FOOD FOR ALL: A CHALLENGE FOR THE 21st CENTURY

Crawford Lecture
Washington, DC
December 5, 2006

Anne-Marie Lizin
President of the Senate of the Kingdom of Belgium
The Consultative Group on International Agricultural Research (CGIAR) is a strategic alliance of countries, international and regional organizations, and private foundations supporting 15 international agricultural research Centers that work with national agricultural research systems and civil society organizations including the private sector. The Group mobilizes agricultural science to reduce poverty, foster human well-being, promote agricultural growth and protect the environment. The CGIAR generates global public goods that are available to all.
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Introduction

I would like first to thank you for having chosen me to address you this evening on the occasion of the prestigious Crawford Lecture.

As policymakers, and also as human beings, we are faced with a paradox. In our societies, we live amid incalculable abundance, but over 1 billion people are living below the threshold of extreme poverty. Today, over 840 million people are hungry. Each year, 6 million children under the age of 5 die of malnutrition. That unfortunate fact being so, the first of the eight Millennium Development Goals, which is to reduce by half between 2000 and 2015 the proportion of people living on less than a dollar a day, will probably not be met.

The role of agricultural research is essential, in my view, when one considers that food security is one of the fundamental challenges—if not the fundamental challenge—in the fight against poverty. The food security of poor counties will depend, of course, upon the results of agricultural research, provided that it is focused on poverty reduction and sustainable development.

Belgium is a founding Member of the Consultative Group on International Agricultural Research (CGIAR), the goal of which is to combat hunger and poverty and to promote sustainable and environ-
mentally sound development. For over 30 years, Belgium has not only helped to fund the CGIAR Centers, but has also financed partnerships with Belgian universities, which have a venerable tradition of tropical agricultural research.

The challenges facing the CGIAR in the 21st century fit in perfectly with Belgian policy on development cooperation. My country is of the opinion that investment in agricultural research is crucial in a world in which 75 percent of the poor depend on agriculture for their survival. I wish to highlight that the European countries are collectively the largest donor to the CGIAR and that this is an indication of how important the CGIAR’s projects are for Europeans.

In May 2006, my colleagues and I at the Belgian Senate organized, in collaboration with the CGIAR, a day-long workshop entitled “From Earth to Man: Agricultural Research and Development Cooperation,” in order to reinvigorate and further broaden this interest.

It is generally acknowledged internationally that, since its creation in 1971, the CGIAR has achieved remarkable results in its sphere of activity. Indeed, the Green Revolution in Asia is associated with the name CGIAR. My personal admiration for the organization dates back to my first visit to the International Center for Agricultural Research in the Dry Areas in Aleppo, Syrian Arab Republic, and to Bioversity at the Catholic University of Louvain in Belgium.

The international collection of genetic material of the genus *Musa* managed by the International Network for the Improvement of Banana and Plantain (INIBAP) is the world’s largest collection of banana plants. It contains over 1,100 accessions of wild species as well as of local, commercial and improved varieties. This collection is held in trust for the international community under the auspices of the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) of the United Nations and is located at the Catholic University of Louvain in Belgium. Most of the accessions were provided by INIBAP’s partners in national programs and have been graciously made available to all users.
Bananas, and especially the cooking varieties, are a staple food. This crop is cultivated in over 120 countries on over 10 million hectares. Bananas are the fourth most widely cultivated food plant, after rice, wheat and maize.

Agronomic research has made it possible to boost the incomes of smallholders and to protect millions of hectares of forest. The challenges are still enormous, however. It should be noted in particular—and this may seem elementary—that it will be necessary to feed a human population that may, according to some estimates, reach 9 billion by 2050. Africans constitute the most precariously situated portion of this population and therefore have Europe as a priority interlocutor.

