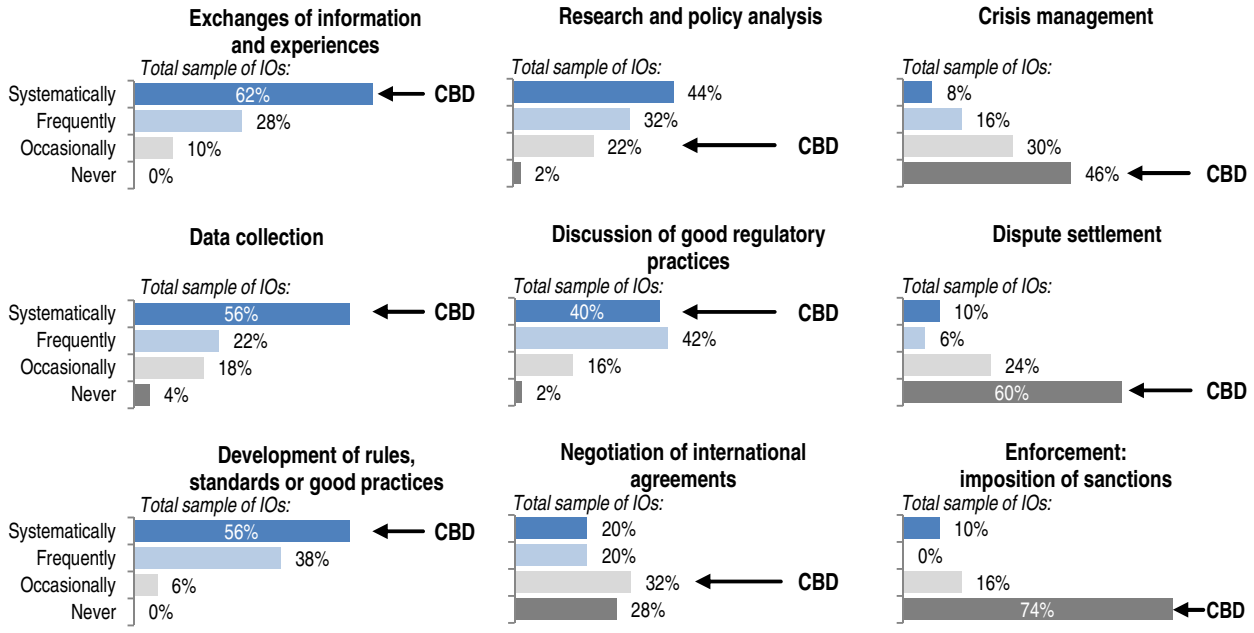
Observers

CBD Observers are Non-Party States, IGOs, relevant IOs and NGOs, including community organisations and academics. Each meeting of the Conference of the Parties is attended by different number of observers (between 300 and 500). CBD is institutionally linked to UNEP.

Mandate

The objectives of the Convention on Biological Diversity are the conservation of biological diversity, the sustainable use of its components and the fair and equitable sharing of the benefits arising out of the utilisation of genetic resources, including by appropriate access to genetic resources and by appropriate transfer of relevant technologies, taking into account all rights over those resources and to technologies, and by appropriate funding. The Secretariat of CBD was established to support the goals of the Convention.

IRC processes that take place within the Secretariat of the Convention on Biological Diversity



These figures show how each IO compares to other IOs in its IRC processes. The arrow situates the IO in the overall sample.

Categories of legal and policy instruments

	Is it taking place within the IO?	Approximate number
Treaties for ratification by States (excluding the funding one)	√	4
Legally binding decisions		
Recommendations	√	474
Political declarations	√	
Model treaties or law		
Production of technical standards		
Non-binding guidance/best practices document	√	>100

Interactions with other international organisations active in the field

Mechanisms of interaction		Approximate number of IOs involved	Examples
Develop joint instruments			UNEP, FAO, UNDP, UNESCO, CITES, CMS (Convention on Migratory Species), Ramsar Convention on Wetlands, EU, AU (African Union), OSPAR Convention for the Protection of the Marine Environment of the North-East Atlantic), UNECE, IUCN (International Union for Conservation of Nature), CI (Conservation International), ICLEI (International Council for Local Environmental Initiatives), CropLife International
MoU or other agreements	√	158	
Participate in co-ordinating institution	√		
Joint meetings that provide forum for co-ordination	√		
Observe relevant actions of other bodies	√		
Exchange information	√		

CBD history

In response to species and ecosystems extinction, the UNEP convened the Ad Hoc Working Group of Experts on Biological Diversity in November 1988 to explore the need for an international convention on biological diversity. Soon after, in May 1989, it established the Ad Hoc Working Group of Technical and Legal Experts to prepare an international legal instrument for the conservation and sustainable use of biological diversity. By February 1991, the Ad Hoc Working Group had become known as the Intergovernmental Negotiating Committee. Its work culminated on 22 May 1992 with the Nairobi Conference for the Adoption of the Agreed Text of the Convention on Biological Diversity.

Source of Figures and Tables: OECD Survey 2015.

Secretariat of the Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna and Flora (CITES)

Key features

Type of organisation: Secretariat of convention

Charter/Constitution: Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna and Flora, https://cites.org/eng/disc/text.php

Membership:

- Nature: governments
- Number: 181 parties

Year of establishment: 1973

Headquarters: Geneva, Switzerland

Secretariat staff: 22 core staff and 8-10 project posts (2014)

Total budget: EUR 10 million (core annual budget) (2014)

Type of activity: Policy dialogue, data collection and analysis, information exchange, development of legal instruments (trade regulations), crisis management, enforcement (recommendations of trade suspension, quota setting), crisis management, dispute settlement

Sectors of activity: Wildlife trade, conservation of flora and fauna

Website: www.cites.org

Members (parties)

Afghanistan, Albania, Algeria, Angola, Antigua and Barbuda, Argentina, Armenia, Australia, Austria, Azerbaijan, Bahamas, Bahrain, Bangladesh, Barbados, Belarus, Belgium, Belize, Benin, Bermuda, Bhutan, Bolivia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Botswana, Brazil, Brunei Darussalam, Bulgaria, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cabo Verde, Cambodia, Cameroon, Canada, Central African Republic, Chad, Chile, China (People's Republic of), Colombia, Comoros, Congo, Costa Rica, Côte d'Ivoire, Croatia, Cuba, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Denmark, Djibouti, Dominica, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, Egypt, El Salvador, Equatorial Guinea, Eritrea, Estonia, Ethiopia, European Union, Fiji, Finland, Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, France, Gabon, Gambia, Georgia, Germany, Ghana, Greece, Grenada, Guatemala, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Guyana, Honduras, Hungary, Iceland, India, Indonesia, Iran, Iraq, Ireland, Israel, Italy, Jamaica, Japan, Jordan, Kazakhstan, Kenya, Korea, Kuwait, Kyrgyzstan, Lao People's Democratic Republic, Latvia, Lebanon, Lesotho, Liberia, Libya, Liechtenstein, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Madagascar, Malawi, Malaysia, Maldives, Mali, Malta, Mauritania, Mauritius, Mexico, Moldova, Monaco, Mongolia, Montenegro, Morocco, Mozambique, Myanmar, Namibia, Nepal, Netherlands, New Caledonia, New Zealand, Nicaragua, Niger, Nigeria, Norway, Oman, Pakistan, Palau, Panama, Papua New Guinea, Paraguay, Peru, Philippines, Poland, Portugal, Qatar, Romania, Russia, Rwanda, Saint Kitts and Nevis, Saint Lucia, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, Samoa, San Marino, Sao Tome and Principe, Saudi Arabia, Senegal, Serbia, Seychelles, Sierra Leone, Singapore, Slovakia, Slovenia, Solomon Islands, Somalia, South Africa, Spain, Sri Lanka, Sudan, Suriname, Swaziland, Sweden, Switzerland, Syrian Arab Republic, Tanzania, Thailand, Togo, Trinidad and Tobago, Tunisia, Turkey, Uganda, Ukraine, United Arab Emirates, United Kingdom, United States, Uruguay, Uzbekistan, Vanuatu, Venezuela, Viet Nam, Yemen, Zambia, Zimbabwe.

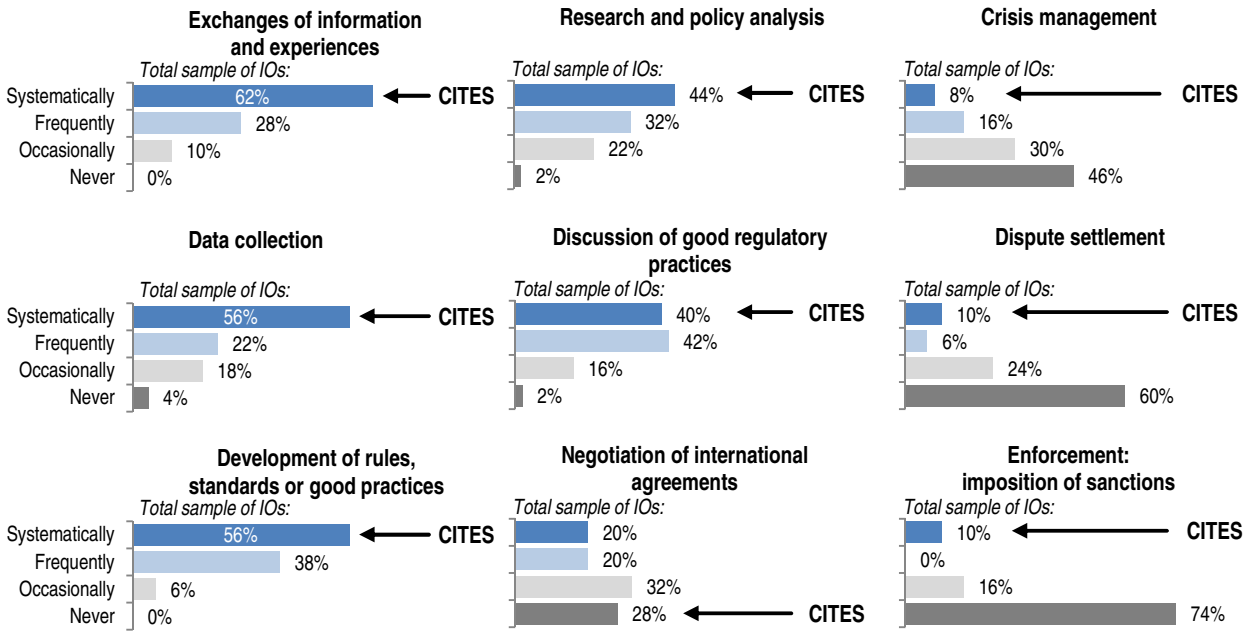
Relationship with non-members

Four countries are in the process of acceding to CITES.

Mandate

The CITES is an international agreement between governments. Its aim is to ensure that international trade in specimens of wild animals and plants does not threaten their survival. The functions of CITES include assisting with communication and monitoring the implementation of the Convention to ensure that its provisions are respected; undertaking, under agreed programmes, occasional scientific and technical studies into issues affecting the implementation of the Convention; making recommendations regarding the implementation of the Convention, etc.

IRC processes that take place within the Secretariat of the Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna and Flora



These figures show how each IO compares to other IOs in its IRC processes. The arrow situates the IO in the overall sample.

Categories of legal and policy instruments

	Is it taking place within the IO?	Approximate number
Treaties for ratification by States (excluding the funding one)		
Legally binding decisions	√	
Recommendations	√	
Political declarations		
Model treaties or law		
Production of technical standards		
Non-binding guidance/best practices document	√	

Interactions with other international organisations active in the field

Mechanisms of interaction		Approximate number of IOs involved	Examples
Develop joint instruments	√		
MoU or other agreements	√		
Participate in co-ordinating institution	√		
Joint meetings that provide forum for co-ordination	√		
Observe relevant actions of other bodies	√		
Exchange information	√		

CITES history

The Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna and Flora (CITES) was drafted as a result of a resolution adopted in 1963 at a meeting of members of IUCN (The World Conservation Union). The text of the Convention was finally agreed at a meeting of representatives of 80 countries in Washington, D.C., the United States, on 3 March 1973, and on 1 July 1975 CITES entered in force.

Source of Figures and Tables: OECD Survey 2015.

Common Market for East/Southern Africa (COMESA)

Key features

Type of organisation: Inter-governmental organisation

Charter/Constitution: COMESA Treaty, www.comesa.int/attachments/article/28/COMESA_Treaty.pdf

Membership:

- Nature: Representatives from governments
- Number: 19 members

Year of establishment: 1994

Headquarters: Lusaka, Zambia

Secretariat staff: n.a.

Total budget: EUR 1.6 million (2014)

Type of activity: Policy dialogue, data collection and analysis, information exchange, development of legal instruments, crisis management

Sectors of activity: Trade and market integration

Website: www.comesa.int

Members

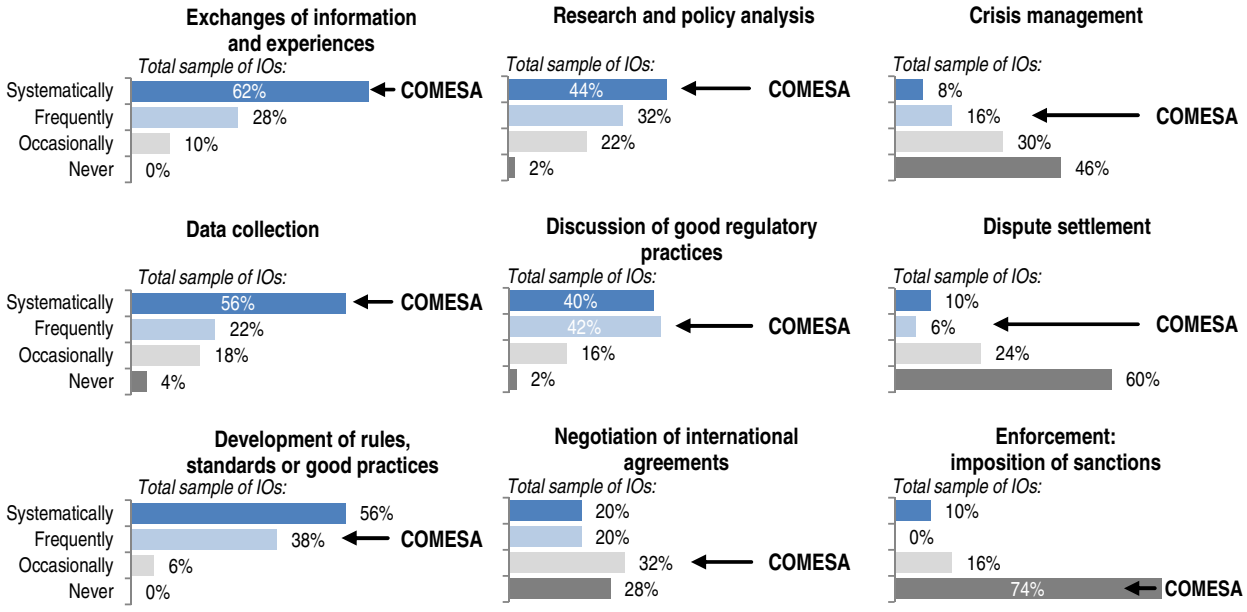
Burundi, Comoros, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Djibouti, Egypt, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Kenya, Libya, Madagascar, Malawi, Mauritius, Rwanda, Seychelles, Sudan, Swaziland, Uganda, Zambia, Zimbabwe.

Mandate

The mandate of COMESA is to create a large economic and trading unit that is capable of overcoming some of the barriers that are faced by individual Member States.

"The aims and objectives of the Common Market shall be: a. To attain sustainable growth and development of the Member States by promoting a more balanced and harmonious development of its production and marketing structures; b To promote joint development in all fields of economic activity and the joint adoption of macro-economic policies and programmes to raise the standard of living of its peoples and to foster closer relations among its Member States; c. To co-operate in the creation of an enabling environment for foreign, cross border and domestic investment including the joint promotion of research and adaptation of science and technology for development; d. To co-operate in the promotion of peace, security and stability among the Member States in order to enhance economic development in the region; e. To co-operate in strengthening the relations between the Common Market and the rest of the world and the adoption of common positions in international fora; f. To contribute towards the establishment, progress and the realisation of the objectives of the African Economic Community" Article 3 of the COMESA Treaty.

IRC processes that takes place within the Common Market for East/Southern Africa



These figures show how each IO compares to other IOs in its IRC processes. The arrow situates the IO in the overall sample.

Categories of legal and policy instruments

	Is it taking place within the IO?	Approximate number
Treaties for ratification by States (excluding the funding one)		
Legally binding decisions	√	61
Recommendations	√	
Political declarations		
Model treaties or law	√	
Production of technical standards		
Non-binding guidance/best practices document		

Interactions with other international organisations active in the field

Mechanisms of interaction		Approximate number of IOs involved	Examples
Develop joint instruments			
MoU or other agreements			
Participate in co-ordinating institution	√		
Joint meetings that provide forum for co-ordination	√		
Observe relevant actions of other bodies	√		
Exchange information	√		

COMESA history

The history of COMESA began in December 1994 when it was formed to replace the former Preferential Trade Area (PTA) which had existed from the earlier days of 1981. COMESA (as defined by its Treaty) was established "as an organisation of free independent sovereign States which have agreed to co-operate in developing their natural and human resources for the good of all their people" and as such it has a wide-ranging series of objectives which necessarily include in its priorities the promotion of peace and security in the region.

Source of Figures and Tables: OECD Survey 2015.

European Commission (EC)

Key features

Type of organisation: Supra-national organisation

Charter/Constitution: The Lisbon and other Treaties, http://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/en/txt/?uri=uriserv%3aai0006

Membership:

- Nature: representatives from governments
- Number: 28 members

Year of establishment: 1957

Headquarters: Brussel, Belgium

Country offices: representations in all EU Member States and 139 delegations across the globe

Secretariat staff: 23 477 (2014)

Total budget: EUR 145 billion (2015)

Type of activity: Executive body of the European Union, definition of objectives and priorities for the European Union, proposition of legislation, enforcement of European laws, management and implementation of European policies

Sectors of activity: Regulation and policy making in all policy areas according to the Treaty

Website: www.ec.europa.eu

Members

Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, Cyprus, Croatia, Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Ireland, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Malta, Netherlands, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, United Kingdom.

Relationship with non-members

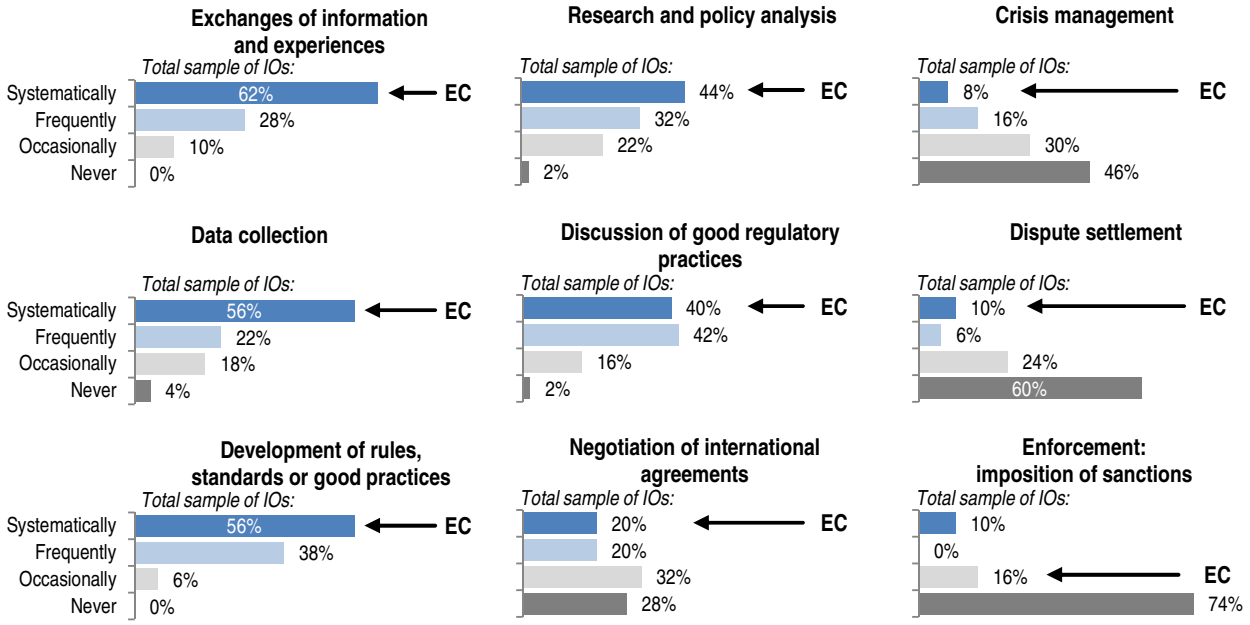
Accession discussions have been launched with five countries: Albania, Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Montenegro, Serbia, and Turkey.

Some countries have been identified as potential candidate for accession: Bosnia and Herzegovina, and Kosovo.

Mandate

The Commission's main roles are set out in Article 17 of the Lisbon Treaty. They include to: a) Set objectives and priorities for action, outlined yearly in the Commission Work Programme and work towards delivering them b). Propose legislation, which is then adopted by the legislators, the European Parliament and the Council of Ministers; c). Enforce European law (where necessary with the help of the Court of Justice of the EU); d). Manage and implement EU policies and the budget; e). Represent the Union outside Europe (negotiating trade agreements between the EU and other countries, for example).

IRC processes that take place within the European Commission



These figures show how each IO compares to other IOs in its IRC processes. The arrow situates the IO in the overall sample.

Categories of legal and policy instruments

	Is it taking place within the IO?	Approximate number
Treaties for ratification by States (excluding the funding one)		
Legally binding decisions	√	6 906*
Recommendations	√	288
Political declarations	√	
Model treaties or law	√	
Production of technical standards		
Non-binding guidance/best practices document	√	

*. The number quoted refers to "Commission acts" in force (Regulations, Directives and Decisions – basic acts, as amendments appear in consolidated form in EUR-Lex) excluding "European Parliament and Council acts" and "Council acts" in force.

Interactions with other international organisations active in the field

Mechanisms of interaction		Approximate number of IOs involved	Examples
Develop joint instruments	√		
MoU or other agreements	√		
Participate in co-ordinating institution	√		
Joint meetings that provide forum for co-ordination	√		
Observe relevant actions of other bodies	√		
Exchange information	√		

EC history

As of 1950, the European Coal and Steel Community (ECSC) began to unite European countries economically and politically in order to secure lasting peace. In 1957, the Treaty of Rome creates the European Economic Community (EEC), or "Common Market". The EEC has grown in size by the accession of new Member States and in power by the addition of policy areas to its remit. The Maastricht Treaty established the European Union (EU) under its current name in 1993 and introduced European citizenship. The latest major amendment to the constitutional basis of the EU, the Treaty of Lisbon, came into force in 2009. The European Commission (EC) is the executive body of the European Union responsible for proposing legislation, implementing decisions, upholding the EU treaties and managing the day-to-day business of the EU. The governing body of the Commission consists of one member (Commissioner) from every Member State. The commission is appointed every five years.

Source of Figures and Tables: OECD Survey 2015.

UN Economic and Social Commission for Western Asia (ESCWA)

Key features

Type of organisation: United Nations Regional Commission

Charter/Constitution: UN Economic and Social Council's resolution 1818 (LV), www.unescwa.org/about-escwa

Membership:

- Nature: Representatives from governments
- Number: 18 members

Year of establishment: 1973

Headquarters: Beirut, Lebanon

Secretariat staff: 391 (2015)

Total budget: EUR 43 million (2013)

Type of activity: Policy dialogue, research and technical assistance to promote co-operation and integration between the countries in the region

Sectors of activity: Economic co-operation and social development in several areas (sustainable development and natural resources, economic integration, trade, inclusive social policies, technology and innovation for development policies, assisting conflict-affected countries, gender equality and women's empowerment, statistics, etc.)

Website: www.unescwa.org/

Members

Bahrain, Egypt, Iraq, Jordan, Kuwait, Lebanon, Libya, Mauritania, Morocco, Oman, Palestine, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, Sudan, Syrian Arab Republic, Tunisia, United Arab Emirates, Yemen.

Relationship with non-members

Any member of the United Nations or of a specialised agency that is not a member of ESCWA may be invited to participate in ESCWA's deliberations on any matter which the ESCWA considers to be of particular concern to that country. An invited non-member country does not have the right to vote, but may submit proposals which may be put to the vote at the request of members.

Observers

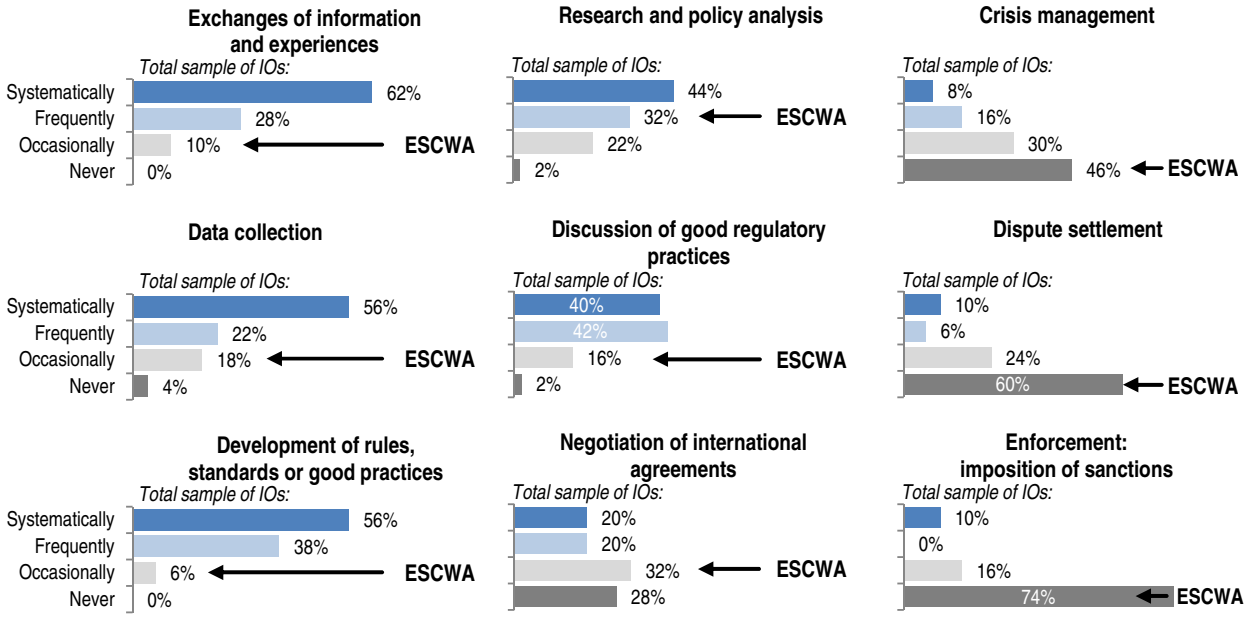
Non-governmental organizations may designate authorised representatives to sit as observers at public meetings of the ESCWA. Requests for sitting as observers at the ESCWA's meetings are received ahead of the meetings and cleared by representatives of the member States at the beginning of the meetings.

Mandate

The ESCWA provides a framework for the formulation and harmonization of sectorial policies for member countries, a platform for congress and co-ordination, a home for expertise and knowledge, and an information observatory. ESCWA activities are co-ordinated with the divisions and main offices of the Headquarters of the United Nations, specialized agencies, and international and regional organisations, including the League of Arab States and its subsidiary bodies, and the Gulf Cooperation Council.

The main objectives of the organisation are: a) To support economic and social development in the countries of the region; b) To promote co-operation between the countries of the region; c) To encourage interaction between member countries and promote the exchange of experience, best practice and lessons learned; d) To achieve regional integration between member countries, and to ensure interaction between Western Asia and other regions of the world; e) To familiarise the outside world with the circumstances and needs of the countries in the region.

IRC processes that take place within the UN Economic and Social Commission for Western Asia



These figures show how each IO compares to other IOs in its IRC processes. The arrow situates the IO in the overall sample.

Categories of legal and policy instruments

	Is it taking place within the IO?	Approximate number
Treaties for ratification by States (excluding the funding one)	√	2
Legally binding decisions		
Recommendations	√	195
Political declarations	√	2
Model treaties or law	√	
Production of technical standards		
Non-binding guidance/best practices document	√	

Interactions with other international organisations active in the field

Mechanisms of interaction		Approximate number of IOs involved	Examples
Develop joint instruments	√	5	Statistical capacities for implementing the sustainable development goals (SDGs)
MoU or other agreements	√	34	Constitutional and legislative framework for a political transition in Syria
Participate in co-ordinating institution	√		Regional co-ordination mechanism of United Nations Agencies in the Arab region
Joint meetings that provide forum for co-ordination	√	6	Co-ordination meetings among the Regional Commissions of the United Nations
Observe relevant actions of other bodies	√		
Exchange information	√		

ESCWA history

The Economic Commission for Western Asia (ECWA) was established on 9 August 1973 pursuant to the UN Economic and Social Council's resolution 1818(LV). The purpose of setting up the ESCWA was to raise the level of economic activity in member countries and strengthen co-operation among them. In 1985, in recognition of the social component of its work, the Commission was entrusted with new responsibilities in the social field by a resolution of the UN Economic and Social Council. Its name therefore became the Economic and Social Commission for Western Asia (ESCWA).

Source of Figures and Tables: OECD Survey 2015.

Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO)

Key features

Type of organisation: United Nations specialised agency

Charter/Constitution: Constitution of the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, www.fao.org/docrep/x5584e/x5584e0i.htm

Membership:

- Nature: Representatives from governments
- Number: 194 members

Year of establishment: 1945

Headquarters: Rome, Italy,
Country offices: 5 regional offices, 9 sub-regional offices, 142 country offices and 5 liaison offices

Secretariat staff: 3 248 (Dec 2015)

Total budget: about EUR 654 million (2014)

Type of activity: Policy dialogue, data collection and analysis, information exchange, development of legal instruments

Sectors of activity: Food, agriculture, nutrition, animal health and production, biodiversity, biotechnology, fisheries, water, genetic resources, hunger and malnutrition, investments in agriculture, trade

Website: www.fao.org

Members

Afghanistan, Albania, Algeria, Andorra, Angola, Antigua and Barbuda, Argentina, Armenia, Australia, Austria, Azerbaijan, Bahamas, Bahrain, Bangladesh, Barbados, Belarus, Belgium, Belize, Benin, Bhutan, Bolivia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Botswana, Brazil, Brunei Darussalam, Bulgaria, Burkina Faso, Burma, Burundi, Cambodia, Cameroon, Canada, Cape Verde, Central African Republic, Chad, Chile, China (People's Republic of), Colombia, Comoros, Congo, Cook Islands, Costa Rica, Côte d'Ivoire, Croatia, Cuba, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Democratic People's Republic of Korea, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Denmark, Djibouti, Dominica, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, Egypt, El Salvador, Equatorial Guinea, Eritrea, Estonia, Ethiopia, Fiji, Finland, France, Gabon, The Gambia, Georgia, Germany, Ghana, Greece, Grenada, Guatemala, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Guyana, Haiti, Honduras, Hungary, Iceland, India, Indonesia, Iran, Iraq, Ireland, Israel, Italy, Jamaica, Japan, Jordan, Kazakhstan, Kenya, Kiribati, Korea, Kuwait, Kyrgyzstan, Lao People's Democratic Republic, Latvia, Lebanon, Lesotho, Liberia, Libya, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Macedonia, Madagascar, Malawi, Malaysia, Maldives, Mali, Malta, Marshall Islands, Mauritania, Mauritius, Mexico, Micronesia, Moldova, Monaco, Mongolia, Montenegro, Morocco, Mozambique, Namibia, Nauru, Nepal, Netherlands, New Zealand, Nicaragua, Niger, Nigeria, Niue, Norway, Oman, Pakistan, Palau, Panama, Papua New Guinea, Paraguay, Peru, Philippines, Poland, Portugal, Qatar, Romania, Russia, Rwanda, Saint Kitts and Nevis, Saint Lucia, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, Samoa, San Marino, Sao Tome and Principe, Saudi Arabia, Senegal, Serbia, Seychelles, Sierra Leone, Singapore, Slovakia, Slovenia, Solomon Islands, Somalia, South Africa, South Sudan, Spain, Sri Lanka, Sudan, Suriname, Swaziland, Sweden, Switzerland, Syrian Arab Republic, Tajikistan, Tanzania, Thailand, Timor-Leste, Togo, Tonga, Trinidad and Tobago, Tunisia, Turkey, Turkmenistan, Tuvalu, Uganda, Ukraine, United Arab Emirates, United Kingdom, United States, Uruguay, Uzbekistan, Vanuatu, Venezuela, Vietnam, Yemen, Zambia, Zimbabwe. The membership of FAO includes the European Union. FAO has two Associate Members: Faroe Islands and Tokelau.

Observers

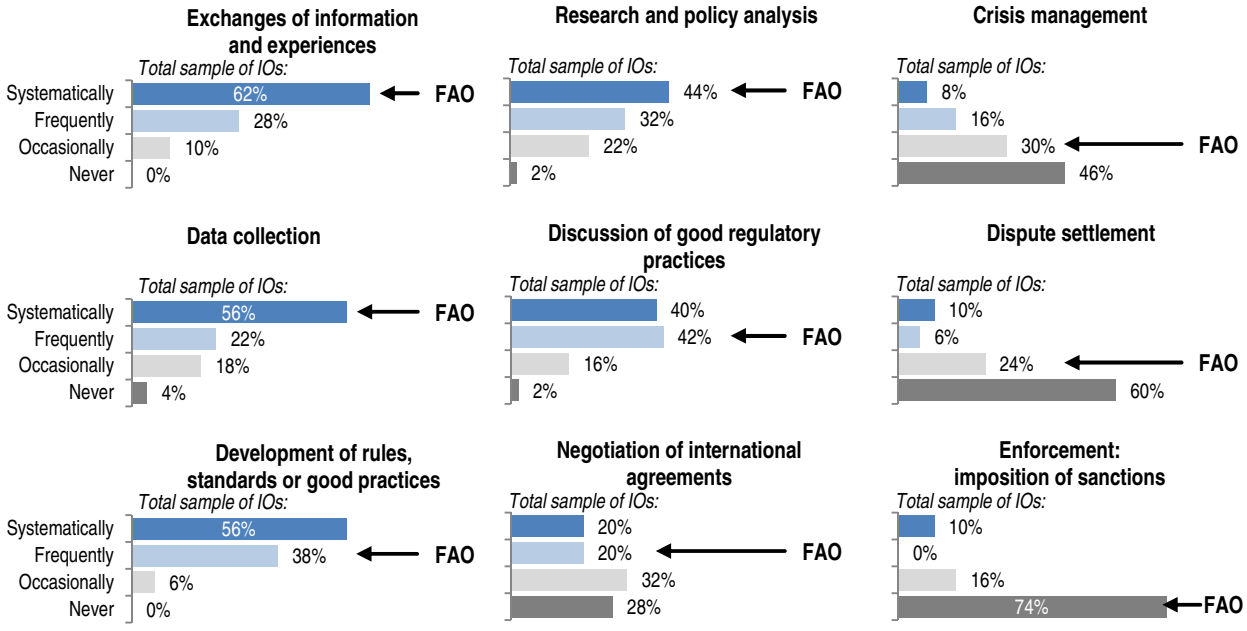
States which are members of the United Nations, any of its specialized agencies or the IAEA (but are not Member Nations or Associate Members of FAO) may, on request, be invited by the FAO Conference or the Council to be represented by an observer at a session of the Conference or Council. Such non-member States may, on request and with the approval of the Council, attend regional or technical meetings of the organisation (FAO Basic Texts 2015, Part II, Part I, Appendix, Section B). Furthermore, non-member States may become members of the Committee on World Food Security and some of Statutory Bodies established under Article XIV of the FAO Constitution.

On the basis of Article XIII of the FAO Constitution, the FAO Conference may enter into agreements with the competent authorities of international organisations. Such IOs may also participate to FAO's meetings in an observer capacity. The list of IOs that attended the 39th Session of the FAO Conference in June 2015 is available at www.fao.org/3/a-mn426e.pdf.

Mandate

The mandate of FAO is raising levels of nutrition and standards of living of the peoples under their respective jurisdictions, securing improvements in the efficiency of the production and distribution of all food and agricultural products, and bettering the condition of rural populations, and thus contributing toward an expanding world economy. In order to fulfil its mandate, FAO's activities are driven by the following five strategic objectives: 1) Help eliminate hunger, food insecurity and malnutrition; 2) make agriculture, forestry and fisheries more productive and sustainable; 3) reduce rural poverty; 4) enable inclusive and efficient agricultural and food systems; and 5) increase the resilience of livelihoods to threats and crises.

IRC processes that take place within Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations



These figures show how each IO compares to other IOs in its IRC processes. The arrow situates the IO in the overall sample.

Categories of legal and policy instruments

	Is it taking place within the IO?	Approximate number
Treaties for ratification by States (excluding the funding one)	√	17
Legally binding decisions	√	
Recommendations	√	
Political declarations	√	
Model treaties or law	√	
Production of technical standards		
Non-binding guidance/best practices document	√	

Interactions with other international organisations active in the field

Mechanisms of interaction		Approximate number of IOs involved	Examples
Develop joint instruments	√	2 Statutory Bodies jointly with other IOs	FAO has developed a number of legal tools and procedures to collaborate with other IOs, defining the distribution of responsibilities and methods of co-operation. A number of agreements are also concluded between FAO and other IOs with a view to carrying out specific joint activities and implementing project activities on the field. Examples are WFP (World Food Programme), IFAD (International Fund for Agricultural Development), OIE, FSC (Forest Stewardship Council), MSC (Marine Stewardship Council).
MoU or other agreements	√	About 300 general co-operation agreements	
Participate in co-ordinating institution	√	FAO participates in many co-ordinating institutions at the UN level	
Joint meetings that provide forum for co-ordination	√	FAO holds many workshops, panels and meetings jointly with other IOs either on a regular or on ad hoc basis	
Observe relevant actions of other bodies	√	> 100	
Exchange information	√		

FAO history

In 1943, at Hot Springs (Virginia, United States), the United Nations Conference on Food and Agriculture committed to found a permanent organisation in the field of food and agriculture. The FAO Constitution was signed on 16 October 1945 and entered into force immediately. The Relationship Agreement with the UN was signed in 1946 (www.unsceb.org/CEBPublicFiles/a_78.pdf).

Source of Figures and Tables: OECD Survey 2015.

International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA)

Key features

Type of organisation: United Nations related organization

Charter/Constitution: Statute of the IAEA, www.iaea.org/about/statute

Membership:

- Nature: Representatives from governments
- Number: 168 members (as of February 2016)

Year of establishment: 1957

Headquarters: Vienna, Austria

Country offices: regional offices in Toronto (Canada) and Tokyo (Japan); liaison offices in New York (United States) and Geneva (Switzerland); research laboratories in Seibersdorf (Austria) and Monaco.

Secretariat staff: 2 500 (2014)

Total budget: EUR 350 million (2014)

Type of activity: Policy dialogue, data collection, information exchange, development of legal instruments, crisis management

Sectors of activity: Nuclear sciences and applications, nuclear energy, nuclear safety and security, technical co-operation and safeguards

Website: www.iaea.org

Members

Afghanistan, Albania, Algeria, Angola, Antigua and Barbuda, Argentina, Armenia, Australia, Austria, Azerbaijan, Bahamas, Bahrain, Bangladesh, Barbados, Belarus, Belgium, Belize, Benin, Bolivia (Plurinational State of), Bosnia and Herzegovina, Botswana, Brazil, Brunei Darussalam, Bulgaria, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cambodia, Cameroon, Canada, Central African Republic, Chad, Chile, China, Colombia, Congo, Costa Rica, Côte d'Ivoire, Croatia, Cuba, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Denmark, Djibouti, Dominica, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, Egypt, El Salvador, Eritrea, Estonia, Ethiopia, Fiji, Finland, France, Gabon, Georgia, Germany, Ghana, Greece, Guatemala, Guyana, Haiti, Holy See, Honduras, Hungary, Iceland, India, Indonesia, Iran (Islamic Republic of), Iraq, Ireland, Israel, Italy, Jamaica, Japan, Jordan, Kazakhstan, Kenya, Korea (Republic of), Kuwait, Kyrgyzstan, Lao People's Democratic Republic, Latvia, Lebanon, Lesotho, Liberia, Libya, Liechtenstein, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Madagascar, Malawi, Malaysia, Mali, Malta, Marshall Islands, Mauritania, Mauritius, Mexico, Monaco, Mongolia, Montenegro, Morocco, Mozambique, Myanmar, Namibia, Nepal, Netherlands, New Zealand, Nicaragua, Niger, Nigeria, Norway, Oman, Pakistan, Palau, Panama, Papua New Guinea, Paraguay, Peru, Philippines, Poland, Portugal, Qatar, Republic of Moldova, Romania, Russian Federation, Rwanda, San Marino, Saudi Arabia, Senegal, Serbia, Seychelles, Sierra Leone, Singapore, Slovakia, Slovenia, South Africa, Spain, Sri Lanka, Sudan, Swaziland, Sweden, Switzerland, Syrian Arab Republic, Tajikistan, Thailand, The Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Togo, Trinidad and Tobago, Tunisia, Turkey, Turkmenistan, Uganda, Ukraine, United Arab Emirates, United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, United Republic of Tanzania, United States of America, Uruguay, Uzbekistan, Vanuatu, Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of), Viet Nam, Yemen, Zambia, Zimbabwe.

Relationship with non-members

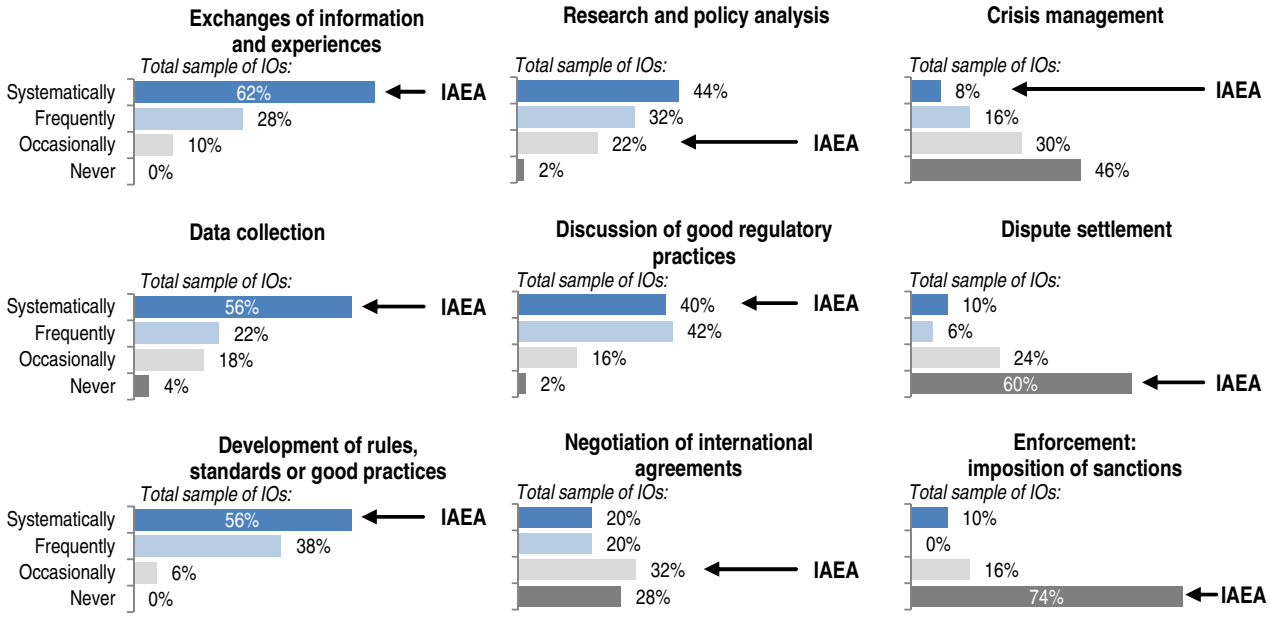
For three States (Cabo Verde, Comoros and Tonga) membership has been approved by the IAEA General Conference and will take effect once the State deposits the necessary legal instruments with the IAEA.

Mandate

The IAEA works with its Member States and multiple partners worldwide to promote the safe, secure and peaceful use of nuclear technologies.

"The Agency shall seek to accelerate and enlarge the contribution of atomic energy to peace, health and prosperity throughout the world. It shall ensure, so far as it is able, that assistance provided by it or at its request or under its supervision or control is not used in such a way as to further any military purpose" Statute of the IAEA, Article 2.

IRC processes that take place within the International Atomic Energy Agency



These figures show how each IO compares to other IOs in its IRC processes. The arrow situates the IO in the overall sample.

Categories of legal and policy instruments

	Is it taking place within the IO?	Approximate number
Treaties for ratification by States (excluding the funding one)	√	11
Legally binding decisions		
Recommendations	√	100
Political declarations	√	
Model treaties or law	√	
Production of technical standards	√	
Non-binding guidance/best practices document	√	

Interactions with other international organisations active in the field

Mechanisms of interaction	Approximate number of IOs involved	Examples
Develop joint instruments		WMO, WHO, ICRP (International Commission on Radiological Protection), UNSCEAR (United Nations Scientific Committee on the Effects of Atomic Radiation), ILO, EU, ENSREG (European Nuclear Safety Regulators Group), WENRA (Western European Nuclear Regulators Association), ENSRA (European Nuclear Security Regulators Association), WNA (World Nuclear Association), etc.
MoU or other agreements	√	
Participate in co-ordinating institution	√	
Joint meetings that provide forum for co-ordination	√	
Observe relevant actions of other bodies	√	
Exchange information	√	

IAEA history

The IAEA was created in 1957 in response to the deep fears and expectations resulting from the discovery of nuclear energy. The Agency's genesis was US President Eisenhower's Atoms for Peace address to the General Assembly of the United Nations on 8 December 1953. On October 1956, 81 nations unanimously approved the Statute of the IAEA which came into force on 29 July 1957. The IAEA's relationship with the United Nations is guided by an agreement signed by both parties in 1957 that stipulates that: "The Agency undertakes to conduct its activities in accordance with the Purposes and Principles of the United Nations Charter to promote peace and international co-operation, and in conformity with policies of the United Nations furthering the establishment of safeguarded worldwide disarmament and in conformity with any international agreements entered into pursuant to such policies".

Source of Figures and Tables: OECD Survey 2015.

International Accreditation Forum (IAF)

Key features

Type of organisation: Trans-governmental network

Charter/Constitution: Bylaws of the International Accreditation Forum Inc., www.iaf.nu/upfiles/iafpl22015bylawsissue7publicationversion_26112015.pdf

Membership

- Nature: Accreditation bodies, regional Accreditation Groups and Associations
- Number: 98 members

Year of establishment: 1993

Secretariat location: Chelsea, Canada

Secretariat staff: 3 (2015)

Total budget: EUR 500 000 (2015)

Type of activity: Accreditation of third-party certification bodies and verification and validation bodies

Sectors of activity: Accreditation of third-party conformity assessment bodies in the fields of management system certification, product, process and service certification, certification of persons, verification and validation, or similar conformity assessment activities

Webpage: www.iaf.nu

Members

IAF has 3 classes of members: Accreditation Body Members, Association Members, and Regional Accreditation Group Members.

Accreditation Body consist of entities that have recognition by authorities, regulators or industrial or trade organizations within an economy, region or internationally and are engaged in developing, or conducting and administering, accreditation of entities that perform conformity assessment. IAF currently has 75 Accreditation Body Members, 61 of whom are signatories to the IAF Multilateral Recognition Arrangement (MLA)* and which represent 85 economies: Albania, Argentina, Australia and New Zealand (joint accreditation body), Austria, Belarus, Belgium, Brazil, Canada, Chile, China (People's Republic of), Colombia, Costa Rica, Czech Republic, Democratic People's Republic of Korea, Denmark, Ecuador, Egypt, Finland, Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, France, Gulf Cooperation Council (joint accreditation body for: Bahrain, Kuwait, Oman, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, United Arab Emirates, and Yemen), Germany, Greece, Hong Kong (China), Hungary, India, Indonesia, Iran, Ireland, Italy, Japan, Kenya, Kazakhstan, Korea, Kosovo, Luxembourg, Malaysia, Mauritius, Mexico, Morocco, Netherlands, Norway, Pakistan, Peru, Philippines, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Russia, Serbia, Singapore, Slovakia, Slovenia, South Africa, Southern Africa (joint accreditation body for: Angola, Botswana, Democratic Republic of Congo, Lesotho, Madagascar, Malawi, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Seychelles, South Africa, Swaziland, Tanzania, Zambia, and Zimbabwe) Spain, Sri Lanka, Sweden, Switzerland, Chinese Taipei, Thailand, Tunisia, Turkey, United Arab Emirates (Dubai), United Kingdom, United States, Uruguay, Vietnam.

Association members consist of organisations or associations that represent a similar group of entities internationally or within an economy or region. IAF has 17 Association Members: ABCB, APEDA, BDI, CGF, DTA, EFAC, EOQ, FAMI-QS, GLOBALG.A.P., IAAR, IAQG, IFIA, IIOC, IQNet, JACB, PEFCS, QuEST Forum.

Regional Accreditation Group Members consist of associations of organisations that co-operate within an identified geographic region to establish and maintain a multilateral recognition agreement based on a peer evaluation system. Recognized Regional Accreditation Groups are those whose regional multilateral recognition agreements have been successfully peer evaluated by IAF. IAF currently has 6 Regional Accreditation Group Members: AFRAC, ARAC, EA, IAAC, PAC, SADCA.

Relationship with non-members

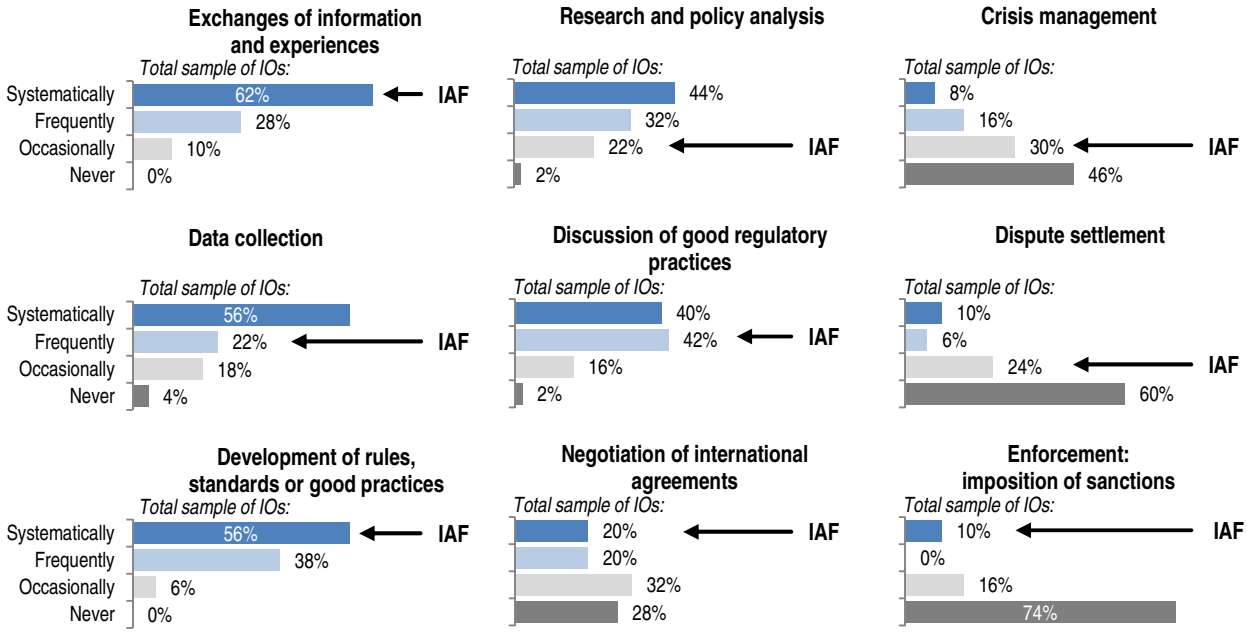
IAF formally recognises Observers in cases where it in its best interest to develop closer relationships with a particular entity. This category is generally for prospective members in IAF, and is for a maximum period of three years. Non-member organisations and stakeholders (e.g. prospective applicants, applicants, government officials and industry regulators) may also be invited to participate as observers in IAF meetings in order to better learn how IAF operates. IAF also has a program to assist accreditation bodies that are not yet members of IAF to learn about IAF and the MLA process (e.g. through publication of documents, brochures, etc.). IAF has also signed MoUs with the international organisations with whom it has common or shared interests.

Mandate

The primary purpose of IAF is two-fold. Firstly, to ensure that its accreditation body members only accredit bodies that are competent to do the work they undertake and are not subject to conflicts of interest. Secondly, to establish mutual recognition arrangements (MLA) between its accreditation body members, which reduce risk to business and its customers by ensuring that an accredited certificate may be relied upon anywhere in the world. The MLA contributes to the freedom of world trade by eliminating technical barriers to trade. IAF works to find the most effective way of achieving a single system that will allow companies with an accredited conformity assessment certificate in one part of the world, to have that certificate recognised elsewhere in the world. The objective of the MLA is that it will cover all accreditation bodies in all countries in the world, thus eliminating the need for suppliers of products or services to be certified in each country where they sell their products or services. Certified once – accepted everywhere.

*. The purpose of the MLA is to ensure mutual recognition of accredited certification between signatories, and signatories are peer evaluated to ensure this.

IRC processes that take place within the International Accreditation Forum



These figures show how each IO compares to other IOs in its IRC processes. The arrow situates the IO in the overall sample.

Categories of legal and policy instruments

	Is it taking place within the IO?	Approximate number
Treaties for ratification by States (excluding the funding one)		
Legally binding decisions	√	46
Recommendations		
Political declarations		
Model treaties or law		
Production of technical standards		
Non-binding guidance/best practices document	√	18
Other (Mutual Recognition Agreement)	√	1

Interactions with other international organisations active in the field

Mechanisms of interaction		Approximate number of IOs involved	Examples
Develop joint instruments	√	1	IAF works very closely with the ILAC, holding meetings jointly since 2001. IAF and ILAC have formal relationships in the form of MOUs with a large number of other organizations concerned with standards and conformity assessment, facilitation of trade, and development of quality and trade infrastructures, such as ISO, IEC, ITU, OIML and UNIDO. IAF also has informal relationships with the WTO/OMC Technical Barriers to Trade Committee.
MoU or other agreements	√	7	
Participate in co-ordinating institution	√		
Joint meetings that provide forum for co-ordination	√	2	
Observe relevant actions of other bodies	√		
Exchange information	√	7	

IAF history

The IAF was formed from the first meeting of "Organisations that Accredit Quality System Registrars and Certification programs", which was held on 28 January 1993 in Houston. A communiqué was released after that meeting to announce that the IAF had been formed by the represented organisations. The purpose of the IAF was to operate a program for the accreditation of bodies dealing with conformity assessment, in order to ensure that certification of products, processes or services in one region or country should be accepted in other regions or countries. Also, through the program the IAF aimed to ensure that equivalent conformity assessment procedures used by organisations should be developed.

Source of Figures and Tables: OECD Survey 2015.

International Association of Insurance Supervisors (IAIS)

Key features

Type of organisation: Trans-governmental network

Charter/Constitution: IAIS By-Laws, http://iaisweb.org/index.cfm?event=getPage&nodeId=25208

Membership:

- Nature: Representatives from insurance supervisors and regulators (governments, government supervisory authorities, national associations of insurance supervisors, agencies) and from international organisations
- Number: 212 members

Year of establishment: 1994

Headquarters: Basel, Switzerland

Secretariat staff: 28 (2014)

Total budget: EUR 10.5 million (2014)

Type of activity: Policy dialogue, data collection and analysis, information exchange, development of legal instruments

Sectors of activity: Insurance market and industry, financial market

Website: www.iaisweb.org

Members

Access to Insurance Initiative (A2ii), Africa (CIMA), Albania, Argentina, Armenia, Aruba, Asia Development Bank (ADB), Australia (APRA, NSW and ASIC), Austria, Azerbaijan, Bahamas, Bahrain, Bangladesh, Barbados, Belarus, Belgium (National Bank and FSMA), Belize, Bermuda, Botswana, Brazil (ANS and SUSEP), British Virgin Islands, Brunei Darussalam, Bulgaria, Burundi, Canada (FICOM and OSFI), Quebec (Canada), Cape Verde, Cayman Islands (BWI), Chile, China, Colombia, Costa Rica, Curaçao and Sint Maarten, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Denmark, Ecuador, Egypt, European Insurance and Occupational Pensions Authority (EIOPA), Estonia, European Commission, Finland (Authority), France (ACPR), Georgia, Germany (BAFIN and Ministry), Ghana, Gibraltar, Guatemala, Guernsey, Guinea, Hong Kong (China), Hungary, Iceland, India, Indonesia, Ireland, Isle of Man, Israel, Italy, Jamaica, Japan, Jersey, Jordan, Kazakhstan, Kenya, Korea, Kosovo, Kuwait, Labuan (Malaysia), Latvia, Lebanon, Lesotho, Liechtenstein, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Macau (China), Macedonia, Malawi, Malaysia, Maldives, Malta, Mauritius, Mexico, Moldova, Mongolia, Montenegro, Morocco, Mozambique, Namibia, Nepal, Netherlands (DNB and AFM), New Zealand, Nigeria, Norway, OECD, Oman, Pakistan, Palestine, Panama, Papua New Guinea (Department of Finance and Treasury and Bank of Papua New Guinea), Paraguay, Peru, Philippines, Poland, Portugal, Qatar (Qatar Central Bank and QFCRA), Romania, Russia, Rwanda, Samoa, San Marino, Saudi Arabia, Serbia, Sierra Leone, Singapore, Slovakia, Slovenia, South Africa, Spain, Sri Lanka, Suriname, Sweden, Switzerland, Swaziland, Chinese Taipei, Tanzania, Thailand, Trinidad and Tobago, Tunisia, Turkey (Turks and Caicos and BWI), Uganda, United Kingdom (PRA and FCA), United Arab Emirates (DIFC and DFSA), Uruguay, United States (FIO, FRB, NAIC and all of 56 States and Territories of the United States), Uzbekistan, Vanuatu, Viet Nam, World Bank, Zambia.

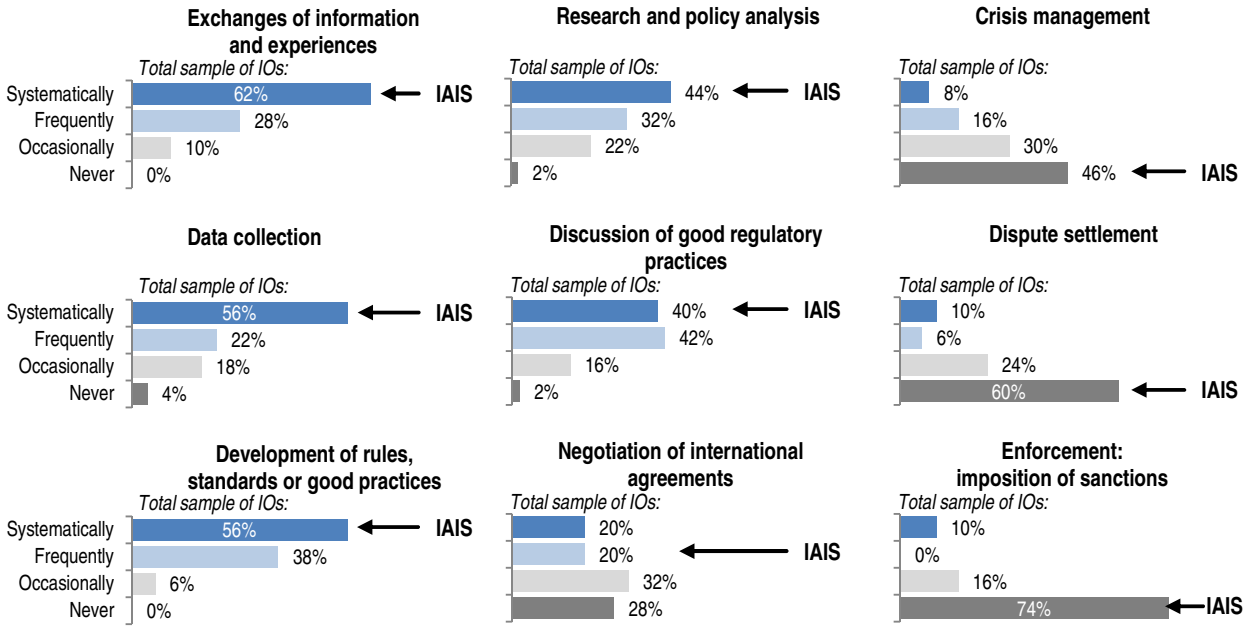
Relationship with non-members

Insurance supervisors from non-member countries can attend IAIS Regional Seminars held around the world and as well as the IAIS Annual Conference. The IAIS's accession procedure requires the completion of an application which is then reviewed by the IAIS Executive Committee.

Mandate

IAIS is the international standard setting body responsible for developing and assisting in the implementation of principles, standards and other supporting material for the supervision of the insurance sector. The mission of the IAIS is to promote effective and globally consistent supervision of the insurance industry in order to develop and maintain fair, safe and stable insurance markets for the benefit and protection of policyholders and to contribute to global financial stability.

IRC processes that take place within the International Association of Insurance Supervisors



These figures show how each IO compares to other IOs in its IRC processes. The arrow situates the IO in the overall sample.

Categories of legal and policy instruments

	Is it taking place within the IO?	Approximate number
Treaties for ratification by States (excluding the funding one)		
Legally binding decisions (Decisions)		
Recommendations	√	30
Political declarations		
Model treaties or law		
Production of technical standards	√	230
Non-binding guidance/best practices document	√	50
Other (Memoranda of Understanding)	√	1

Interactions with other international organisations active in the field

Mechanisms of interaction		Approximate number of IOs involved	Examples
Develop joint instruments	√	IAIS currently has 4 agreements	IMF, FSB (Financial Stability Board), World Bank, OECD, EU, Asia Development Bank, Insurance Supervisors and regulators
MoU or other agreements	√		
Participate in co-ordinating institution			
Joint meetings that provide forum for co-ordination	√		
Observe relevant actions of other bodies	√		
Exchange information	√		

IAIS history

The IAIS was established in March 1994 in Springfield, Illinois, originally as a not-for-profit corporation. In 1996 IAIS agreed to become an insurance standard-setter and relocated the Secretariat to Basel, Switzerland, hosted by the Bank for International Settlements (BIS). In 1997 IAIS adopted its first set of insurance supervisory principles and approved a Memorandum of Understanding (MoU) to facilitate the exchange of information between supervisors. In 1999 IAIS adopted the first Insurance Core Principles that were then revised and expanded in 2003 and 2011. Finally, in 2010 IAIS began the development of a Common Framework for Supervision of Internationally Active Insurance Groups.

Source of Figures and Tables: OECD Survey 2015.

International Air Transport Association (IATA)

Key features

Type of organisation: Private (non-profit) standard-setting organisation

Charter/Constitution: Act of Incorporation by a Special Act of the Canadian Parliament, www.iata.org/about/Documents/chapter-1-english-%20aol.pdf

Membership:

- Nature: Airline companies
- Number: 265 members

Year of establishment: 1945

Headquarters: Montreal, Canada

Executive offices: Geneva (Switzerland)

Regional offices: Amman (Jordan), Beijing (People's Republic of China), Madrid (Spain), Miami (United States) and Singapore

Country offices in 60 countries

Secretariat staff: 1 500 (2014)

Total budget: NA

Type of activity: Standard setting, financial settlement, advocacy, environmental stewardship, data collection and analysis, consulting, commercial services

Sectors of activity: Air transport industry: passenger, cargo, airports, security, financial settlement, safety, environment, policy, flight operations, ground operations

Website: www.iata.org

Members

From 57 founding members in 1945, IATA now represents 265 airlines in over 117 countries. Carrying 83% of the world's international air traffic, IATA members include the world's leading passenger and cargo airlines.

Relationship with non-members

From time to time IATA enters into Memoranda of Understanding (MoUs) with non-members for mutual benefit. In addition IATA also runs capacity building programs with non-members.

Observers

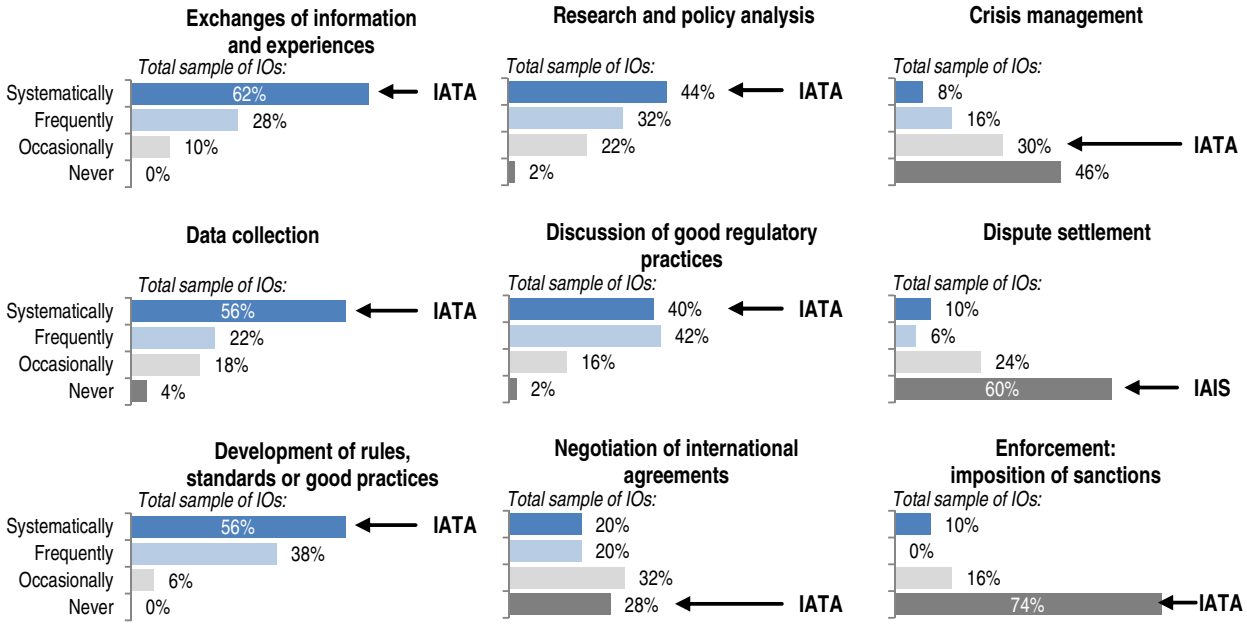
IATA currently does not grant airlines or other organisations "observer" status.

Mandate

IATA is the trade association for the world's airlines. It supports many areas of aviation activity and helps formulate industry policy on critical aviation issues. It is the prime vehicle for inter-airline co-operation in promoting safe, reliable, secure and economical air services for the benefit of the world's consumers.

IATA aims to be the force for value creation and innovation driving a safe, secure and profitable air transport industry that sustainably connects and enriches the world. IATA's mission is to represent, lead, and serve the airline industry.

IRC processes that take place within the International Air Transport Association



These figures show how each IO compares to other IOs in its IRC processes. The arrow situates the IO in the overall sample.

Categories of legal and policy instruments

	Is it taking place within the IO?	Approximate number
Treaties for ratification by States (excluding the funding one)		
Legally binding decisions		
Recommendations	√	
Political declarations	√	
Model treaties or law		
Production of technical standards	√	
Non-binding guidance/best practices document	√	

Interactions with other international organisations active in the field

Mechanisms of interaction		Approximate number of IOs involved	Examples
Develop joint instruments			IATA maintains close relationships with ICAO (International Civil Aviation Organization), ACI (Airports Council International), and CANSO (Civil Air Navigation Services Organization) and other members of the air transport value chain, such as travel agents, ground handlers, and civil aviation authorities. In IATA interacts also with numerous non-aviation organisations and State-level organisations such as EU, WEF (World Economic Forum).
MoU or other agreements	√		
Participate in co-ordinating institution	√		
Joint meetings that provide forum for co-ordination	√		
Observe relevant actions of other bodies	√		
Exchange information	√		

IATA history

IATA was founded in Havana, Cuba, in April 1945. It is the successor to the International Air Traffic Association, which was formed in 1919 at The Hague, Netherlands. At its founding, IATA had 57 members from 31 nations, mostly in Europe and North America. Today it has 265 members from 117 nations in every part of the globe. Much of IATA's early work was technical and it provided input to the International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO). The international scheduled air transport industry is more than 100 times larger than it was in 1945. Few industries can match the dynamism of that growth, which would have been much less spectacular without the standards, practices and procedures developed within IATA.

Source of Figures and Tables: OECD Survey 2015.

International Competition Network (ICN)

Key features

Type of organisation: Trans-governmental network

Charter/Constitution: n.a

Membership:

- Nature: National and multinational competition authorities
- Number: 132 members

Year of establishment: 2001

Headquarters: No permanent location

Secretariat staff: No staff (the Secretariat position is held by a member on a voluntary basis and the work is conducted by staff within member agencies and by non-governmental advisors on a voluntary basis)

Total budget: No budget (The ICN is a virtual organisation and relies on the voluntary contributions of its members)

Type of activity: Policy dialogue, data collection and analysis, information exchange, development of legal instruments

Sectors of activity: Competition, antitrust matters

Webpage: www.internationalcompetitionnetwork.org

Members

The ICN currently has 132 members from 120 jurisdictions: Albania, Algeria, Andean Community, Argentina, Armenia, Australia, Austria, Azerbaijan, Barbados, Belarus, Belgium, Bosnia & Herzegovina, Botswana, Brazil, Bulgaria, Canada, CARICOM, Chile, Colombia, COMESA, Costa Rica, Croatia, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Denmark, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, EFTA, Egypt, El Salvador, Estonia, Ethiopia, European Union, Faroe Islands, Fiji, Finland, France, Gambia, Germany, Georgia, Greece, Greenland, Guernsey, Honduras, Hong Kong, Hungary, Iceland, India, Indonesia, Ireland, Israel, Italy, Jamaica, Japan, Jersey, Jordan, Kazakhstan, Kenya, Korea, Kosovo, Kuwait, Kyrgyzstan, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Macedonia, Malawi, Malaysia, Malta, Mauritius, Mexico, Moldova, Mongolia, Montenegro, Morocco, Namibia, Netherlands, New Zealand, Nicaragua, Norway, Pakistan, Panama, Papua New Guinea, Peru, Philippines, Poland, Portugal, Qatar, Romania, Russia, Saudi Arabia, Senegal, Seychelles, Serbia, Singapore, Slovak Republic, Slovenia, South Africa, Spain, Sri Lanka, Swaziland, Sweden, Switzerland, Taiwan, Tajikistan, Tanzania, Thailand, Trinidad & Tobago, Tunisia, Turkey, Ukraine, United Kingdom, United States, Uruguay, Uzbekistan, Venezuela, Vietnam, Yemen, Zambia, Zimbabwe.

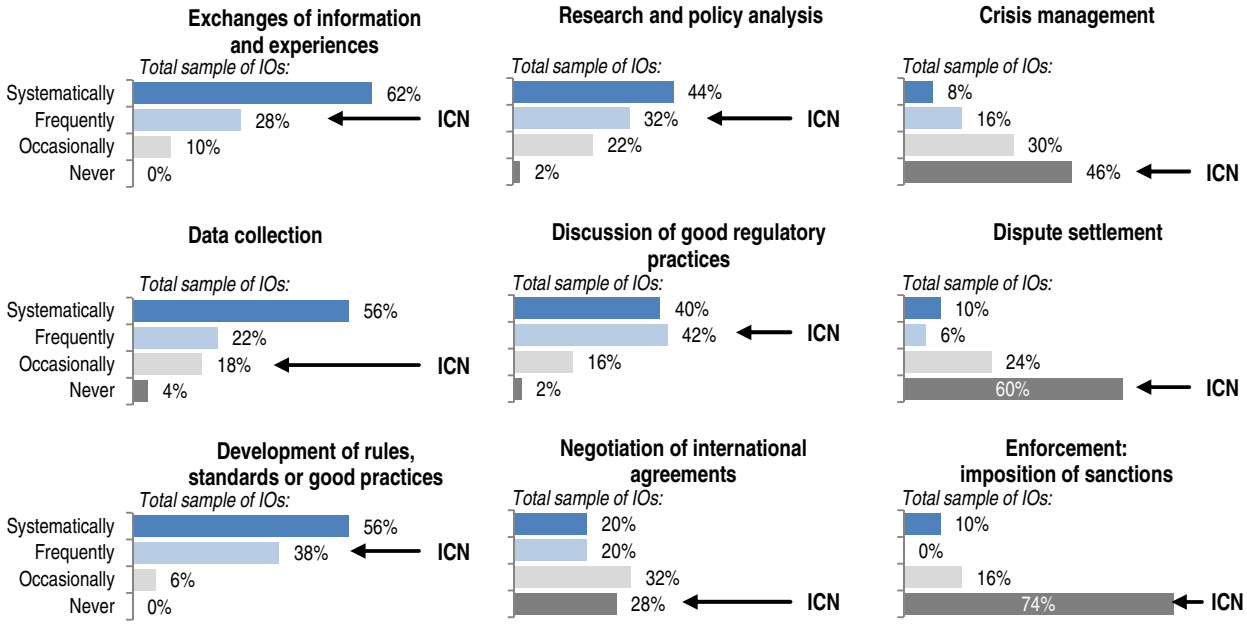
Observers

Antitrust experts from business, consumer groups, academia, and the legal and economic professions participate in the ICN as Non-Governmental Advisors (NGAs).

Mandate

The ICN's mission statement is to advocate the adoption of superior standards and procedures in competition policy around the world, formulate proposals for procedural and substantive convergence, and seek to facilitate effective international co-operation to the benefit of member agencies, consumers and economies worldwide.

IRC processes that take place within the International Competition Network



These figures show how each IO compares to other IOs in its IRC processes. The arrow situates the IO in the overall sample.

Categories of legal and policy instruments

	Is it taking place within the IO?	Approximate number
Treaties for ratification by States (excluding the funding one)		
Legally binding decisions		
Recommendations	√	7
Political declarations		
Model treaties or law		
Production of technical standards		
Non-binding guidance/best practices document	√	9

Interactions with other international organisations active in the field

Mechanisms of interaction		Approximate number of IOs involved	Examples
Develop joint instruments			
MoU or other agreements			
Participate in co-ordinating institution			OECD, World Bank, UNCTAD (United Nations Conference on Trade and Development)
Joint meetings that provide forum for co-ordination	√		
Observe relevant actions of other bodies	√	10	
Exchange information	√		

ICN history

In 2000, competition agency officials in North America and Europe endorsed the idea of a network where government officials, private firms and non-governmental organisations could consult on antitrust matters. The International Bar Association convened a meeting of more than 40 of the world's senior competition officials and practitioners in Ditchley Park, England in early February 2001 to discuss the feasibility of a global antitrust network. On October 25, 2001, top antitrust officials from 14 jurisdictions – Australia, Canada, European Union, France, Germany, Israel, Italy, Japan, Korea, Mexico, South Africa, United Kingdom, United States, and Zambia – launched the ICN.

Source of Figures and Tables: OECD Survey 2015.

International Electrotechnical Commission (IEC)

Key features

Type of organisation: Private standard-setting organisation

Charter/Constitution: Report of IEC Preliminary Meeting: www.iec.ch/about/history/documents/pdf/IEC_Founding_Meeting_Report_1906.pdf

Membership:

- Nature: National committees dedicated to the electrotechnical sector
- Number: 60 full members, 23 associate members, 84 affiliates

Year of establishment: 1906

Headquarters: Geneva (Switzerland).

Country offices: Sydney (Australia), São Paulo (Brazil), Nairobi (Kenya), Singapore, Worchester (United States)

Secretariat staff: ~110 (2015)

Total budget: EUR 22 million (2015)

Type of activity: International Standards, Conformity Assessment Services, policy dialogue, information exchange, development of legal instruments

Sectors of activity: All electrical, electronic and related technologies

Webpage: www.iec.ch

Members

Full members have access to all technical and managerial activities and functions, at all levels of the IEC, including voting rights in Council. IEC has currently 60 full members: Algeria, Argentina, Australia, Austria, Belarus, Belgium, Brazil, Bulgaria, Canada, Chile, China, Colombia, Croatia, Czech Republic, Denmark, Egypt, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, India, Indonesia, Iran, Iraq, Ireland, Israel, Italy, Japan, Republic of Korea, Libya, Luxembourg, Malaysia, Mexico, Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Oman, Pakistan, Philippines, Poland, Portugal, Qatar, Romania, Russian Federation, Saudi Arabia, Serbia, Singapore, Slovakia, Slovenia, South Africa, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Thailand, Turkey, United Arab Emirates, United Kingdom, United States, Ukraine.

Associate members have full access to all working documents but limited voting rights in the technical work and no eligibility to managerial functions within the IEC. IEC has currently 23 associate members: Albania, Bahrain, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Cuba, Cyprus, Democratic People's Republic of Korea, Estonia, The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Georgia, Iceland, Jordan, Kazakhstan, Kenya, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta, Moldova, Montenegro, Morocco, Nigeria, Sri Lanka, Tunisia, Viet Nam.

Relationship with non-members (affiliates)

Eighty four developing and newly industrialising countries participate in the free IEC Affiliate Country Programme (www.iec.ch/affiliates). The Programme gives them the opportunity to get involved with the IEC – at no cost and without the burden of membership. Countries participating in the Programme benefit from 200+ free IEC International Standards for national adoption. They receive support to become more aware of the benefits of using International Standards and verifying conformity. Affiliates learn how to monitor relevant working documents, taking a step to step approach to establishing an IEC National Electrotechnical Committee (NEC). NECs aim to bring together relevant public and private sector participants. Participants also receive training, mentoring and support to participate in the IEC Conformity Assessment activities.

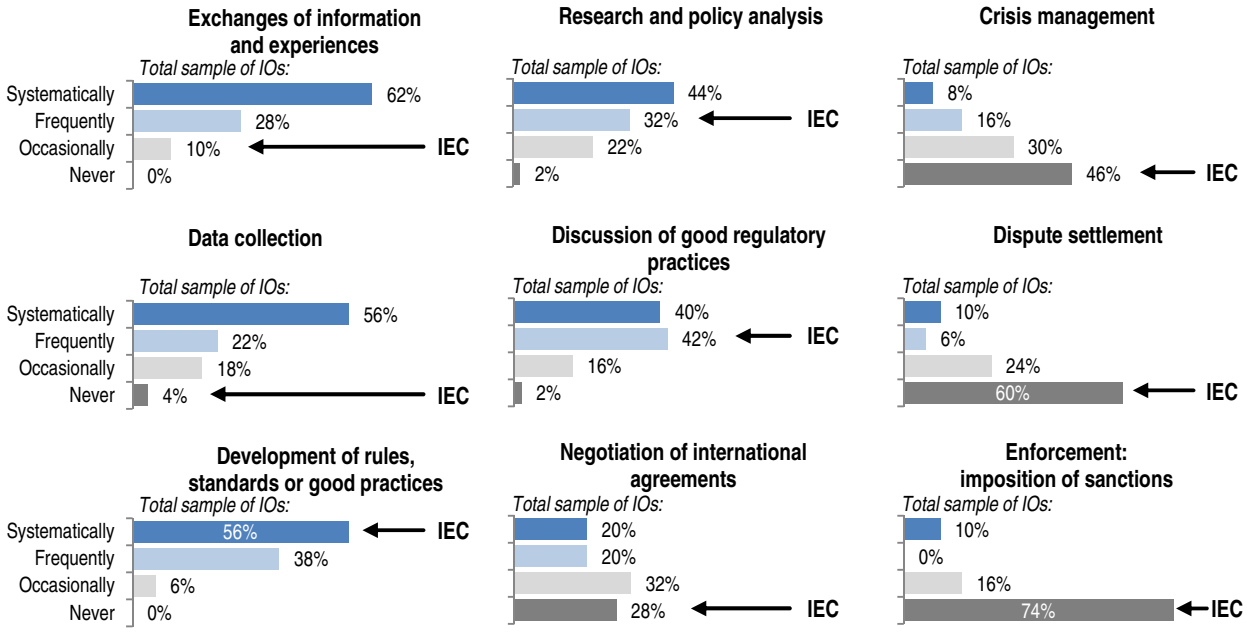
Observers

To co-ordinate its technical work, the IEC has hundreds of liaisons with many organisations (www.iec.ch/standardsdev/how). In order to be effective, liaison operates in both directions, with suitable reciprocal arrangements.

Mandate

The mission of the IEC is to be globally recognised as the leading provider of Standards, conformity assessment systems and related services needed to facilitate international trade and enhance user value in the fields of electricity, electronics and associated technologies.

IRC processes that take place within the International Electrotechnical Commission



These figures show how each IO compares to other IOs in its IRC processes. The arrow situates the IO in the overall sample.

Categories of legal and policy instruments

	Is it taking place within the IO?	Approximate number
Treaties for ratification by States (excluding the funding one)		
Legally binding decisions (Decisions)		
Recommendations	√	~100
Political declarations		
Model treaties or law		
Production of technical standards	√	> 9 000
Non-binding guidance/best practices document	√	Many different categories of documents

Interactions with other international organisations active in the field

Mechanisms of interaction		Approximate number of IOs involved	Examples
Develop joint instruments	√	20	The IEC co-operates with several international and regional bodies with the aim of encouraging implementation of its International Standards and to reduce work overlaps. Examples include: UNECE, ISO, ITU, IEA, CIGRE, OIML, UIC, CIRM, IAEA, ILAC, IAF, ICRP, IMDRF, IMO, IMIP, IOGP, ISSA, UITP, WTO/OMC, WHO
MoU or other agreements	√	190	
Participate in co-ordinating institution	√	190	
Joint meetings that provide forum for co-ordination	√	10	
Observe relevant actions of other bodies	√	190	
Exchange information	√	190	

IEC history

The IEC was officially founded in June 1906, in London, England. By 1914 the IEC had formed four technical committees to deal with Nomenclature, Symbols, Rating of Electrical Machinery, and Prime Movers. In 1948, the IEC Central Office moved to Geneva, Switzerland. Throughout the following decades the IEC built up a global platform on which thousands of experts helped develop the technical foundation for the majority of electrical and electronic technologies that generate or use electricity. Those include for example, lamps and lighting, fibre optics, medical devices, electric vehicle charging, solar, wind and marine energy systems, energy storage, semiconductors, the universal charger for mobile phones, and much, much more. Today, IEC work contributes essentially to universal energy access, smart electrification, smarter more sustainable cities, all forms of transportation, smart manufacturing, and more. Billions of devices and components rely on IEC International Standards and the IEC Conformity Assessment Systems to work safely, with each other, everywhere in the world.

Source of Figures and Tables: OECD Survey 2015.

International Federation of Accountants (IFAC)

Key features

Type of organisation: Private standard-setting organisation (not for profit)

Charter/Constitution: Constitution: www.ifac.org/system/files/uploads/Gov/IFAC-Constitution-Feb-2014.pdf

Membership

- Nature: Professional accountancy organizations (PAOs) recognised by law or general consensus within their countries as substantial national organizations.
- Number: 144 member organisations, 35 associates

Year of establishment: 1977

Headquarters: New York, United States

Secretariat staff: 79

Total budget: Approx. USD 30 million (approx. EUR 27 million)

Type of activity: Exchange of information and experiences, data collection, research and policy analysis, discussion of good regulatory practices, development of rules, standards or agreed practices, compliance program, development and capacity building.

Sectors of activity: Accountancy in public practice, education, government service, industry, commerce, and academia.

Webpage: www.ifac.org/

Members

IFAC is comprised of over 144 members in 118 countries and jurisdictions (as of 7 November 2015). IFAC Members and Associates (35 Associates in 12 jurisdictions) are professional accountancy organizations (PAOs) recognised by law or general consensus within their countries as substantial national organizations, representing almost 3 million accountants in public practice, education, government service, industry, and commerce. IFAC Members come from the following countries or jurisdictions: Albania; Argentina; Australia; Austria; Azerbaijan; Bahamas; Bahrain; Bangladesh; Barbados; Belgium; Bolivia; Bosnia and Herzegovina; Botswana; Brazil; Bulgaria; Cameroon; Canada; Cayman Islands; Chile; China; Chinese Taiwan; Colombia; Costa Rica; Croatia; Cyprus; Czech Republic; Denmark; Dominican Republic; Egypt; Estonia; Fiji; Finland; France; Georgia; Germany; Ghana; Greece; Guatemala; Guyana; Haiti; Honduras; Hong Kong, Special Administrative Region of China; Hungary; Iceland; India; Indonesia; Iran; Iraq; Ireland; Israel; Italy; Ivory Coast; Jamaica; Japan; Jordan; Kazakhstan; Kenya; Korea; Kosovo; Kuwait; Latvia; Lebanon; Lesotho; Liberia; Lithuania; Luxembourg; Macedonia, The former Yugoslav Republic of; Madagascar; Malawi; Malaysia; Malta; Mexico; Moldova; Mongolia; Montenegro; Morocco; Namibia; Nepal; Netherlands; New Zealand; Nicaragua; Nigeria; Norway; Pakistan; Panama; Paraguay; Peru; Philippines; Poland; Portugal; Romania; Russian Federation; Saudi Arabia; Senegal; Serbia, Republic of; Sierra Leone; Singapore; Slovakia; Slovenia; South Africa; Spain; Sri Lanka; Swaziland; Sweden; Switzerland; Tanzania, United Republic of; Thailand; Trinidad and Tobago; Tunisia; Turkey; Uganda; Ukraine; United Kingdom; United States of America; Uruguay; Vietnam; Zambia; Zimbabwe.

Relationship with non-members

IFAC opens an Associate status to PAOs that do not meet membership criteria but do support the mission of IFAC, have the financial capacity to make contributions determined by the Board and demonstrate evidence of compliance with additional criteria and procedures specific to Associates. As a result, Associates are entitled to attend Council meetings and participate in discussions, without voting rights, as well as to access IFAC publications. Ultimately, Associates are expected to advance towards the Member category. For organizations that have an interest in the global accountancy profession and support the mission of IFAC but do not meet the associate admission criteria and are not PAOs, IFAC offers the Affiliates status. They must also demonstrate evidence of compliance in specific criteria and procedures and financial capacity to make contributions. Affiliates benefit from similar rights to those of Associate Members, but are not expected to move towards Membership.