It is possible to feed everyone today, but this will require that national decision makers devote themselves to the attainment of this goal, and they need help in doing so. Worldwide poverty reduction is the long-term structural response to the global challenges of peace, security, human migration and environmental protection. This is why development polices are crucial in this area. With your permission, I would therefore like to turn now to the various aspects of development policies and show how these policies are intimately linked to other challenges facing our contemporary societies:

(i) development and globalization, with the emergence of cooperation based on blocs;
(ii) lack of security as a step backward for development;
(iii) strengthening of governments (I will attempt to explain that there can be no development without effective government—that is to say, without what is commonly called good governance—but especially without a functioning government structure that can also accommodate some decentralization. The example of the Democratic Republic of Congo offers real hope);
(iv) development must take today’s environmental issues into account;
(v) the issue of the links between migration and development;
(vi) women must have access to power;
(vii) the crucial role to be played by nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) and civil society in development policies; and
Development and globalization

Let me start by emphasizing the scope of the globalization phenomenon and its impact upon the development of the countries of the South. It is a fact that globalization has inevitably brought about a rapprochement between the so-called developing countries and those that are supposedly developed. Globalization means, first and foremost, greater interdependence among economies, countries, peoples and human beings.

It means the arrival of 1 billion additional workers on the international labor market within the next 10 years. It will mean competition in terms of where enterprises are to be placed. It will also mean competition between the world views of different groups, and it will mean that some very modern countries are going to have to share the planet with traditional countries in which some people are still living in the Middle Ages. It means the mixing of the populations of large cities and an increasingly urgent need to combat racism.

In terms of agricultural policies, one must remember that the international financial and commercial institutions began a process of agricultural liberalization that was heightened in the 1980s and that then accelerated from 1994 onward with the creation of the World Trade Organization (WTO). The liberalization of this sector is causing the developing countries to import a growing number of basic agricultural products and staple foods, which are often cheaper than local foods. Due to policies that constitute a sort of social and environmental “dumping,” international agricultural prices are thus being set at levels far below local prices, and the result, in the absence of compensatory policies, is often that a growing number of local and household producers are being cast into poverty.

In addition, agricultural research is increasingly geared to industrial-style agricultural and food production in order to meet the demands
for homogeneity, reduced cost and profitability that globalization entails.

In this context, a number of NGOs and farmers’ organizations, as well as international institutions, are pointing out the growing discrepancy between the goals of research and the needs of farmers in the countries of the South. Regarding genetically modified organisms, for example, many NGOs and farmers’ organizations are opposed to them. However, it must be recognized that the issue has still not been resolved internationally and that there is still no unanimity on the subject. This fascinating debate shows, however, that agricultural research is an integral part of the public discourse and that it can sometimes mobilize the populace. It is therefore not just a scientific matter.

From the European standpoint, the liberalization of international trade is not necessarily the appropriate response to the challenge of providing food for all. The importance of increased global food production is also relative. Indeed, the problem today is not so much a shortage of food—since scientists estimate that the world is already capable, at least in theory, of feeding a population twice the size of its present one—as it is one of disparities in access to food and transportation infrastructure. The remarkable scientific advances in agriculture and nutrition over the past 30 years have scarcely reduced hunger and malnutrition among the poorest populations.

Although governments are still officially the primary entities responsible for defending human rights in their territories, the current trend toward globalization and greater international independence means that nation states, especially in Africa, are no longer able to protect their citizens from the impact of decisions made by other actors. In an increasingly globalized and integrated world, the power of nation states is often eclipsed by that of other actors, including powerful countries, multinational companies and international organizations. While these actors have admittedly been the target of extensive negative campaigning, they have played a key role in structuring the teams in power in most of the aid-receiving countries.
People often speak of the danger facing multilateralism. In my opinion, the peril that multilateralism is now experiencing arises not from bilateralism in the area of development cooperation, but instead from concentrating donor countries by broad geographic area, e.g., Europe, China and North America. Within 10 years, China will be managing its immense financial potential. Europe is still placing its assets into the sort of multilateral hands that you represent. But are we sure that Europe is not already tempted to work bilaterally, if only for monetary (i.e., Euro versus dollar) reasons?