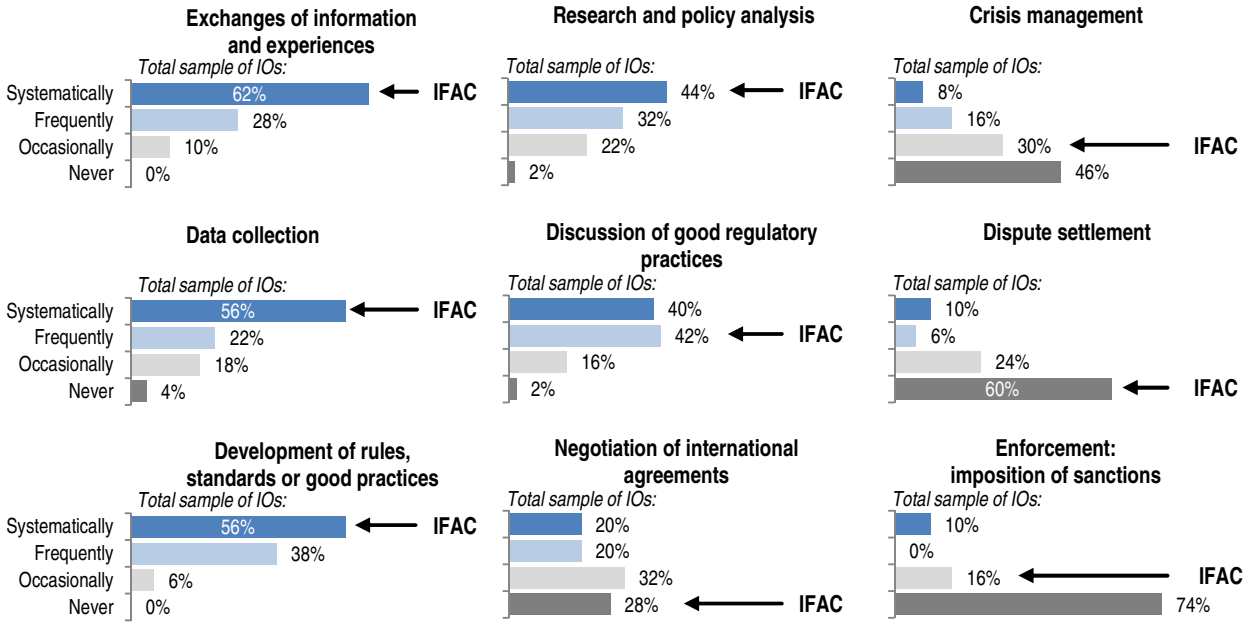
Observers

IFAC works both with Recognized Regional Organizations and Acknowledged Accountancy Groupings independent bodies that support the development of the international accountancy profession, facilitate convergence to international standards, and provide leadership in addressing issues affecting the accountancy profession in their region and/or among their constituencies. Currently four Recognized Regional Organizations support IFAC Members and Associates within a specific region. Seven Acknowledged Accountancy Groupings support the advancement of the accountancy profession within their constituencies.

Mandate

IFAC serves the public interest and strengthens the accountancy profession by: supporting the development of high-quality international standards; promoting the adoption and implementation of these standards; building the capacity of professional accountancy organisations; and speaking out on public interest issues.

IRC processes that takes place within the International Federation of Accountants



These figures show how each IO compares to other IOs in its IRC processes. The arrow situates the IO in the overall sample.

Categories of legal and policy instruments

	Is it taking place within the IO?	Approximate number
Treaties for ratification by States (excluding the funding one)		
Legally binding decisions		
Recommendations	√	7
Political declarations		
Model treaties or law		
Production of technical standards	√	Over 100
Non-binding guidance/best practices document	√	Over 100

Interactions with other international organisations active in the field

Mechanisms of interaction		Approximate number of IOs involved	Examples
Develop joint instruments			Involvement in independent standard setting board governance arrangements, convening fora for exchange of knowledge and information on broad economic topics including regulatory co-operation, monitoring and response to relevant consultations and actions.
MoU or other agreements	√	6	
Participate in co-ordinating institution	√	11	
Joint meetings that provide forum for co-ordination			
Observe relevant actions of other bodies	√	20+	
Exchange information	√	20+	

History

IFAC was founded on 7 October 1977, in Munich, Germany, at the 11th World Congress of Accountants. It was established to strengthen the worldwide accountancy profession in the public interest by developing high-quality international standards in auditing and assurance, public sector accounting, ethics, and education for professional accountants and supporting their adoption and use; facilitating collaboration and co-operation among its member bodies; collaborating and co-operating with other international organizations; and serving as the international spokesperson for the accountancy profession.

Beginning with 63 founding members from 51 countries in 1977, IFAC's membership has grown to now include over 175 members and associates in 130 countries and jurisdictions worldwide.

Source of Figures and Tables: OECD Survey 2015.

International Laboratory Accreditation Cooperation (ILAC)

Key features

Type of organisation: Trans-governmental network

Charter/Constitution: Articles of Association, http://ilac.org/publications-and-resources/ilac-documents/rules-series

Membership:

- Nature: Laboratory and inspection accreditation bodies and stakeholder
- Number: 90 full members (ILAC MRA signatories), 6 regional cooperation bodies, 16 associate members, 13 affiliate members, and 27 stakeholders

Year of establishment: 1977

Headquarters: (Registered office) Utrecht (Netherlands)

Country offices: (Secretariat) Rhodes, NSW (Australia)

Secretariat staff: 5 (4.1 Full Time Equivalent) (2014)

Total budget: EUR 600 000 (2014)

Type of activity: Accreditation forum

Sectors of activity: Calibration, testing, medical testing, inspection, reference material producers and proficiency testing providers accreditation

Website: http://ilac.org/

Members

Full Members are accreditation bodies that meet the requirements for Associates and have also been accepted as signatories to the ILAC Mutual Recognition Arrangement (MRA). Each accreditation body that is a signatory to the Arrangement undergoes a peer-review and agrees to abide by the MRA terms and conditions and by the ILAC evaluation procedures. This includes conformance with ISO/IEC 17011 and related ILAC guidance documents. ILAC currently has 90 Full Members (MRA Signatories) from 87 economies: Angola, Argentina, Australia, Austria, Bangladesh, Belgium, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Botswana, Brazil, Canada, Chile, China (People's Republic of), Colombia, Congo, Costa Rica, Croatia, Cuba, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Denmark, Ecuador, El Salvador, Egypt, Finland, Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, France, Germany, Greece, Guatemala, Hong Kong (China), Hungary, India, Indonesia, Ireland, Israel, Italy, Jamaica, Japan, Kazakhstan, Korea, Kyrgyz Republic, Lesotho, Luxembourg, Madagascar, Malawi, Malaysia, Mexico, Mongolia, Mozambique, Namibia, Netherlands, New Zealand, Nicaragua, Norway, Pakistan, Papua New Guinea, Paraguay, Peru, Philippines, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Russia, Serbia, Seychelles, Singapore, Slovakia, Slovenia, South Africa, Spain, Sri Lanka, Swaziland, Sweden, Switzerland, Chinese Taipei, Tanzania, Thailand, Tunisia, Turkey, United Arab Emirates, United Kingdom, United States, Uruguay, Ukraine, Viet Nam Zambia, Zimbabwe.

Regional Cooperation Bodies consist of formally nominated representatives of the accreditation interests from at least four economies. Recognised Regional Cooperation Bodies are those whose regional Mutual Recognition Arrangements (MRA/MLA) have been successfully peer-evaluated by ILAC. ILAC currently has 6 Regional Cooperation Body members, and 3 of which are recognised Regional Cooperation Bodies.

Associates are accreditation bodies that have not been peer reviewed and are not yet signatories to the ILAC Arrangement. ILAC currently has 16 associates. Affiliates are accreditation bodies that are operating, being developed or intending to be developed. ILAC currently has 13 affiliates.

Stakeholders are representative of international, regional and national organisations having an interest in the work of ILAC and include bodies such as associations of laboratories, associations of laboratory practitioners, inspection body associations, purchasing organisations, regulatory authorities, consumer associations and trade organisations. ILAC currently has 27 stakeholders.

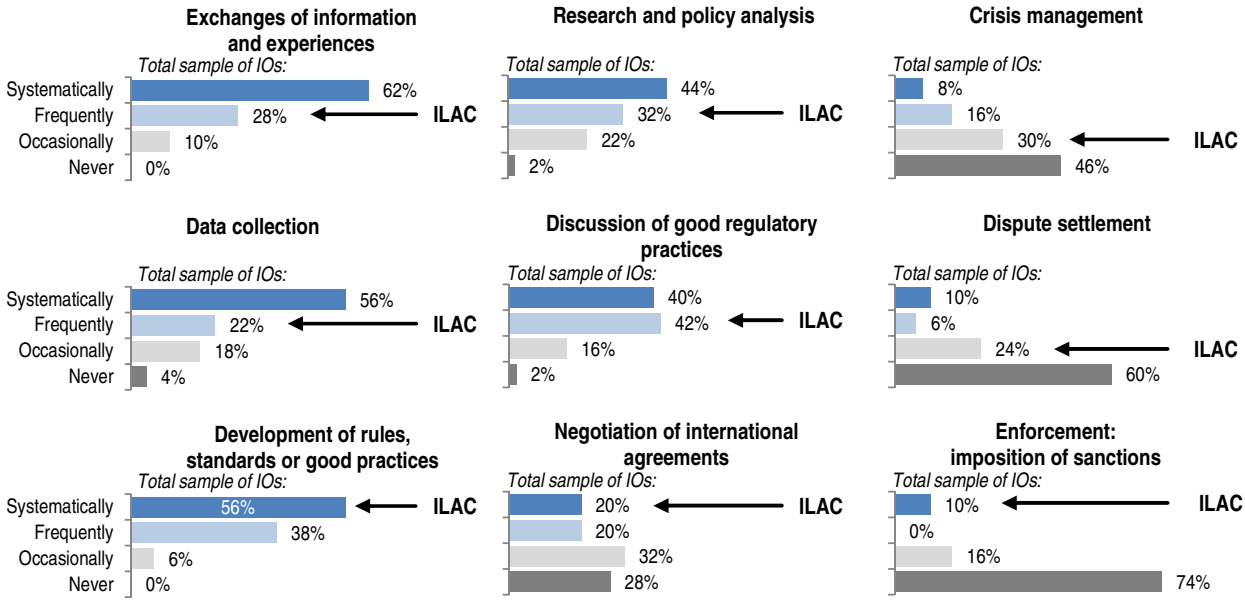
Relationship with non-members

ILAC does not have a formal program or relationship with non-members. However, ILAC assists accreditation bodies that are not yet members through several activities (e.g. publication of documents, brochures, etc.) in order to help them during the process to become an ILAC Full Member or signatory to the ILAC MRA.

Mandate

The primary purpose of ILAC is to establish an international arrangement between member accreditation bodies based on peer evaluation and mutual acceptance. ILAC is the principal international co-operation for: a) developing and harmonising laboratory and inspection body accreditation practices; b) recognising accredited calibration laboratories, testing laboratories, medical testing laboratories and inspection bodies internationally under the ILAC Mutual Recognition Arrangement (ILAC MRA); c) promoting laboratory and inspection body accreditation to industry, governments, regulators and consumers; d) assisting and supporting developing accreditation systems.

IRC processes that take place within the International Laboratory Accreditation Cooperation



These figures show how each IO compares to other IOs in its IRC processes. The arrow situates the IO in the overall sample.

Categories of legal and policy instruments

	Is it taking place within the IO?	Approximate number
Treaties for ratification by States (excluding the funding one)		
Legally binding decisions	√	1
Recommendations		
Political declarations		
Model treaties or law		
Production of technical standards		
Non-binding guidance/best practices document	√	22
Other (Memoranda of Understandings)	√	9

Interactions with other international organisations active in the field

Mechanisms of interaction		Approximate number of IOs involved	Examples
Develop joint instruments	√		ILAC liaises and co-operates with many international bodies to achieve shared objectives. These partnerships act as a means of advancing common interests and strengthening the international accreditation network. ILAC has signed MoUs with several IOs in order to forge stronger links and strategic partnerships with key organisations operating in ILAC's sphere of work. Examples of the IOs ILAC co-operates are: IAF, BIPM (Bureau International des Poids et Mesures), OIML, APEC, EU, WADA (World Anti-Doping Agency), ISO, IEC, ITU, IFCC (International Federation of Clinical Chemistry and Laboratory Medicine), UNIDO, WTO/OMC, WHO, OECD.
MoU or other agreements	√	9	
Participate in co-ordinating institution	√	1 (a liaison member of ISO)	
Joint meetings that provide forum for co-ordination	√	1 (up to 10 others attend at various times)	
Observe relevant actions of other bodies	√	12 (approximately)	
Exchange information	√	9 routinely, several others periodically	

ILAC history

ILAC first started as a conference in 1977 with the aim of developing international co-operation for facilitating trade by promotion of the acceptance of accredited test and calibration results. In 1996, ILAC became a formal co-operation with a charter to establish a network of mutual recognition agreements among accreditation bodies. In 2000, the 36 ILAC's Full Members consisting of laboratory accreditation bodies from 28 economies worldwide, signed the ILAC Mutual Recognition Arrangement (ILAC MRA) in Washington DC, to promote the acceptance of technical test and calibration data for exported goods. ILAC was incorporated in 2003. The ILAC MRA was then extended in October 2012 to include the accreditation of inspection bodies.

Source of Figures and Tables: OECD Survey 2015.

International Medical Device Regulators Forum (IMDRF)

Key features

Type of organisation: Trans-governmental network

Charter/Constitution: IMDRF Ottawa meeting outcome statement, www.imdrf.org/docs/imdrf/final/meetings/imdrf-meet-111101-ottawa-outcome-statement.pdf

Membership:

- Nature: Representatives from the medical device regulatory authorities
- Number: 8 members

Year of establishment: 2011

Headquarters: No permanent location (the roles of IMDRF Chair and Secretariat rotate annually)

Secretariat staff: No staff (each member performs IMDRF activities with own staff)

Total budget: No budget

Type of activity: Policy dialogue, information exchange, development of guidance documents related to medical device/in vitro diagnostic products regulations

Sectors of activity: Medical devices, including in vitro diagnostic products

Webpage: www.imdrf.org

Members

Australia (Therapeutic Goods Administration), Brazil (National Health Surveillance Agency – ANVISA), Canada (Health Canada), China (People's Republic of) (China Food and Drug Administration), European Union (European Commission Directorate-General for Internal Market, Industry, Entrepreneurship and SMEs), Japan (Pharmaceuticals and Medical Devices Agency and the Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare), Russia (Russian Ministry of Health), United States (US Food and Drug Administration).

Observers

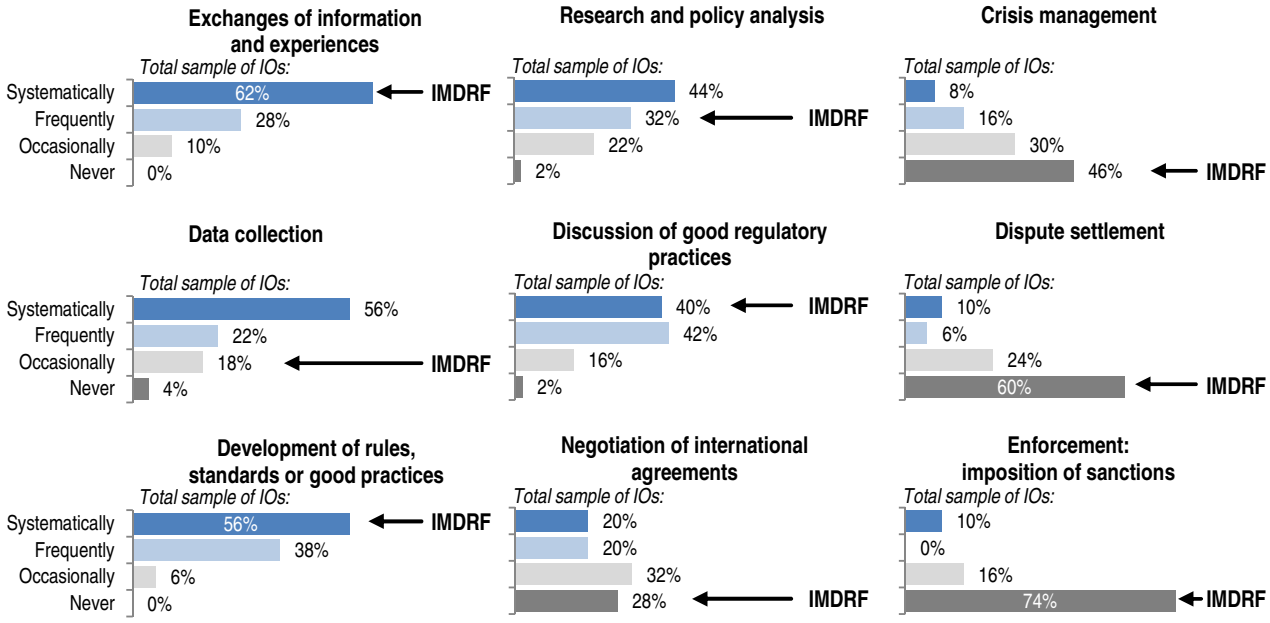
The Management Committee may designate a limited number of Official Observers. Official Observers do not participate in the decision-making process but, as with members, need to be fully knowledgeable on IMDRF matters. Current Official Observers are WHO and APEC. More observers, such as industries, other regulators and affiliate organizations, may participate to bi-annual Management Committee meetings as Invited Observers.

Affiliate organizations are bodies that have a mutual interest in medical device regulatory activities and are directly related to the IMDRF's goals. Current affiliate organizations are the AHWP (Asian Harmonization Working Party) and the PAHO (Pan American Health Organization).

Mandate

The mandate of IMDRF is to accelerate international medical device regulatory harmonization. The IMDRF's Management Committee, composed of regulatory officials, provides guidance on strategies, policies, directions, membership and activities. Furthermore, the Management Committee oversees Ad Hoc Working Groups which may draw upon expertise from various stakeholder groups such as industry, academia, healthcare professionals, and consumer and patient groups.

IRC processes that take place within the International Medical Device Regulators Forum



These figures show how each IO compares to other IOs in its IRC processes. The arrow situates the IO in the overall sample.

Categories of legal and policy instruments

	Is it taking place within the IO?	Approximate number
Treaties for ratification by States (excluding the funding one)		
Legally binding decisions		
Recommendations	√	30*
Political declarations		
Model treaties or law		
Production of technical standards		
Non-binding guidance/best practices document	√	30*

* The two numbers refer to the same instruments, i.e. there are some 30 instruments that include both recommendations and non-binding guidance.

Interactions with other international organisations active in the field

Mechanisms of interaction		Approximate number of IOs involved	Examples
Develop joint instruments			WHO, APEC, IEC, ISO, AHWP (Asian Harmonization Working Party), PAHO (Pan American Health Organization), GMTA (Global Medical Technology Alliance), DITTA (Global Diagnostic Imaging, Healthcare IT, and Radiation Therapy Trade Association)
MoU or other agreements			
Participate in co-ordinating institution			
Joint meetings that provide forum for co-ordination			
Observe relevant actions of other bodies	√	8	
Exchange information	√	8	

IMDRF history

On 6-7 October 2011, representatives from the medical device regulatory authorities of Australia, Brazil, Canada, China (People's Republic of), European Union, Japan and United States, as well as the World Health Organization (WHO), met in Ottawa to address the establishment and operation of a new organisation, the International Medical Device Regulators' Forum (IMDRF). The IMDRF meets bi-annually. The inaugural meeting took place in Singapore from 28 February to 1 March 2012 under the leadership of Australia.

Source of Figures and Tables: OECD Survey 2015.

International Monetary Fund (IMF)

Key features

Type of organisation: United Nations specialized agency

Charter/Constitution: Articles of Agreement of the International Monetary Fund, www.imf.org/external/pubs/ft/aa/

Membership:

- Nature: Representatives from governments
- Number: 189 members

Year of establishment: 1945

Headquarters: Washington, DC, United States;

Country offices: 89 resident representative offices and 6 regional offices

Secretariat staff: 2 400 (2014)

Total budget: EUR 955 million (2015)

Type of activity: Policy dialogue, data collection and analysis, information exchange, development of legal instruments, lending to member countries, technical assistance

Sectors of activity: Financial stability and monetary co-operation, international trade, employment and sustainable economic growth, poverty reduction

Webpage: www.imf.org

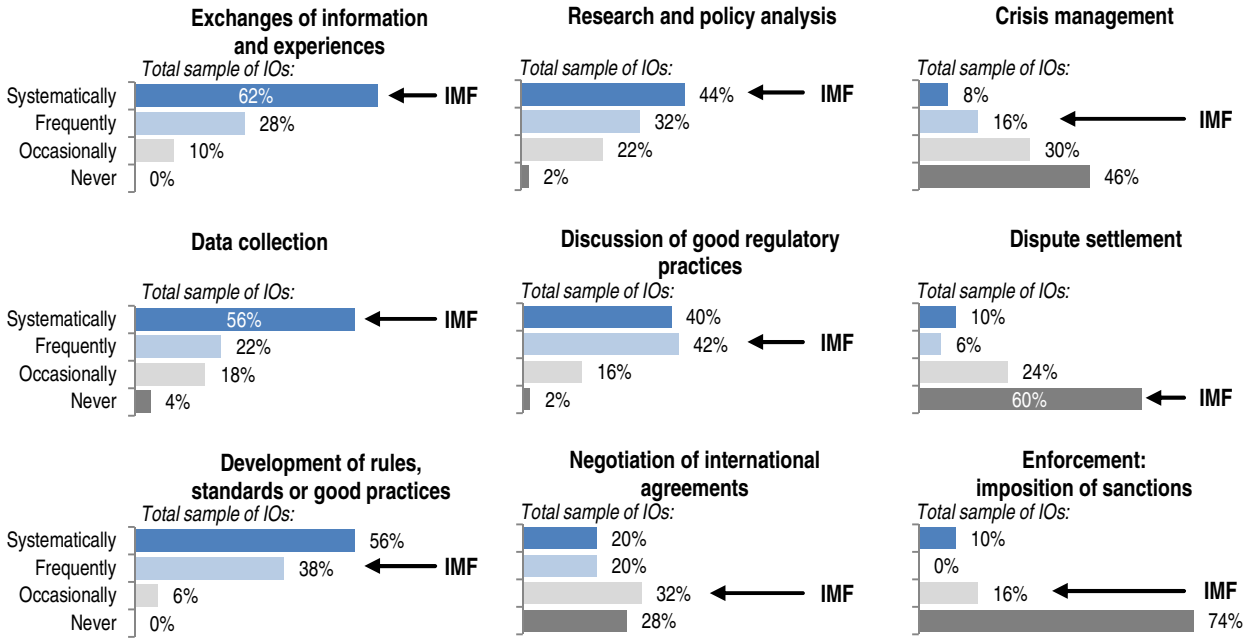
Members

Afghanistan, Albania, Algeria, Angola, Anguilla, Antigua and Barbuda, Argentina, Armenia, Aruba, Australia, Austria, Azerbaijan, Bahamas, Bahrain, Bangladesh, Barbados, Belarus, Belgium, Belize, Benin, Bhutan, Bolivia, Bonaire, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Botswana, Brazil, Brunei Darussalam, Bulgaria, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cabo Verde, Cambodia, Cameroon, Canada, Central African Republic, Chad, Chile, China (People's Republic of), Colombia, Comoros, Congo, Costa Rica, Côte d'Ivoire, Croatia, Curaçao, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Denmark, Djibouti, Dominica, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, Egypt, El Salvador, Equatorial Guinea, Eritrea, Estonia, Ethiopia, Fiji, Finland, Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, France, Gabon, Gambia, Georgia, Germany, Ghana, Greece, Grenada, Guatemala, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Guyana, Haiti, Honduras, Hong Kong (China), Hungary, Iceland, India, Indonesia, Iran, Iraq, Ireland, Israel, Italy, Jamaica, Japan, Jordan, Kazakhstan, Kenya, Kiribati, Korea, Kosovo, Kuwait, Kyrgyz Republic, Lao People's Democratic Republic, Latvia, Lebanon, Lesotho, Liberia, Libya, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Macau (China), Madagascar, Malawi, Malaysia, Maldives, Mali, Malta, Marshall Islands, Mauritania, Mauritius, Mexico, Micronesia, Moldova, Mongolia, Montenegro, Montserrat, Morocco, Mozambique, Myanmar, Namibia, Nauru, Nepal, Netherlands, New Zealand, Nicaragua, Niger, Nigeria, Norway, Oman, Pakistan, Palau, Panama, Papua New Guinea, Paraguay, Peru, Philippines, Poland, Portugal, Qatar, Romania, Russia, Rwanda, Saba, Saint Eustatius, Saint Kitts and Nevis, Saint Lucia, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, Samoa, San Marino, São Tomé and Príncipe, Saudi Arabia, Senegal, Serbia, Seychelles, Sierra Leone, Singapore, Sint Maarten, Slovak Republic, Slovenia, Solomon Islands, Somalia, South Africa, South Sudan, Spain, Sri Lanka, Sudan, Suriname, Swaziland, Sweden, Switzerland, Syrian Arab Republic, Tajikistan, Tanzania, Thailand, Timor-Leste, Togo, Tonga, Trinidad and Tobago, Tunisia, Turkey, Turkmenistan, Tuvalu, Uganda, Ukraine, United Arab Emirates, United Kingdom, United States, Uruguay, Uzbekistan, Vanuatu, Venezuela, Viet Nam, Yemen, Zambia, Zimbabwe.

Mandate

The IMF is an organisation of 189 countries, working to foster global monetary co-operation, secure financial stability, facilitate international trade, promote high employment and sustainable economic growth, and reduce poverty around the world. The IMF's primary purpose is to ensure the stability of the international monetary system – the system of exchange rates and international payments that enables countries (and their citizens) to transact with each other.

IRC processes that takes place within the International Monetary Fund



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Categories of legal and policy instruments

	Is it taking place within the IO?	Approximate number
Treaties for ratification by States (excluding the funding one)		
Legally binding decisions		
Recommendations	√	
Political declarations		
Model treaties or law		
Production of technical standards		
Non-binding guidance/best practices document	√	

Interactions with other international organisations active in the field

Mechanisms of interaction		Approximate number of IOs involved	Examples
Develop joint instruments	√		
MoU or other agreements	√		
Participate in co-ordinating institution	√		World Bank, OECD, Basel Committee on Banking Supervision, FATF, IASB, IFAC
Joint meetings that provide forum for co-ordination	√		
Observe relevant actions of other bodies	√		
Exchange information	√		

IMF history

The IMF, also known as the Fund, was conceived at a UN conference in Bretton Woods, New Hampshire, United States, in July 1944. The 44 countries at that conference sought to build a framework for economic co-operation to avoid a repetition of the competitive devaluations that had contributed to the Great Depression of the 1930s. The IMF formally came into existence on 27 December 1945, when the first countries ratified its Articles of Agreement.

Source of Figures and Tables: OECD Survey 2015.

International Maritime Organization (IMO)

Key features

Type of organisation: United Nations specialized agency

Charter/Constitution: Convention on the International Maritime Organization, https://treaties.un.org/Pages/ViewDetails.aspx?src=TREATY&mtdsg_no=XII-1&chapter=12&lang=en

Membership:

- Nature: Representatives from governments
- Number: 171 members

Year of establishment: 1958

Headquarters: London, United Kingdom

IMO regional presence for technical co-operation: Côte d'Ivoire, Ghana, Kenya, Philippines, Trinidad and Tobago

Secretariat staff: 265 (2014)

Total budget: EUR 45 million (2014)

Type of activity: Policy dialogue, data collection and analysis, information exchange, development of legal instruments

Sectors of activity: Safety, security and environmental performance of international shipping

Webpage: www.imo.org

Members

Albania, Algeria, Angola, Antigua and Barbuda, Argentina, Australia, Austria, Azerbaijan, Bahamas, Bahrain, Bangladesh, Barbados, Belgium, Belize, Benin, Bolivia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Brazil, Brunei Darussalam, Bulgaria, Cambodia, Cameroon, Canada, Cabo Verde, Chile, China (People's Republic of), Colombia, Comoros, Congo, Cook Islands, Costa Rica, Côte d'Ivoire, Croatia, Cuba, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Democratic People's Republic of Korea, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Denmark, Djibouti, Dominica, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, Egypt, El Salvador, Equatorial Guinea, Eritrea, Estonia, Ethiopia, Fiji, Finland, Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, France, Gabon, Gambia, Georgia, Germany, Ghana, Greece, Grenada, Guatemala, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Guyana, Haiti, Honduras, Hungary, Iceland, India, Indonesia, Iran, Iraq, Ireland, Israel, Italy, Jamaica, Japan, Jordan, Kazakhstan, Kenya, Kiribati, Korea, Kuwait, Latvia, Lebanon, Liberia, Libya, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Madagascar, Malawi, Malaysia, Maldives, Malta, Marshall Islands, Mauritania, Mauritius, Mexico, Moldova, Monaco, Mongolia, Montenegro, Morocco, Mozambique, Myanmar, Namibia, Nepal, Netherlands, New Zealand, Nicaragua, Nigeria, Norway, Oman, Pakistan, Palau, Panama, Papua New Guinea, Paraguay, Peru, Philippines, Poland, Portugal, Qatar, Romania, Russia, Saint Kitts and Nevis, Saint Lucia, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, Samoa, San Marino, Sao Tome and Principe, Saudi Arabia, Senegal, Serbia, Seychelles, Sierra Leone, Singapore, Slovakia, Slovenia, Solomon Islands, Somalia, South Africa, Spain, Sri Lanka, Sudan, Suriname, Sweden, Switzerland, Syrian Arab Republic, Tanzania, Thailand, Timor-Leste, Togo, Tonga, Trinidad and Tobago, Tunisia, Turkey, Turkmenistan, Tuvalu, Uganda, Ukraine, United Arab Emirates, United Kingdom, United States, Uruguay, Vanuatu, Venezuela, Viet Nam, Yemen, Zambia, Zimbabwe.

IMO currently has three Associate Members: Faroe Islands, Hong Kong (China) and Macau (China).

Relationship with non-members

Several non-members have ratified specific conventions or adhere to other IMO instruments.

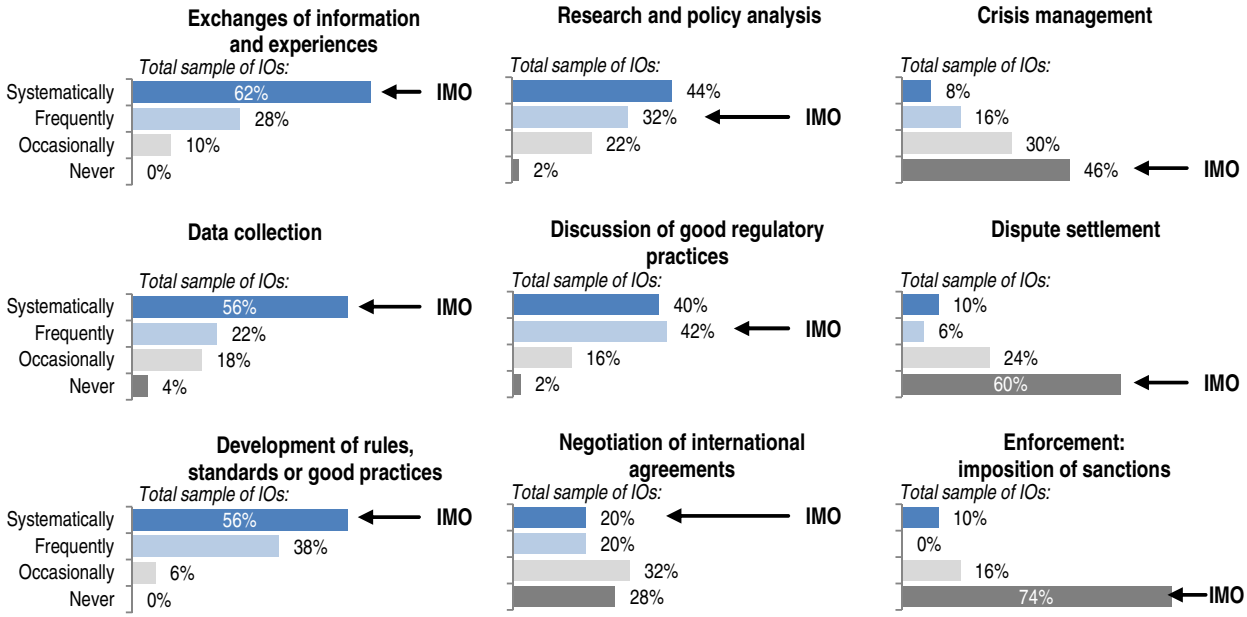
Observers

Under certain conditions, non-members can observe IMO meetings. NGOs that have the capability to make a substantial contribution to the work of IMO may be granted consultative status by the Council with the approval of the Assembly. To date there are 77 NGOs in consultative status with IMO.

Mandate

The mission of the IMO, as a United Nations specialised agency, is to promote safe, secure, environmentally sound, efficient and sustainable shipping through co-operation. This will be accomplished by adopting the highest practicable standards of maritime safety and security, efficiency of navigation and prevention and control of pollution from ships, as well as through consideration of the related legal matters and effective implementation of IMO's instruments with a view to their universal and uniform application.

IRC processes that take place within the International Maritime Organization



These figures show how each IO compares to other IOs in its IRC processes. The arrow situates the IO in the overall sample.

Categories of legal and policy instruments

	Is it taking place within the IO?	Approximate number
Treaties for ratification by States (excluding the funding one)	√	60
Legally binding decisions		
Recommendations		
Political declarations		
Model treaties or law		
Production of technical standards		
Non-binding guidance/best practices document	√	Over 800

Interactions with other international organisations active in the field

Mechanisms of interaction		Approximate number of IOs involved	Examples
Develop joint instruments	√	In addition to the interactions with United Nations agencies, to date there are 65 IGOs which have signed agreements of co-operation with IMO	IMO may enter into agreements of co-operation with other IGOs on matters of common interest with a view to ensuring maximum co-ordination in respect of such matters. Examples are: UN Agencies (including ILO, FAO and ITU), EU, ICS (International Chamber of Shipping), BIMCO (Baltic and International Maritime Conference) and ITF (International Transport Workers' Federation).
MoU or other agreements	√		
Participate in co-ordinating institution	√		
Joint meetings that provide forum for co-ordination	√		
Observe relevant actions of other bodies	√		
Exchange information	√		

IMO history

It has always been recognised that the best way of improving safety at sea is by developing international regulations that are followed by all shipping nations and from the mid-19th century onwards a number of such treaties were adopted. Several countries proposed that a permanent international body should be established to promote maritime safety more effectively, but it was not until the establishment of the United Nations itself that these hopes were realised. In 1948 an international conference in Geneva adopted a convention formally establishing IMO (the original name was the Inter-Governmental Maritime Consultative Organization, or IMCO, but the name was changed in 1982 to IMO). The IMO Convention entered into force in 1958 and the new organisation met for the first time the following year.

Source of Figures and Tables: OECD Survey 2015.

International Organization of Securities Commissions (IOSCO)

Key features

Type of organisation: Trans-governmental network

Charter/Constitution: Bill 243/1987/Quebec National Assembly/ An act respecting the International Organization of Securities Commission. Headquarters Agreement between the Kingdom of Spain and the International Organization of Securities Commissions published in the Spanish B.O.E. (official bulletin) on 17 December 2011, www.boe.es/diario_boe/txt.php?id=BOE-A-2011-19646

Membership (July 2016):

- Nature: Representatives from capital market regulators, IOs, self-regulatory organisations and other affiliate members
- Number: 126 ordinary members, 20 associate members and 65 affiliate members

Year of establishment: 1983

Headquarters: Madrid, Spain

Secretariat staff: 30 (2016)

Total budget: EUR 5.5 million (2016)

Type of activity: Research and risk identification, standard-setting and developing guidance, promoting and monitoring implementation, capacity building, co-operation and information exchange, collaboration and engagement with other IOs

Sectors of activity: Security markets, derivatives markets, financial markets

Webpage: www.iosco.org

Members

Ordinary members from: Albania, Alberta, Algeria, Andorra, Argentina, Armenia, Australia, Austria, Bahamas, Bahrain, Bangladesh, Barbados, Belgium, Bermuda, Bolivia, Bosnia and Herzegovina (Federation of), Brazil, British Columbia, British Virgin Islands, Brunei, Bulgaria, Cayman Islands, Central Africa, Chile, China (People's Republic of), Chinese Taipei, Colombia, Costa Rica, Croatia (Republic of), Cyprus (Republic of), Czech Republic, Denmark, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, Egypt, El Salvador, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Ghana, Gibraltar, Greece, Guernsey, Honduras, Hong Kong, Hungary, Iceland, India, Indonesia, Ireland, Isle of Man, Israel, Italy, Jamaica, Japan, Jersey, Jordan, Kazakhstan (Republic of), Kenya, Korea (Republic of), Kyrgyz Republic, Latvia (Republic of), Liechtenstein (Principality of), Lithuania, Luxembourg (Grand Duchy of), Macedonia (Former Yugoslav Republic of), Malawi, Malaysia, Maldives (Republic of), Malta, Mauritius (Republic of), Mexico, Mongolia, Montenegro, Morocco, Netherlands, New Zealand, Nigeria, Norway, Oman (Sultanate of), Ontario, Pakistan, Palestine, Panama (Republic of), Papua New Guinea, Peru, Philippines, Poland, Portugal, Qatar, Quebec, Romania, Russia, Saudi Arabia (Kingdom of), Serbia (Republic of), Singapore, Slovak Republic, Slovenia, South Africa, Spain, Sri Lanka, Sweden, Switzerland, Syria, Tanzania, Thailand, Trinidad and Tobago, Tunisia, Turkey, Turks and Caicos Islands, Uganda, Ukraine, United Arab Emirates, United Kingdom, United States, Uruguay, Uzbekistan, Venezuela, Vietnam, West African Monetary Union, Zambia.

IOSCO also has 20 Associate members and 65 Affiliate members. Associate members are usually supranational governmental regulators, subnational governmental regulators, IGOs and other international standard-setting bodies, as well as other governmental bodies with an appropriate interest in securities regulation. Affiliate members are self-regulatory organisations, securities exchanges, financial market infrastructures, international bodies other than governmental organisations with an appropriate interest in securities regulation, investor protection funds and compensation funds, and other bodies with an appropriate interest in securities regulation.

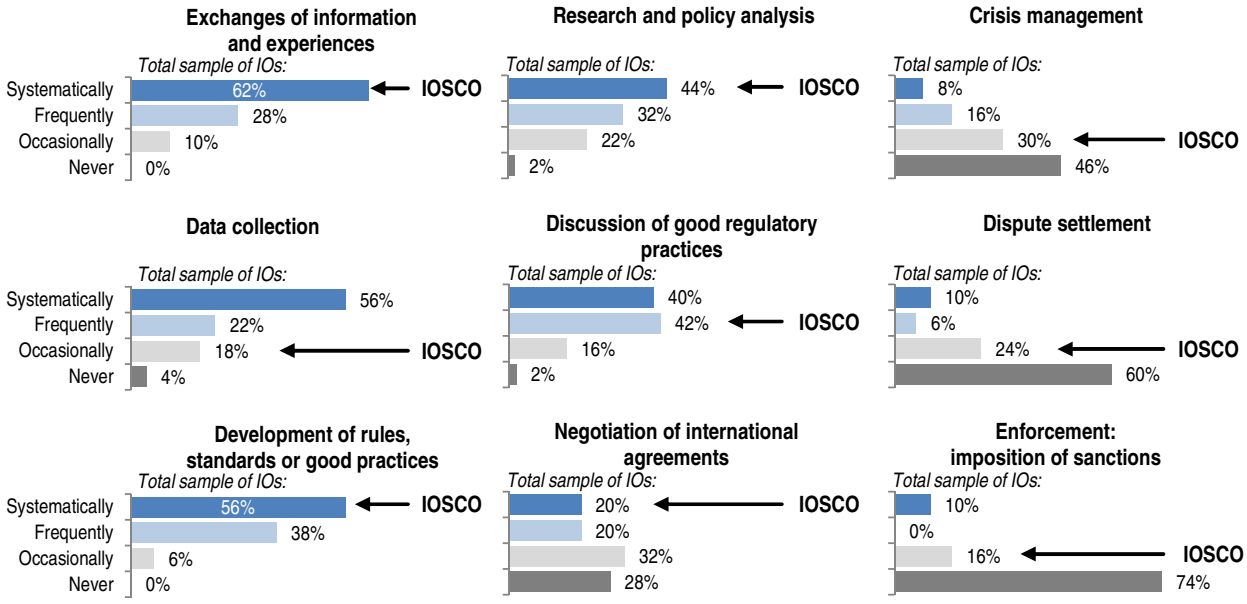
Relationship with non-members

IOSCO assists both members and eligible non-members to become signatories of the IOSCO Multilateral Memorandum of Understanding Concerning Consultation and Cooperation and the Exchange of Information (MMoU). Becoming a signatory of the MMoU is a requisite for non-members seeking ordinary membership of IOSCO.

Mandate

By providing high quality technical assistance, education and training, and research to its members and other regulators, IOSCO seeks to build sound global capital markets and a robust global regulatory framework. IOSCO members have resolved to co-operate in developing, implementing and promoting adherence to internationally recognised and consistent standards of regulation, oversight and enforcement in order to protect investors, maintain fair, efficient and transparent markets, and seek to address systemic risks; to enhance investor protection and promote investor confidence in the integrity of securities markets, through strengthened information exchange and co-operation in enforcement against misconduct and in supervision of markets and market intermediaries; and to exchange information at both global and regional levels on their respective experiences in order to assist the development of markets, strengthen market infrastructure and implement appropriate regulation.

IRC processes that take place within the International Organization of Securities Commissions



These figures show how each IO compares to other IOs in its IRC processes. The arrow situates the IO in the overall sample.

Categories of legal and policy instruments

	Is it taking place within the IO?	Approximate number
Treaties for ratification by States (excluding the funding one)		
Legally binding decisions		
Recommendations	√	8* (in 2014)
Political declarations		
Model treaties or law		
Production of technical standards	√	8 (in 2014)
Non-binding guidance/best practices document	√	33 (in 2014)
Other (Memoranda of Understanding)	√	1 (in 2014)

* This figure does not include the 38 IOSCO Principles of Securities Regulation.

Interactions with other international organisations active in the field

Mechanisms of interaction		Approximate number of IOs involved	Examples
Develop joint instruments	√	5	IOSCO, as a member of the Financial Stability Board (FSB), participates in several G20 work streams, to co-ordinate its regulatory responses with other regulatory bodies, such as the FSB, IAIS, BCBS (Basel Committee on Banking Supervision), CPMI (Committee on Payments and Market Infrastructures), IFRS (International Financial Reporting Standards), OECD, IMF
MoU or other agreements	√		
Participate in co-ordinating institution	√	2	
Joint meetings that provide forum for co-ordination	√	6	
Observe relevant actions of other bodies	√	3	
Exchange information	√	4	

IOSCO history

IOSCO was created in 1983, when 11 securities regulatory agencies from North and South America agreed to build their inter-American regional association into an international co-operative body. A year later, securities regulators from France, Indonesia, Korea and the United Kingdom become the first non-American agencies to join the new organisation. In 1986 members agreed to create a permanent General Secretariat. In 1998 IOSCO adopted a comprehensive set of Objectives and Principles of Securities Regulation, now recognised as the international regulatory benchmarks for all securities markets. In 2002, IOSCO adopted a Multilateral Memorandum of Understanding which was designed to facilitate cross-border enforcement and exchange of information among international securities regulators.