Each year, Europe deploys €10 billion for cooperation. It is therefore understandable that its contribution to multilateral organizations would be analyzed in terms of its financial return, as well as in terms of the amounts set aside out of this aid to meet fiduciary standards that can be extremely high. Trust funds, for example, sometimes attract criticism that may reinforce the idea that it is less costly to work “as a region.”

We must acknowledge the danger that multilateralism could be weakened by a growing trend for cooperation to be organized into large regional blocs.

**Development and security**

Insecurity makes development impossible. Those who orchestrate armed conflict care little or nothing for the fate of local people. In Europe, and in the public opinion of donor countries generally, they inspire a sort of revulsion that sometimes leads to a refusal to give further aid.

Since the early 1990s, security issues have loomed larger in interventions and then in the discourse regarding public aid to development. The security-related foundations of aid, which were initially addressed from the standpoint of the most fundamental human rights and the so-called “human security approach,” have now expanded to include the destabilization risks that could threaten certain governments or regions of the world, such as Africa, and, ultimately, the need to ensure the security of the donor countries themselves.
Insecurity and violent conflict are, in fact, among the most important obstacles to the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals.

Over the past few decades, wars and violent conflict have destroyed thousands of lives and wiped out decades of economic development. Studies have shown that, on average, developing countries involved in armed conflict experience annual gross domestic product (GDP) growth of minus 2 percent. In addition—and this goes without saying—wars and conflicts provoke uncontrolled population movements, intensify pressure on the environment, destabilize the societies and governmental structures of neighboring countries and regions, and provide fertile ground for terrorism, extremist groups of all stripes and organized crime.

Here again, we see that Africa is squarely in the midst of areas in which populations are subject to violent, lawless, nongovernmental conflict perpetrated by criminal gangs and supported by networks of arms dealers.

The European Union (EU) intends, within the respective mandates of the community and the member states, to step up controls over its weapons exports in order to ensure that arms manufactured in the EU are not used against civilian populations and do not aggravate existing tensions or conflicts in developing countries. The EU, including Belgium, also supports the principle of the “obligation to protect.” We are obligated to react to genocide, war crimes, ethnic cleansing and other flagrant violations of international humanitarian law and human rights.

The development of the European Policy for Security and Defense and the European Common Security Policy is significant in this regard. Examples include Operation Artemis in Ituri Province, Congo, and European Union Force (EUFOR) in Congo-Kinshasa, and the number of operations is increasing.

Although some countries and regions of Africa are enduring conflict, have fragile or nonexistent governments, or are in the throes of post-
conflict reconstruction, others have experienced lengthy periods of peace, security, economic and political stability, and democratic participation. These stable countries play an essential role in steadying their regions. Over the past few decades, for example, most North African countries have experienced long-term stability, although they must regularly deal with the actions of extremist groups.

With respect to security and development, Africa is a priority. International awareness of Africa’s situation has greatly increased over the past few years, and the continent is now exhibiting visible signs of a true dynamic for change.

The past few years have seen the emergence in Africa of a number of new external actors attracted by the continent’s economic potential and by its political and strategic importance. Trade between China and Africa went from US$10 billion in 2000 to $28.5 billion in 2004, and since 2000 over 25 percent of China’s crude oil consumption has been imported from Africa. China represents, particularly for countries dependent upon exporting petroleum and basic commodities, a source of substantial and steady financial revenues and especially one that stands outside the traditional frameworks of development and good governance and operates without constraining ties to those frameworks.

Three-quarters of European aid goes toward disaster management!

While others are aware of the continent’s strategic role, this priority attention to Africa must be better structured so as to give some power to states that make the effort to exercise good governance and democratic practices.

The reality of African conflict means that we must devote much effort to resolving these grave situations so that we can intervene and develop governments. Africans must be able to control their borders, carry out peacekeeping activities, jointly manage their water-sheds, use natural and mineral resources for the benefit of the state budget, and formulate public and collective policy. In short, we must
prevent state resources from going to the leaders of armed gangs or semi-tolerated militias that contribute nothing to state coffers.

**Development and public regulation: restoring the image of the state**

Without governments, there is no hope for poverty reduction. Without effective, decentralized governments, there can be no real fight.

The EU currently earmarks €46 billion annually for development aid. The stakes are therefore high for the EU, which thus accounts for over half of worldwide aid to development. However, the important thing is not just the volume of aid but also the way in which we use it and the goals that we are pursuing.

Aid alone is of little use. We have learned this costly lesson in the course of a half-century of development aid. Aid must not simply exist alongside, or superimpose itself upon, the national policies of developing countries. It must instead support the virtuous policies instituted by governments and regional organizations. Aid must be a response to demand and to commitment on the part of our partners. The structural strengthening of governments is essential if we are to inspire endorsement of public objectives and promote the primacy of public service (e.g., in education and healthcare) over the goal of personal enrichment.

This hierarchy of values has been hidden for too long and must be restored to its rightful position. The state must be capable of preparing a budget and fiscal rules, and of implementing them.

But aid to development can also serve as leverage for the introduction good governance policies. What do we mean by “good governance”? Good governance means strengthening the capacities of public institutions so that they can assume the governmental and economic management tasks incumbent upon any government worthy of the name. Sustainable and balanced development is impossible without robust public institutions and strong governments. Good
governance also means strengthening and enforcing the rule of law and respect for basic liberties and democratic principles.

Unless there is clear progress in governance, the Millennium Development Goals cannot be achieved, and additional aid will always be limited to scattershot and relatively ineffective charitable interventions.

Good governance is therefore only one part of the fight against corruption. Adherence to procedures, a capacity for intervention, and funding for local political choices are also essential.

The fight against corruption therefore requires the consolidation of the capacities of governments to assume their rightful prerogatives. However, there is also a need to emphasize dialogue and positive incentives rather than sanctions and conditions. Policy dialogue with our partners is thus an essential instrument for achieving this progress.

I welcome the program presented by the World Bank in 2006 at its annual meeting in Singapore. This program sets out some very effective measures related to governance and anti-corruption efforts. The World Bank is at the forefront of empirical and operational research in the area of governance and corruption, and in the development and implementation of governance diagnostic surveys. The governance indicators of the World Bank Institute are a remarkable tool for assessing reforms in over 200 countries on the basis of six criteria: (i) freedom of expression and accountability, (ii) political stability and the absence of serious violence or terrorism, (iii) effective government, (iv) quality of regulation, (v) primacy of law, and (vi) control of corruption. As World Bank President Paul Wolfowitz emphasized in a speech delivered in 2006 in Jakarta, the World Bank is pursuing a three-pronged approach. At the national level, it is helping countries to develop the institutional capacity to design and implement anti-corruption programs. At the project level, it is very important to investigate alleged cases of fraud and corruption. And, finally, at the global level, partnerships must be broadened within the framework of joint anti-corruption initiatives.
My six reports presented from 1998 through 2003 to the Human Rights Commission in Geneva have indicated each year that decentralization is an essential element in the structure of governments:

(i) There is a need to respect specific local conditions, including access for the poor, since it affords an opportunity to communicate with illiterate populations.
(ii) There is a need for resources enabling decentralized entities to act.
(iii) There is a need for oversight and assessment of state functioning.
(iv) And local policy must reflect the realities of decentralized governments.

The most important current example is undoubtedly that of the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC). The inauguration tomorrow (December 6, 2006) of President Kabila is a very hopeful occasion. If the donor countries, along with organizations such as the CGIAR and, more generally, the World Bank, put some real resources behind this new President, and if state structures are supported and the decentralization of this enormous territory receives the attention it deserves (i.e., if decentralization is seen as a priority for the future viability of the DRC), then there is hope of the country being able to feed its people. The CGIAR should confirm, if it can, that it is willing to help feed all parts of the DRC, develop a model program and fulfill the hopes of this hardworking nation that has survived some of the worst tragedies of the 20th and early 21st centuries.