Source of Figures and Tables: OECD Survey 2015.

International Organization for Standardization (ISO)

Key features

Type of organisation: Private standard-setting organisation

Charter/Constitution: ISO Statutes, www.iso.org/iso/statutes.pdf

Membership:

- Nature: National standard bodies (private and public)
- Number: 119 Full Members, 38 Correspondent Members, 5 subscriber members

Year of establishment: 1947

Headquarters: Geneva, Switzerland

Country offices: ISO/CS Office in Singapore (Asia-Pacific Regional Engagement Initiative)

Secretariat staff: 136 (2015)

Total budget: EUR 34.5 million (2014)

Type of activity: Technical standard-setting

Sectors of activity: ISO covers almost every industry, from technology, to food safety, to agriculture and healthcare

Webpage: www.iso.org

Members

ISO has 119 Full Members: Afghanistan, Algeria, Argentina, Armenia, Australia, Austria, Azerbaijan, Bahrain, Bangladesh, Barbados, Belarus, Belgium, Benin, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Botswana, Brazil, Bulgaria, Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Canada, Chile, China (People's Republic of), Colombia, Congo, Costa Rica, Croatia, Cuba, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Côte d'Ivoire, Democratic People's Republic of Korea, Denmark, Ecuador, Egypt, El Salvador, Estonia, Ethiopia, Fiji, Finland, Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, France, Gabon, Germany, Ghana, Greece, Hungary, Iceland, India, Indonesia, Iran, Iraq, Ireland, Israel, Italy, Jamaica, Japan, Jordan, Kazakhstan, Kenya, Korea, Kuwait, Latvia, Lebanon, Libya, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Malawi, Malaysia, Mali, Malta, Mauritius, Mexico, Mongolia, Morocco, Namibia, Nepal, Netherlands, New Zealand, Nigeria, Norway, Oman, Pakistan, Panama, Peru, Philippines, Poland, Portugal, Qatar, Romania, Russia, Rwanda, Saint Lucia, Saudi Arabia, Senegal, Serbia, Singapore, Slovakia, Slovenia, South Africa, Spain, Sri Lanka, Sudan, Sweden, Switzerland, Tanzania, Thailand, Trinidad and Tobago, Tunisia, Turkey, Uganda, Ukraine, United Arab Emirates, United Kingdom, United States, Uruguay, Uzbekistan, Viet Nam, Yemen, Zimbabwe.

ISO has currently also 38 Correspondent Members: Albania, Angola, Bahamas, Bhutan, Bolivia, Brunei Darussalam, Burundi, Cambodia, Dominica, Dominican Republic, Eritrea, Gambia, Georgia, Guatemala, Guyana, Haiti, Hong Kong, Kyrgyzstan, Lesotho, Macau, Madagascar, Mauritania, Moldova, Montenegro, Mozambique, Myanmar, Nicaragua, Niger, State of Palestine, Papua New Guinea, Paraguay, Seychelles, Sierra Leone, Suriname, Swaziland, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan, Zambia. Correspondent members observe the development of ISO standards and strategy by attending ISO technical and policy meetings as observers. Correspondent members can sell and adopt ISO International Standards nationally.

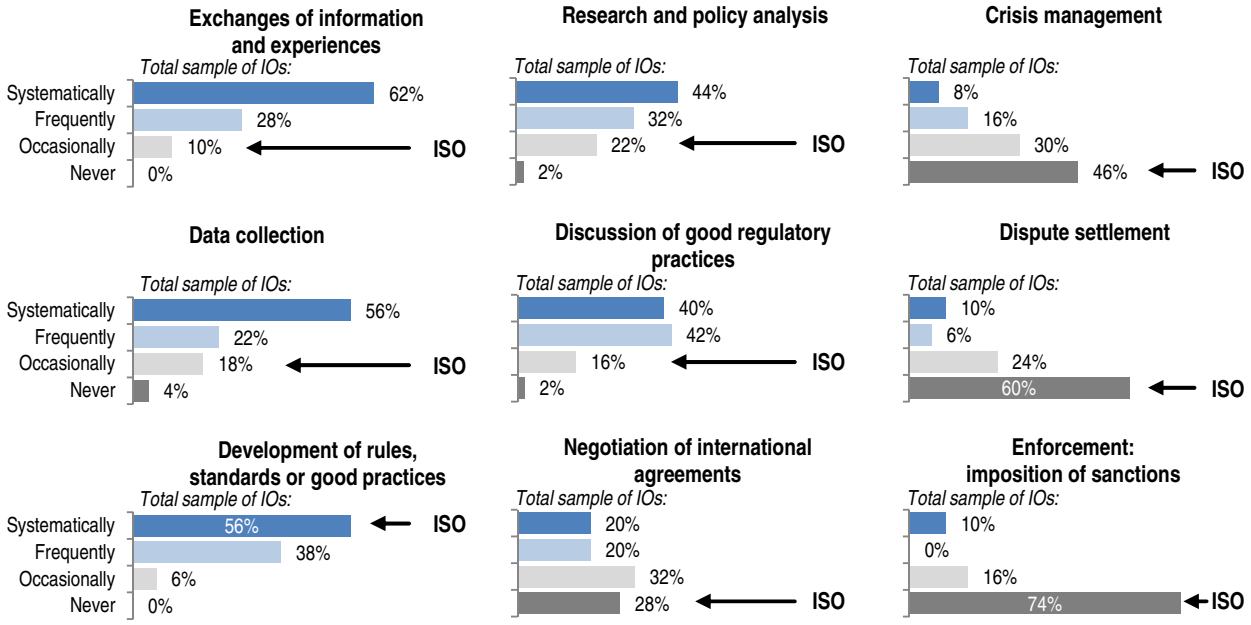
ISO has also five subscriber members: Antigua and Barbuda, Belize, Honduras, Lao People's Democratic Republic, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines. Subscriber members keep up to date on ISO's work but cannot participate in it. They do not sell or adopt ISO International Standards nationally.

Mandate

The mission of ISO is the development of voluntary international standards. A standard is a document that provides information that can be used consistently to ensure that materials, products, processes and services are fit for their purpose.

"The object of the Organization shall be to promote the development of standardisation and related activities in the world with a view to facilitating international exchange of goods and services and to developing co-operation in the spheres of intellectual, scientific, technological and economic activity". (ISO Statute, Article 2)

IRC processes that take place within the International Organization for Standardization



These figures show how each IO compares to other IOs in its IRC processes. The arrow situates the IO in the overall sample.

Categories of legal and policy instruments

	Is it taking place within the IO?	Approximate number
Treaties for ratification by States (excluding the funding one)		
Legally binding decisions		
Recommendations		
Political declarations		
Model treaties or law		
Production of technical standards	√	21 000 (July 2016)
Non-binding guidance/best practices document	√	n.a.

Interactions with other international organisations active in the field

Mechanisms of interaction		Approximate number of IOs involved	Examples
Develop joint instruments	√		
MoU or other agreements	√	67 agreements or MoUs with IOs	Many IOs including CEN (European Committee for Standardization), IEC, ILO, UNCTAD (United Nations Conference on Trade and Development).
Participate in co-ordinating institution	√		ISO is part of the World Standards Cooperation, a high-level collaboration with IEC and ITU
Joint meetings that provide forum for co-ordination	√		ISO meets with IEC and ITU to co-ordinate on Smart Cities and Internet of Things
Observe relevant actions of other bodies	√		ISO has observer status to WTO/OMC bodies
Exchange information	√		Several IOs, www.iso.org/iso/home/about/organizations_in_liaison.htm

ISO history

The ISO story began in 1946 when delegates from 25 countries met at the Institute of Civil Engineers in London and decided to create a new international organization "to facilitate the international co-ordination and unification of industrial standards". In February 1947 the new organization, ISO, officially began operations. Since then, ISO has published over 19 500 International Standards covering almost all aspects of technology and manufacturing.

Source of Figures and Tables: OECD Survey 2015.

International Telecommunication Union (ITU)

Key features

Type of organisation: United Nations specialised agency

Charter/Constitution: Constitution of the International Telecommunication Union, www.itu.int/en/history/Pages/ConstitutionAndConvention.aspx

Membership:

- Nature: Representatives from governments, ICT industry and academia
- Number: 193 member countries and 700 private entities and academic institutions

Year of establishment: 1865

Headquarters: Geneva, Switzerland

Country offices: 12 regional and area offices

Secretariat staff: 811 (2014)

Total budget: EUR 157 million (2014)

Type of activity: Policy dialogue, information exchange, development of legal instruments, standardisation

Sectors of activity: Telecommunication and information and communication technologies and related areas (accessibility, broadband, cybersecurity, digital divide, emergency telecommunications, internet, climate change)

Webpage: www.itu.int

Members

Afghanistan, Albania, Algeria, Andorra, Angola, Antigua and Barbuda, Argentine, Armenia, Australia, Austria, Azerbaijan, Bahamas, Bahrain, Bangladesh, Barbados, Belarus, Belgium, Belize, Benin, Bhutan, Bolivia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Botswana, Brazil, Brunei Darussalam, Bulgaria, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cabo Verde, Cambodia, Cameroon, Canada, Central African Republic, Chad, Chile, China (People's Republic of), Colombia, Comoros, Congo, Costa Rica, Côte d'Ivoire, Croatia, Cuba, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Democratic People's Republic of Korea, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Denmark, Djibouti, Dominica, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, Egypt, El Salvador, Equatorial Guinea, Eritrea, Estonia, Ethiopia, Fiji, Finland, Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, France, Gabonese Republic, Gambia, Georgia, Germany, Ghana, Greece, Grenada, Guatemala, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Guyana, Haiti, Honduras, Hungary, Iceland, India, Indonesia, Iran, Iraq, Ireland, Israel, Italy, Jamaica, Japan, Jordan, Kazakhstan, Kenya, Kiribati, Korea, Kuwait, Kyrgyz Republic, Lao People's Democratic Republic, Latvia, Lebanon, Lesotho, Liberia, Libya, Liechtenstein, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Madagascar, Malawi, Malaysia, Maldives, Mali, Malta, Marshall Islands, Mauritania, Mauritius, Mexico, Micronesia, Moldova, Monaco, Mongolia, Montenegro, Morocco, Mozambique, Myanmar, Namibia, Nauru, Nepal, Netherlands, New Zealand, Nicaragua, Niger, Nigeria, Norway, Oman, Pakistan, Panama, Papua New Guinea, Paraguay, Peru, Philippines, Poland, Portugal, Qatar, Romania, Russia, Rwanda, Saint Kitts and Nevis, Saint Lucia, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, Samoa, San Marino, Sao Tome and Principe, Saudi Arabia, Senegal, Serbia, Seychelles, Sierra Leone, Singapore, Slovak Republic, Slovenia, Solomon Islands, Somalia, South Africa, South Sudan, Spain, Sri Lanka, Sudan, Suriname, Swaziland, Sweden, Switzerland, Syrian Arab Republic, Tajikistan, Tanzania, Thailand, Timor-Leste, Togo, Tonga, Trinidad and Tobago, Tunisia, Turkey, Turkmenistan, Tuvalu, Uganda, Ukraine, United Arab Emirates, United Kingdom, United States, Uruguay, Uzbekistan, Vanuatu, Holy See, Venezuela, Viet Nam, Yemen, Zambia, Zimbabwe.

In addition to its 193 member states, ITU brings together more than 700 sector members and associates from industry, international and regional organisations, as well as academia.

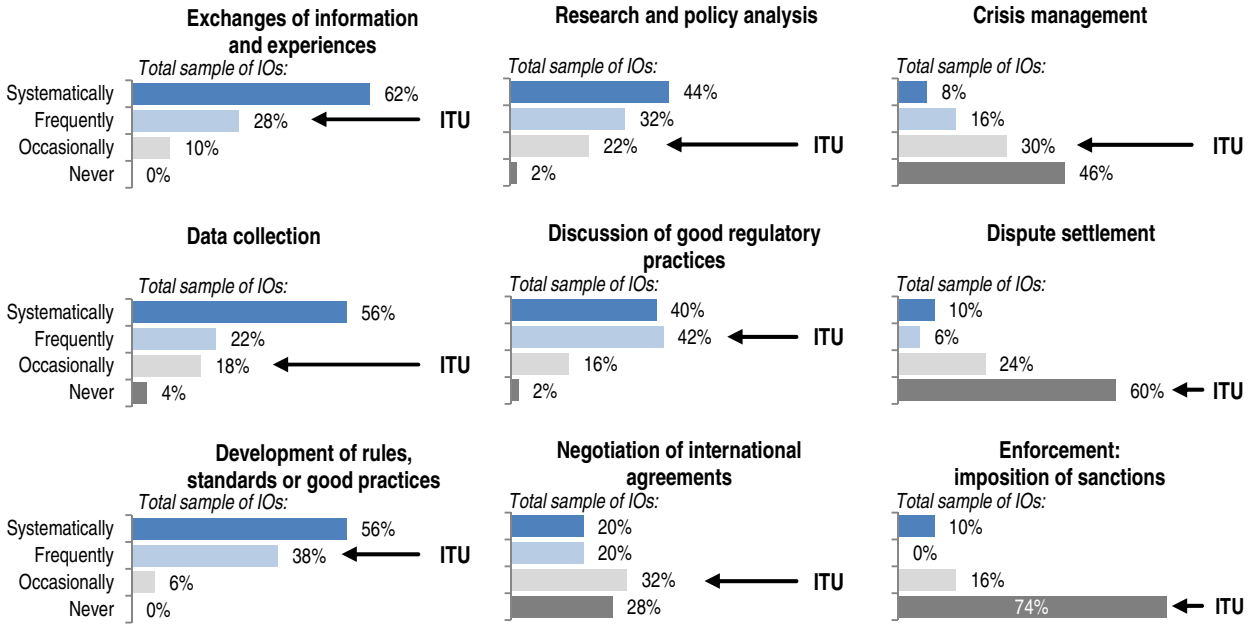
Observers

State of Palestine.

Mandate

The ITU is the United Nations specialised agency for information and communication technologies. It allocates global radio spectrum and satellite orbits, develops the technical standards that ensure networks and technologies seamlessly interconnect, and strives to improve access to ICTs to undeserved communities worldwide. ITU is committed to connecting the entire world's people – wherever they live and whatever their means. Through its work ITU protects and supports everyone's fundamental right to communicate.

IRC processes that take place within the International Telecommunication Union



These figures show how each IO compares to other IOs in its IRC processes. The arrow situates the IO in the overall sample.

Categories of legal and policy instruments

	Is it taking place within the IO?	Approximate number
Treaties for ratification by States (excluding the funding one)	√	2
Legally binding decisions	√	5
Recommendations	√	600
Political declarations	√	
Model treaties or law		
Production of technical standards	√	4 000
Non-binding guidance/best practices document	√	

Interactions with other international organisations active in the field

Mechanisms of interaction		Approximate number of IOs involved	Examples
Develop joint instruments	√		
MoU or other agreements	√		UN, UN specialised agencies, Regional telecommunications organisations, Standardizations organisations (IEC, ISO, etc), other organisations (ICANN)
Participate in co-ordinating institution	√		
Joint meetings that provide forum for co-ordination	√		
Observe relevant actions of other bodies	√		
Exchange information	√		

ITU history

On 17 May 1865, the first International Telegraph Convention was signed in Paris by its 20 founding members, and the International Telegraph Union (the first incarnation of ITU) was established to supervise subsequent amendments to the agreement. In 1932 it was decided that a new name would be adopted to reflect the full range of ITU's responsibilities: International Telecommunication Union. On 15 November 1947, an agreement between ITU and the newly created United Nations recognised ITU as the specialised agency for telecommunications.

Source of Figures and Tables: OECD Survey 2015.

North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO)

Key features

Type of organisation: Inter-governmental organisation

Charter/Constitution: North Atlantic Treaty (Washington Treaty), www.nato.int/cps/en/natohq/official_texts_17120.htm

Membership:

- Nature: Representatives from governments
- Number: 28 members

Year of establishment: 1949

Headquarters: Brussels, Belgium

Secretariat staff: 6 000 (2014)

Total budget: n.a.

Type of activity: Policy dialogue, information exchange, crisis management, development of legal instruments

Sectors of activity: Security, defence, military

Webpage: www.nato.int

Members

Albania, Belgium, Bulgaria, Canada, Croatia, Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Iceland, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Turkey, United Kingdom, United States.

Relationship with non-members

NATO membership is open to "any other European state in a position to further the principles of this Treaty and to contribute to the security of the North Atlantic area".

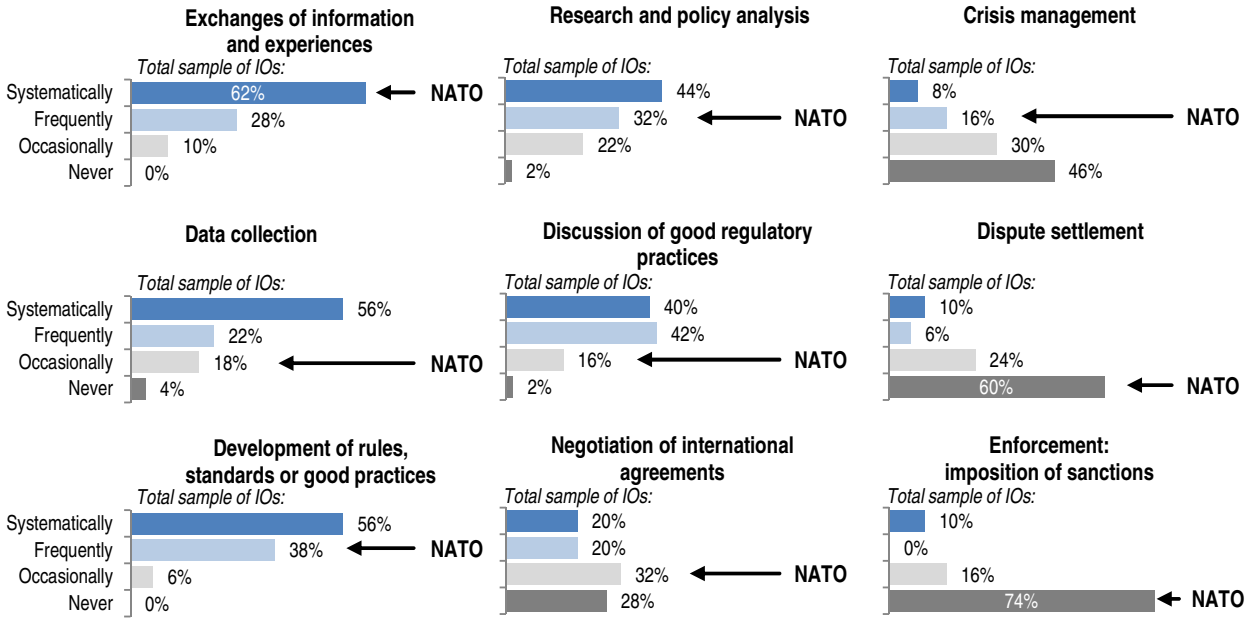
NATO also has developed the Membership Action Plan (MAP), which offers aspiring members practical advice and targeted assistance. In turn, aspiring members are expected to meet certain key requirements. Current participants in the MAP are the Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, which has been participating in the MAP since 1999, and Montenegro, which was invited to join in December 2009. Welcoming progress made in its reform efforts, in April 2010, the Allies formally invited Bosnia and Herzegovina to join the MAP, pending the resolution of a key issue concerning immovable defence property.

In addition, NATO co-operates with a range of countries generally referred as NATO Partners: Afghanistan, Algeria, Armenia, Australia, Austria, Azerbaijan, Bahrain, Belarus, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Egypt, Finland, Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Georgia, Iraq, Ireland, Israel, Japan, Jordan, Kazakhstan, Korea, Kuwait, Kyrgyz Republic, Malta, Mauritania, Moldova, Mongolia, Montenegro, Morocco, New Zealand, Pakistan, Qatar, Russia, Serbia, Sweden, Switzerland, Tajikistan, Tunisia, Turkmenistan, United Arab Emirates, Ukraine, Uzbekistan.

Mandate

The NATO's essential purpose is to safeguard the freedom and security of its members through political and military means. NATO promotes democratic values and encourages consultation and co-operation on defence and security issues to build trust and, in the long run, prevent conflict. NATO is committed to the peaceful resolution of disputes. If diplomatic efforts fail, it has the military capacity needed to undertake crisis-management operations. These are carried out under Article 5 of the Washington Treaty (NATO's founding treaty) or under a UN mandate, alone or in co-operation with other countries and international organisations.

IRC processes that takes place within the North Atlantic Treaty Organization



These figures show how each IO compares to other IOs in its IRC processes. The arrow situates the IO in the overall sample.

Categories of legal and policy instruments

	Is it taking place within the IO?	Approximate number
Treaties for ratification by States (excluding the funding one)		
Legally binding decisions		
Recommendations	√	about 100
Political declarations		
Model treaties or law		
Production of technical standards		
Non-binding guidance/best practices document	√	about 100

Interactions with other international organisations active in the field

Mechanisms of interaction		Approximate number of IOs involved	Examples
Develop joint instruments			
MoU or other agreements			
Participate in co-ordinating institution	√		
Joint meetings that provide forum for co-ordination	√		
Observe relevant actions of other bodies	√		
Exchange information	√		

NATO history

The foundations of NATO were officially laid down on 4th April 1949 with the signing of the North Atlantic Treaty, more popularly known as the Washington Treaty. In 1991, the North Atlantic Cooperation Council (NACC) was established by the Allies as a forum for dialogue and co-operation with NATO's former Warsaw Pact adversaries. The NACC was a manifestation of the "hand of friendship" extended at the July 1990 summit meeting in London, when allied leaders proposed a new cooperative relationship with all countries in central and eastern Europe in the wake of the end of the Cold War.

Source of Figures and Tables: OECD Survey 2015.

Organization of American States (OAS)

Key features

Type of organisation: Inter-governmental organisation

Charter/Constitution: Charter of the Organization of American States, www.oas.org/dil/treaties_a-41_charter_of_the_organization_of_american_states.pdf

Membership:

- Nature: Representatives from governments
- Number: 35 members

Year of establishment: 1889

Headquarters: Washington, DC, United States;

Country offices: in all 35 member states

Secretariat staff: 912 (2014)

Total budget: EUR 76 million (2015)

Type of activity: Policy dialogue, data collection and analysis, information exchange, development of legal instruments, crisis management

Sectors of activity: Dialogue and co-operation in several policy areas: democracy, peace and security, human rights, trade, sustainable development, etc.

Webpage: www.oas.org

Members

Antigua and Barbuda, Argentina, Bahamas, Barbados, Belize, Bolivia, Brazil, Canada, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, Dominica, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Grenada, Guatemala, Guyana, Haiti, Honduras, Jamaica, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, Saint Kitts and Nevis, Saint Lucia, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, Suriname, Trinidad and Tobago, United States, Uruguay, Venezuela.

Observers

The OAS has granted permanent observer status to 69 states, as well as to the European Union. Permanent observers attend the public meetings of the General Assembly and the Permanent Council and of their principal committees and, when invited by the corresponding presiding officer, the closed meetings of those bodies.

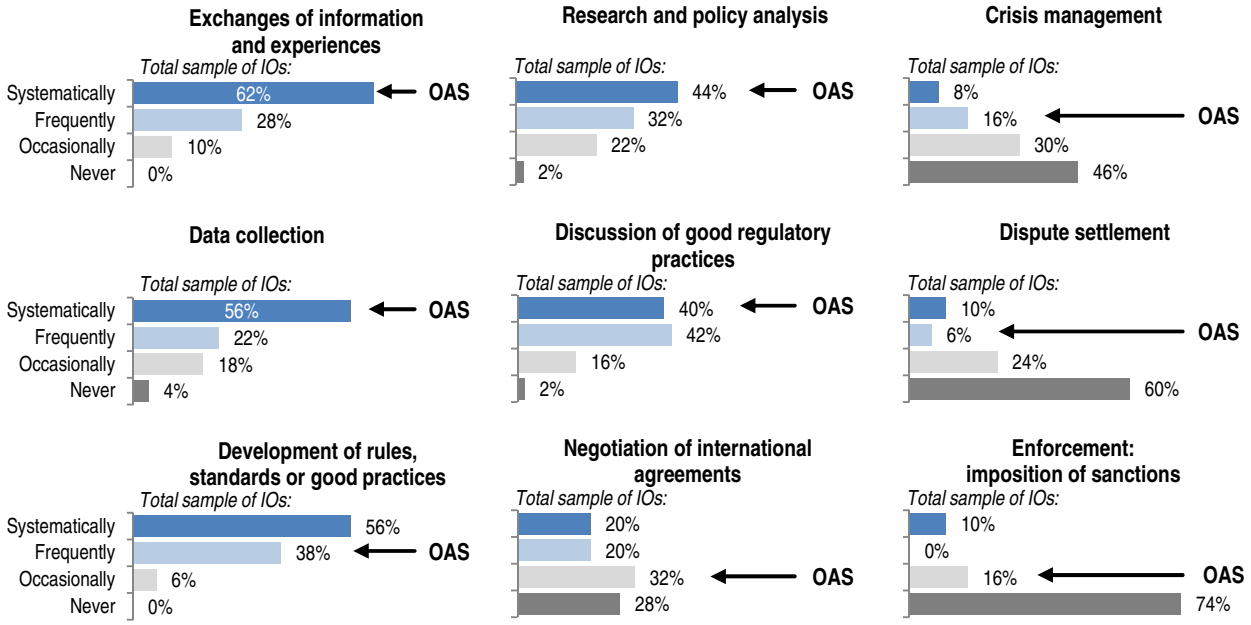
The current permanent observers are: Albania, Algeria, Angola, Armenia, Austria, Azerbaijan, Belgium, Benin, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Bulgaria, China (People's Republic of), Croatia, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Denmark, Egypt, Equatorial Guinea, Estonia, European Union, Finland, Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, France, Georgia, Germany, Ghana, Greece, Holy See, Hungary, Iceland, India, Ireland, Israel, Italy, Japan, Kazakhstan, Korea, Latvia, Lebanon, Liechtenstein, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Malta, Monaco, Montenegro, Morocco, Netherlands, Nigeria, Norway, Pakistan, Philippines, Poland, Portugal, Qatar, Romania, Russia, Saudi Arabia, Serbia, Slovak Republic, Slovenia, Spain, Sri Lanka, Sweden, Switzerland, Thailand, Tunisia, Turkey, Ukraine, United Kingdom, Vanuatu, Yemen.

Mandate

The mandate of the OAS is to achieve among its Member States an order of peace and justice, to promote their solidarity, to strengthen their collaboration, and to defend their sovereignty, their territorial integrity, and their independence.

"The Organization of American States, in order to put into practice the principles on which it is founded and to fulfil its regional obligations under the Charter of the United Nations, proclaims the following essential purposes: a) to strengthen the peace and security of the continent; b) to promote and consolidate representative democracy, with due respect for the principle of non-intervention; c) to prevent possible causes of difficulties and to ensure the pacific settlement of disputes that may arise among the Member States; d) to provide for common action on the part of those States in the event of aggression; e) to seek the solution of political, juridical, and economic problems that may arise among them; f) to promote, by cooperative action, their economic, social, and cultural development; g) to eradicate extreme poverty, which constitutes an obstacle to the full democratic development of the peoples of the hemisphere; and h) to achieve an effective limitation of conventional weapons that will make it possible to devote the largest amount of resources to the economic and social development of the Member States". (Article 2 of the Charter of the OAS)

IRC processes that takes place within the Organization of American States



These figures show how each IO compares to other IOs in its IRC processes. The arrow situates the IO in the overall sample.

Categories of legal and policy instruments

	Is it taking place within the IO?	Approximate number
Treaties for ratification by States (excluding the funding one)	√	77
Legally binding decisions	√	14
Recommendations	√	
Political declarations	√	
Model treaties or law	√	
Production of technical standards		
Non-binding guidance/best practices document	√	

Interactions with other international organisations active in the field

Mechanisms of interaction		Approximate number of IOs involved	Examples
Develop joint instruments	√		
MoU or other agreements	√		
Participate in co-ordinating institution	√		United Nations, UNASUR, CAN, SICA, CARICOM
Joint meetings that provide forum for co-ordination	√		
Observe relevant actions of other bodies	√		
Exchange information	√		

OAS history

The OAS is the world's oldest regional organisation, dating back to the First International Conference of American States, held in Washington, D.C., from October 1889 to April 1890. That meeting approved the establishment of the International Union of American Republics, and the stage was set for the weaving of a web of provisions and institutions that came to be known as the inter-American system, the oldest international institutional system. The OAS came into being in 1948 with the signing in Bogotá, Colombia, of the Charter of the OAS, which entered into force in December 1951.

Source of Figures and Tables: OECD Survey 2015.

Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD)

Key features

Type of organisation: Inter-governmental organisation

Charter/Constitution: Convention on the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD Convention), www.oecd.org/general/conventionontheorganisationforeconomicco-operationanddevelopment.htm

Membership:

- Nature: Representatives from governments
- Number: 35 members

Year of establishment: 1961

Headquarters: Paris, France

Country offices: Berlin (Germany), Mexico City (Mexico), Tokyo (Japan) and Washington, D.C. (United States)

Secretariat staff: 3 246 (2015)

Total budget: EUR 363 million (2016)

Type of activity: Policy dialogue, data collection and analysis, information exchange, development of legal instruments

Sectors of activity: All policy areas of economic relevance.

Webpage: www.oecd.org

Members

Australia, Austria, Belgium, Canada, Chile, Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Iceland, Ireland, Israel, Italy, Japan, Korea, Latvia, Luxembourg, Mexico, Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Slovak Republic, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey, United Kingdom, United States.

Relationship with non-members

The European Union participates in the work of the OECD pursuant to the Supplementary Protocol No. 1 to the OECD Convention.

Accession discussions have been launched with four countries: Colombia, Costa Rica, Lithuania and the Russian Federation.* The OECD conducts policy dialogue and capacity building activities with many countries and territories (i.e. Partners) beyond its membership, through such initiatives as Key Partners (Brazil, India, Indonesia, the People's Republic of China and South Africa), Country Programmes (with Kazakhstan, Peru and Morocco), Regional Approaches, OECD Global Fora and other global approaches to share best policy practices and to enrich the OECD's policy debate.

Observers

The OECD has multiple relations with other international organisations and institutions. In particular, the International Labour Organization, FAO, IMF, World Bank, IAEA, and many United Nations bodies are observers. In addition, the OECD is an active partner of the G20.

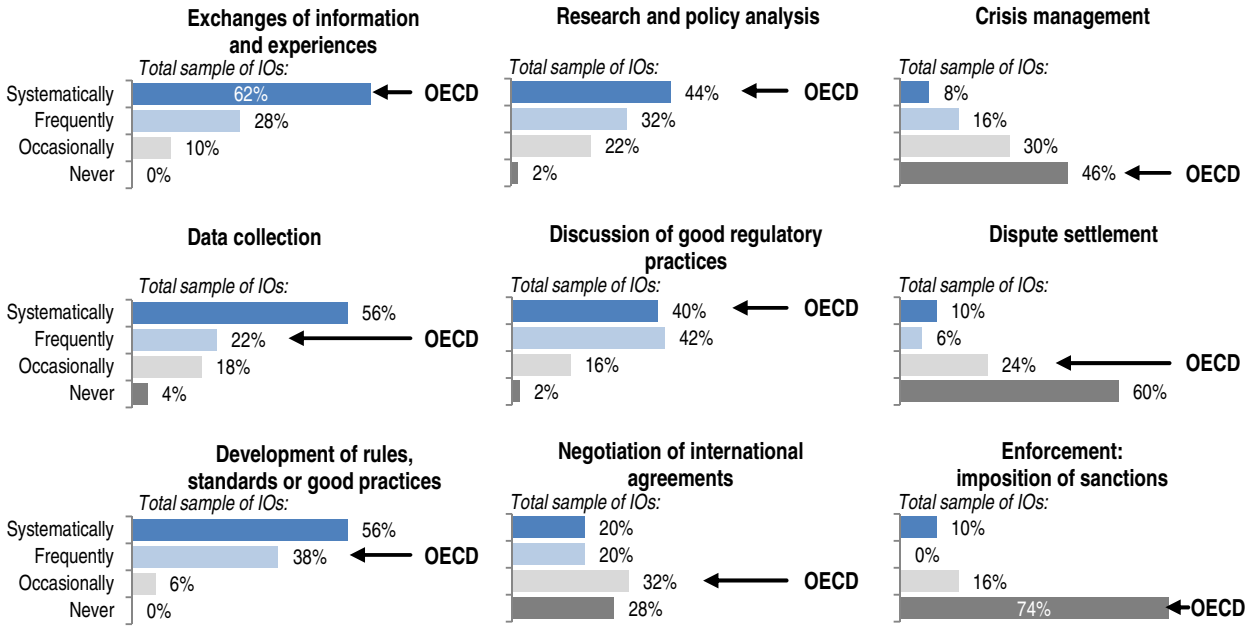
Mandate

The mandate of the OECD is to promote policies that will improve the economic and social well-being of people around the world.

"The aims of the Organisation shall be to promote policies designed: a) to achieve the highest sustainable economic growth and employment and a rising standard of living in member countries, while maintaining financial stability, and thus to contribute to the development of the world economy; b) to contribute to sound economic expansion in Member as well as non-member countries in the process of economic development; and c) to contribute to the expansion of world trade on a multilateral, non-discriminatory basis in accordance with international obligations." (Article 1 of the OECD Convention)

*. Following its meeting on 12 March 2014, the OECD Council postponed activities related to the OECD accession process for the Russian Federation for the time being.

IRC processes that take place within the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development



These figures show how each IO compares to other IOs in its IRC processes. The arrow situates the IO in the overall sample.

Categories of legal and policy instruments

	Is it taking place within the IO?	Approximate number
Treaties for ratification by States (excluding the funding one)	√	7
Legally binding decisions	√	30
Recommendations	√	191
Political declarations	√	32
Model treaties or law	√	2
Production of technical standards	√	
Non-binding guidance/best practices document	√	Many (exact number not available)

Interactions with other international organisations active in the field

Mechanisms of interaction		Approximate number of IOs involved	Examples
Develop joint instruments	√		
MoU or other agreements	√		
Participate in co-ordinating institution	√		World Bank, IMF, ASEAN, EU, ICANN, ISO
Joint meetings that provide forum for co-ordination	√		
Observe relevant actions of other bodies	√		
Exchange information	√		

OECD history

The Organisation for European Economic Co-operation (OEEC) was established in 1948 to run the US-financed Marshall Plan for reconstruction of a continent ravaged by war. By making individual governments recognise the interdependence of their economies, it paved the way for a new era of co-operation that was to change the face of Europe. Encouraged by its success and the prospect of carrying its work forward on a global stage, Canada and the United States joined OEEC members in signing the new OECD Convention on 14 December 1960. The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) was officially born on 30 September 1961, when the Convention entered into force.

Source of Figures and Tables: OECD Survey 2015.

World Organisation for Animal Health (OIE)

Key features

Type of organisation: Inter-governmental organisation

Charter/Constitution: International Agreement for the creation of an Office International des Epizooties, www.oie.int/en/about-us/key-texts/basic-texts/international-agreement-for-the-creation-of-an-office-international-des-epizooties/

Membership:

- Nature: Representatives from governments (generally from the ministry in charge of the veterinary authority)
- Number: 180 members

Year of establishment: 1924

Headquarters: Paris, France

Regional offices: Bamako (Mali), Buenos Aires (Argentina), Tokyo (Japan), Moscow (Russia), Beirut (Lebanon)

Sub-regional offices: Gaboronne,(Botswana), Tunis, (Tunisia), Nairobi (Kenya), Panama, Bangkok (Thailand), Brussels (Belgium), Astana (Kazakhstan)

Secretariat staff: 163 (2014)

Total budget: EUR 24 million (2014)

Type of activity: Policy dialogue, risk communications, data collection and analysis, information exchange, development of legal instruments, capacity building

Sectors of activity: Animal health (terrestrial, aquatic and wildlife), veterinary education, veterinary public health, food safety and animal welfare, international trade in animals and animal products, laboratory diagnostic methods, vaccine quality

Webpage: www.oie.int

Members

Afghanistan, Albania, Algeria, Andorra, Angola, Argentina, Armenia, Australia, Austria, Azerbaijan, Bahamas, Bahrain, Bangladesh, Barbados, Belarus, Belgium, Belize, Benin, Bhutan, Bolivia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Botswana, Brazil, Brunei Darussalam, Bulgaria, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cabo Verde, Cambodia, Cameroon, Canada, Central African Republic, Chad, Chile, China (People's Republic of), Colombia, Comoros, Congo, Costa Rica, Cote d'Ivoire, Croatia, Cuba, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Democratic People's Republic of Korea, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Denmark, Djibouti, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, Egypt, El Salvador, Equatorial Guinea, Eritrea, Estonia, Ethiopia, Fiji, Finland, Former Yug. Rep. Of Macedonia, France, Gabon, Gambia, Georgia, Germany, Ghana, Greece, Guatemala, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Guyana, Haiti, Honduras, Hungary, Iceland, India, Indonesia, Iran, Iraq, Ireland, Israel, Italy, Jamaica, Japan, Jordan, Kazakhstan, Kenya, Korea, Kuwait, Kyrgyzstan, Lao People's Democratic Republic, Latvia, Lebanon, Lesotho, Liberia, Libya, Liechtenstein, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Madagascar, Malawi, Malaysia, Maldives, Mali, Malta, Mauritania, Mauritius, Mexico, Micronesia, Moldova, Mongolia, Montenegro, Morocco, Mozambique, Myanmar, Namibia, Nepal, Netherlands, New Caledonia, New Zealand, Nicaragua, Niger, Nigeria, Norway, Oman, Pakistan, Panama, Papua New Guinea, Paraguay, Peru, Philippines, Poland, Portugal, Qatar, Romania, Russia, Rwanda, San Marino, Sao Tome and Principe, Saudi Arabia, Senegal, Serbia, Seychelles, Sierra Leone, Singapore, Slovakia, Slovenia, Somalia, South Africa, South Sudan, Spain, Sri Lanka, Sudan, Suriname, Swaziland, Sweden, Switzerland, Syrian Arab Republic, Chinese Taipei, Tajikistan, Tanzania, Thailand, Timor-Leste, Togo, Trinidad And Tobago, Tunisia, Turkey, Turkmenistan, Uganda, Ukraine, United Arab Emirates, United Kingdom, United States, Uruguay, Uzbekistan, Vanuatu, Venezuela, Vietnam, Yemen, Zambia, Zimbabwe.

Relationship with non-members

OIE has relationships with non-members for collection and validation of disease occurrence information.

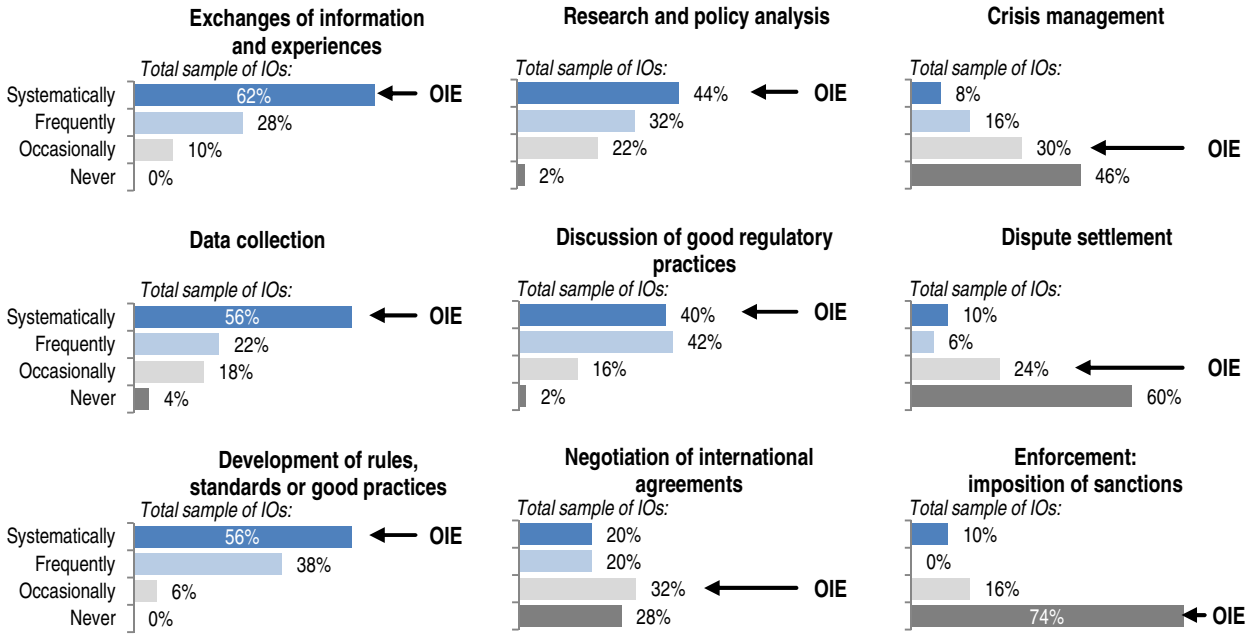
Observers

Honk Kong, Palestinian Autonomous Territories.

Mandate

The OIE is the inter-governmental organisation responsible for improving animal health worldwide. The mandate the OIE is to ensure transparency in the global animal disease situation; collect, analyse and disseminate veterinary scientific information; encourage international solidarity in the control of animal diseases; safeguard world trade by publishing health standards for international trade in animals and animal products; improve the legal framework and resources of national veterinary services; provide a better guarantee of food of animal origin and to promote animal welfare through a science-based approach. The adopted standards are recognised under the SPS agreement of the WTO/OMC.

IRC processes that take place within the World Organisation for Animal Health



These figures show how each IO compares to other IOs in its IRC processes. The arrow situates the IO in the overall sample.

Categories of legal and policy instruments

	Is it taking place within the IO?	Approximate number
Treaties for ratification by States (excluding the funding one)		
Legally binding decisions	√	
Recommendations	√	
Political declarations	√	
Model treaties or law	√	
Production of technical standards	√	347
Non-binding guidance/best practices document	√	

Interactions with other international organisations active in the field

Mechanisms of interaction		Approximate number of IOs involved	Examples
Develop joint instruments	√	6	Cooperation agreements with 70 IGOs and NGOs, such as WHO, FAO, WTO/OMC, WCO, IEC, European Union, AU (African Union), ASEAN (Association of Southeast Asian Nations), MERCOSUR (Southern Common Market), ECOWAS (Economic Community of West African States), SSAFE (Safe Supply of Affordable Food Everywhere), IDF (International Dairy Federation), FEI (Fédération Équestre Internationale)
MoU or other agreements	√	70	
Participate in co-ordinating institution	√		
Joint meetings that provide forum for co-ordination	√		
Observe relevant actions of other bodies	√		
Exchange information	√		

OIE history

In 1920, rinderpest occurred unexpectedly in Belgium, as a result of zebus, originating from India and destined for Brazil, transiting via the port of Antwerp with devastating economic and food security consequences. Despite the inevitable slowness of the negotiations undertaken through diplomatic channels, twenty-eight States obtained an international agreement on 25 January 1924 creating the Office International des Epizooties (OIE) based in Paris, reflecting a desire clearly expressed by the Secretary General of the League of Nations (replaced by the United Nations). In May 2003 the OIE became the World Organisation for Animal Health but kept its historical acronym OIE.

Source of Figures and Tables: OECD Survey 2015.

International Organisation of La Francophonie (OIF)

Key features

Type of organisation: Inter-governmental organisation

Charter/Constitution: Charte de la francophonie, www.francophonie.org/IMG/pdf/charte_francophonie.pdf

Membership:

- Nature: Representatives from governments
- Number: 54 members

Year of establishment: 1970

Headquarters: Paris, France

Country offices: permanent representations in Addis Ababa (Ethiopia), Brussels (Belgium), New York (United States) and Geneva (Switzerland)

Regional offices: Lomé (Togo), Libreville (Gabon) and Hanoi (Vietnam); and regional antennas in Bucharest (Romania) and in Port-au-Prince (Haiti)

Secretariat staff: 290 (2014)

Total budget: EUR 70 million (2014)

Type of activity: Policy dialogue, data collection and analysis, information exchange, development of legal instruments

Sectors of activity: Culture, economy, linguistic diversity, democracy and peace, intercultural dialogue, education, sustainable development

Webpage: www.francophonie.org

Members

Albania, Principality of Andorra, Armenia, Kingdom of Belgium, French Community of Belgium, Benin, Bulgaria, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cambodia, Cameroon, Canada, Canada-New-Brunswick, Canada-Quebec, Cape Verde, Central African Republic, Chad, Comoros, Congo, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Djibouti, Dominica, Egypt, Equatorial Guinea, Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, France, Gabon, Greece, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Haiti, Ivory Coast, Lao People's Democratic Republic, Lebanon, Luxembourg, Madagascar, Mali, Morocco, Mauritius, Mauritania, Moldova, Monaco, Niger, Romania, Rwanda, Saint Lucia, Säo Tomé and Principe, Senegal, Seychelles, Switzerland, Togo, Tunisia, Vanuatu, Viet Nam.

Central African Republic is currently suspended.

Ghana, Qatar and Cyprus are Associate Members.

Relationship with non-members

The OIF has partnerships with countries outside the Francophonie and with other international organisations such as the UN, the OECD and the European Union.

Observers

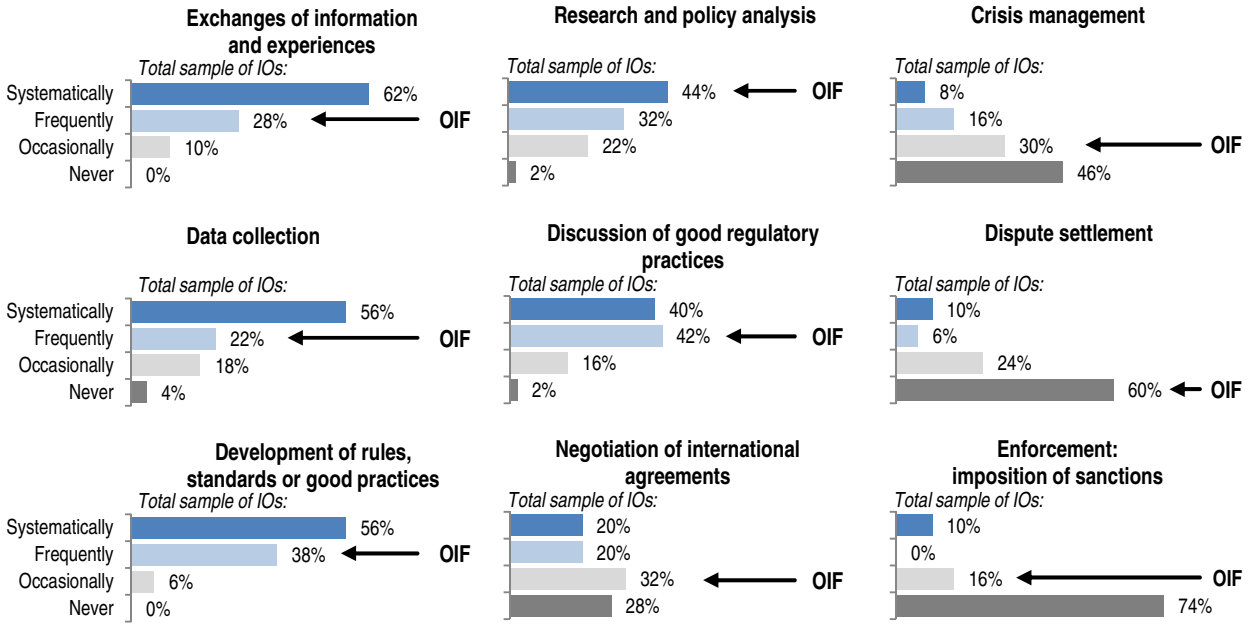
The OIF has also 23 Observers: Austria, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Costa Rica, Croatia, Czech Republic, Dominican Republic, Estonia, Georgia, Hungary, Kosovo, Latvia, Lithuania, Mexico, Montenegro, Mozambique, Poland, Serbia, Slovakia, Slovenia, Thailand, Ukraine, United Arab Emirates, Uruguay. Thailand is currently suspended.

Mandate

The mandate of OIF is to embody the active solidarity between its 80 Member States and governments (54 members, 3 associate members and 23 observers).The OIF represents one of the biggest linguistic zones in the world. Its members share more than just a common language. They also share the humanist values promoted by the French language.

The OIF "aims to help: the introduction and development of democracy in the prevention, management and resolution of conflicts, and support the rule of law and human rights; the intensification of dialogue between cultures and civilizations; bringing the peoples closer through mutual understanding; the strengthening of their solidarity through multilateral co-operation to promote the development of their economies; the promotion of education and training", Article 1, Charte de la Francophonie.

IRC processes that take place within the International Organisation of La Francophonie



These figures show how each IO compares to other IOs in its IRC processes. The arrow situates the IO in the overall sample.

Categories of legal and policy instruments

	Is it taking place within the IO?	Approximate number
Treaties for ratification by States (excluding the funding one)		
Legally binding decisions		
Recommendations	√	5
Political declarations	√	3
Model treaties or law		
Production of technical standards		
Non-binding guidance/best practices document	√	10

Interactions with other international organisations active in the field

Mechanisms of interaction		Approximate number of IOs involved	Examples
Develop joint instruments	√		United Nations, UNESCO, European Centre for Contemporary Art Actions (CEEAC), UEMOA, CEMAC
MoU or other agreements	√		
Participate in co-ordinating institution	√		
Joint meetings that provide forum for co-ordination	√		
Observe relevant actions of other bodies	√		
Exchange information	√		

OIF history

The history of OIF started in 1970 when 21 countries signed a treaty establishing the Agency of Cultural and Technical Cooperation (ACCT), an international organisation representing French-speaking countries. During a Summit in Hanoi (Vietnam) in 1997 the organisation adopted the "Charte de la Francophonie" which acted as new charter of the organisation. The "Charte" was then revised in 2005 by the Ministerial Conference in Antananarivo (Madagascar) when the organisation adopted its current name of International Organisation of La Francophonie (OIF).

Source of Figures and Tables: OECD Survey 2015.

International Organization of Legal Metrology (OIML)

Key features

Type of organisation: Inter-governmental organisation

Charter/Constitution: Convention establishing an International Organisation of Legal Metrology, www.oiml.org/en/files/pdf_b/b001-e68.pdf

Membership:

- Nature: The members are states, whose governments designate a formal representative (generally from departments/ministries responsible for legal metrology or the national legal metrology institute)
- Number: 61 members, 63 corresponding members and 1 corresponding member organisation (July 2016)

Year of establishment: 1955

Headquarters: Paris, France

Secretariat staff: 9 (2016)

Total budget: EUR 2.1 million (2015)

Type of activity: Policy dialogue, information exchange, development of legal instruments (standard-setting), mutual acceptance schemes

Sectors of activity: Legal metrology, especially in the areas of trade, health, safety and environment

Webpage: www.oiml.org

Members

Albania, Algeria, Australia, Austria, Belarus, Belgium, Brazil, Bulgaria, Cameroon, Canada, China (People's Republic of), Colombia, Croatia, Cuba, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Denmark, Egypt, Finland, Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, India, Indonesia, Iran, Ireland, Israel, Italy, Japan, Kazakhstan, Kenya, Korea, Monaco, Morocco, Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Pakistan, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Russia, Saudi Arabia, Serbia, Slovakia, Slovenia, South Africa, Spain, Sri Lanka, Sweden, Switzerland, Tanzania, Thailand, Tunisia, Turkey, United Kingdom, United States, Viet Nam, Zambia.

Relationship with non-members

As of July 2016, the OIML has 63 Corresponding Members, i.e. countries or economies that cannot, or do not yet wish to become Member States, but are interested in the work of the OIML and participate in it: Angola, Argentina, Azerbaijan, Bahrain, Bangladesh, Barbados, Benin, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Botswana, Cambodia, Costa Rica, Democratic People's Republic of Korea, Dominican Republic, Estonia, Fiji, Gabon, Georgia, Ghana, Guatemala, Guinea, Hong Kong (China), Iceland, Iraq, Jordan, Kuwait, Kyrgyzstan, Latvia, Liberia, Libya, Lithuania, Luxemburg, Madagascar, Malawi, Malaysia, Malta, Mauritius, Mexico, Moldova, Mongolia, Montenegro, Mozambique, Namibia, Nepal, Oman, Panama, Papua New Guinea, Paraguay, Peru, Qatar, Rwanda, Seychelles, Sierra Leone, Singapore, Chinese Taipei, Trinidad And Tobago, Uganda, Ukraine, United Arab Emirates, Uruguay, Uzbekistan, Yemen, Zimbabwe, and one Corresponding Member organization: the West African Economic and Monetary Union (UEMOA).

Non-members may also benefit from access to capacity-building initiatives supported by OIML, in particular those promoted by Regional Metrology Organisations.

Observers

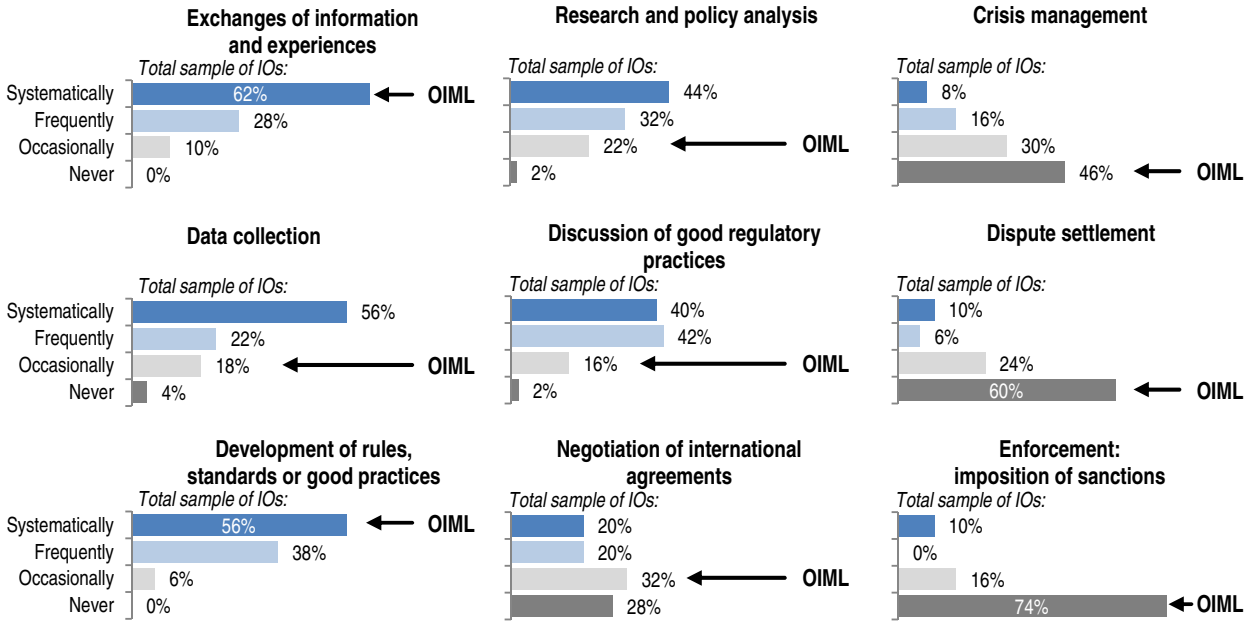
Organisations with which OIML has signed formal Memoranda of Understanding are invited to send observers to the annual CIML meeting and frequently do so. Regional Legal Metrology Organisations and representatives on international business organisations active in the legal metrology area also have the opportunity to participate. In addition representatives from a wide range of liaison organisations participate in the "technical work" of developing standards on a project by project basis.

Mandate

The OIML is an inter-governmental treaty organisation which acts as an international standard-setting body.

"The mission of the OIML is to enable economies to put in place effective legal metrology infrastructures that are mutually compatible and internationally recognised, for all areas for which governments take responsibility, such as those which facilitate trade, establish mutual confidence and harmonise the level of consumer protection worldwide." (OIML B 15:2011, OIMLStrategy)

IRC processes that take place within the International Organization of Legal Metrology



These figures show how each IO compares to other IOs in its IRC processes. The arrow situates the IO in the overall sample.

Categories of legal and policy instruments

	Is it taking place within the IO?	Approximate number
Treaties for ratification by States (excluding the funding one)		
Legally binding decisions		
Recommendations	√	140
Political declarations		
Model treaties or law	√	1
Production of technical standards	√	
Non-binding guidance/best practices document	√	52

Interactions with other international organisations active in the field

Mechanisms of interaction		Approximate number of IOs involved	Examples
Develop joint instruments	√		UNIDO, WTO/OMC, WMO, EU, ISO, IEC, and regional legal metrology organisations, such as European Cooperation in Legal Metrology (WELMEC), Asia-Pacific Legal Metrology Forum (APLMF), Euro-Asian Cooperation of National Metrology Institutions (COOMET). OIML signed specific MoUs with IEC, ISO, UNIDO and Bureau International des Poids et Mesures (BIPM), ILAC and IAF
MoU or other agreements	√		
Participate in co-ordinating institution			
Joint meetings that provide forum for co-ordination	√		
Observe relevant actions of other bodies	√		
Exchange information	√		

OIML history

The International Organization of Legal Metrology (OIML) was established under a diplomatic treaty signed in Paris on 12 October 1955 to promote the global harmonisation of legal metrology procedures that underpin and facilitate international trade. Such harmonisation ensures that certification of measuring devices in one country is compatible with certification in another, thereby facilitating trade in the measuring devices and in products that rely on the measuring devices. The OIML complies with the WTO/OMC accepted principles for international standardization.

Source of Figures and Tables: OECD Survey 2015.

International Organisation of Vine and Wine (OIV)

Key features

Type of organisation: Inter-governmental organisation

Charter/Constitution: Agreement of 3 April 2001 establishing the International Organisation of Vine and Wine, www.oiv.int/public/medias/2197/en-oiv-accord-20010403.pdf

Membership:

- Nature: Representatives from governments
- Number: 46 members

Year of establishment: 2001

Headquarters: Paris (France)

Secretariat staff: 14 (2015)

Total budget: EUR 2 million (2015)

Type of activity: Data collection and analysis, information exchange, development of legal instruments

Sectors of activity: Vines, wine, wine-based beverages, table grapes, raisins and other vine-based products

Webpage: www.oiv.int

Members

Algeria, Argentina, Armenia, Australia, Austria, Azerbaijan, Belgium, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Brazil, Bulgaria, Chile, Croatia, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Finland, Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, France, Georgia, Germany, Greece, Hungary, India, Israel, Italy, Lebanon, Luxembourg, Malta, Moldova, Montenegro, Morocco, Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Peru, Portugal, Romania, Russia, Serbia, Slovak Republic, Slovenia, South Africa, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey, Uruguay.

Relationship with non-members

The OIV develops relationship with any third parties interested i.e. with P.R. China about wine additives, or with Japan and the United States about registration of vine varietal names.

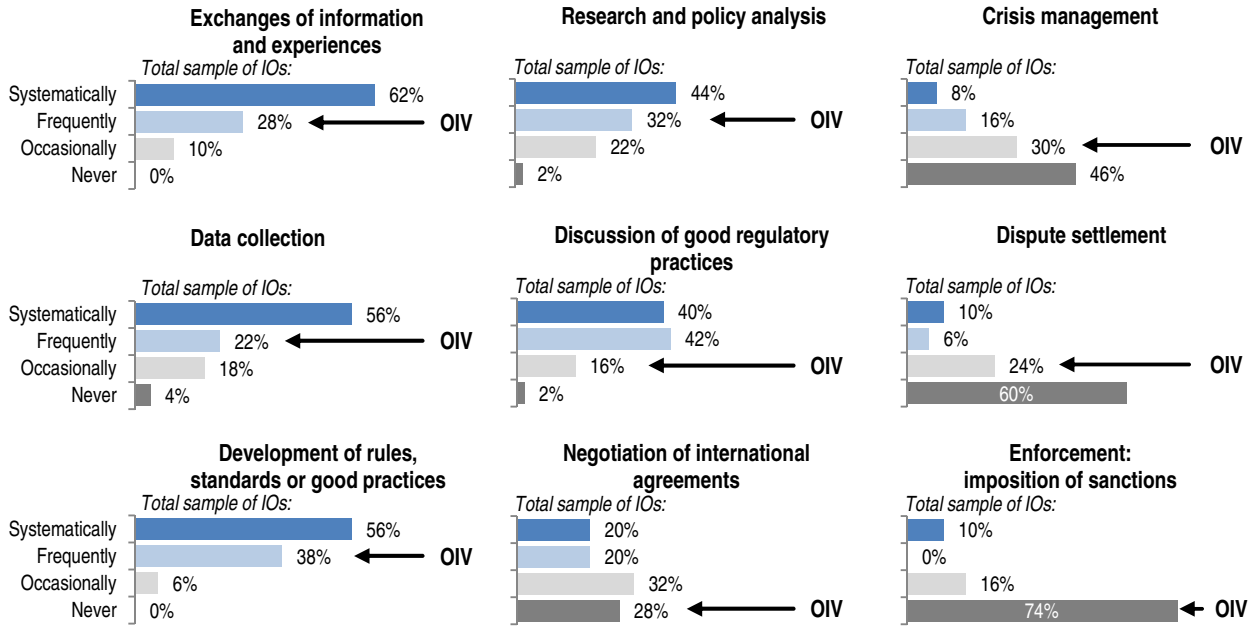
Observers

The OIV enables some territories and organisations to participate in the OIV works as observers: International Wine Law Association (AIDV), Amorim Academy, Assembly of Wine-Producing European Regions (AREV), Association de la Sommellerie Internationale (ASI), International University Association of Wine (AUIV), Centre for Research Environmental Sustainability and Advancement of Mountain Viticulture (CERVIM), Codex Alimentarius, International Federation of Wines and Spirits (FIVS), Oenological Products and Practices International Association (OENOPPIA), Union Internationale des Œnologues (UIOE), World Federation of Major International Wine and Spirits Competitions (VINOFED), Wine in Moderation (WIM), WIPO, Prefecture-level municipality of Yantaï (China), Ningxia Hui autonomous region (China).

Mandate

The objectives of the OIV shall be as follows: a) to inform its members of measures whereby the concerns of producers, consumers and other players in the vine and wine products sector may be taken into consideration; b) to assist other international organisations, both inter-governmental and non-governmental, especially those which carry out standardisation activities; c) to contribute to international harmonisation of existing practices and standards and, as necessary, to the preparation of new international standards in order to improve the conditions for producing and marketing vine and wine products, and to help ensure that the interests of consumers are taken into account.

IRC processes that take place within the International Organisation of Vine and Wine



These figures show how each IO compares to other IOs in its IRC processes. The arrow situates the IO in the overall sample.

Categories of legal and policy instruments

	Is it taking place within the IO?	Approximate number
Treaties for ratification by States (excluding the funding one)		
Legally binding decisions		
Recommendations (Resolutions)	√	1 189 between 1927 and 2015
Political declarations		
Model treaties or law		
Production of technical standards	√	
Non-binding guidance/best practices document	√	

Interactions with other international organisations active in the field

Mechanisms of interaction		Approximate number of IOs involved	Examples
Develop joint instruments	√	3	UPOV, OIML, Codex Alimentarius
MoU or other agreements	√	2	CIHEAM, FAO
Participate in co-ordinating institution	√	3	FAO, WIPO, Codex Alimentarius
Joint meetings that provide forum for co-ordination	√	2	FAO, Codex Alimentarius
Observe relevant actions of other bodies	√	2	WIPO, Codex Alimentarius
Exchange information	√	4	FAO, Codex Alimentarius, WIPO, CIHEAM

OIV history

On 29 November 1924, Spain, Tunisia, France, Portugal, Hungary, Luxembourg, Greece and Italy signed an Agreement concerning the creation in Paris. After four years of preparatory work focusing on revising the international Agreement of 29 November 1924 establishing the International Vine and Wine Office, the fourth session of the International Conference of member, that was held on 3 April 2001, stated the new International Agreement establishing the "International Organisation of Vine and Wine". (OIV)

Source of Figures and Tables: OECD Survey 2015.

Organization for the Prohibition of Chemical Weapons (OPCW)

Key features

Type of organisation: United Nations Related Organization

Charter/Constitution: Convention on the Prohibition of the Development, Production, Stockpiling and Use of Chemical Weapons and on their Destruction, www.opcw.org/chemical-weapons-convention

Membership:

- Nature: Representatives from governments
- Number: 192 members

Year of establishment: 1997

Headquarters: The Hague, Netherlands

Secretariat staff: 464 (2014)

Total budget: EUR 69 million (2015)

Type of activity: Policy dialogue, data collection and analysis, information exchange, development of legal instruments

Sectors of activity: Chemical industry, disarmament and non-proliferation of chemical weapons

Webpage: www.opcw.org

Members

Afghanistan, Albania, Algeria, Andorra, Angola, Antigua and Barbuda, Argentina, Armenia, Australia, Austria, Azerbaijan, Bahamas, Bahrain, Bangladesh, Barbados, Belarus, Belgium, Belize, Benin, Bhutan, Bolivia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Botswana, Brazil, Brunei Darussalam, Bulgaria, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cabo Verde, Cambodia, Cameroon, Canada, Central African Republic, Chad, Chile, China (People's Republic of), Colombia, Comoros, Congo, Cook Islands, Costa Rica, Côte d'Ivoire, Croatia, Cuba, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Denmark, Djibouti, Dominica, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Equatorial Guinea, Eritrea, Estonia, Ethiopia, Fiji, Finland, Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, France, Gabon, Gambia, Georgia, Germany, Ghana, Greece, Grenada, Guatemala, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Guyana, Haiti, Holy See, Honduras, Hungary, Iceland, India, Indonesia, Iran, Iraq, Ireland, Italy, Jamaica, Japan, Jordan, Kazakhstan, Kenya, Kiribati, Korea, Kuwait, Kyrgyzstan, Lao People's Democratic Republic, Latvia, Lebanon, Lesotho, Liberia, Libya, Liechtenstein, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Madagascar, Malawi, Malaysia, Maldives, Mali, Malta, Marshall Islands, Mauritania, Mauritius, Mexico, Micronesia, Moldova, Monaco, Mongolia, Montenegro, Morocco, Mozambique, Myanmar, Namibia, Nauru, Nepal, Netherlands, New Zealand, Nicaragua, Niger, Nigeria, Niue, Norway, Oman, Pakistan, Palau, Panama, Papua New Guinea, Paraguay, Peru, Philippines, Poland, Portugal, Qatar, Romania, Russia, Rwanda, Saint Kitts and Nevis, Saint Lucia, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, Samoa, San Marino, São Tomé e Príncipe, Saudi Arabia, Senegal, Serbia, Seychelles, Sierra Leone, Singapore, Slovakia, Slovenia, Solomon Islands, Somalia, South Africa, Spain, Sri Lanka, Sudan, Suriname, Swaziland, Sweden, Switzerland, Syrian Arab Republic, Tajikistan, Tanzania, Thailand, Timor-Leste, Togo, Tonga, Trinidad and Tobago, Tunisia, Turkey, Turkmenistan, Tuvalu, Uganda, Ukraine, United Arab Emirates, United Kingdom, United States, Uruguay, Uzbekistan, Vanuatu, Venezuela, Viet Nam, Yemen, Zambia, Zimbabwe.

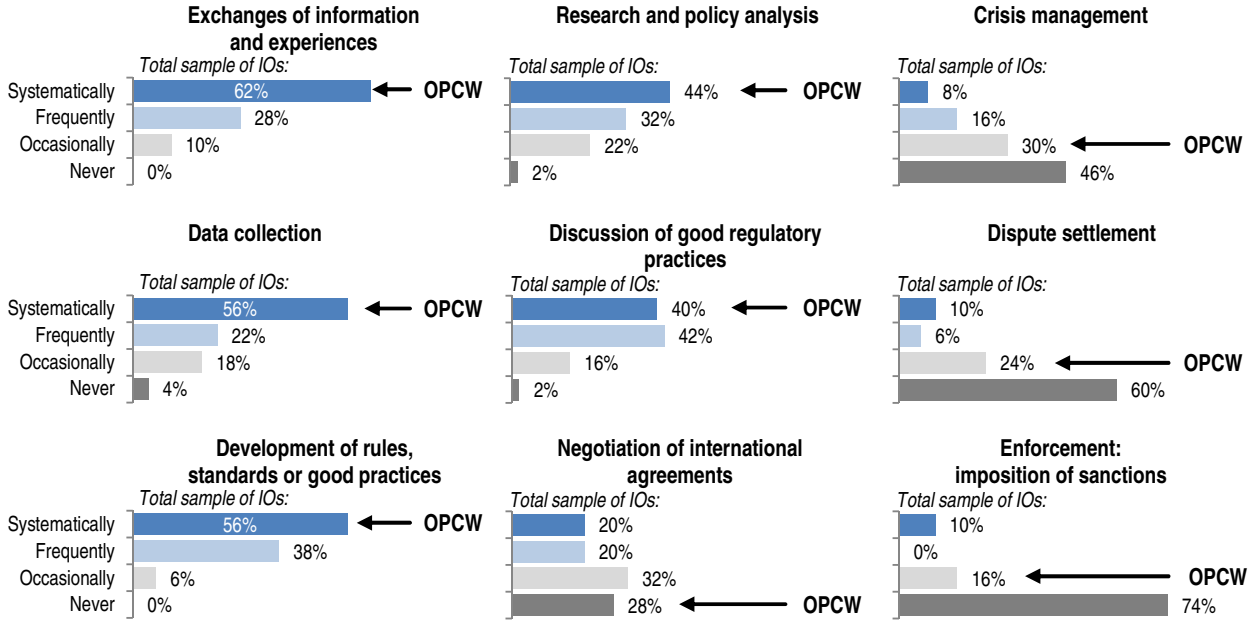
Relationship with non-members

Only Democratic People's Republic of Korea, Egypt, Israel and South Sudan are not part of OPCW. Of these, Israel is a signatory of the OPCW Chemical Weapons Convention.

Mandate

The OPCW Member States share the collective goal of preventing chemistry from ever again being used for warfare, thereby strengthening international security. To this end, the Convention contains four key provisions: a) Destroying all existing chemical weapons under international verification by the OPCW; b) Monitoring chemical industry to prevent new weapons from re-emerging; c) Providing assistance and protection to States Parties against chemical threats; d) Fostering international co-operation to strengthen implementation of the Convention and promote the peaceful use of chemistry. In 2013, in recognition of its extensive efforts to eliminate chemical weapons, the OPCW was awarded the Nobel Peace Prize.

IRC processes that take place within the Organization for the Prohibition of Chemical Weapons



These figures show how each IO compares to other IOs in its IRC processes. The arrow situates the IO in the overall sample.

Categories of legal and policy instruments

	Is it taking place within the IO?	Approximate number
Treaties for ratification by States (excluding the funding one)		
Legally binding decisions	√	11
Recommendations	√	
Political declarations	√	
Model treaties or law	√	1
Production of technical standards		
Non-binding guidance/best practices document	√	

Interactions with other international organisations active in the field

Mechanisms of interaction		Approximate number of IOs involved	Examples
Develop joint instruments	√	1	United Nations, WCO, IAEA, ASEAN (Association of Southeast Asian Nations), European Union, CARICOM, AU (African Union), chemical industry associations, professional associations, NGOs, etc.
MoU or other agreements	√	3	
Participate in co-ordinating institution	√	2	
Joint meetings that provide forum for co-ordination	√	4	
Observe relevant actions of other bodies	√	3	
Exchange information	√	6	

OPCW history

The OPCW is the implementing body of the Chemical Weapons Convention, which entered into force on 29 April 1997. With the entry into force of the Convention, the OPCW immediately began its work to implement the Convention. Every five years, the Convention foresees that the States Parties should undertake a review of the implementation process. These review conferences serve as fora for the assessment and evaluation of the Chemical Weapons Convention's implementation, and the identification of areas where change is needed.

Source of Figures and Tables: OECD Survey 2015.

Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe (OSCE)

Key features

Type of organisation: Inter-governmental organisation

Charter/Constitution: The OSCE does not have a charter or a constitution, but relies on a series of political documents, including the Helsinki Final Act (www.osce.org/mc/39501), the Charter of Paris for a New Europe (www.osce.org/mc/39516), the Helsinki Document 1992 and the Charter for European Security (www.osce.org/mc/17502)

Membership:

- Nature: Representatives from governments
- Number: 57 members

Year of establishment: 1994, 1975 for the Conference on Security and Co-operation in Europe (CSCE)

Headquarters: Vienna, Austria

Country offices: 3 autonomous institutions in Warsaw (Poland), Vienna (Austria) and The Hague (Netherlands) and 17 field operation offices

Secretariat staff: 2 364 (entire organisation, including headquarters, field operations and 3 related institutions)

Total budget: EUR 141 million (2015)

Type of activity: Policy dialogue, data collection and analysis, confidence and security building measures, capacity-building, crisis management

Sectors of activity: Arms control and CSBMs, border management, countering transnational threats, economic and environmental aspects of security, human dimension of security, conflict prevention and resolution

Webpage: www.osce.org

Members

Albania, Andorra, Austria, Azerbaijan, Armenia, Belarus, Bulgaria, Belgium, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Canada, Cyprus, Croatia, Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, France, Georgia, Germany, Greece, Holy See, Hungary, Iceland, Italy, Ireland, Kyrgyzstan, Kazakhstan, Liechtenstein, Latvia, Luxembourg, Lithuania, Malta, Moldova, Mongolia, Monaco, Montenegro, Norway, Netherlands, Portugal, Poland, Romania, Russia, San Marino, Slovenia, Switzerland, Serbia, Slovakia, Spain, Sweden, Turkey, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan, United Kingdom, United States, Ukraine, Uzbekistan.

Relationship with non-members

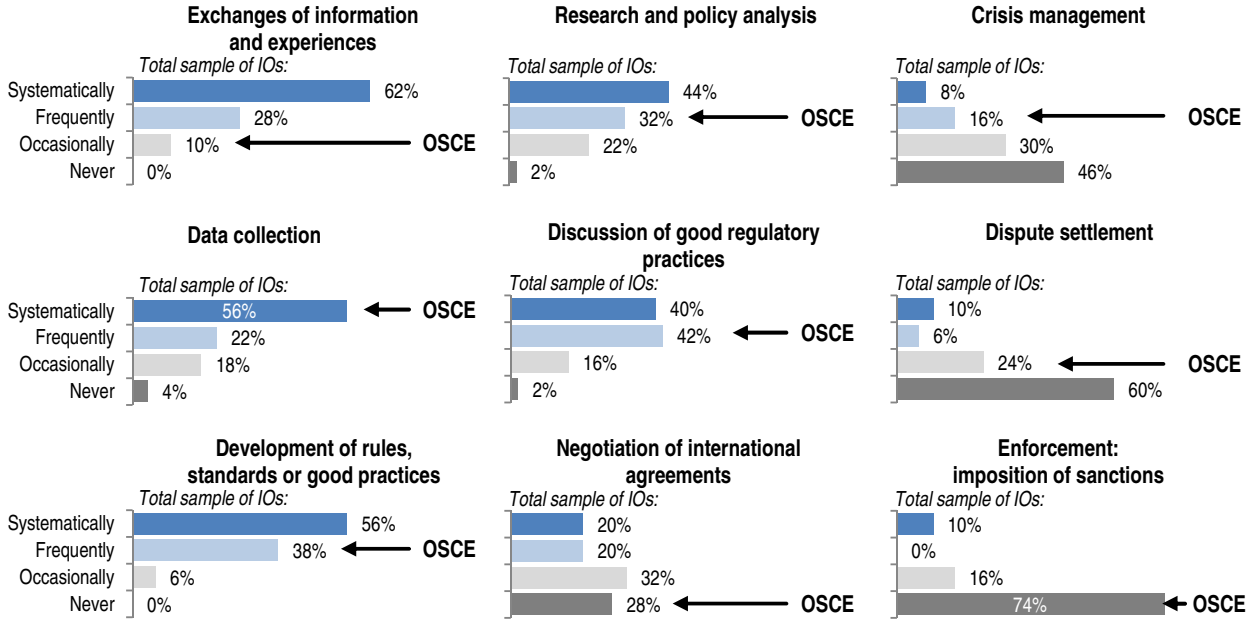
The OSCE maintains a regular dialogue and co-operation with 11 Partner States: Afghanistan, Algeria, Australia, Egypt, Israel, Japan, Jordan, Morocco, Korea, Thailand and Tunisia.

The OSCE Secretariat and the respective Chairs of Contact Groups with the Mediterranean and Asian Partners are responsible for maintaining the relationship with the Partners for co-operation, and for the planning and organisation of regular events with the Partners, including an annual Mediterranean Seminar and an annual joint conference with an Asian Partner.

Mandate

The OSCE has a comprehensive approach to security that encompasses politico-military, economic and environmental, and human aspects. It therefore addresses a wide range of security-related concerns, including arms control, confidence- and security-building measures, human rights, national minorities, democratisation, policing strategies, counter-terrorism and economic and environmental activities. All 57 participating States enjoy equal status, and decisions are taken by consensus on a politically, but not legally binding basis.

IRC processes that take place within the Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe



These figures show how each IO compares to other IOs in its IRC processes. The arrow situates the IO in the overall sample.

Categories of legal and policy instruments

	Is it taking place within the IO?	Approximate number
Treaties for ratification by States (excluding the funding one)	√	1
Legally binding decisions (Decisions)		
Recommendations		
Political declarations	√	
Model treaties or law		
Production of technical standards		
Non-binding guidance/best practices document	√	

Interactions with other international organisations active in the field

Mechanisms of interaction		Approximate number of IOs involved	Examples
Develop joint instruments	√		The OSCE maintains a regular dialogue and co-operation with a large number of IOs, regional and sub-regional organisations, such as: European Union, CoE (Council of Europe), NATO,UNODC, UNECE, UNDP, CIS (Commonwealth of Independent States), CSTO (Collective Security Treaty Organization)
MoU or other agreements	√		
Participate in co-ordinating institution	√		
Joint meetings that provide forum for co-ordination	√	15	
Observe relevant actions of other bodies	√		
Exchange information	√	15	

OSCE history

The OSCE traces its origins to the early 1970s, when the Conference on Security and Co-operation in Europe (CSCE) was created to serve as a multilateral forum for dialogue and negotiation between East and West. The CSCE reached agreement on the Helsinki Final Act, which was signed on 1 August 1975. With the end of the Cold War, the Paris Summit of November 1990 set the CSCE on a new course. In the Charter of Paris for a New Europe, the CSCE was called upon to play its part in managing the historic change taking place in Europe and responding to the new challenges of the post-Cold War period, which led to its acquiring permanent institutions and operational capabilities. As part of this institutionalisation process, the name was changed from the CSCE to the OSCE in 1994.

Source of Figures and Tables: OECD Survey 2015.

Intergovernmental Organisation for International Carriage by Rail (OTIF)

Key features

Type of organisation: Inter-governmental organisation

Charter/Constitution: Convention concerning International Carriage (COTIF), www.otif.org/en/about-otif/conventions-cotif.html

Membership:

- Nature: Representatives from governments
- Number: 49 members

Year of establishment: 1985

Headquarters: Berne, Switzerland

Secretariat staff: 19 (2015)

Total budget: CHF 3.5 million (EUR 3.2 million) (2015)

Type of activity: Data collection, information exchange, development of legal instruments

Sectors of activity: Carriage by rail (International carriage of passengers and goods, carriage of dangerous goods, carriage vehicles, railway infrastructure, railway material, international rail traffic)

Webpage: www.otif.org

Members

Albania, Algeria, Armenia, Austria, Azerbaijan, Belgium, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Bulgaria, Croatia, Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, France, Germany, Georgia, Greece, Hungary, Iran, Iraq, Ireland, Italy, Latvia, Lebanon, Liechtenstein, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Monaco, Montenegro, Morocco, Netherlands, Norway, Pakistan, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Russia, Serbia, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Syrian Arab Republic, Tunisia, Turkey, Ukraine, United Kingdom.

The OTIF has one Associate Member: Jordan; and one adhering Regional economic integration organisation: the European Union.

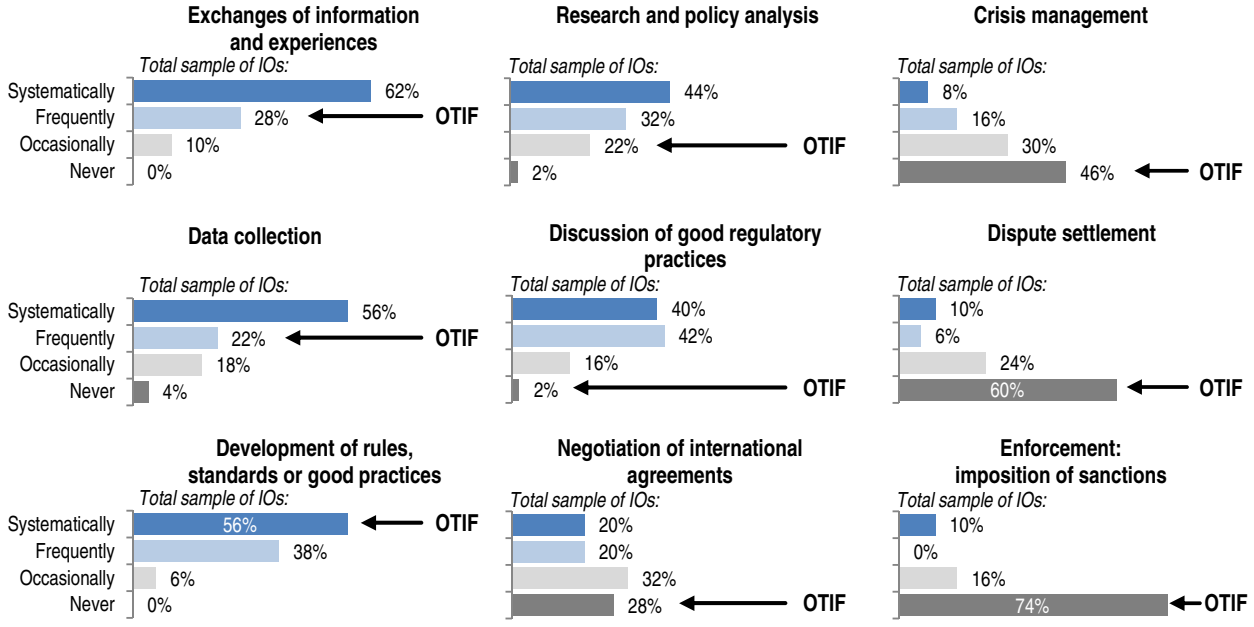
Observers

OTIF has no permanent observers. Stakeholders in the rail sector, international associations of transporters, customers and non OTIF Member States are regularly invited to participate in the meetings of OTIF bodies and working groups.

Mandate

The aim of OTIF is to promote, improve and facilitate international rail traffic, in particular by establishing and developing systems of uniform law in the contract of international carriage of passengers and goods in international rail traffic, in the contract of use of wagons as means of transport in international rail traffic, in the contract of use of infrastructure in international rail traffic, and the carriage of dangerous goods in international rail traffic; by contributing to the removal of certain obstacles to the crossing of frontiers in international rail traffic; by contributing to interoperability and technical harmonisation in the rail sector; by establishing a uniform procedure for the technical admission of railway material intended for use in international traffic; by monitoring the application of all the rules and recommendations established by the organisation.

IRC processes that take place within the Intergovernmental Organisation for International Carriage by Rail



These figures show how each IO compares to other IOs in its IRC processes. The arrow situates the IO in the overall sample.

Categories of legal and policy instruments

	Is it taking place within the IO?	Approximate number
Treaties for ratification by States (excluding the funding one)		
Legally binding decisions	√	
Recommendations	√	
Political declarations		
Model treaties or law		
Production of technical standards		
Non-binding guidance/best practices document	√	

Interactions with other international organisations active in the field

Mechanisms of interaction		Approximate number of IOs involved	Examples
Develop joint instruments	√		
MoU or other agreements	√		
Participate in co-ordinating institution	√		
Joint meetings that provide forum for co-ordination	√		
Observe relevant actions of other bodies	√		
Exchange information	√		

OTIF history

The OTIF was set up on 1 May 1985, pursuant to the Convention concerning International Carriage by Rail (COTIF) which was concluded in 1980. The predecessor of OTIF was the Central Office for International Carriage by Rail, which was set up in 1893. Until the signature of the Protocol of 3 June 1999 (Vilnius Protocol) for the modification of COTIF, the objective of OTIF was principally to develop the uniform systems of law which apply to the carriage of passengers and freight in international through traffic by rail.

Source of Figures and Tables: OECD Survey 2015.

Secretariat for the Vienna Convention and its Montreal Protocol – Ozone Layer (OZONE)

Key features

Type of organisation: Secretariat of convention

Charter/Constitution: Vienna Convention (Article 7) and Montreal Protocol (Article 12), http://ozone.unep.org/en/treaties-and-decisions/vienna-convention-protection-ozone-layer, http://ozone.unep.org/en/treaties-and-decisions/montreal-protocol-substances-deplete-ozone-layer

Membership:

- Nature: Governments
- Number: 197 parties

Year of establishment: 1985 (Vienna Convention was adopted in 1985, Montreal Protocol was adopted in 1987)

Headquarters: Nairobi, Kenya

Secretariat staff: 16 (2014)

Total budget: EUR 6.4 million (2015)

Type of activity: Policy dialogue, policy-science interface, data collection and analysis, information exchange, development of legal instruments, compliance

Sectors of activity: Phase out of production and consumption of listed ozone-depleting substances under the Montreal Protocol on Substances that Deplete the Ozone Layer in order to protect human health and the environment

Webpage: www.ozone.unep.org

Members

Afghanistan, Albania, Algeria, Andorra, Angola, Antigua and Barbuda, Argentina, Armenia, Australia, Austria, Azerbaijan, Bahamas, Bahrain, Bangladesh, Barbados, Belarus, Belgium, Belize, Benin, Bhutan, Bolivia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Botswana, Brazil, Brunei Darussalam, Bulgaria, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cabo Verde, Cambodia, Cameroon, Canada, Central African Republic, Chad, Chile, China (People's Republic of), Colombia, Comoros, Congo, Cook Island, Costa Rica, Côte d'Ivoire, Croatia, Cuba, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Democratic People's Republic of Korea, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Denmark, Djibouti, Dominica, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, Egypt, El Salvador, Equatorial Guinea, Eritrea, Estonia, Ethiopia, European Union, Fiji, Finland, Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, France, Gabon, Gambia, Georgia, Germany, Ghana, Greece, Grenada, Guatemala, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Guyana, Haiti, Holy See, Honduras, Hungary, Iceland, India, Indonesia, Iran, Iraq, Ireland, Israel, Italy, Jamaica, Japan, Jordan, Kazakhstan, Kenya, Kiribati, Korea, Kuwait, Kyrgyzstan, Lao People's Democratic Republic, Latvia, Lebanon, Lesotho, Liberia, Libya, Liechtenstein, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Madagascar, Malawi, Malaysia, Maldives, Mali, Malta, Marshall Islands, Mauritania, Mauritius, Mexico, Micronesia, Moldova, Monaco, Mongolia, Montenegro, Morocco, Mozambique, Myanmar, Namibia, Nauru, Nepal, Netherlands, New Zealand, Nicaragua, Niger, Nigeria, Niue, Norway, Oman, Pakistan, Palau, Panama, Papua New Guinea, Paraguay, Peru, Philippines, Poland, Portugal, Qatar, Romania, Russia, Rwanda, Saint Kitts and Nevis, Saint Lucia, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, Samoa, San Marino, Sao Tome and Principe, Saudi Arabia, Senegal, Serbia, Seychelles, Sierra Leone, Singapore, Slovakia, Slovenia, Solomon Islands, Somalia, South Africa, South Sudan, Spain, Sri Lanka, Sudan, Suriname, Swaziland, Sweden, Switzerland, Syrian Arab Republic, Tajikistan, Tanzania, Thailand, Timor-Leste, Togo, Tonga, Trinidad and Tobago, Tunisia, Turkey, Turkmenistan, Tuvalu, Uganda, Ukraine, United Arab Emirates, United Kingdom, United States, Uruguay, Uzbekistan, Vanuatu, Venezuela, Viet Nam, Yemen, Zambia, Zimbabwe.