Sustainable development, environment and energy

More than any other social stratum, the poor are powerfully affected by the natural environment. They often depend directly on natural resources for their livelihood. Locally, the poor are often the ones most affected by unclean water, air pollution and exposure to toxic chemicals. They are particularly vulnerable to environmental risks associated with floods, drought, climate change and environment-related conflict such as access to water, land, etc.
Global warming will further increase the pressure on water resources and will affect biodiversity and human health, compromise food security, and aggravate desertification.

I have already said that three-quarters of European aid is spent on disaster situations. It therefore seems to me that regulation is essential in this area. Soils, petroleum, gas, mineral assets, forest resources, aquatic life and aquifers are often privately owned, but their use is ultimately everyone’s business, whether we like it or not. Natural resources may be economic goods, but they must be considered above all as global public assets in need of protection.

Their use must therefore be subject to framework laws that limit abuses and set out minimum objectives. The energy debate, and the issue of supplying energy to such powers as Europe and China, is at the heart of the current anxieties. At the Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe summit, which has been going on since yesterday [4 December 2006] in Brussels, the old conflicts in the former Soviet Union have been left on the back burner, as petroleum and gas routes are now the keys to power. Do we need to revisit the nuclear power option? Or should we use up petroleum and gas reserves at an accelerated rate?

**Development and migration**

Migrations have been a fact of life since ancient times but are an increasingly important issue nowadays in the relationship between Africa and Europe. Whereas migration used to be considered a result of underdevelopment, it is now increasingly viewed as a tool for reducing poverty in the migrants’ countries of origin. The migration phenomenon is now more generally accepted, and its positive impact in terms of strengthening linkages between sending and receiving countries is now recognized. These exchanges represent an opportunity and a source of cultural, social and economic enrichment for the various continents.
From the standpoint of global development, migration is an essentially positive phenomenon. It is positive for the individual concerned, because he or she is realizing personal aspirations. It is positive for the developed countries in that it boosts the labor force and offsets labor shortages. And it is, of course, positive for developing countries because it brings in amounts of foreign currency that now far exceed the volume of public aid.

But migrations also cause profound imbalances and even human tragedies. Migration can pose problems when the person concerned falls victim to criminal traffickers due to the inadequacy of legal mechanisms for dealing with migration situations, and when integration policies fail.

Immigration represents, or is experienced as, a danger in terms of the radicalization of European populations, who increasingly reject population groups that are difficult to absorb or that refuse to assimilate. The extreme right poses a real danger.

In the absence of collaborative regulation among the sending, transit and receiving countries—it being understood that, where migratory flows are concerned, most of our countries are simultaneously sending, transit and receiving countries—these imbalances are starting to worry everyone. They pose threats, in Africa as well as in Europe, to such essentials as human dignity, respect for national sovereignty, economic and social stability, and the maintenance of public order in the face of organized crime. These are all critical factors in the stability and progress of each of our countries. All are inseparable from the development partnership between Europe and Africa.

A conference on this subject was held in Rabat, Morocco, on 10-11 July 2006 and was attended by 30 European countries (i.e., the 25 EU members plus Iceland, Bulgaria, Romania, Norway and Switzerland), 28 African nations, and the relevant organizations both international (African Union) and regional (Economic Community Of West African States, or ECOWAS, and Communaute Economique et Monetaire de l’Afrique Centrale, or CEMAC). Because we know that the destinies
of all of our countries are intertwined, we wish to establish a mecha-
nism whereby we can create a partnership involving the African and
European countries located along migratory routes.

The Rabat Initiative is innovative in two ways. It is the first initiative
that gathers together the sending, transit and receiving countries
along the migratory routes linking Africa and Europe. It is also the
first time that development and co-development policies, the organi-
zation of legal migration, and the fight against illegal migration have
been addressed simultaneously.