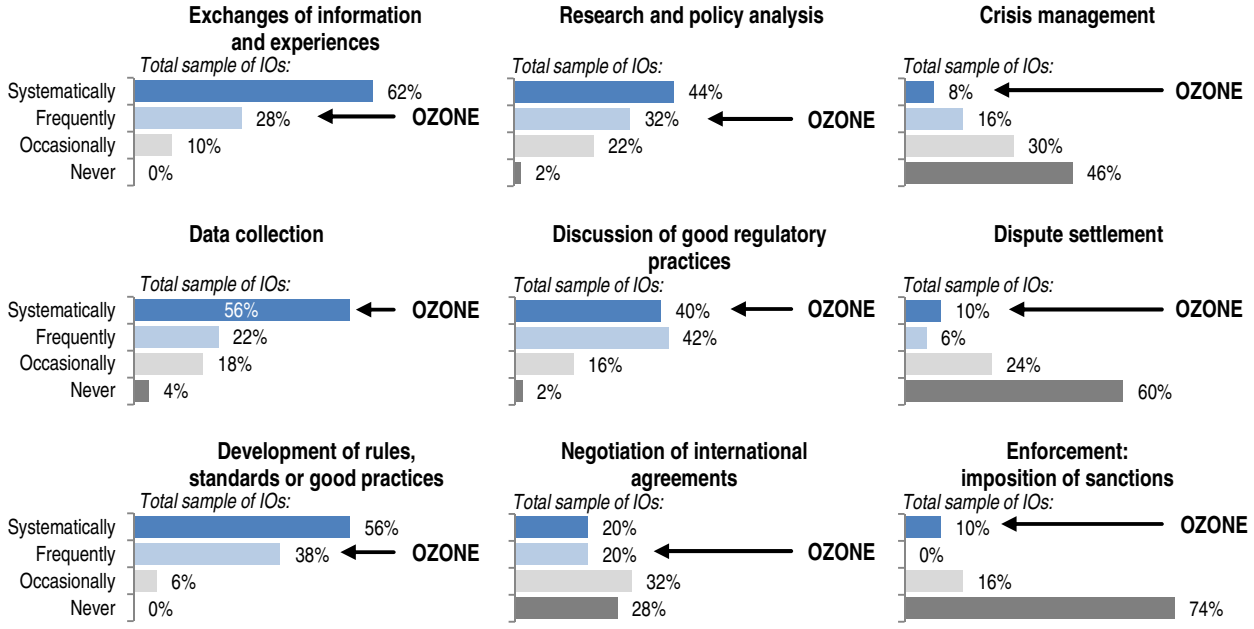
Observers

Over 80 observers, including IGOs, NGOs, Industry.

Mandate

The Ozone Secretariat (OZONE) is the Secretariat for the Vienna Convention for the Protection of the Ozone Layer and for the Montreal Protocol on Substances that Deplete the Ozone Layer. The mission of the Ozone Secretariat is to facilitate and support the Parties to the Vienna Convention and the Montreal Protocol and other stakeholders as appropriate, in implementing actions to protect and heal the ozone layer against adverse impacts resulting from its modification, thus protecting human health and the environment, including minimising impacts on climate.

IRC processes that take place within the Secretariat for the Vienna Convention and its Montreal Protocol – Ozone Layer



These figures show how each IO compares to other IOs in its IRC processes. The arrow situates the IO in the overall sample.

Categories of legal and policy instruments

	Is it taking place within the IO?	Approximate number
Treaties for ratification by States (excluding the funding one)	√	6
Legally binding decisions	√	Over 550
Recommendations	√	Over 400
Political declarations	√	28
Model treaties or law		
Production of technical standards		
Non-binding guidance/best practices document		

Interactions with other international organisations active in the field

Mechanisms of interaction		Approximate number of IOs involved	Examples
Develop joint instruments			UNDP, UNEP, UNIDO, World Bank, WMO, UNFCCC (United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change)
MoU or other agreements	√	About 5	
Participate in co-ordinating institution	√		
Joint meetings that provide forum for co-ordination	√	2	
Observe relevant actions of other bodies	√	About 15	
Exchange information	√	About 10	

OZONE history

In 1981 negotiations started on the first international convention for the protection of Earth's ozone layer. The Vienna Convention for the Protection of the Ozone Layer was agreed upon at the Vienna Conference of 1985 and entered into force in 1988. The convention contained pledges to co-operate in research and monitoring, to share information on chlorofluorocarbons production and emissions and to adopt control protocols if and when warranted. The Montreal Protocol on Substances that Deplete the Ozone Layer (a protocol to the Vienna Convention for the Protection of the Ozone Layer) is an international treaty designed to protect the ozone layer by phasing out the production of numerous substances that are responsible for ozone depletion. It was agreed on 16 September 1987, and entered into force on 1 January 1989.

Source of Figures and Tables: OECD Survey 2015.

Pharmaceutical Inspection Co-operation Scheme (PIC/S)

Key features

Type of organisation: Trans-governmental network

Charter/Constitution: Pharmaceutical Inspection Co-operation Scheme, www.picscheme.org/documents/pics0195_rev5_picscheme.pdf

Membership:

- Nature: National Regulatory Authorities
- Number: 48 members

Year of establishment: 1995

Headquarters: Geneva, Switzerland

Secretariat staff: 4 (2014)

Total budget: EUR 600 000 (2015)

Type of activity: Information exchange, development of standards and best practices, training for inspectors and for other technical experts, benchmarking (assessment and reassessment of National Regulatory Authorities)

Sectors of activity: Good manufacturing practice for medicinal products for human or veterinary use

Webpage: www.picscheme.org

Members

Argentina (INAME), Australia (TGA), Austria (AGES), Belgium (AFMPS), Canada (HPFBI), Croatia (HALMED), Cyprus (CyPHS), Czech Republic (SÚKL and ISCVBM), Denmark (DHMA), Estonia (SAM), Finland (FIMEA), France (ANSM and ANMV), Germany (BMG and ZLG), Greece (EOF), Hong Kong (China) (PPBHK), Hungary (NIPN), Iceland (IMA), Indonesia (NADFC), Ireland (HPRA), Israel (ISCP), Italy (AIFA), Japan (MHLW and PMDA), Korea (MFDS), Latvia (ZVA), Liechtenstein (AG), Lithuania (SMCA), Malaysia (NPCB), Malta (MAM), Netherlands (IGZ), New Zealand (Medsafe), Norway (NOMA), Poland (MPI), Portugal (INFARMED IP), Romania (NAMMD), Singapore (HSA), Slovak Republic (SIDC), Slovenia (JAZMP), South Africa (MCC), Spain (AEMPS), Sweden (MPA), Switzerland (Swissmedic), Chinese Taipei (TFDA), Ukraine (SAUMP), United Kingdom (MHRA and VMD), United States (US FDA).

The German Ministry of Health (BMG) and the German Central Authority of the Laender (ZLG) count as one PIC/S member; similarly, the Japan's Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare (MHLW) and the Japan's Pharmeuticals and Medical Devices Agency (PMDA) count as one PIC/S Participating Authority.

Relationship with non-members

Six National Regulatory Authorities are in the accession process: Brazil (ANVISA), Iran (MoH), Mexico (COFEPRIS), Philippines (PFDA), Thailand (Thai FDA), Turkey (TMMDA).

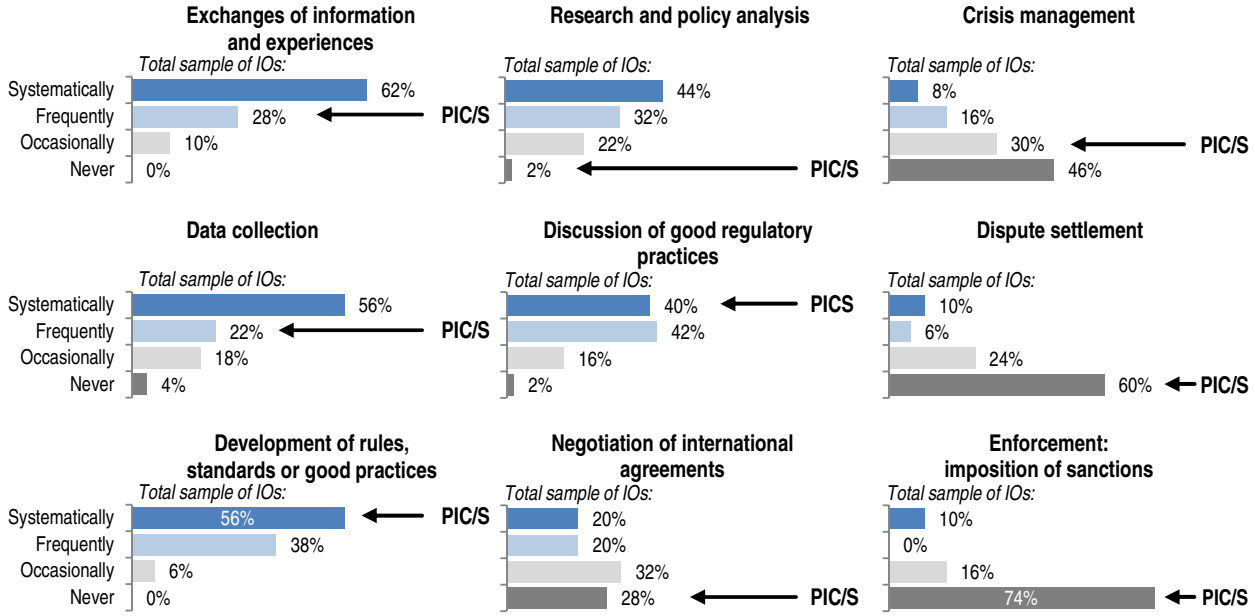
Observers

Four international organisations are observers: EDQM (European Directorate for the Quality of Medicines & HealthCare), EMA (European Medicines Agency), UNICEF (United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund) and WHO.

Mandate

The purpose of the PIC/S is, with due regard to public health: to pursue and strengthen the co-operation established between the participating authorities in the field of inspection and related areas with a view to maintaining the mutual confidence and promoting quality assurance of inspections; to provide the framework for all necessary exchange of information and experience; to co-ordinate mutual training for inspectors and for other technical experts in related fields; to continue common efforts towards the improvement and harmonisation of technical standards and procedures regarding the inspection of the manufacture of medicinal products and the testing of medicinal products by official control laboratories; to continue common efforts for the development, harmonisation and maintenance of good manufacturing practice, and to extend the co-operation to other competent authorities having the national arrangements necessary to apply equivalent standards and procedures with a view to contributing to global harmonisation.

IRC processes that take place within the Pharmaceutical Inspection Co-operation Scheme



These figures show how each IO compares to other IOs in its IRC processes. The arrow situates the IO in the overall sample.

Categories of legal and policy instruments

	Is it taking place within the IO?	Approximate number
Treaties for ratification by States (excluding the funding one)		
Legally binding decisions		
Recommendations	√	19
Political declarations		
Model treaties or law		
Production of technical standards	√	1
Non-binding guidance/best practices document	√	6

Interactions with other international organisations active in the field

Mechanisms of interaction		Approximate number of IOs involved	Examples
Develop joint instruments			PIC/S has multiple relations with other IOs, institutions, pharmaceutical industries and professional associations, such as UNICEF, WHO
MoU or other agreements	√	4	
Participate in co-ordinating institution			ASEAN (Association of Southeast Asian Nations), EMA (European Medicines Agency), IFPMA (International Federation of Pharmaceutical Manufacturers and Associations), EFPIA (European Federation of Pharmaceutical Industries and Associations), etc.
Joint meetings that provide forum for co-ordination			
Observe relevant actions of other bodies	√	2	
Exchange information	√	4	

PIC/S history

The Pharmaceutical Inspection Convention (PIC) was founded in October 1970 by the European Free Trade Association (EFTA) under the title of "The Convention for the Mutual Recognition of Inspections in Respect of the Manufacture of Pharmaceutical Products". It was realised in the early 1990s that because of an incompatibility between the Convention and European law, it was not possible for new countries to be admitted as members of PIC. Consequently, the PIC Scheme was formed on 2 November 1995. PIC and the PIC Scheme, which operate together in parallel, are jointly referred to as PIC/S.

Source of Figures and Tables: OECD Survey 2015.

Strategic Approach to International Chemicals Management (SAICM)

Key features

Type of organisation: Trans-governmental network

Charter/Constitution: Dubai Declaration on International Chemicals Management, the Overarching Policy Strategy and the Global Plan of Action, www.saicm.org/images/saicm_documents/saicm%20texts/SAICM_publication_ENG.pdf

Membership:

- Nature: Multi-stakeholders. Open to all stakeholders of chemicals and waste (governments, IGOs and NGOs, industry, science, academia, etc.)
- Number: 293 members

Year of establishment: 2006

Headquarters: Geneva, Switzerland

Secretariat staff: 6 (2015)

Total budget: USD 2.7 million (about EUR 2.6 million) (2013)

Type of activity: Policy dialogue, data collection and analysis, information exchange

Sectors of activity: Environmental, economic, social, health and labour aspects of chemical safety, agricultural and industrial chemicals

Webpage: www.saicm.org

Members

The membership (called "Focal points") of SAICM is open to all Governments, inter-governmental organisations (IGOs), non-governmental organisations (NGOs), Industry, Science, Academia, etc. Currently it is composed by 180 national governments, 17 IGOs, 96 NGOs, the Palestinian Authority and the European Commission.

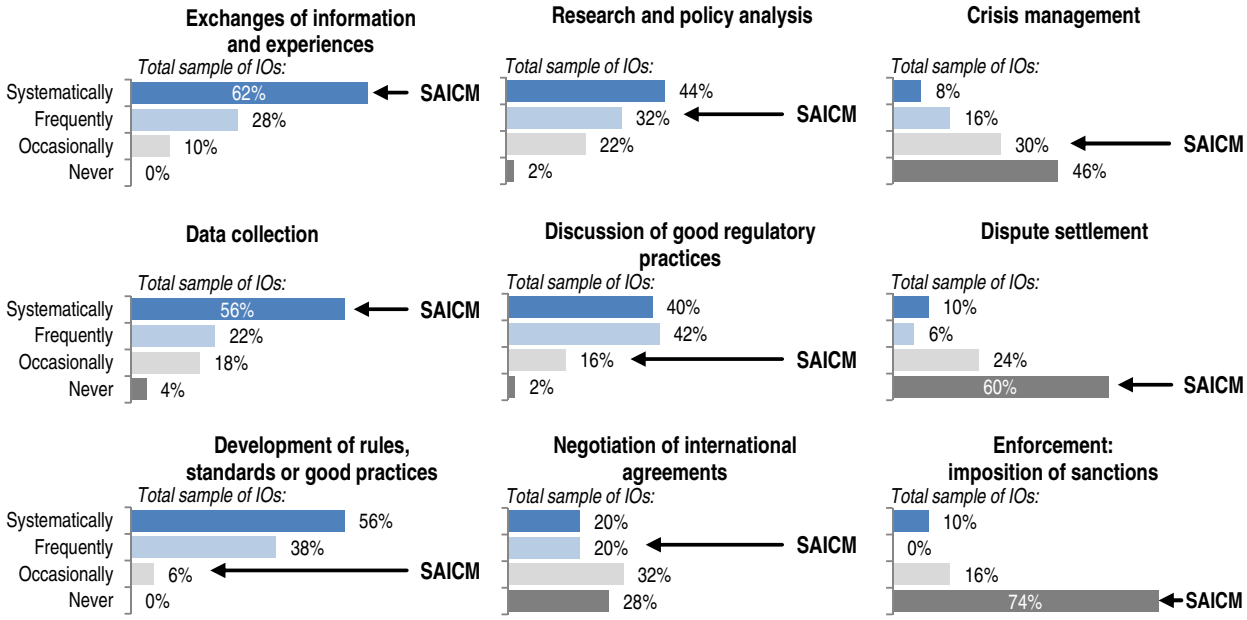
The 180 national governments part of SAICM's membership are: Afghanistan, Albania, Algeria, Angola, Antigua and Barbuda, Argentina, Armenia, Australia, Austria, Azerbaijan, Bahamas, Bahrain, Bangladesh, Barbados, Belarus, Belgium, Belize, Benin, Bhutan, Bolivia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Botswana, Brazil, Bulgaria, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cambodia, Cameroon, Canada, Central African Republic, Chad, Chile, China (People's Republic of), Colombia, Comoros, Congo, Cook Islands, Costa Rica, Côte d'Ivoire, Croatia, Cuba, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Democratic People's Republic of Korea, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Denmark, Djibouti, Dominica, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, Egypt, El Salvador, Eritrea, Estonia, Ethiopia, Fiji, Finland, Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, France, Gabon, Gambia, Georgia, Germany, Ghana, Greece, Guatemala, Guinea Bissau, Guinea, Guyana, Haiti, Honduras, Hungary, Iceland, India, Indonesia, Iran, Iraq, Israel, Italy, Jamaica, Japan, Jordan, Kazakhstan, Kenya, Kiribati, Korea, Kuwait, Kyrgyz Republic, Lao People's Democratic Republic, Latvia, Lebanon, Lesotho, Liberia, Libya, Liechtenstein, Lithuania, Madagascar, Malawi, Malaysia, Maldives, Mali, Marshall Islands, Mauritania, Mauritius, Mexico, Moldova, Monaco, Mongolia, Morocco, Mozambique, Myanmar, Namibia, Nauru, Nepal, Netherlands, New Zealand, Nicaragua, Niger, Nigeria, Norway, Oman, Pakistan, Palau, Panama, Papua New Guinea, Paraguay, Peru, Philippines, Poland, Portugal, Qatar, Romania, Russia, Rwanda, Saint Kitts and Nevis, Saint Lucia, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, Samoa, Sao Tome and Principe, Saudi Arabia, Senegal, Serbia, Seychelles, Sierra Leone, Slovak Republic, Slovenia, Solomon Islands, South Africa, Spain, Swaziland, Sweden, Switzerland, Syrian Arab Republic, Tajikistan, Tanzania, Thailand, Togo, Tonga, Trinidad And Tobago, Tunisia, Turkey, Tuvalu, Uganda, Ukraine, United Arab Emirates, United Kingdom, United States, Uruguay, Uzbekistan, Vanuatu, Venezuela, Viet Nam, Yemen, Zambia, Zimbabwe.

The 17 IGOs part of SAICM's membership are: APEC, CCAD (Comision Centro American de Ambiente y Desarollo), CDAC (Comité Inter-état des Pesticide de l'Afrique Centrale), FAO, ILO, IOMC (Inter-organization Programme for the Sound Management of Chemicals), OHCHR (Office of the United Nations high Commissioner for Human Rights), OECD, OAS, Secretariat of the Basel Rotterdam and Stockholm Conventions, UNDP, UNECE, UNEP, UNICRI (United Nations Inter-regional Crime and Justice Research Institute), UNIDO, UNITAR (United Nations Institute for Training and Research) and WHO.

Mandate

The Strategic Approach to International Chemicals Management (SAICM) is a policy framework to promote chemical safety around the world. SAICM has as its overall objective the achievement of the sound management of chemicals throughout their life cycle so that, by 2020, chemicals are produced and used in ways that minimise significant adverse impacts on human health and the environment.

IRC processes that take place within the Strategic Approach to International Chemicals Management



These figures show how each IO compares to other IOs in its IRC processes. The arrow situates the IO in the overall sample.

Categories of legal and policy instruments

	Is it taking place within the IO?	Approximate number
Treaties for ratification by States (excluding the funding one)		
Legally binding decisions		
Recommendations	√	Several
Political declarations	√	1
Model treaties or law		
Production of technical standards		
Non-binding guidance/best practices document	√	1

Interactions with other international organisations active in the field

Mechanisms of interaction	Approximate number of IOs involved	Examples
Develop joint instruments	√	IOMC (Inter-organization Programme for the Sound Management of Chemicals), EU, ICCA (International Council of Chemical Associations), IPEN (International Persistent Organic Pollutants Elimination Network)
MoU or other agreements	√	
Participate in co-ordinating institution	√	
Joint meetings that provide forum for co-ordination	√	
Observe relevant actions of other bodies	√	
Exchange information	√	

SAICM history

The issue of chemicals management and the idea of SAICM have been discussed by the UNEP Governing Council and reflected in various forms since the mid-1990s. On 6 February 2006 the International Conference on Chemicals Management (ICCM) adopted the Strategic Approach to International Chemicals Management (SAICM) to foster the sound management of chemicals. SAICM was developed by a multi-stakeholder and multi-sectorial Preparatory Committee and supports the achievement of the goal agreed at the 2002 Johannesburg World Summit on Sustainable Development of ensuring that, by the year 2020, chemicals are produced and used in ways that minimise significant adverse impacts on the environment and human health.

Source of Figures and Tables: OECD Survey 2015.

United Nations Development Programme (UNDP)

Key features of UNDP overall

Type of organisation: United Nations Programme

Charter/Constitution: n.a.

Membership:

- Nature: Representatives from governments
- Number: 193 members

Year of establishment: 1965

Headquarters: New York, United States

Country offices: 135

Representation offices: Washington, D.C. (United States), Brussels (Belgium), Copenhagen (Denmark), Tokyo (Japan), Geneva (Switzerland)

Regional offices: Amman (Jordan), Bangkok Thailand), Istanbul (Turkey), Suva (Fiji), Panamá (Panama)

Secretariat staff: 8 000 (2014)

Total budget: EUR 3.2 billion (2014)

Type of activity: Policy dialogue, data collection and analysis, and training programmes for developing countries

Sectors of activity: Sustainable development, democratic governance and peacebuilding, climate and disaster resilience

Webpage: www.undp.org

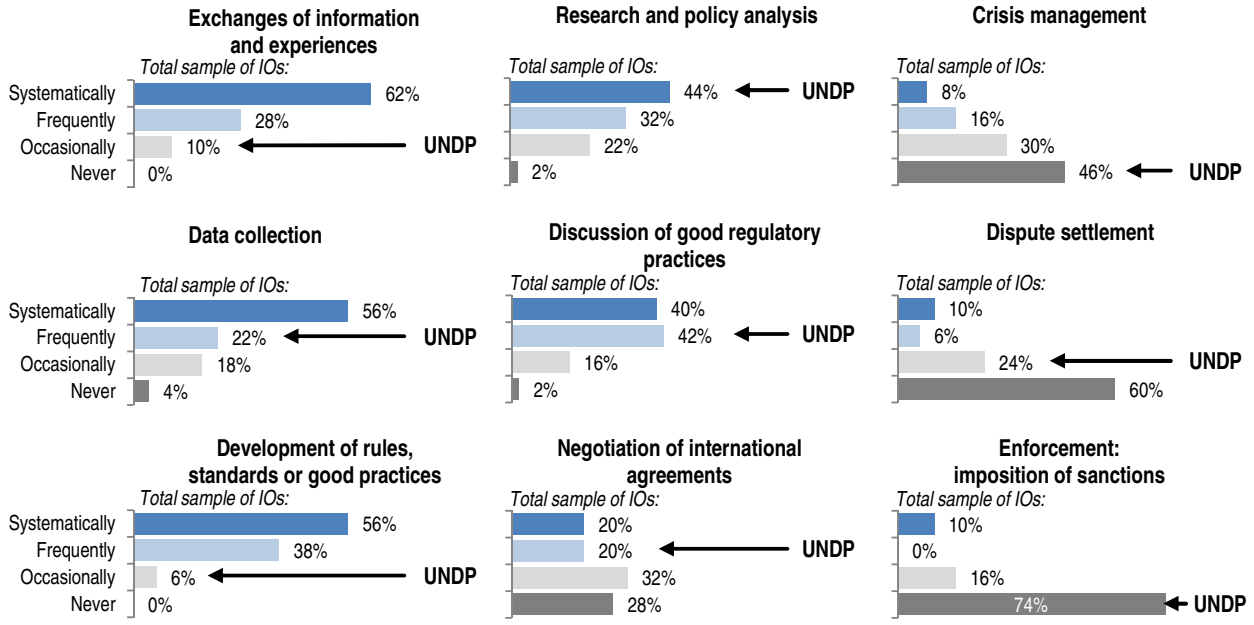
Members

Afghanistan, Albania, Algeria, Andorra, Angola, Antigua and Barbuda, Argentina, Armenia, Australia, Austria, Azerbaijan, Bahamas, Bahrain, Bangladesh, Barbados, Belarus, Belgium, Belize, Benin, Bhutan, Bolivia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Botswana, Brazil, Brunei Darussalam, Bulgaria, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cabo Verde, Cambodia, Cameroon, Canada, Central African Republic, Chad, Chile, China (People's Republic of), Colombia, Comoros, Congo, Costa Rica, Côte d'Ivoire, Croatia, Cuba, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Democratic People's Republic of Korea, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Denmark, Djibouti, Dominica, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, Egypt, El Salvador, Equatorial Guinea, Eritrea, Estonia, Ethiopia, Fiji, Finland, Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, France, Gabon, Gambia, Georgia, Germany, Ghana, Greece, Grenada, Guatemala, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Guyana, Haiti, Honduras, Hungary, Iceland, India, Indonesia, Iran, Iraq, Ireland, Israel, Italy, Jamaica, Japan, Jordan, Kazakhstan, Kenya, Kiribati, Korea, Kuwait, Kyrgyzstan, Lao People's Democratic Republic, Latvia, Lebanon, Lesotho, Liberia, Libya, Liechtenstein, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Madagascar, Malawi, Malaysia, Maldives, Mali, Malta, Marshall Islands, Mauritania, Mauritius, Mexico, Micronesia, Moldova, Monaco, Mongolia, Montenegro, Morocco, Mozambique, Myanmar, Namibia, Nauru, Nepal, Netherlands, New Zealand, Nicaragua, Niger, Nigeria, Norway, Oman, Pakistan, Palau, Panama, Papua New Guinea, Paraguay, Peru, Philippines, Poland, Portugal, Qatar, Romania, Russia, Rwanda, Saint Kitts and Nevis, Saint Lucia, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, Samoa, San Marino, Sao Tome and Principe, Saudi Arabia, Senegal, Serbia, Seychelles, Sierra Leone, Singapore, Slovakia, Slovenia, Solomon Islands, Somalia, South Africa, South Sudan, Spain, Sri Lanka, Sudan, Suriname, Swaziland, Sweden, Switzerland, Syrian Arab Republic, Tajikistan, Tanzania, Thailand, Timor-Leste, Togo, Tonga, Trinidad and Tobago, Tunisia, Turkey, Turkmenistan, Tuvalu, Uganda, Ukraine, United Arab Emirates, United Kingdom, United States, Uruguay, Uzbekistan, Vanuatu, Venezuela, Viet Nam, Yemen, Zambia, Zimbabwe.

Mandate

As the specialised agency of the United Nations focusing on Development, UNDP has a mandate of supporting countries in their development path, and co-ordinating the UN System at the country level. The UNDP works in more than 170 countries and territories, helping to achieve the eradication of poverty, and the reduction of inequalities and exclusion. UNDP helps countries to develop policies, leadership skills, partnering abilities, institutional capabilities and build resilience in order to sustain development results.

IRC processes that take place within the UNDP Water and Ocean Governance Programme*



These figures show how each IO compares to other IOs in its IRC processes. The arrow situates the IO in the overall sample.

Categories of legal and policy instruments*

	Is it taking place within the IO?	Approximate number
Treaties for ratification by States (excluding the funding one)		
Legally binding decisions		
Recommendations		
Political declarations	√	
Model treaties or law	√	
Production of technical standards		
Non-binding guidance/best practices document	√	

Interactions with other international organisations active in the field*

Mechanisms of interaction		Approximate number of IOs involved	Examples
Develop joint instruments	√		
MoU or other agreements	√		
Participate in co-ordinating institution	√		
Joint meetings that provide forum for co-ordination	√		
Observe relevant actions of other bodies			
Exchange information	√		

UNDP history

UNDP was established in 1965 by the General Assembly of the United Nations. The largest UN development assistance program, the UNDP is headed by an administrator who oversees a 36-member Executive Board representing both developing and developed countries. The UNDP administers aid through five-year Country Programmes, which fund projects aimed at attracting investment capital, training skilled employees, and implementing modern technologies.

*. These data refer only to the UNDP Water and Ocean Governance Programme.

Source of Figures and Tables: OECD Survey 2015.

United Nations Economic Commission for Europe (UNECE)

Key features

Type of organisation: United Nations Regional Commission

Charter/Constitution: UN Economic and Social's Council Resolution 36 (IV), www.unece.org/oes/nutshell/mandate_role.html

Membership:

- Nature: Representatives from governments
- Number: 56 members

Year of establishment: 1947

Headquarters: Geneva, Switzerland

Secretariat staff: 229 (as of 2016)

Total budget: EUR 71.7 million (2016-17)

Type of activity: Policy dialogue, data collection and analysis, information exchange, development of legal instruments, technical co-operation for countries with economies in transition

Sectors of activity: Environmental Policy, Forestry and Timber, Housing and Land Management, Population, Sustainable Energy, Trade, Transport, Electronic Business, Public-Private Partnerships, Innovation Policy, Trade Facilitation, Regulatory Cooperation

Webpage: www.unece.org

Members

Albania, Andorra, Armenia, Austria, Azerbaijan, Belarus, Belgium, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Bulgaria, Canada, Croatia, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, France, Georgia, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Iceland, Ireland, Israel, Italy, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Latvia, Liechtenstein, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Malta, Moldova, Monaco, Montenegro, Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Russia, San Marino, Serbia, Slovak Republic, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Tajikistan, Turkey, Turkmenistan, Ukraine, United Kingdom, United States, Uzbekistan.

Observers

"Non-UNECE member States can participate as observers or, if agreed by the parent Sectoral Committee, as full members. In addition, relevant international organizations and non-governmental organisations (NGOs) can also be invited as observers, in compliance with the UN rules and practices in this respect" (ECE/EX/1 of 9 October 2006).

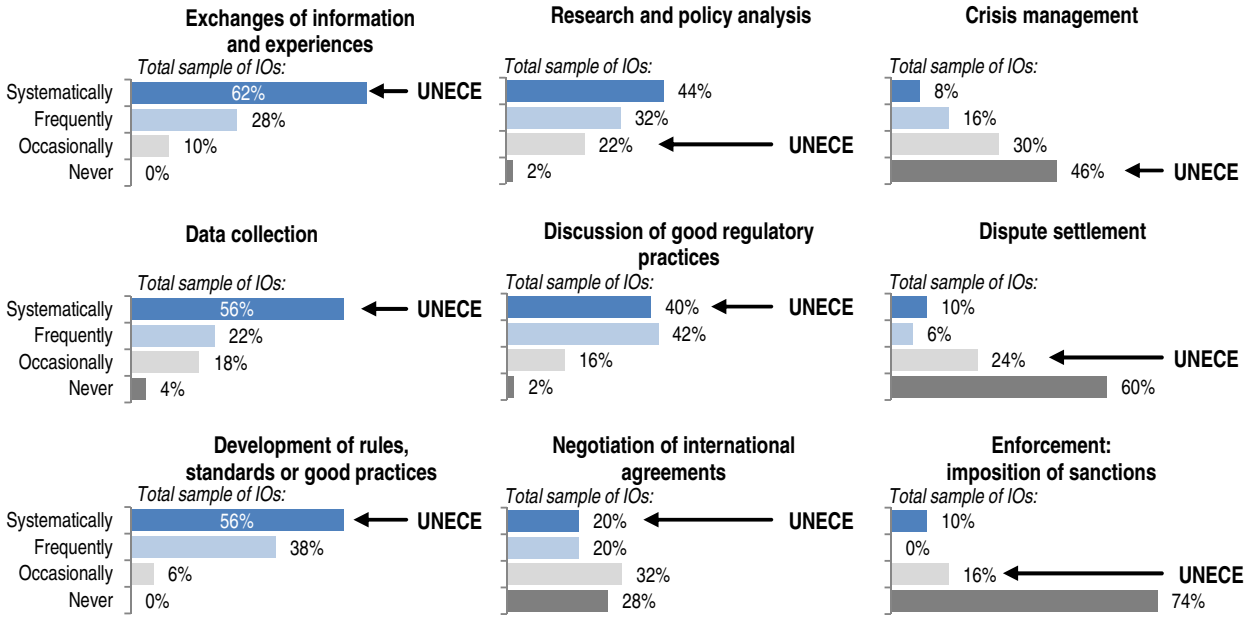
Mandate

The United Nations Economic Commission for Europe (UNECE), as a multilateral platform, facilitates greater economic integration and co-operation among its 56 Member States and promotes sustainable development and economic prosperity through:

- policy dialogue;
- negotiation of international legal instruments;
- development of regulations and norms;
- exchange and application of best practices as well as economic and technical expertise; and
- technical co-operation for countries with economies in transition.

The UNECE contributes to enhancing the effectiveness of the United Nations through the regional implementation of outcomes of global UN Conferences and Summits.

IRC processes that take place within the United Nations Economic Commission for Europe



These figures show how each IO compares to other IOs in its IRC processes. The arrow situates the IO in the overall sample.

Categories of legal and policy instruments

	Is it taking place within the IO?	Approximate number
Treaties for ratification by States (excluding the funding one) (Conventions, protocols, Agreements)	√	64
Legally binding decisions	√	
Recommendations	√	74
Political declarations	√	32
Model treaties or law	√	
Production of technical standards (standards and technical specifications)	√	1 531
Non-binding guidance/best practices document (Best/Good practices, International classifications, Guidelines)	√	85

Interactions with other international organisations active in the field

Mechanisms of interaction		Approximate number of IOs involved	Examples
Develop joint instruments	√	62	OECD, WTO/OMC, UNCTAD, FAO, Eurasian Customs Union, The Bank for International Settlement, ISO, ITU, IEC, UNEP, IAEA, UNDP, OSCE
MoU or other agreements	√	50	
Participate in co-ordinating institution	√		
Joint meetings that provide forum for co-ordination	√		
Observe relevant actions of other bodies	√		
Exchange information	√	100 (2014-15)	

UNECE history

The UN Economic and Social Council adopted, on 28 March 1947, the resolution 36 (IV) setting up UNECE. The UNECE was thus, together with the Economic Commission for Asia and the Far East (ECAFE), one of the first two regional economic commissions to be established by the UN Economic and Social Council. When it was established in 1947, UNECE was given the mandate of helping to rebuild post-war Europe, develop economic activity and strengthen economic relations between European countries and with the rest of the world. Since then, ECE has continued to adapt to the changing geopolitical landscape in Europe and has undergone two major reforms (in 1997 and in 2005) to better tailor its activities to the current needs of its now 56 member States.

Source of Figures and Tables: OECD Survey 2015.

United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP)

Key features

Type of organisation: United Nations Programme

Charter/Constitution: United Nations General Assembly Resolution 2997 (XXVII) of 15 December 1972

Membership:

- Nature: Representatives from governments
- Number: 193 members

Year of establishment: 1972

Headquarters: Nairobi (Kenya)

UN Office Liaison: New York (United States)

Regional offices: Bangkok (Thailand), Geneva (Switzerland), Manama (Bahrain), Nairobi (Kenya), Panama City (Panama), Washington D.C. (United States)

Sub-regional offices: Abidjan (Ivory Coast), Almaty (Kazakhstan), Apia (Samoa), Kingston (Jamaica), Montevideo (Uruguay)

Liaison offices: Addis Ababa (Ethiopia), Brussels (Belgium)

Country offices: Beijing (China), Brasilia (Brazil), Delhi (India), Mexico City (Mexico), Moscow (Russian Federation), Pretoria (South Africa)

Programme offices: Paris (France), Vienna (Austria)

Secretariat staff: 851 (2014)

Total budget: EUR 272 million (2014)

Type of activity: Information exchange, data collection, assessment of state of environment, global policy guidance and advice, development of legal instruments, capacity building

Sectors of activity: Environmental governance, climate change, ecosystem management, disasters and conflicts, chemicals and waste, resource efficiency, environmental review

Webpage: www.unep.org

Members

Universal membership – all UN member states.

Relationship with non-members

Accredited non-members such as regional and international inter-governmental organisations, international non-governmental organisations, major groups and stakeholders including scientific community, the private sector, women's groups can contribute to UNEP.

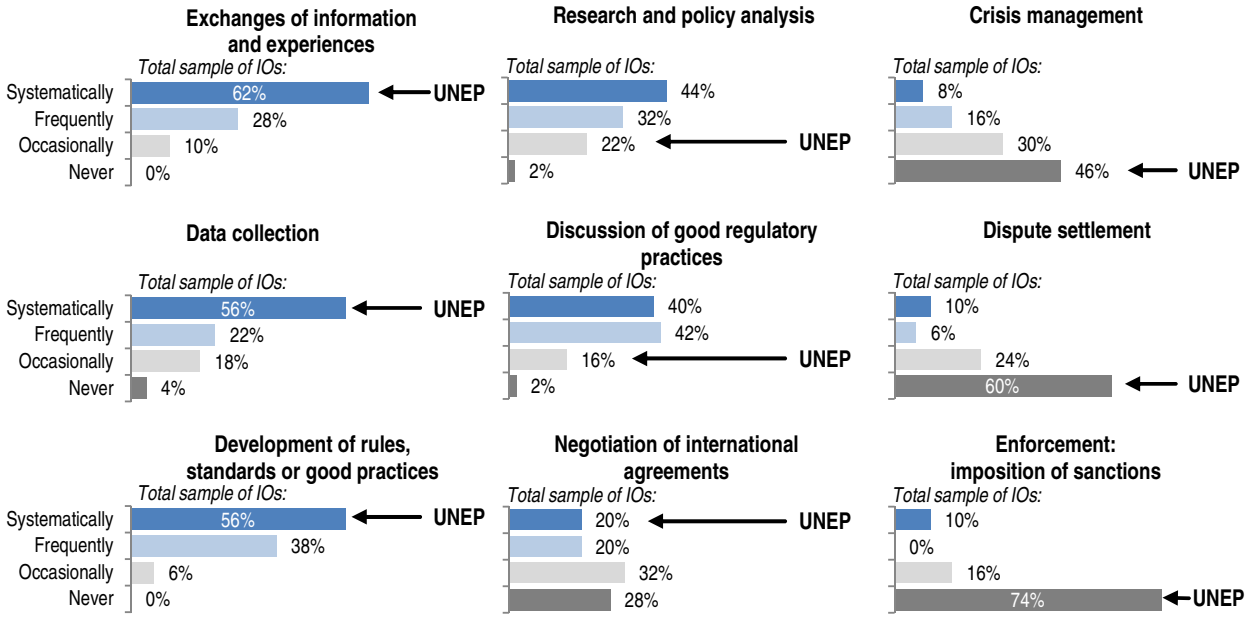
Observers

Holy See, State of Palestine, the European Union, accredited non-members, including inter-governmental organisations, non-governmental organisations and other stakeholders.

Mandate

The UNEP is the leading global environmental authority that sets the global environmental agenda, promotes the coherent implementation of the environmental dimension of sustainable development within the United Nations system and serves as an authoritative advocate for the global environment. The mission of UNEP is to provide leadership and encourage partnership in caring for the environment by inspiring, informing, and enabling nations and peoples to improve their quality of life without compromising that of future generations.

IRC processes that take place within the United Nations Environment Programme



These figures show how each IO compares to other IOs in its IRC processes. The arrow situates the IO in the overall sample.

Categories of legal and policy instruments

	Is it taking place within the IO?	Approximate number
Treaties for ratification by States (excluding the funding one)	√	13
Legally binding decisions (resolutions/decisions)	√	> 700 decisions; 19 resolutions
Recommendations	√	
Political declarations	√	4
Model treaties or law		
Production of technical standards	√	
Non-binding guidance/best practices document	√	

Interactions with other international organisations active in the field

Mechanisms of interaction		Examples
Develop joint instruments	√	UN Plan of Action on DRR for Resilience, Global Environmental Management Initiative (GEMI)
MoU or other agreements*	√	UNICEF, FAO, UN-Women, EU, UN-Habitat
Participate in co-ordinating institution	√	CEB (HLCP, HLCM, UNDG), EMG, UN-Water, UN-Oceans, UN-Energy, SE4ALL, IACG for 10 YFP, IATT (technology), ECESA+, IANWGE (Gender), IACG (SIDS), IASG (Ingenious), UN TT for Habitat III, IANYD (Youth), Regional Coordination Mechanisms (RCMs), regional UNDGs
Joint meetings that provide forum for co-ordination	√	AMCEN, Conference of Arab Ministers Responsible for Environment (CAMRE), LAC Forum of Environment Ministers, Regional Commissions, AU, EU, League of Arab States, CARICOM
Observe relevant actions of other bodies	√	Secretariats of various Multilateral Environmental Agreements
Exchange information	√	GSDR, UNSD, UNEP-Live, through inter-agency mechanisms and multi-agency partnerships/coalitions and publications (i.e. those of PEI)

*. Only includes those with strategic framework agreements.

UNEP history

The UNEP was established in June 1972, as a result of the United Nations Conference on the Human Environment in in Stockholm. On 15 December 1972 the UN General Assembly adopted resolution A/RES/3004(XXVII) establishing the United Nations Environmental Programme (UNEP) headquarters in Nairobi and Resolution 2997 (XXVII) establishing a 58 member UNEP Governing Council, its objectives, functions and responsibilities. In March 2013, the UN General Assembly resolution A/RES/67/251 changed the designation of the Governing Council to the United Nations Environment Assembly (UNEA) with universal membership. The World Meteorological Organization (WMO) and UNEP established the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) in 1988. UNEP is also one of several Implementing Agencies for the Global Environment Facility (GEF) and the Multilateral Fund for the Implementation of the Montreal Protocol, and it is also a member of the United Nations Development Group.

Source of Figures and Tables: OECD Survey 2015.

United Nations Industrial Development Organization (UNIDO)

Key features

Type of organisation: United Nations specialized agency

Charter/Constitution: UNIDO Constitution
www.unido.org/fileadmin/user_media/PMO/Constitution/UNIDO_Constitution_E.pdf

Membership:

- Nature: Representatives from governments
- Number: 170 members

Year of establishment: 1966 (specialised agency in 1985)

Headquarters: Vienna, Austria

Liaison offices: Brussels (Belgium), Geneva (Switzerland), New York (United States)

Field Offices: 30 (12 in Africa, 6 in the Arab region, 8 in Asia and pacific, 4 in Latin America and the Caribbean).