Admittedly, the past 2 years have seen an abundance of conferences
devoted to analyzing immigration. I had an opportunity to participate
in meetings preceding the Madrid Summit on Illegal Immigration and
thereby to become familiar with the pressures that Latin America is
exerting on Spain.

Three inseparable measures are called for with regard to immigration
policy:
(i) the promotion of development, the establishment of financial
instruments conducive to co-development, the development of
knowledge and know-how and of measures aimed at ensur-
ing that adequate skill sets are available for the development of
African countries, partnerships between scientific and technical
institutions, and enhanced cooperation in the area of education
and training, particularly at the university level;
(ii) legal migration through the establishment of cooperative pro-
grams for the management of legal migration and of measures
to facilitate the circulation of workers and other people; and
(iii) cooperation in the fight against illegal immigration, strengthen-
ing of the border control capacities of the sending and receiving
countries, operational cooperation at the policing and judicial
levels, aid to victims, financing mechanisms, and institutional
frameworks for these interventions (e.g., European Agency for
the Management of Operational Cooperation at the External
Borders of the Member States of the European Union, or
FRONTEX).
Development and the promotion of gender equality

There is a strong correlation between gender inequality and poverty. Of the 1.5 billion people living in poverty, it is estimated that 70 percent are women. This is not just a question of unequal access to economic and social resources but a policy issue as well.

In order to eradicate poverty and bring about sustainable development, one must tackle the problem of gender equity. This means that the various impacts on women’s lives of AIDS, armed conflict and unequal access to land, etc., must be increasingly factored into development policies in the coming years.

Indeed, outside of the so-called formal economy, subsistence is to a large extent assured by the undervalued work of women. According to a United Nations Development Programme survey, there are more women than men in the workforce. Of the $23 trillion generated in the world, women’s unpaid work is equivalent to $11 trillion.

Women are employed in the formal and informal economic sectors. They are plentiful in industry (80 percent of workers in free trade zones, for example, are female), agriculture, trade and the home. In addition, economic liberalization often entails deterioration in working conditions, and this is particularly true for women, who are often subject to job insecurity and unequal pay.

When public authorities neglect their obligations and the main basic services are privatized, women’s work becomes still more onerous. Basic healthcare, education, the quest for sufficient food, and daily access to safe water then become tasks that essentially fall to women.

It is important to underline the need to integrate gender equality into the macro-economic approach to development. Thus, it is not enough to propose micro-loans for women; in developing various economic programs, one must also grant them the role of full-fledged stakeholders.
In both developed and developing countries, the right to freedom of expression for women and women’s organizations must be addressed mainly in negotiations occurring in the WTO, International Monetary Fund, World Bank and EU.

Sustainable development is impossible unless gender equality is a reality, not only in legal, political, economic and societal terms, but also in actual fact. Every development program must include a strategy aimed at promoting gender equality. No development program is neutral; each one has different impacts on men and women, depending on whether the beneficiaries are poor or not, or whether they are urban or rural.

There are various strategies for integrating gender issues. Affirmative action refers to positive discriminatory measures on behalf of a group or an entire disadvantaged or underrepresented population segment. Affirmative action can be a means of promoting gender equity. Gender mainstreaming, or the integration of gender equity, means the integration of the gender dimension into all sectors and all phases of the project cycle. Integrating the gender dimension means that one takes preventive action to ensure gender equity, and that one weighs the effects of a policy on both sexes as soon as it is implemented.

A combination of these two approaches can offset their respective weak points. Affirmative action addresses the risk that the assigned budget will be too small and that gender dimensions will not be well expressed throughout the program. Integration of gender addresses the risk that, if a project is not explicitly geared to women, insufficient attention will be paid to the various needs, tasks and roles of men and women or to the varying impacts on each sex. Integration of gender cannot be simply a matter of adding a women’s component to existing development programs. It implies a re-thinking of cooperative relationships between counties on the basis of aspects that women deem important, and it also means putting women in positions of power.