Secretariat staff: 700 (2014)

Total budget: EUR 185 million (2014)

Type of activity: Policy dialogue, data collection and analysis, information exchange, development of legal instruments, crisis management

Sectors of activity: Industrial development, trade, energy, environment, agri-business, poverty reduction

Webpage: www.unido.org

Members

Afghanistan, Albania, Algeria, Angola, Argentina, Armenia, Austria, Azerbaijan, Bahamas, Bahrain, Bangladesh, Barbados, Belarus, Belgium, Belize, Benin, Bhutan, Bolivia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Botswana, Brazil, Bulgaria, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cabo Verde, Cambodia, Cameroon, Central African Republic, Chad, Chile, China (People's Republic of), Colombia, Comoros, Congo, Costa Rica, Côte d'Ivoire, Croatia, Cuba, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Democratic People's Republic of Korea, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Denmark, Djibouti, Dominica, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, Egypt, El Salvador, Equatorial Guinea, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Fiji, Finland, Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Gabon, Gambia, Georgia, Germany, Ghana, Greece, Grenada, Guatemala, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Guyana, Haiti, Honduras, Hungary, India, Indonesia, Iran, Iraq, Ireland, Israel, Italy, Jamaica, Japan, Jordan, Kazakhstan, Kenya, Kiribati, Korea, Kuwait, Kyrgyzstan, Lao People's Democratic Republic, Lebanon, Lesotho, Liberia, Libya, Luxembourg, Madagascar, Malawi, Malaysia, Maldives, Mali, Malta, Marshall Islands, Mauritania, Mauritius, Mexico, Moldova, Monaco, Mongolia, Montenegro, Morocco, Mozambique, Myanmar, Namibia, Nepal, Netherlands, Nicaragua, Niger, Nigeria, Norway, Oman, Pakistan, Panama, Papua New Guinea, Paraguay, Peru, Philippines, Poland, Qatar, Romania, Russia, Rwanda, Saint Kitts and Nevis, Saint Lucia, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, Samoa, Sao Tome and Principe, Saudi Arabia, Senegal, Serbia, Seychelles, Sierra Leone, Slovakia, Slovenia, Somalia, South Africa, Spain, Sri Lanka, Sudan, Suriname, Swaziland, Sweden, Switzerland, Syrian Arab Republic, Tajikistan, Tanzania, Thailand, Timor-Leste, Togo, Tonga, Trinidad and Tobago, Tunisia, Turkey, Turkmenistan, Tuvalu, Uganda, Ukraine, United Arab Emirates, Uruguay, Uzbekistan, Vanuatu, Venezuela, Viet Nam, Yemen, Zambia, Zimbabwe.

Relationship with non-members

No formal policies are in place for relations with non-members.

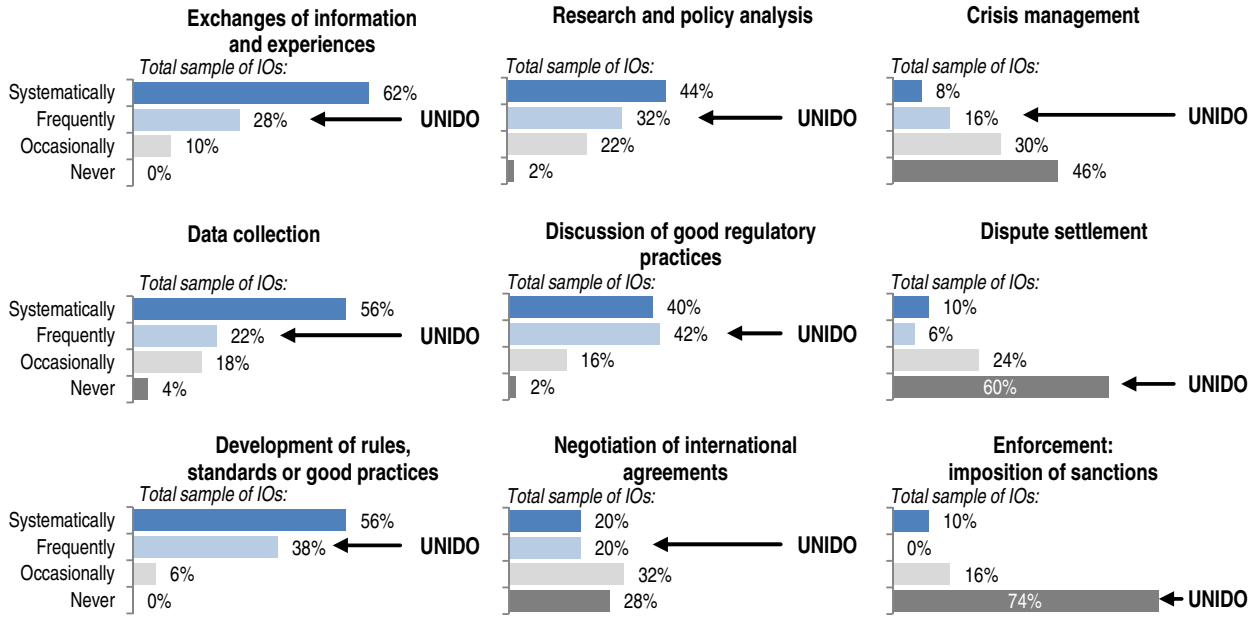
Observers

Relations with Observers are regulated under Article 4 of the UNIDO Constitution: Observer status is open to the Observers to the General Assembly. UNIDO can invite other observers to participate in its work.

Mandate

The mandate of UNIDO, as described in the Lima Declaration adopted at the fifteenth session of the UNIDO General Conference in 2013, is to promote and accelerate inclusive and sustainable industrial development in developing countries and economies in transition. "The primary objective of the Organization shall be the promotion of and acceleration of industrial development in the developing countries with the view to assisting in the establishment of a new international economic order. The Organization shall also promote industrial development and co-operation on global, regional and national, as well as on sectoral level" (Article 1 of the UNIDO Convention).

IRC processes that take place within the United Nations Industrial Development Organization



These figures show how each IO compares to other IOs in its IRC processes. The arrow situates the IO in the overall sample.

Categories of legal and policy instruments

	Is it taking place within the IO?	Approximate number
Treaties for ratification by States (excluding the funding one)		
Legally binding decisions		
Recommendations	√	>2 000
Political declarations	√	2
Model treaties or law		
Production of technical standards	√	>50
Non-binding guidance/best practices document	√	>200 (8-12 per year)

Interactions with other international organisations active in the field

Mechanisms of interaction		Approximate number of IOs involved	Examples
Develop joint instruments	√	25	United Nations Development Group, Joint Programmes (JPs), UN Delivering as One (DaO), UN-UN Transfer Agreement- Fiduciary Management Oversight Group (FMOG), Delivering Results Together Fund (DRT-F), 3ADI, Green Industry Platform, World Bank, FAO, IFAD, EU, AU, ASEAN, ECLAC, OCHA, UN Habitat
MoU or other agreements	√	30	
Participate in co-ordinating institution	√	30	
Joint meetings that provide forum for co-ordination	√	30	
Observe relevant actions of other bodies	√	30	
Exchange information	√	30	

UNIDO history

On 17 November, 1966, the UN General Assembly passes Resolution 2152 (XXI) establishing the UNIDO as an autonomous body within the United Nations. Its mission was to promote and accelerate the industrialization of developing countries. In 1975, The UN General Assembly, in Resolution 3362 (S-VII), endorses the recommendation of the Conference that UNIDO be converted into a specialised agency.

Source of Figures and Tables: OECD Survey 2015.

United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC)

Key features

Type of organisation: United Nations Office

Charter/Constitution: Charter of the United Nations: www.un.org/en/charter-united-nations

Membership:

- Nature: Representatives from governments
- Number: 193 members

Year of establishment: 1997

Headquarters: Vienna, Austria

Country offices: Afghanistan, Iran, Lao PDR, Myanmar, Pakistan, Vietnam

Regional offices: Central Asia (Uzbekistan), South Asia (India), South East Asia and the Pacific (Thailand)

Project offices: Albania, Former Republic of Macedonia, Kazakhstan, Kyrgystan, Moldova, Russia, Serbia, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan

Advisors: Azerbaijan, Fiji, Georgia, Ukraine

Secretariat staff: 1 500 (2014)

Total budget: USD 651.1 million (UNODC Consolidated budget for 2016-17)

Type of activity: Policy dialogue, data collection and analysis, information exchange, development of legal instruments, technical co-operation

Sectors of activity: Crime and drug prevention, anticorruption, terrorism prevention

Webpage: www.unodc.org

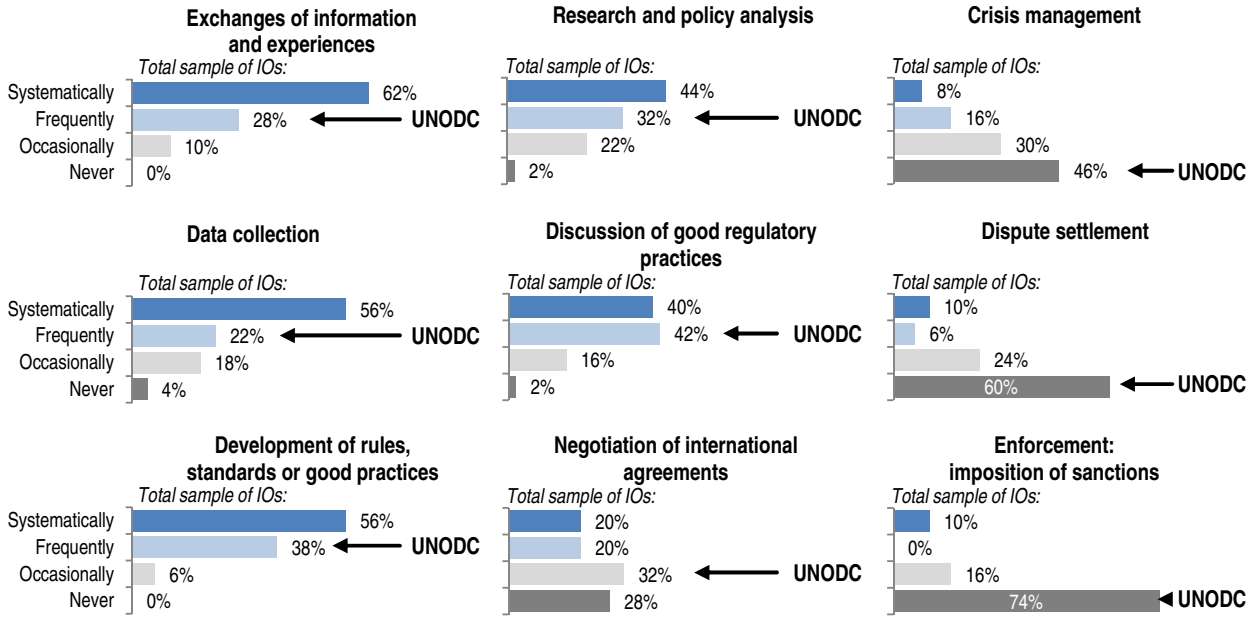
Members

Afghanistan, Albania, Algeria, Andorra, Angola, Antigua and Barbuda, Argentina, Armenia, Australia, Austria, Azerbaijan, Bahamas, Bahrain, Bangladesh, Barbados, Belarus, Belgium, Belize, Benin, Bhutan, Bolivia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Botswana, Brazil, Brunei Darussalam, Bulgaria, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cabo Verde, Cambodia, Cameroon, Canada, Central African Republic, Chad, Chile, China (People's Republic of), Colombia, Comoros, Congo, Costa Rica, Côte d'Ivoire, Croatia, Cuba, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Democratic People's Republic of Korea, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Denmark, Djibouti, Dominica, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, Egypt, El Salvador, Equatorial Guinea, Eritrea, Estonia, Ethiopia, Fiji, Finland, Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, France, Gabon, Gambia, Georgia, Germany, Ghana, Greece, Grenada, Guatemala, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Guyana, Haiti, Honduras, Hungary, Iceland, India, Indonesia, Iran, Iraq, Ireland, Israel, Italy, Jamaica, Japan, Jordan, Kazakhstan, Kenya, Kiribati, Korea, Kuwait, Kyrgyzstan, Lao People's Democratic Republic, Latvia, Lebanon, Lesotho, Liberia, Libya, Liechtenstein, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Madagascar, Malawi, Malaysia, Maldives, Mali, Malta, Marshall Islands, Mauritania, Mauritius, Mexico, Micronesia, Moldova, Monaco, Mongolia, Montenegro, Morocco, Mozambique, Myanmar, Namibia, Nauru, Nepal, Netherlands, New Zealand, Nicaragua, Niger, Nigeria, Norway, Oman, Pakistan, Palau, Panama, Papua New Guinea, Paraguay, Peru, Philippines, Poland, Portugal, Qatar, Romania, Russia, Rwanda, Saint Kitts and Nevis, Saint Lucia, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, Samoa, San Marino, Sao Tome and Principe, Saudi Arabia, Senegal, Serbia, Seychelles, Sierra Leone, Singapore, Slovakia, Slovenia, Solomon Islands, Somalia, South Africa, South Sudan, Spain, Sri Lanka, Sudan, Suriname, Swaziland, Sweden, Switzerland, Syrian Arab Republic, Tajikistan, Tanzania, Thailand, Timor-Leste, Togo, Tonga, Trinidad and Tobago, Tunisia, Turkey, Turkmenistan, Tuvalu, Uganda, Ukraine, United Arab Emirates, United Kingdom, United States, Uruguay, Uzbekistan, Vanuatu, Venezuela, Viet Nam, Yemen, Zambia, Zimbabwe.

Mandate

UNODC was established to assist the United Nations in better addressing a co-ordinated and comprehensive response to the interrelated issues of illicit trafficking in and abuse of drugs, crime prevention and criminal justice, international terrorism, transnational organised crime and corruption. These goals are pursued through research, guidance and support to governments in the adoption and implementation of various crime, drug, terrorism, and corruption related conventions, treaties and guidelines, as well as technical/financial assistance to member governments in these fields.

IRC processes that take place within the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime



These figures show how each IO compares to other IOs in its IRC processes. The arrow situates the IO in the overall sample.

Categories of legal and policy instruments

	Is it taking place within the IO?	Approximate number
Treaties for ratification by States (excluding the funding one)	√	
Legally binding decisions	√	
Recommendations	√	
Political declarations	√	
Model treaties or law	√	
Production of technical standards	√	
Non-binding guidance/best practices document	√	

Interactions with other international organisations active in the field

Mechanisms of interaction		Approximate number of IOs involved	Examples
Develop joint instruments	√		
MoU or other agreements	√		
Participate in co-ordinating institution	√		
Joint meetings that provide forum for co-ordination	√		
Observe relevant actions of other bodies	√		
Exchange information	√		

UNODC history

The UNODC is a United Nations office that was established in 1997 as the Office for Drug Control and Crime Prevention by combining the United Nations International Drug Control Program (UNDCP) and the Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice Division in the United Nations Office in Vienna. UNODC was renamed as United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime in 2002. Much of the operational work of UNODC is based on United Nations conventions (treaties) and their related protocols concerning drug, crime and terrorism. UNODC is a member of the United Nations Development Group.

Source of Figures and Tables: OECD Survey 2015.

World Tourism Organization (UNWTO)

Key features

Type of organisation: United Nations specialised agency

Charter/Constitution: UNWTO Statutes, http://www2.unwto.org/content/who-we-are-0

Membership:

- Nature: Representatives from governments
- Number: 157 Member States, 6 Associate Members

Year of establishment: 1970

Headquarters: Madrid, Spain

Secretariat staff: some 97 professional staff and some 53 administrative staff (2014)

Total budget: EUR 12.9 million (2014)

Type of activity: Policy dialogue, data collection and analysis, information exchange, development of legal instruments, crisis management

Sectors of activity: Tourism, tourism related areas (competitiveness, sustainability, poverty reduction, capacity building, partnerships and mainstreaming)

Webpage: www.unwto.org

Members

Afghanistan, Albania, Algeria, Andorra, Angola, Argentina, Armenia, Australia, Austria, Azerbaijan, Bahamas, Bahrain, Bangladesh, Barbados, Belarus, Benin, Bhutan, Bolivia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Botswana, Brazil, Brunei Darussalam, Bulgaria, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cambodia, Cameroon, Cape Verde, Central African Republic, Chad, Chile, China, Colombia, Congo, Costa Rica, Côte d'Ivoire, Croatia, Cuba, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Democratic People's Republic of Korea, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Djibouti, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, Egypt, El Salvador, Equatorial Guinea, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Fiji, Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, France, Gabon, Gambia, Georgia, Germany, Ghana, Greece, Guatemala, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Haiti, Honduras, Hungary, India, Indonesia, Iran (Islamic Republic of), Iraq, Israel, Italy, Jamaica, Japan, Jordan, Kazakhstan, Kenya, Korea (Republic of), Kuwait, Kyrgyzstan, Lao People's Democratic Republic, Lebanon, Lesotho, Liberia, Libya, Lithuania, Madagascar, Malawi, Malaysia, Maldives, Mali, Malta, Mauritania, Mauritius, Mexico, Moldova (Republic of), Monaco, Mongolia, Montenegro, Morocco, Mozambique, Myanmar, Namibia, Nepal, Netherlands, Nicaragua, Niger, Nigeria, Oman, Pakistan, Panama, Papua New Guinea, Paraguay, Peru, Philippines, Poland, Portugal, Qatar, Romania, Russia Federation, Rwanda, Samoa, San Marino, Sao Tome and Principe, Saudi Arabia, Senegal, Serbia, Seychelles, Sierra Leone, Slovakia, Slovenia, South Africa, Spain, Sri Lanka, Sudan, Swaziland, Switzerland, Syrian Arab Republic, Tajikistan, Tanzania (United Republic of), Thailand, Timor-Leste, Togo, Trinidad and Tobago, Tunisia, Turkey, Turkmenistan, Uganda, Ukraine, United Arab Emirates, Uruguay, Uzbekistan, Vanuatu, Venezuela, Viet Nam, Yemen, Zambia, Zimbabwe.

UNWTO has 6 Associate Members (Aruba, Flanders, Hong Kong (China), Macau (China), Madeira (Portugal), Puerto Rico) and 2 Observers (Holy See and Palestine). UNWTO has over 450 Affiliate Members representing the private sector, educational institutions, tourism associations and local tourism authorities.

Relationship with non-members

UNWTO encourages the participation of non-member States and other stakeholders in its activities, such as its statutory bodies (e.g. General Assembly) and other events.

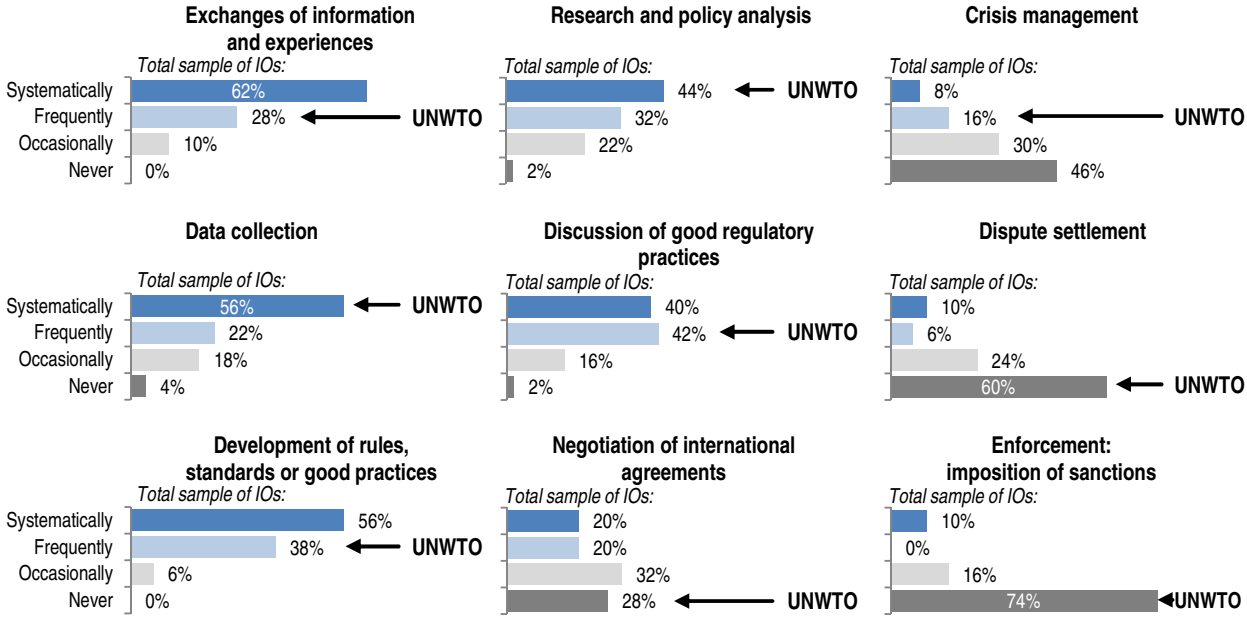
Observers

UNWTO provides opportunities to non-members and tourism stakeholders to engage in its activities as observers based on UNWTO Basic Document, Vol. I (Statutes). Observers do not hold office or have rights to vote, particularly during its statutory body events.

Mandate

UNWTO promotes tourism as a driver of economic growth, inclusive development and environmental sustainability and offers leadership and support to the sector in advancing knowledge and tourism policies worldwide. UNWTO encourages the implementation of the Global Code of Ethics for Tourism, to maximize tourism's socio-economic contribution while minimising its possible negative impacts, and is committed to promoting tourism as an instrument in achieving the United Nations Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), geared towards reducing poverty and fostering sustainable development.

IRC processes that take place within the World Tourism Organization



These figures show how each IO compares to other IOs in its IRC processes. The arrow situates the IO in the overall sample.

Categories of legal and policy instruments

	Is it taking place within the IO?	Approximate number
Treaties for ratification by States (excluding the funding one)		
Legally binding decisions		
Recommendations	√	>10
Political declarations	√	>6
Model treaties or law		
Production of technical standards	√	>4
Non-binding guidance/best practices document	√	>20

Interactions with other international organisations active in the field

Mechanisms of interaction		Approximate number of IOs involved	Examples
Develop joint instruments			
MoU or other agreements	√	1-3	
Participate in co-ordinating institution	√	1-2	Global Code of Ethics for Tourism, etc.
Joint meetings that provide forum for co-ordination	√	1-3	
Observe relevant actions of other bodies			
Exchange information			

UNWTO history

In 1946 the First International Congress of National Tourism Bodies decided to create a new international non-governmental organisation to replace the International Union of Official Tourist Propaganda Organizations (IUOTPO), established in 1934. The new organisation – International Union of Official Travel Organisations (IUOTO) – was established in 1947 and in 1948 received United Nations consultative status. In 1970, the IUOTO Special General Assembly meeting in Mexico City adopts the Statutes of the World Tourism Organization, thus accomplishing the United Nations General Assembly idea for the creation of an inter-governmental organisation on independent tourism.

Source of Figures and Tables: OECD Survey 2015.

Universal Postal Union (UPU)

Key features

Type of organisation: United Nations Specialized Agency

Charter/Constitution: Constitution of the Universal Postal Union, www.upu.int/uploads/tx_sbdownloader/actInFourVolumes ConstitutionManualEn.pdf

Membership:

- Nature: Representatives from governments
- Number: 192 members

Year of establishment: 1874

Headquarters: Bern, Switzerland

Regional Coordinator Offices: Cotonou (Benin), Harare (Zimbabwe), San José (Costa Rica), Bangkok (Thailand), Castries (Saint Lucia), Cairo (Egypt)

Secretariat staff: 250 (2014)

Total budget: EUR 100 million (2014)

Type of activity: Policy dialogue, data collection and analysis, information exchange, development of legal instruments

Sectors of activity: Postal sector, e-commerce and electronic services, postal security

Webpage: www.upu.int

Members

Afghanistan, Albania, Algeria, Angola, Antigua and Barbuda, Argentina, Armenia, Aruba Curaçao and Sint Maarten, Australia, Austria, Azerbaijan, Bahamas, Bahrain, Bangladesh, Barbados, Belarus, Belgium, Belize, Benin, Bhutan, Bolivia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Botswana, Brazil, Brunei Darussalam, Bulgaria, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cabo Verde, Cambodia, Cameroon, Canada, Central African Republic, Chad, Chile, China (People's Republic of), Colombia, Comoros, Congo, Costa Rica, Côte d'Ivoire, Croatia, Cuba, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Democratic People's Republic of Korea, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Denmark, Djibouti, Dominica, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, Egypt, El Salvador, Equatorial Guinea, Eritrea, Estonia, Ethiopia, Fiji, Finland, Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, France, Gabon, Gambia, Georgia, Germany, Ghana, Greece, Grenada, Guatemala, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Guyana, Haiti, Holy See, Honduras, Hungary, Iceland, India, Indonesia, Iran, Iraq, Ireland, Israel, Italy, Jamaica, Japan, Jordan, Kazakhstan, Kenya, Kiribati, Korea, Kuwait, Kyrgyzstan, Lao People's Democratic Republic, Latvia, Lebanon, Lesotho, Liberia, Libya, Liechtenstein, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Madagascar, Malawi, Malaysia, Maldives, Mali, Malta, Mauritania, Mauritius, Mexico, Moldova, Monaco, Mongolia, Montenegro, Morocco, Mozambique, Myanmar, Namibia, Nauru, Nepal, Netherlands, New Zealand, Nicaragua, Niger, Nigeria, Norway, Oman, Overseas Territories of the United Kingdom (Anguilla, Bermuda, British Indian Ocean Territory, British Virgin Islands, Cayman Islands, Falkland Islands (Malvinas), Gibraltar, Montserrat, Pitcairn, Saint Helena, South Georgia and the South Sandwich Islands, Turks and Caicos Islands), Pakistan, Panama, Papua New Guinea, Paraguay, Peru, Philippines, Poland, Portugal, Qatar, Romania, Russia, Rwanda, Saint Kitts and Nevis, Saint Lucia, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, Samoa, San Marino, Sao Tome and Principe, Saudi Arabia, Senegal, Serbia, Seychelles, Sierra Leone, Singapore, Slovakia, Slovenia, Solomon Islands, Somalia, South Africa, South Sudan, Spain, Sri Lanka, Sudan, Suriname, Swaziland, Sweden, Switzerland, Syrian Arab Republic, Tajikistan, Tanzania, Thailand, Timor-Leste, Togo, Tonga, Trinidad and Tobago, Tunisia, Turkey, Turkmenistan, Tuvalu, Uganda, Ukraine, United Arab Emirates, United Kingdom, United States, Uruguay, Uzbekistan, Vanuatu, Venezuela, Viet Nam, Yemen, Zambia, Zimbabwe.

Relationship with non-members

All United Nations Member States are allowed to become members of the UPU. A non-member state of the United Nations may also become a member if two-thirds of the UPU Member countries approve its request.

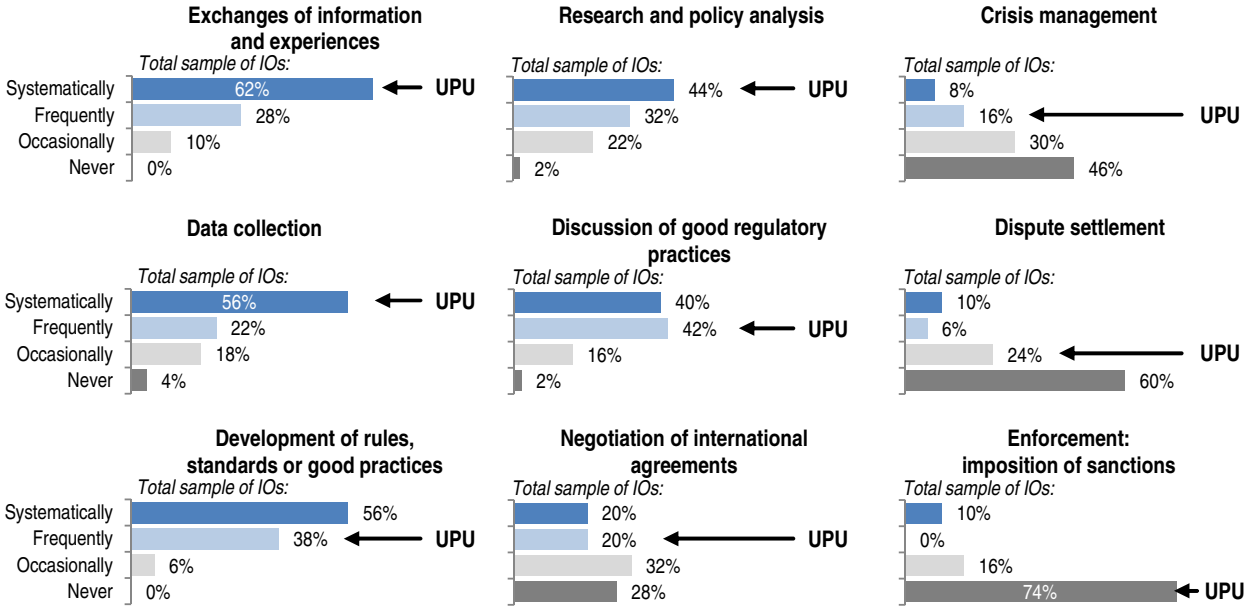
Observers

In principle, entities such as other United Nations specialized agencies, other IGOs, Restricted Postal Unions and members of the UPU Consultative Committee, are authorized to attend UPU meetings as observers by virtue of a resolution or decision of the Congress. International bodies, associations, enterprises or qualified persons may, subject to specific rules, participate in meetings of the UPU as observers. Palestine was granted special Observer status to the organisation in 1999.

Mandate

The UPU aims at securing the organisation and improvement of the postal services and promoting in this sphere the development of international collaboration. Accordingly, the UPU constitutes the primary forum for co-operation between postal sector players, and it helps to ensure a truly universal network of up-to-date products and services. In this way, the organisation fulfils an advisory, mediating and liaison role, and provides technical assistance where needed. It sets the rules for international postal exchanges and makes recommendations to foster sustainable growth in letter-post, parcel, postal payment and other international postal services, and to improve overall quality of service for customers.

IRC processes that take place within the Universal Postal Union



These figures show how each IO compares to other IOs in its IRC processes. The arrow situates the IO in the overall sample.

Categories of legal and policy instruments

	Is it taking place within the IO?	Approximate number
Treaties for ratification by States (excluding the funding one)	√	4
Legally binding decisions	√	415
Recommendations	√	72
Political declarations	√	19
Model treaties or law		
Production of technical standards	√	47
Non-binding guidance/best practices document	√	5

Interactions with other international organisations active in the field

Mechanisms of interaction		Approximate number of IOs involved	Examples
Develop joint instruments	√	>5	United Nations, UNDP, UNEP, ITU, PAHO (Pan American Health Organization), World Bank, IFAD (International Fund for Agricultural Development), ICAO (International Civil Aviation Organization), ILO (International Labour Office), IATA, IOM (International Organization for Migration), ISO, ETSI (European Telecommunications Standards Institute), WCO, Restricted Postal Unions (e.g. AICEP, APPC, APU, PostEurop, etc.)
MoU or other agreements	√	>10	
Participate in co-ordinating institution	√	>10	
Joint meetings that provide forum for co-ordination	√	5	
Observe relevant actions of other bodies	√	>10	
Exchange information	√	>10	

UPU history

Heinrich von Stephan, a senior official in the postal administration of the North German Confederation, drew up the outline of a plan for a postal union of civilised countries, in 1868. He proposed to his government that the plan be submitted to a Plenipotentiary Conference, which, at the invitation of the Swiss Government, met at Berne on 15 September 1874. Plenipotentiary delegates from twenty-two countries attended the conference. The Congress resulted in the signing of the 1874 Treaty of Berne, which established the first collective Convention governing the international postal service and founded the "General Postal Union". Four years later, in view of the numerous accessions which had taken place since the coming into force of the Treaty of Berne, the title "General Postal Union" was changed to Universal Postal Union (UPU). After the foundation of the United Nations, the UPU became a United Nations specialised agency in 1948.

Source of Figures and Tables: OECD Survey 2015.

World Customs Organization (WCO)

Key features

Type of organisation: Inter-governmental organisation

Charter/Constitution: Convention establishing a Customs Co-operation Council, www.wcoomd.org/en/about-us/legal-instruments/~/media/7E31EB9C9DC24D7984C217508F05D9E8.ashx

Membership:

- Nature: Representatives from customs administration (usually from specific national agencies or the ministries of finance)
- Number: 180 members

Year of establishment: 1952

Headquarters: Brussels, Belgium

Secretariat staff: 170 (2014)

Total budget: EUR 16.5 million (members' contribution) plus EUR 7.5 million (voluntary contributions from donors) (2014)

Type of activity: Policy dialogue, data collection and analysis, information exchange, development of legal instruments and standards

Sectors of activity: All customs matters, including customs procedures aimed at facilitating and securing trade, capacity building

Webpage: www.wcoomd.org

Members

Afghanistan, Albania, Algeria, Andorra, Angola, Argentina, Armenia, Australia, Austria, Azerbaijan, Bahrain, Bahamas, Bangladesh, Barbados, Belarus, Belgium, Belize, Benin, Bermuda, Bhutan, Bolivia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Botswana, Brazil, Brunei Darussalam, Bulgaria, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cambodia, Cameroon, Canada, Cape Verde, Central African Republic, Chad, Chile, China, Colombia, Comoros, Congo, Costa Rica, Côte d'Ivoire, Croatia, Cuba, Curaçao, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Denmark, Djibouti, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, Egypt, El Salvador, Eritrea, Estonia, Ethiopia, European Union, Fiji, Finland, Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, France, Gabon, Gambia, Georgia, Germany, Ghana, Greece, Guatemala, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Guyana, Haiti, Honduras, Hong Kong (China), Hungary, Iceland, India, Indonesia, Iran, Iraq, Ireland, Israel, Italy, Jamaica, Japan, Jordan, Kazakhstan, Kenya, Korea, Kuwait, Kyrgyzstan, Lao People's Democratic Republic, Latvia, Lebanon, Lesotho, Liberia, Libya, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Macau (China), Madagascar, Malawi, Malaysia, Maldives, Mali, Malta, Mauritania, Mauritius, Mexico, Moldova, Mongolia, Montenegro, Morocco, Mozambique, Myanmar, Namibia, Nepal, Netherlands, New Zealand, Nicaragua, Niger, Nigeria, Norway, Oman, Pakistan, Palestine, Panama, Papua New Guinea, Paraguay, Peru, Philippines, Poland, Portugal, Qatar, Romania, Russia, Rwanda, Saint Lucia, Samoa, Sao Tome and Principe, Saudi Arabia, Senegal, Serbia, Seychelles, Sierra Leone, Singapore, Slovakia, Slovenia, Somalia, South Africa, South Sudan, Spain, Sri Lanka, Sudan, Swaziland, Sweden, Switzerland, Syrian Arab Republic, Tajikistan, Tanzania, Thailand, Timor-Leste, Togo, Tonga, Trinidad and Tobago, Tunisia, Turkey, Turkmenistan, Uganda, Ukraine, United Kingdom, United Arab Emirates, United States, Uruguay, Uzbekistan, Vanuatu, Venezuela, Viet Nam, Yemen, Zambia, Zimbabwe.

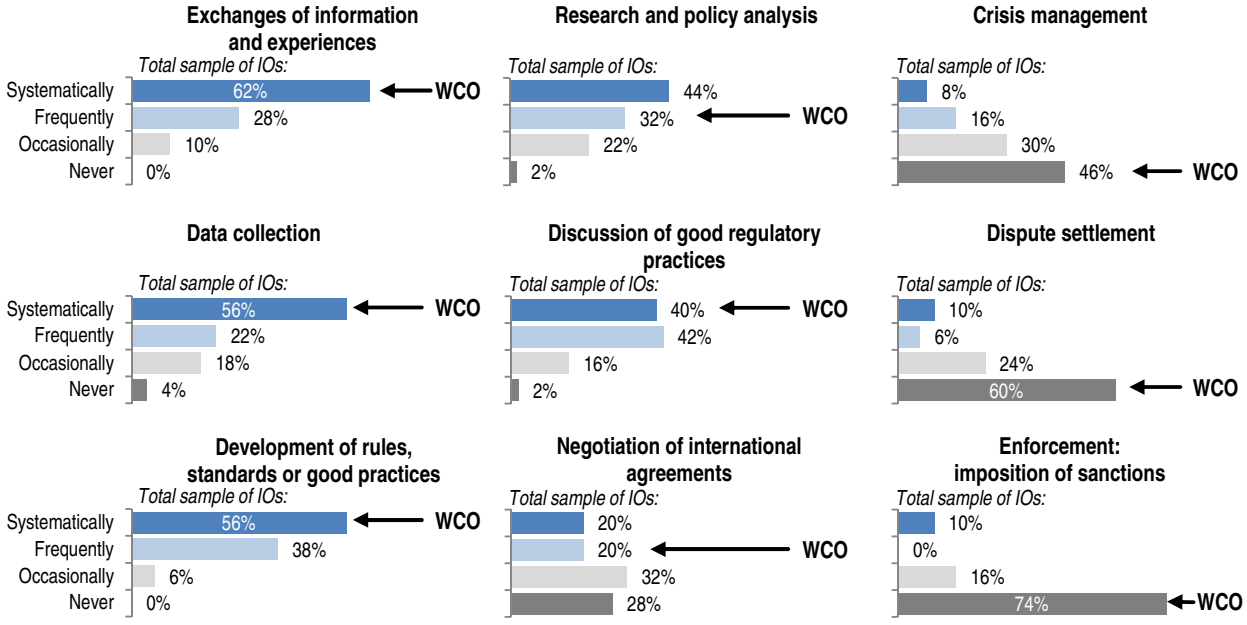
Observers

Seventy eight IGOs and international customs/trade related associations have Observer status at WCO.

Mandate

The WCO's mission is to improve the effectiveness and the efficiency of its members across the globe. While three-quarters of its members are developing countries, the WCO's combined membership is collectively responsible for managing and processing more than 98% of world trade. The responsibilities linked to the international movement of goods, people and means of transport have expanded and will continue to do so, ranging from traditional Customs activities such as the collection of revenue to activities as diverse as environmental protection, combating drug trafficking and money laundering, and ensuring supply chain and revenue security.

IRC processes that take place within the World Customs Organization



These figures show how each IO compares to other IOs in its IRC processes. The arrow situates the IO in the overall sample.

Categories of legal and policy instruments

	Is it taking place within the IO?	Approximate number
Treaties for ratification by States (excluding the funding one)	√	5 currently active
Legally binding decisions	√	
Recommendations	√	80
Political declarations	√	30
Model treaties or law	√	
Production of technical standards	√	9
Non-binding guidance/best practices document	√	

Interactions with other international organisations active in the field

Mechanisms of interaction		Approximate number of IOs involved	Examples
Develop joint instruments			
MoU or other agreements	√	90	World Bank, ICC (International Criminal Court), Interpol, AU (African Union), ISO, IATA, BIC (Bureau International des Containers et du Transport Intermodal), ICAO (International Civil Aviation Organization), WHO, FAO, etc.
Participate in co-ordinating institution	√		
Joint meetings that provide forum for co-ordination	√		
Observe relevant actions of other bodies	√		
Exchange information	√		

WCO history

Born after the Second World War out of a desire by countries to re-launch world trade, and to provide a platform for the discussion of Customs issues, the WCO was officially established in 1952 as the Customs Co-operation Council. It held its first meeting on 26 January 1953. Since then the Organization has grown from its original 17 founding members to encompass a truly global membership now numbering 180.

Source of Figures and Tables: OECD Survey 2015.

World Health Organization (WHO)

Key features

Type of organisation: United Nations specialized agency

Charter/Constitution: Constitution of the WHO, http://apps.who.int/gb/bd/PDF/bd47/EN/constitution-en.pdf?ua=1

Membership:

- Nature: Representatives of members
- Number: 194 Member States and 2 Associate Members

Year of establishment: 1948

Headquarters: Geneva, Switzerland

Regional offices: Brazzaville (Congo), Washington, DC (United States), Cairo (Egypt), Copenhagen (Denmark), New Delhi (India), Manila (Philippines); Liaison and project offices in Lyon (France), Kobe (Japan), Cyberjaya (Malaysia), Brussels (Belgium), New York (United States), Addis Ababa (Ethiopia)

Secretariat staff: 7 632 (Dec. 2015)

Total budget: USD 3.977 million (budget for the financial period 2014-15) about EUR 1.875 million per year

Type of activity: Policy dialogue, data collection and analysis, information exchange, development of normative instruments, research and technical co-operation

Sectors of activity: Inter alia: health systems, promoting health through the life-course, non-communicable diseases, communicable diseases, preparedness, surveillance and response

Webpage: www.who.int

Members

Afghanistan, Albania, Algeria, Andorra, Angola, Antigua and Barbuda, Argentina, Armenia, Australia, Austria, Azerbaijan, Bahamas, Bahrain, Bangladesh, Barbados, Belarus, Belgium, Belize, Benin, Bhutan, Bolivia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Botswana, Brazil, Brunei Darussalam, Bulgaria, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cabo Verde, Cambodia, Cameroon, Canada, Central African Republic, Chad, Chile, China (People's Republic of), Colombia, Comoros, Congo, Cook Islands, Costa Rica, Côte d'Ivoire, Croatia, Cuba, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Democratic People's Republic of Korea, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Denmark, Djibouti, Dominica, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, Egypt, El Salvador, Equatorial Guinea, Eritrea, Estonia, Ethiopia, Fiji, Finland, Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, France, Gabon, Gambia, Georgia, Germany, Ghana, Greece, Grenada, Guatemala, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Guyana, Haiti, Honduras, Hungary, Iceland, India, Indonesia, Iran, Iraq, Ireland, Israel, Italy, Jamaica, Japan, Jordan, Kazakhstan, Kenya, Kiribati, Korea, Kuwait, Kyrgyzstan, Lao People's Democratic Republic, Latvia, Lebanon, Lesotho, Liberia, Libya, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Madagascar, Malawi, Malaysia, Maldives, Mali, Malta, Marshall Islands, Mauritania, Mauritius, Mexico, Micronesia, Moldova, Monaco, Mongolia, Montenegro, Morocco, Mozambique, Myanmar, Namibia, Nauru, Nepal, Netherlands, New Zealand, Nicaragua, Niger, Nigeria, Niue, Norway, Oman, Pakistan, Palau, Panama, Papua New Guinea, Paraguay, Peru, Philippines, Poland, Portugal, Qatar, Romania, Russia, Rwanda, Saint Kitts and Nevis, Saint Lucia, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, Samoa, San Marino, Sao Tome and Principe, Saudi Arabia, Senegal, Serbia, Seychelles, Sierra Leone, Singapore, Slovakia, Slovenia, Solomon Islands, Somalia, South Africa, South Sudan, Spain, Sri Lanka, Sudan, Suriname, Swaziland, Sweden, Switzerland, Syrian Arab Republic, Tajikistan, Tanzania, Thailand, Timor-Leste, Togo, Tonga, Trinidad and Tobago, Tunisia, Turkey, Turkmenistan, Tuvalu, Uganda, Ukraine, United Arab Emirates, United Kingdom, United States, Uruguay, Uzbekistan, Vanuatu, Venezuela, Viet Nam, Yemen, Zambia, Zimbabwe.

Territories or groups of territories which are not responsible for the conduct of their international relations may be admitted as Associate Members by the Health Assembly upon application made on their behalf by the Member or other authority responsible for their international relations. The WHO has currently two Associates Members: Puerto Rico and Tokelau.

Relationship with non-members

Members of the United Nations may become members of WHO by signing or otherwise accepting its Constitution in accordance with the provisions of Chapter XIX of WHO Constitution and their constitutional processes. Other countries may be admitted as Members when their application has been approved by a simple majority vote of the Health Assembly.

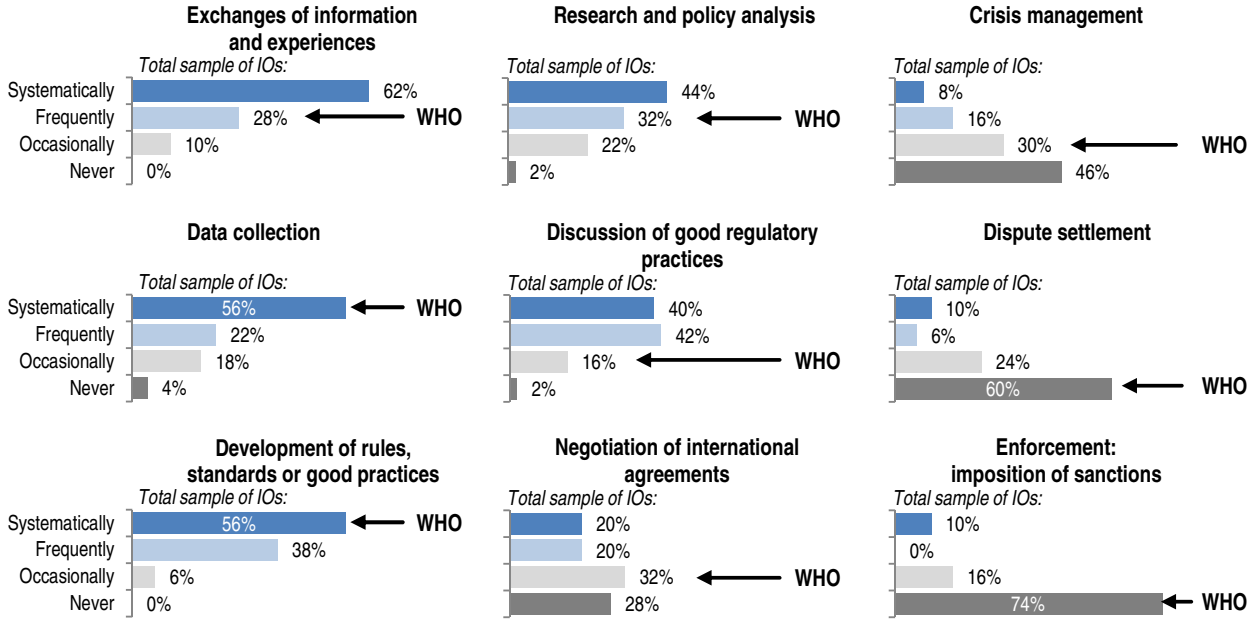
Observers

Non-member states and other entities may be invited to attend sessions of the Health Assembly as observers. Representatives of the United Nations, its specialised agencies, programmes and funds, and other IGOs regularly attend sessions of the Health Assembly as observers.

Mandate

The objective of the WHO shall be the attainment by all peoples of the highest possible level of health.

IRC processes that take place within the World Health Organization



These figures show how each IO compares to other IOs in its IRC processes. The arrow situates the IO in the overall sample.

Categories of legal and policy instruments

	Is it taking place within the IO?	Approximate number
Treaties for ratification by States (excluding the funding one)	√	2
Legally binding decisions	√	2
Recommendations	√	
Political declarations	√	
Model treaties or law		
Production of technical standards		
Non-binding guidance/best practices document	√	

Interactions with other international organisations active in the field

Mechanisms of interaction		Approximate number of IOs involved	Examples
Develop joint instruments	√		The WHO has established formal and informal relations with a significant number of IOs, including through the co-sponsorship of programmes. Examples are ILO, FAO, World Bank, EU, AU (African Union), CoE (Council of Europe), PAHO (Pan American Health Organization), UNASUR (Union of South American Nations), International Conference of Drug Regulatory Authorities, etc.
MoU or other agreements	√	20	
Participate in co-ordinating institution	√	20	
Joint meetings that provide forum for co-ordination	√	20	
Observe relevant actions of other bodies	√	20	
Exchange information	√	20	

WHO history

When diplomats met to form the United Nations in 1945, one of the things they discussed was setting up a global health organisation under the auspices of the new United Nations. The Constitution of the World Health Organization was adopted by the International Health Conference, held in New York from 19 June to 22 July 1946, signed on 22 July 1946 by the representatives of 61 States and entered into force on 7 April 1948 – a date that now is celebrated every year as World Health Day. The WHO first priorities were to control the spread of malaria, tuberculosis and sexually transmitted infections, and to improve maternal and child health, nutrition and environmental hygiene.

Source of Figures and Tables: OECD Survey 2015.

World Intellectual Property Rights Organization (WIPO)

Key features

Type of organisation: United Nations specialized agency

Charter/Constitution: WIPO Convention; www.wipo.int/treaties/en/text.jsp?file_id=283854

Membership:

- Nature: States
- Number: 188

Year of establishment: 1967

Headquarters: Geneva, Switzerland

Country offices: External offices in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil; Beijing, China; Tokyo, Japan; Moscow, Russia; Singapore, Singapore.

UN Liaison Office: New York, U.S.A.

Secretariat staff: 1 300

Total budget: CHF 350 million (approx. EUR 320 million)

Type of activity: Policy dialogue, data collection, research and analysis, information exchange, discussion of good regulatory practices, development of legal instruments, dispute settlement.

Sectors of activity: Intellectual property

Webpage: www.wipo.int/portal/en/

Members

Afghanistan, Albania, Algeria, Andorra, Angola, Antigua and Barbuda, Argentina, Armenia, Australia, Austria, Azerbaijan, Bahamas, Bahrain, Bangladesh, Barbados, Belarus, Belgium, Belize, Benin, Bhutan, Bolivia (Plurinational State of), Bosnia and Herzegovina, Botswana, Brazil, Brunei Darussalam, Bulgaria, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cabo Verde, Cambodia, Cameroon, Canada, Central African Republic, Chad, Chile, China, Colombia, Comoros, Congo, Costa Rica, Côte d'Ivoire, Croatia, Cuba, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Democratic People's Republic of Korea, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Denmark, Djibouti, Dominica, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, Egypt, El Salvador, Equatorial Guinea, Eritrea, Estonia, Ethiopia, Fiji, Finland, France, Gabon, Gambia, Georgia, Germany, Ghana, Greece, Grenada, Guatemala, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Guyana, Haiti, Holy See, Honduras, Hungary, Iceland, India, Indonesia, Iran (Islamic Republic of), Iraq, Ireland, Israel, Italy, Jamaica, Japan, Jordan, Kazakhstan, Kenya, Kiribati, Kuwait, Kyrgyzstan, Lao People's Democratic Republic, Latvia, Lebanon, Lesotho, Liberia, Libya, Liechtenstein, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Madagascar, Malawi, Malaysia, Maldives, Mali, Malta, Mauritania, Mauritius, Mexico, Monaco, Mongolia, Montenegro, Morocco, Mozambique, Myanmar, Namibia, Nepal, Netherlands, New Zealand, Nicaragua, Niger, Nigeria, Niue, Norway, Oman, Pakistan, Panama, Papua New Guinea, Paraguay, Peru, Philippines, Poland, Portugal, Qatar, Republic of Korea, Republic of Moldova, Romania, Russian Federation, Rwanda, Saint Kitts and Nevis, Saint Lucia, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, Samoa, San Marino, Sao Tome and Principe, Saudi Arabia, Senegal, Serbia, Seychelles, Sierra Leone, Singapore, Slovakia, Slovenia, Somalia, South Africa, Spain, Sri Lanka, Sudan, Suriname, Swaziland, Sweden, Switzerland, Syrian Arab Republic, Tajikistan, Thailand, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Togo, Tonga, Trinidad and Tobago, Tunisia, Turkey, Turkmenistan, Tuvalu, Uganda, Ukraine, United Arab Emirates, United Kingdom, United Republic of Tanzania, United States of America, Uruguay, Uzbekistan, Vanuatu, Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of), Viet Nam, Yemen, Zambia, Zimbabwe.

Relationship with non-members

Membership of WIPO is equally open to any state that is a "Member of the United Nations, any of the Specialized Agencies brought into relationship with the United Nations, or the International Atomic Energy Agency, or is a party to the Statute of the International Court of Justice." (Article 5(2), WIPO Convention). Other countries that are invited by the WIPO General Assembly may also become Members of WIPO.

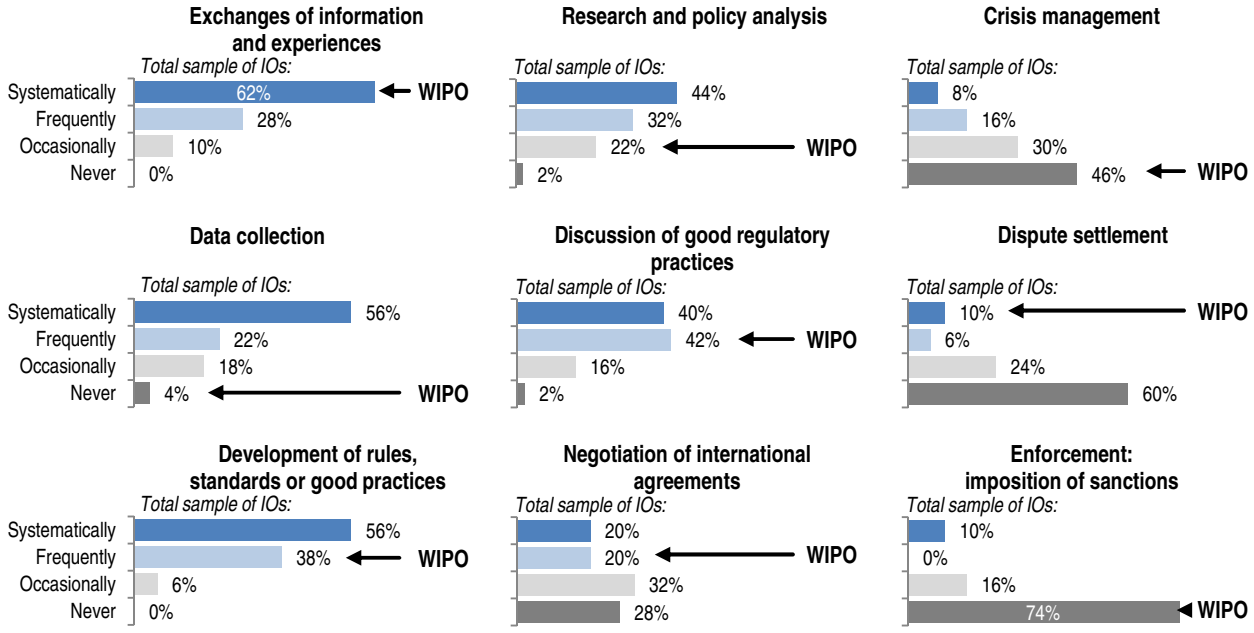
Observers

WIPO has given an official observer status to over 350 non-governmental organisations, other international organisations, stakeholder organisations and interest groups, giving them the right to participate at the formal meetings of WIPO member states. Palestine also has an observer status.

Mandate

Overall, the mission of WIPO is to lead the development of a balanced and effective international intellectual property (IP) system that enables innovation and creativity for the benefit of all. The two main objectives pursued by WIPO as per its constitutive treaty are (i) to promote the protection of intellectual property through co-operation among States and, where appropriate, in collaboration with any other international organization; and (ii) to ensure administrative co-operation among the intellectual property Unions established by the treaties that WIPO administers.

IRC processes that take place within the World Intellectual Property Rights Organization



These figures show how each IO compares to other IOs in its IRC processes. The arrow situates the IO in the overall sample.

Categories of legal and policy instruments

	Is it taking place within the IO?	Approximate number
Treaties for ratification by States (excluding the funding one)	√	26
Legally binding decisions		
Recommendations	√	3
Political declarations		
Model treaties or law		
Production of technical standards	√	54
Non-binding guidance/best practices document		

Interactions with other international organisations active in the field

Mechanisms of interaction		Approximate number of IOs involved	Examples
Develop joint instruments	√	3	WIPO has established formal and informal relations with a large number of IOs. Examples of a joint instrument are a 1995 Agreement between WIPO and WTO/OMC, and other arrangements with such IOs as FAO, IFAD, ILO, IMF, ITU, UN, UNESCO, AU and EU.
MoU or other agreements	√	50	
Participate in co-ordinating institution	√	3	
Joint meetings that provide forum for co-ordination	√	6	
Observe relevant actions of other bodies	√	30	
Exchange information	√	30	

History

The need for international protection of intellectual property (IP) became evident at the end of the 19th Century. The Paris Convention for the Protection of Industrial Property was adopted in 1883, covering industrial property in the widest sense, including patents, trademarks, industrial designs, utility models, service marks, trade names, geographical indications and the repression of unfair competition. It was soon followed by the Berne Convention for the Protection of Literary and Artistic Works in 1886. The secretariats administering these two Conventions were combined in 1893 in the United International Bureaux for the Protection of Intellectual Property (known under its French acronym, BIRPI). The BIRPI was transformed into WIPO in 1970, a member-state led inter-governmental organisation. WIPO became a specialized agency of the United Nations system in 1974.

Source of Figures and Tables: OECD Survey 2015.

World Meteorological Organization (WMO)

Key features

Type of organisation: United Nations specialized agency

Charter/Constitution: Convention of the World Meteorological Organization (1947); Agreement between the United Nations and the WMO (1951); Convention on the Privileges and Immunities of the Specialized Agencies (adopted by WMO 1951), http://library.wmo.int/pmb_ged/wmo_15-2012_en.pdf

Membership:

- Nature: Representatives from governments, i.e. members of United Nation States, Territories or group of Territories having a Meteorological Service in accordance with Article 3, WMO Convention.
- Number: 191 members

Year of establishment: 1950

Headquarters: Geneva, Switzerland
Field offices: Abuja (Nigeria), Nairobi (Kenya), Manama (Bahrain), Apia (Samoa), Asunción (Paraguay), San José (Costa Rica), Brussels (Belgium), New York (United States), Mexico City (Mexico)

Secretariat staff: 266 (2014)

Total budget: EUR 129 million (2015)

Type of activity: Policy dialogue, data collection and analysis, information exchange, development of legal instruments

Sectors of activity: Weather, climate, hydrology and water resources, environmental issues, related meteorological areas (aviation, shipping, water problems, agriculture and human activities, etc.)

Webpage: http://public.wmo.int

Members

Afghanistan, Albania, Algeria, Angola, Antigua and Barbuda, Argentina, Armenia, Australia, Austria, Azerbaijan, Bahamas, Bahrain, Bangladesh, Barbados, Belarus, Belgium, Belize, Benin, Bhutan, Bolivia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Botswana, Brazil, British Caribbean Territories (Anguilla, British Virgin Islands, Cayman Islands, Montserrat, Turks and Caicos Islands), Brunei Darussalam, Bulgaria, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cabo Verde, Cambodia, Cameroon, Canada, Central African Republic, Chad, Chile, China (People's Republic of), Colombia, Comoros, Congo, Cook Islands, Costa Rica, Côte d'Ivoire, Croatia, Cuba, Curaçao and Sint Maarten, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Democratic People's Republic of Korea, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Denmark, Djibouti, Dominica, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, Egypt, El Salvador, Eritrea, Estonia, Ethiopia, Fiji, Finland, Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, France, French Polynesia, Gabon, Gambia, Georgia, Germany, Ghana, Greece, Guatemala, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Guyana, Haiti, Honduras, Hong Kong (China), Hungary, Iceland, India, Indonesia, Iran, Iraq, Ireland, Israel, Italy, Jamaica, Japan, Jordan, Kazakhstan, Kenya, Kiribati, Korea, Kuwait, Kyrgyzstan, Lao People's Democratic Republic, Latvia, Lebanon, Lesotho, Liberia, Libya, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Madagascar, Malawi, Malaysia, Maldives, Mali, Malta, Macau (China), Mauritania, Mauritius, Mexico, Micronesia, Moldova, Monaco, Mongolia, Montenegro, Morocco, Mozambique, Myanmar, Namibia, Nepal, Netherlands, New Caledonia, New Zealand, Nicaragua, Niger, Nigeria, Niue, Norway, Oman, Pakistan, Panama, Papua New Guinea, Paraguay, Peru, Philippines, Poland, Portugal, Qatar, Romania, Russia, Rwanda, Saint Lucia, Samoa, Sao Tome and Principe, Saudi Arabia, Senegal, Serbia, Seychelles, Sierra Leone, Singapore, Slovakia, Slovenia, Solomon Islands, Somalia, South Africa, South Sudan, Spain, Sri Lanka, Sudan, Suriname, Swaziland, Sweden, Switzerland, Syrian Arab Republic, Tajikistan, Tanzania, Thailand, Timor-Leste, Togo, Tonga, Trinidad and Tobago, Tunisia, Turkey, Turkmenistan, Tuvalu, Uganda, Ukraine, United Arab Emirates, United Kingdom, United States, Uruguay, Uzbekistan, Vanuatu, Venezuela, Viet Nam, Yemen, Zambia, Zimbabwe.

Relationship with non-members

In accordance with Regulation 20 of the General Regulations, invitations to constituent body sessions are issued to the following non-member countries because of their status as members of, or observers to, the United Nations: Andorra, Equatorial Guinea, Grenada, Holy See, Liechtenstein, Marshall Islands, Nauru, Palau, San Marino, Saint Kitts and Nevis, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines.

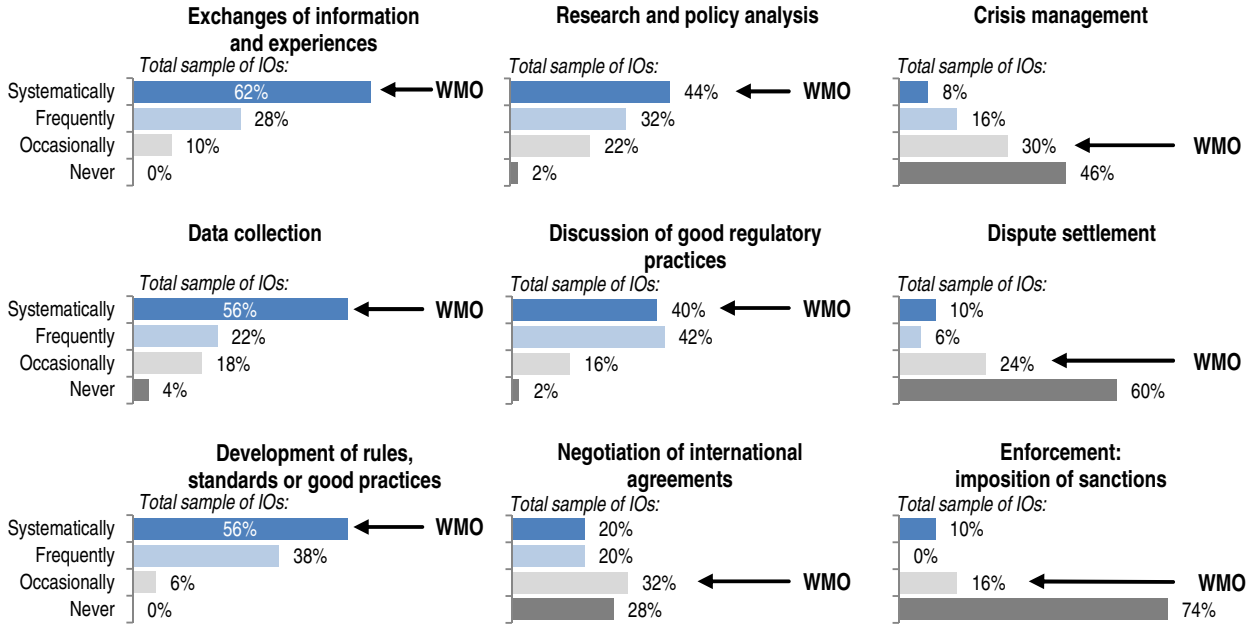
Observers

Observers include: i) those non-members listed immediately above as well as the State of Palestine; ii) Organisations within the United Nations system; iii) Organisations with an agreement or working arrangements with WMO providing for representation; iv) Organisations with consultative status-i.e. NGOs with a consultative status agreement and other IOs with which WMO has a working relationship.

Mandate

The WMO is the UN system's authoritative voice on the state and behaviour of the Earth's atmosphere, its interaction with the oceans, the climate it produces and the resulting distribution of water resources. The vision of WMO is to provide world leadership in expertise and international co-operation in weather, climate, hydrology and water resources and related environmental issues and thereby contribute to the safety and well-being of people throughout the world and to the economic benefit of all nations.

IRC processes that take place within the World Meteorological Organization



These figures show how each IO compares to other IOs in its IRC processes. The arrow situates the IO in the overall sample.

Categories of legal and policy instruments

	Is it taking place within the IO?	Approximate number
Treaties for ratification by States (excluding the funding one)		
Legally binding decisions		
Recommendations	√	>200
Political declarations	√	20
Model treaties or law		
Production of technical standards	√	>200
Non-binding guidance/best practices document	√	241

Interactions with other international organisations active in the field

Mechanisms of interaction		Approximate number of IOs involved	Examples
Develop joint instruments	√	5	IMO/IHO (International Hydrographic Organization)/WMO Manual on Safety Information
MoU or other agreements	√	>100	Working Arrangements with SPREP (South Pacific Regional Environment Programme)
Participate in co-ordinating institution	√	4	GCOS (Global Climate Observing System)
Joint meetings that provide forum for co-ordination	√	>100	Included in MoUs and other agreements (e.g. SPREP)
Observe relevant actions of other bodies	√	>100	Included in MoUs and other agreements (e.g. SPREP)
Exchange information	√	>100	Included in MoUs and other agreements (e.g. SPREP)

WMO history

WMO originated from the International Meteorological Organization (IMO), which was founded in 1873. Established in 1950, WMO became the specialized agency of the United Nations in 1951 for meteorology (weather and climate), operational hydrology and related geophysical sciences. Since its establishment, WMO has played a unique and powerful role in contributing to the safety and welfare of humanity. Under WMO leadership and within the framework of WMO programmes, National Meteorological and Hydrological Services contribute substantially to the protection of life and property against natural disasters, to safeguarding the environment and to enhancing the economic and social well-being of all sectors of society in areas such as food security, water resources and transport.

Source of Figures and Tables: OECD Survey 2015.

World Trade Organization (WTO/OMC)

Key feature

Type of organisation: Inter-governmental organisation

Charter/Constitution: Marrakesh Agreement, www.wto.org/english/docs_e/legal_e/04-wto_e.htm

Membership:

- Nature: Representatives from governments (States or customs territories)
- Number: 162 members

Year of establishment: 1995

Headquarters: Geneva, Switzerland

Secretariat staff: 634 (2014)

Total budget: CHF 179 million (EUR 160 million) (2015)

Type of activity: Trade negotiations, development of legal instruments, dispute settlement, implementation and monitoring, policy dialogue, data collection and analysis

Sectors of activity: International trade

Webpage: www.wto.org

Members

Albania, Angola, Antigua and Barbuda, Argentina, Armenia, Australia, Austria, Bahrain, Bangladesh, Barbados, Belgium, Belize, Benin, Bolivia, Botswana, Brazil, Brunei Darussalam, Bulgaria, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cabo Verde, Cambodia, Cameroon, Canada, Central African Republic, Chad, Chile, China (People's Republic of), Colombia, Congo, Costa Rica, Côte d'Ivoire, Croatia, Cuba, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Denmark, Djibouti, Dominica, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, Egypt, El Salvador, Estonia, European Union, Fiji, Finland, Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, France, Gabon, The Gambia, Georgia, Germany, Ghana, Greece, Grenada, Guatemala, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Guyana, Haiti, Honduras, Hong Kong (China), Hungary, Iceland, India, Indonesia, Ireland, Israel, Italy, Jamaica, Japan, Jordan, Kenya, Korea, Kuwait, Kyrgyz, Lao People's Democratic Republic, Latvia, Lesotho, Liechtenstein, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Macau (China), Madagascar, Malawi, Malaysia, Maldives, Mali, Malta, Mauritania, Mauritius, Mexico, Moldova, Mongolia, Montenegro, Morocco, Mozambique, Myanmar, Namibia, Nepal, Netherlands, New Zealand, Nicaragua, Niger, Nigeria, Norway, Oman, Pakistan, Panama, Papua New Guinea, Paraguay, Peru, Philippines, Poland, Portugal, Qatar, Romania, Russia, Rwanda, Saint Kitts and Nevis, Saint Lucia, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, Samoa, Saudi Arabia, Senegal, Seychelles, Sierra Leone, Singapore, Slovak Republic, Slovenia, Solomon Islands, South Africa, Spain, Sri Lanka, Suriname, Swaziland, Sweden, Switzerland, Chinese Taipei, Tajikistan, Tanzania, Thailand, Togo, Tonga, Trinidad and Tobago, Tunisia, Turkey, Uganda, Ukraine, United Arab Emirates, United Kingdom, United States, Uruguay, Vanuatu, Venezuela, Viet Nam, Yemen, Zambia, Zimbabwe.

Relationship with non-members

Any state or customs territory having full autonomy in the conduct of its trade policies may become a member ("accede to") the WTO/OMC, but all WTO/OMC members must agree on the terms. This is done through the establishment of a working party of WTO/OMC members and through a process of negotiations.

Observers

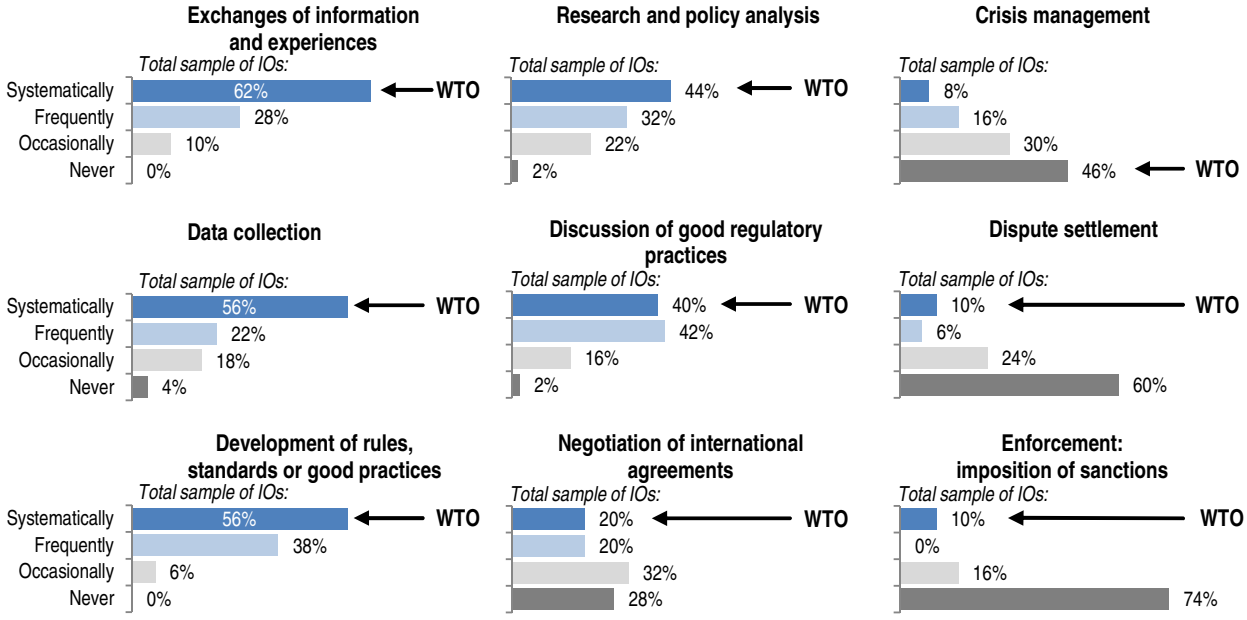
The WTO/OMC has currently 23 Observers: Afghanistan, Algeria, Andorra, Azerbaijan, Bahamas, Belarus, Bhutan, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Comoros, Equatorial Guinea, Ethiopia, Holy See, Iran, Iraq, Kazakhstan, Lebanon, Liberia, Libya, Sao Tomé and Principe, Serbia, Sudan, Syrian Arab Republic, Uzbekistan.

The WTO/OMC has multiple relations with other IOs and institutions. In particular, eight organisations are Observers of the WTO/OMC General Council: IMF, World Bank, FAO, OECD, United Nations, United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD), International Trade Centre (ITC) and World Intellectual Property Organization (WIPO).

Mandate

WTO/OMC is the only global international organisation dealing with the rules of trade between nations. Its main function is to ensure that trade flows as smoothly, predictably and freely as possible. It does this by: administering trade agreements; acting as a forum for trade negotiations; settling trade disputes; reviewing national trade policies; assisting developing countries in trade policy issues, through technical assistance and training programmes; and, co-operating with other international organisations.

IRC processes that take place within the World Trade Organization



These figures show how each IO compares to other IOs in its IRC processes. The arrow situates the IO in the overall sample.

Categories of legal and policy instruments*

	Is it taking place within the IO?	Approximate number
Treaties for ratification by States (excluding the funding one)	√	
Legally binding decisions	√	
Recommendations	√	
Political declarations	√	
Model treaties or law		
Production of technical standards		
Non-binding guidance/best practices document	√	

Interactions with other international organisations active in the field*

Mechanisms of interaction	Approximate number of IOs involved	Examples
Develop joint instruments	√	
MoU or other agreements	√	
Participate in co-ordinating institution	√	IMF, World Bank, OECD, United Nations, FAO, WHO, WIPO, UNCTAD, ITC.
Joint meetings that provide forum for co-ordination	√	
Observe relevant actions of other bodies	√	
Exchange information	√	

WTO history

The WTO/OMC began life on 1 January 1995, but its trading system is half a century older. Since 1948, the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) had provided the rules for the system. It did not take long for the General Agreement to give birth to a provisional international organization, also known informally as GATT. Over the years GATT evolved through several rounds of negotiations. The last and largest GATT round, was the Uruguay Round which lasted from 1986 to 1994 and led to the WTO/OMC's creation. Whereas GATT had mainly dealt with trade in goods, the WTO/OMC and its agreements now cover trade in services and intellectual property.

* The information contained in the figures and tables pertains exclusively to work of the WTO/OMC in respect of the Agreements on Technical Barriers to Trade (TBT) and Sanitary and Phytosanitary Measures (SPS), with specific emphasis on the TBT and SPS Committees.

Source of Figures and Tables: OECD Survey 2015.

Annex A

Classifications of IOs

The following tables present three possible groupings of international organisations (IOs): by nature, by main activity and by purpose. These groupings do not aim at representing a formal classification of IOs. Rather, the report uses this information to highlight the occurrence of trends and common practices across similar IOs.

The classification by nature of the IOs identifies six different categories of IOs: open-membership IGOs, closed-membership IGOs, supra-national organisations, private standard-setting organisations, secretariats of conventions and trans-governmental networks. However, the classification of IOs by nature used in the report does not include the category of supra-national organisations since the total sample of IOs is composed only by one supra-national organisation (EC). This methodological choice was adopted to avoid analysing a category with only one IO. The report considers the EC as a closed-membership organisation.

The classification by activity of the IOs aims to identify different IO groups according to the main type of regulatory activity performed by the IOs. For this reason, while some IOs can be involved in many types of activities, the classification reports only one activity (the main) for IO. This classification differentiates between five categories of activity: accreditation services, production of technical standards, production of legal tools, production of soft, consensual framework, pure exchange of information.

The classification by purpose of IOs aims to allocate IOs according to the scope of their intervention. “Broad purpose” IOs intervene in all areas, whereas “specific purpose” IOs limit their intervention only to certain areas.

Table A.1. **Nature of the IO**

IOs	IGO Open (Universal membership)	IGO Closed (Restricted membership)	Supra-national organisation	Private standard-setting organisation	Secretariat of convention	Trans-governmental network
AHWP						X
APEC		X				
ASTM International				X		
BRS Conv.					X	
CARICOM		X				
CBD					X	
CITES					X	
COMESA		X				
EC			X			
UNECE		X				
ESCWA		X				
FAO	X					
IAEA	X					
IAF						X
IAIS						X
IATA				X		
ICN						X
IEC				X		
IFAC				X		
ILAC						X
IMDRF						X
IMF	X					
IMO	X					
IOSCO						X
ISO				X		
ITU	X					
NATO		X				
OAS		X				
OECD		X				
OIE	X					
OIF	X					
OIML	X					
OIV		X				
OPCW	X					
OSCE		X				
OTIF	X					
OZONE					X	
PIC/S						X
SAICM						X

Table A.1. **Nature of the IO** (*cont.*)

IOs	IGO Open (Universal membership)	IGO Closed (Restricted membership)	Supra-national organisation	Private standard-setting organisation	Secretariat of convention	Trans-governmental network
UNDP	X					
UNEP	X					
UNIDO	X					
UNODC	X					
UNWTO	X					
UPU	X					
WCO	X					
WHO	X					
WIPO	X					
WMO	X					
WTO/OMC	X					

Table A.2. **Main activity of the IO**

IOs	Accreditation services	Production of technical standards	Legal tools that are legally binding by international law	Soft, consensual framework (development of good practices, guidelines, etc.)	Pure exchange of information
AHWP				X	
APEC				X	
ASTM International		X			
BRS Conv.			X		
CARICOM			X		
CBD				X	
CITES			X		
COMESA			X		
EC			X		
ESCWA				X	
FAO			X		
IAEA		X			
IAF	X				
IAIS		X			
IATA		X			
ICN				X	
IEC		X			
IFAC				X	
ILAC	X				
IMDRF				X	
IMF				X	
IMO			X		
IOSCO		X			
ISO		X			
ITU		X			
NATO					X
OAS			X		
OECD				X	
OIE		X			
OIF					X
OIML		X			
OIV				X	
OPCW			X		
OSCE				X	
OTIF			X		
OZONE					X
PIC/S		X			
SAICM					X

Table A.2. **Main activity of the IO** (*cont.*)

IOs	Accreditation services	Production of technical standards	Legal tools that are legally binding by international law	Soft, consensual framework (development of good practices, guidelines, etc.)	Pure exchange of information
UNDP Water & Oceans				X	
UNECE		X			
UNEP				X	
UNIDO				X	
UNODC			X		
UNWTO				X	
UPU		X			
WCO		X			
WHO				X	
WIPO			X		
WMO		X			
WTO/OMC			X		

Table A.3. **Scope of purpose of the international organisations**

IOs	Broad purpose (IOs can intervene in all areas)	Specific purpose (IOs limit their intervention to certain areas)
AHWP		Medical device industry
APEC	Agriculture, anti-corruption, automotive, chemicals, competition policy, counter-terrorism, data privacy, education, energy, finance, food security, FTA, gender issues, health, human resources, investment…	
ASTM International	Metals, construction, petroleum, consumer products,… new industries: nanotechnology, additive manufacturing and industrial biotechnology.	
BRS Conv.		Sustainable and sound management and environment/human health protection against hazardous wastes, hazardous chemicals, persistent organic pollutants.
CARICOM	Agriculture, crime and security, culture, education, energy, environment and sustainable development, gender, health, services, sports, tourism, trade, transportation, youth...	
CBD		Sustainable management and use of biodiversity, sustainable management of genetic organisms (biosafety) and of biodiversity genetic resources, environment.
CITES		Wildlife trade, conservation of flora and fauna
COMESA	Trade, customs, investment, infrastructure, climate change, agriculture, environment, natural resources, peace and security, finance, gender, science and technology...	
EC	Agriculture, fisheries and food, development and humanitarian aid, environment and energy, business, economy and finance, culture and education, employment and social affairs, health, custom and tax, justice and citizens' rights...	
ESCWA	Natural resources, technology for development, gender and women issues, social development, economic development and integration, governance and conflict issues...	
FAO		Food and agriculture (animal health/production, antimicrobial resistance, aquaculture, biodiversity, biotechnology, capacity development, child labour in agriculture, climate change, decent rural employment, ecosystem services, environmental and social standards, fisheries, food chain crisis, food loss and food waste, genetic resources, hunger and malnutrition, investment in agriculture, livestock and the environment, nutrition, right to food, water...)
IAEA		Nuclear (nuclear sciences and applications, nuclear energy, nuclear safety and security, technical co-operation and safeguards)
IAF		Conformity assessment (accreditation of third-party conformity assessment bodies in the fields of management system certification, product, process and service certification, certification of persons, verification and validation, or similar conformity assessment activities)
IAIS		Insurance

Table A.3. **Scope of purpose of the international organisations** (*cont.*)

IOs	Broad purpose (IOs can intervene in all areas)	Specific purpose (IOs limit their intervention to certain areas)
IATA		Air transport industry
ICN		Competition policy
IEC		Electrotechnology (electric and electronic products, systems and services)
IFAC		Accountancy
ILAC		Oversight of the implementation of international standards by accreditation bodies involved in the assessment and accreditation of laboratories and inspection bodies.
IMDRF		Medical devices
IMF	Financial stability and monetary co-operation, international trade, employment and sustainable economic growth, poverty reduction	
IMO		Safety, security and environmental performance of international shipping
IOSCO		Security markets, derivatives markets, financial markets
ISO	Every industry, from technology, to food safety, to agriculture and healthcare	
ITU		Telecommunication, information and communication technologies
NATO		Security, defence, military
OAS	Access to information, corruption, children, culture, cyber security, demining, democracy, disarmament, drugs, e-government, education, elections, environment, governance, human development, human rights, indigenous peoples, intellectual property, justice, labor, migration, peace, racism and Intolerance, refugees, science and technology, telecommunications, terrorism, tourism, trade, women, youth...	
OECD	All policy areas of economic relevance	
OIE		Animal health (terrestrial, aquatic and wildlife), veterinary education, veterinary public health, food safety and animal welfare, international trade in animals and animal products, laboratory diagnostic methods, vaccine quality
OIF		Francophonie (culture, economy, linguistic diversity, democracy and peace, intercultural dialogue, education, sustainable development)
OIML	Legal metrology	
OIV		Vines, wine, wine-based beverages, table grapes, raisins and other vine-based products
OPCW		Chemical industry, Chemical weapons prevention
OSCE		Security (arms control and CSBMs, border management, countering transnational threats, economic and environmental aspects of security, human dimension of security, conflict prevention and resolution)

Table A.3. **Scope of purpose of the international organisations** (*cont.*)

IOs	Broad purpose (IOs can intervene in all areas)	Specific purpose (IOs limit their intervention to certain areas)
OTIF		Carriage by rail (international carriage of passengers and goods, carriage of dangerous goods, carriage vehicles, railway infrastructure, railway material, international rail traffic)
OZONE		Environment / human health protection (phase out of production and consumption of listed ozone-depleting substances under the Montreal Protocol on Substances that Deplete the Ozone Layer in order to protect human health and the environment)
PIC/S		Good manufacturing practice for medicinal products for human or veterinary use
SAICM		Chemicals (environmental, economic, social, health and labour aspects of chemical safety, agricultural and industrial chemicals)
UNDP Water & Oceans		Water and ocean governance
UNECE	Economic co-operation and integration, environmental policy, forestry and timber, housing and land management, population, sustainable energy, trade, transport...	
UNEP		Environment protection (environmental governance, climate change, ecosystem management, disasters and conflicts, chemicals and waste, resource efficiency, environmental review and assessment)
UNIDO	Industrial development, trade, energy, environment, agri-business, poverty reduction...	
UNODC		Crime and drug prevention, anticorruption, terrorism prevention
UNWTO		Tourism
UPU		Postal sector, e-commerce and electronic services, postal security
WCO		Customs
WHO		Health (health systems, promoting health through the life-course, non-communicable diseases, communicable diseases, preparedness, surveillance and response)
WIPO		Intellectual property
WMO		Meteorology (weather, climate, hydrology and water resources, environmental issues, related meteorological areas: aviation, shipping, water problems, agriculture and human activities)
WTO/OMC		International trade

Glossary

Accreditation service: Accreditation is the independent evaluation of conformity assessment bodies against recognised standards to carry out specific activities to ensure their impartiality and competence (http://ilac.org/about-ilac).

Decision-making rules: For the purpose of this survey, the different categories should be understood as follows:

- Unanimity: absence of objection to a proposal;
- Consensus: agreement of all to a proposal;
- Simple majority: there are more votes in favour than against amongst those present at the vote;
- Absolute majority: in favour votes represent more than 50% of the votes;
- Qualified majority: in favour votes represent more than a preset threshold value larger than 50% of the votes.

***Ex ante* regulatory impact assessment**: *Ex ante* regulatory impact assessment is the systematic process of identification and quantification of benefits and costs likely to flow from regulatory or non-regulatory options for a policy under consideration. The process may be based on different methodologies, such as benefit/cost analysis, cost effectiveness analysis, business impact analysis etc. (OECD, 2009).

***Ex post* evaluation of implementation and impacts**: *Ex post* evaluation is defined as the assessment of existing regulations in terms of their implementation and outcomes. It can examine the relevance, effectiveness, and impacts of regulatory decisions, as well as, identifying unintended outcomes, reason for failure, and factors contributing to success (OECD, 2008).

Harmonisation: Co-operation between governments to make laws more uniform and coherent. It does not necessarily imply uniformity of rules and may include reducing differences in regulatory standards and procedures (based on OECD, 2013).

International regulatory co-operation (IRC): International regulatory co-operation is defined broadly, "as any agreement or organisational arrangement, formal or informal, between countries (at the bilateral, regional or multilateral level) to promote some form of co-operation in the design, monitoring, enforcement, or *ex post* management of regulation, with a view to support the converging and consistency of rules across borders." IRC includes non-binding and voluntary arrangements as well as legal obligations (OECD, 2013).

Regulation: Regulation is defined as the decisions and instruments implemented within the framework of public actions, directly or indirectly, to improve social welfare. Regulation includes laws and regulations but also administrative formalities, code of conduct, etc. (OECD, 2013).

Regulators: The OECD defines regulators as "entities authorised by statute to use legal tools to achieve policy objectives, imposing obligations or burdens (…). Regulators may take a variety of institutional forms. A regulator may be a unit within a ministry or a separate entity with its own statutory foundation" (OECD, 2014).

Glossary references

OECD (2014), *The Governance of Regulators, OECD Best Practice Principles for Regulatory Policy*, OECD Publishing, Paris, http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264209015-en

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ORGANISATION FOR ECONOMIC CO-OPERATION AND DEVELOPMENT

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International Regulatory Co-operation

THE ROLE OF INTERNATIONAL ORGANISATIONS IN FOSTERING BETTER RULES OF GLOBALISATION

Contents

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Chapter 8. Profiles of international organisations

Annex A. Classifications of IOs

On International Regulatory Co-operation

International Regulatory Co-operation and International Organisations: The Case of the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO) (2016)

International Regulatory Co-operation and International Organisations: The Case of the International Organization for Standardization (ISO) (2016)

International Regulatory Co-operation and International Organisations: The Case of the International Organization for Legal Metrology (OIML) (2016)

International Regulatory Co-operation and International Organisations: The Case of the United Nations Economic Commission for Europe (UNECE) (2016)

International Regulatory Co-operation and International Organisations: The Case of the World Health Organization (WHO) (2016)

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