It is not true that, as is often said, it takes time to change attitudes in this area. All men know in their hearts that women are their equals.
However, if they are given good reasons (e.g., women’s inferiority, impurity, etc.) to avoid admitting it, why would they give up their power? Fundamentalist discourse is revealing in this respect; it is an instrument of power over women that always has a retrograde influence on the entire society.

**Development and civil society**

Public opinion, associations and NGOs are now bringing increased pressure to bear on governments. François Bourguignon, chief economist at the World Bank, emphasizes that the highly structured reports issued by a number of NGOs have helped push many issues to the forefront and have changed the approach adopted by the world community and the international financial institutions.

The associative community, powerfully organized and capable of spurring widespread mobilization, has achieved acceptance as an interlocutor on questions related to development and international public aid. This mobilization is occurring on all fronts. As noted by Jean-Michel Séverino, a former vice-president of the World Bank, criticism leveled by civil society accuses public apparatuses of indifference to the ultimate beneficiaries, harming the environment, mistreating local cultures, exacerbating inequalities, and shoring up authoritarian political regimes.

The growing awareness of the role of NGOs is due to the successes they have had in managing humanitarian emergencies. They are very often in the field before the international community has given its organizations a mandate to intervene, and this lends particular weight to their publicly adopted stances.

As United Nations Secretary General Kofi Annan points out: “The nature of diplomacy, too, is changing everywhere to take in civil society. Traditionally, diplomacy has been an activity conducted exclusively by state actors and a subject debated exclusively by paid experts. In the United Nations a few decades ago, the governments of member states were virtually the sole players in the international process;
NGOs were seen as supporters, allies and mobilizers of public opinion in favor of the goals and values of the United Nations Charter."

Let us not be naïve; there are NGOs with very specific political agendas, some of which were created to oppose a government. However, it is through transparency on the part of NGOs (e.g., regarding their finances, the composition of their boards, press coverage of their members, etc.) that it will be possible to bring about positive changes in this milieu as well, which is now a valuable component of international intervention.

**Development and decentralized cooperation**

The various peoples of the world observe one another, speak to one another, see one another on television, and compare themselves to one another. Sometimes they hate each other, but occasionally they also feel an affinity for one another. It is in cities that inhabitants can establish contacts and that authorities can have actual relationships with the populace at the grassroots. Cooperation in the future will involve cities, and especially large cities.

Any plan for decentralized cooperation involves the preparation of a preliminary joint diagnostic to assess the direct and indirect impacts of the interventions envisaged, in the social, economic, environmental and cultural areas, and over the short, medium and long terms. This diagnostic makes it possible to arrive at an informed decision about a project’s implementation, its modification or rejection, or the preparation of a different project. In addition, the definition of collaborative evaluation mechanisms, which should be required prior to any project implementation, will make it possible to limit, anticipate, manage or avoid negative project impacts.

The specific characteristic of decentralized cooperation is that it constitutes territory-to-territory cooperation involving, over time, all of the actors present. The involvement of local populations fosters greater ownership of the stakes involved in cooperation, and helps create a sense of being a citizen of both Europe and the world.
Residents of territorial collectivities that are partners must be informed of actions undertaken and must be involved in their implementation. The goal is to put in place an impartial and universally comprehensible information and communication system. It must be accompanied by a program aimed at educating people about the stakes involved in sustainable development within the framework of cooperation.

These are true cooperative measures that involve treating the mayors of cities and their colleagues as important actors and important development contacts.

The EU is also helping to reduce poverty in developing countries by determining the logistics of the management of decentralized cooperation. Decentralized cooperation focuses on strengthening the capacity for dialogue of civil societies in developing countries, so as to foster the emergence of democracy.

If the goal is to involve actors other than traditional NGOs, decentralized cooperation is the most useful technique for involving all parties active in cooperation within the EU and in the developing countries. These include (i) local public authorities, including municipal authorities; (ii) local grassroots organizations; (iii) professional groups; (iv) groups promoting local initiatives; (v) cooperatives; (v) labor unions; (vi) organizations representing economic and social stakeholders; (vii) local organizations, including networks, active in the area of decentralized cooperation and regional integration; (viii) consumers’ organizations; (ix) women’s and young people’s organizations; (x) educational, cultural, research-related and scientific organizations; (xi) universities; (xii) churches; (xiii) religious associations or communities; (xiv) the media; and (xv) all nongovernmental associations and independent foundations capable of making a contribution to development.

With this forward-looking technique, it is possible, from one city to the next, and in a global framework, to address the real needs of illiterate populations, respect them, and generate a public sentiment in favor of solidarity with them and justice for them.
Conclusions

All human beings are entitled to live in dignity and free from hunger. In a world that is richer than ever, hunger and famine are not inevitable but constitute a human rights violation.

However, the goal of a more just and peaceful world cannot be achieved unless development is sustainable—that is, unless it is designed for the long term and based on solidarity between people and between current and future generations. It must combine justice and social equity, economic viability, environmental responsibility, and respect for cultural and natural diversity, all of which must be based on democratic governance both locally and worldwide.

We must use development aid to construct a less dangerous world, a safer world, and one that is more democratic and able to enhance everyone’s security.

The CGIAR is, in our opinion, an indispensable partner in these efforts.

The dangers are numerous, and the CGIAR can help overcome them. We must not rely upon development aid dispensed only by the large operators, i.e., the United States and Canada, Europe, and China. We must, instead, maintain a global order, which is now in danger. We must not neglect governments but, instead, strengthen them. We must decentralize the excessively centripetal structures of governments and foster decentralized cooperation, giving cities the means to enter into cooperative activities. We must give women confidence in their strength and make them full-fledged participants in development capable of taking their rightful place within the power structure. We must give absolute priority to Africa.

I suggest that the DRC should be viewed as evidence of the CGIAR’s effectiveness, and that we should begin more or less afresh with the new President.

Development for all!
The Sir John Crawford Memorial Lecture has been sponsored by the Australian government since 1985 in honor of the distinguished Australian civil servant, educator and agriculturalist, who was one of the founders of the Consultative Group on International Agricultural Research. Sir John (1910-1984) was the first chair of the CGIAR’s Technical Advisory Committee.

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1992  Enrique V. Iglesias, Uruguay  
1991  CGIAR Twentieth Anniversary Commemoration  
1990  M. S. Swaminathan, India  
1989  Jacques Diouf, Senegal  
1988  Helen Hughes, Australia  
1987  Amartya Sen, India  
1986  Buka Sršaib, Nigeria  
1985  Robert S. McNamara, United States
CGIAR Members

African Development Bank
Arab Fund for Economic and Social Development
Asian Development Bank
Australia
Austria
Bangladesh
Belgium
Brazil
Canada
China
Colombia
Commission of the European Community
Côte d’Ivoire
Denmark
Arab Republic of Egypt
Finland
Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations
Ford Foundation
France
Germany
Gulf Cooperation Council
India
Indonesia
Inter-American Development Bank
International Development Research Centre
International Fund for Agricultural Development
Islamic Republic of Iran
Ireland
Israel
Italy
Japan
Kellogg Foundation
Kenya
Republic of Korea
Luxembourg
Malaysia
Mexico
Morocco
Netherlands
New Zealand
Nigeria
Norway
OPEC Fund for International Development
Pakistan
Peru
Philippines
Portugal
Rockefeller Foundation
Romania
Russian Federation
South Africa
Spain
Sweden
Switzerland
Syngenta Foundation for Sustainable Agriculture
Syrian Arab Republic
Thailand
Turkey
Uganda
United Kingdom
United Nations Development Programme
United Nations Environment Programme
United States of America
World Bank