

RePORT

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THE INTERNATIONAL SOCIETY FOR THIRD-SECTOR RESEARCH (ISTR) IS PLEASED TO PRESENT AN OCCASIONAL REPORT.
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“A REVIEW: SECOND ISTR ASIA AND PACIFIC REGIONAL CONFERENCE 2001”

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The Second ISTR Asia and Pacific Regional Conference was held in Osaka between 26-28 October 2001. Sixty-one papers, authored by eighty researchers, were delivered at the Conference (for the abstracts please see: www.asianphilanthropy.org/ndev). In addition, four papers were delivered in Japanese, in an exclusive session, with simultaneous translation in English. In this review essay, I will concentrate on three major themes that were dominant in the conference presentations. These are: indigenous philanthropy; growth and governance of, and cooperation in the Third Sector; and social capital and sustainable development management. A complete list of the papers is at the end of this report.

Indigenous Philanthropy

In one of the most interesting papers presented at the Osaka Conference, Tae-Kyu Park (46)¹ analyses the economic approaches to volunteer labour supply. The three models he highlights are: private consumption, public good, and private investment. As per the private consumption model giving of time, like the giving of money, is a normal utility-bearing good. Volunteer labour is available because the contributors think that their labour contribution could increase public good or public welfare. While the investment model assumes that volunteer work is neither a utility-bearing good in itself, nor a contribution to increase the public good, rather an activity that raises the volunteer's future earning ability by providing working experience and potentially-valuable contacts². Park's study shows that though “private satisfaction motivates volunteering work”³ in Korea, requests, parent's involvement in volunteering, and religion “have been significant factors in volunteer work.”

Park did not analyse the ‘investment model’ in the case of Korea, but Subhash Misra in his paper (43), with examples

from literacy programs in India, reinforces the “investment model” of volunteering. “The volunteers get an opportunity to get to know the senior officials and this could be enough reasons for volunteering.” People also volunteer for other purposes, like improving or upgrading one's status, earning some money or some other financial gains, utilising one's time effectively, or for simply feeling good.

These assertions do not, in any way, undermine the fact that people do also volunteer for true altruistic reason. An altruist may even try to benefit others when the action “risks possible sacrifice to the welfare of the actor.”⁴ But then altruism may not always emanate from “genuine concern for the needy person but rather from the so-called altruist's personal discomfort at seeing someone else in pain,” (cf. Thomas Hobbes) which is labelled as “psychic utility” by economists⁵.

Subhash Misra (43), however, further concludes from his study, that volunteering depends on the continuation of the respective program, achievement of personal objectives, and/or on the prospect of fulfilling personal objectives. Most volunteering, however, require an instigator, especially in rural Asia. The individual and organisational leaders organising volunteering has a major role to play in volunteer sustainability. The Delhi campaign, referred to by Mishra, showed that once the leader left the campaign the volunteers opted out of the campaign.

Atsuko Hattori's (6) contentions strengthens Subhash Misra's findings. Hattori, in his paper, highlights the leaders' or social entrepreneurs' roles and how they do and can help solve social problems in Japan. Social entrepreneurs, following the Kobe earthquake (1995), have been working as catalysts by pulling together voluntary, public, and private organisations to help invest resources, time, and expertise to find solutions to social problems. Hattori looks at

some cases of social entrepreneurs in Japan. But the problem he identifies is that the local government bodies lack understanding of the social entrepreneurs' activities.

Irrespective of the reasons or purpose of volunteering, or of its management pattern, people volunteer any way. In the country with the largest size of population, volunteering naturally could be very high. As Ding Yuan-Zhu in his paper (9) shows that a recent survey in China concludes that the volunteer participation rate in China is around 85%. Thus the total volunteer hours (on an average 25 hours per person annually) translates to 9.5 million full time jobs with an economic value of US\$7.59 billion. In the face of this massive involvement of Chinese people in volunteering the civil (private) social organisations and private non-profit organisations (sponsoring the voluntary works), however, "must accept the supervision and management of government departments" relevant to their works. Thus, senior party and government officials (active or retired) "take leadership positions or at least honorary posts" in these organisations-managing volunteers and achieving 'goals.' Among other things this fact "signifies the degree to which China still lacks a truly independent civil life." But above all it also emphasises the fact that leadership, irrespective of its source, is an important requirement for volunteering.

From Mishra, Hattori, and Yuan-Zhu's papers we can conclude that volunteer programs need to initiate a process of leadership creation. Citizen's participation and awareness also need boosting through a mutual understanding among all the stakeholders.

Dedicated and impressive efforts of volunteers, with or without Third Sector organizations, during the Kobe earthquake in Japan (1995) did much to increase interest among different stakeholders e.g., government officials, political and business leaders, and mass media on the role of the volunteers and the Third Sector in crisis management. The Kobe earthquake in Japan brought about significant change in voluntary activity and organisational structures and the government's outlook and orientation towards the nonprofit sector. Takayoshi Amenomori (48) in his paper analyses these significant changes and highlights how nonprofit organisations (NPO) in Japan have become change agents. The tragic events of Kobe mobilised volunteers and helped the formation of new nonprofit organisations, and also inspired the government at such a level that the MPs themselves introduced the NPO Law bill⁶. The government in Japan has been supporting the nonprofit sector. The problem, however, is due to resource constraints. Third Sector organisations try to get government contracts for service delivery in the hope of becoming equal partners, but may

end up becoming cheap service providing agencies risking challenges by the business sector. So, Amenomori contends that in Japan capacity building of NPOs, and not mobilisation of resources, is considered a priority and is pursued consciously.

Yashavanta Dongre reported the results of a pilot survey of giving among young professionals in Bangalore, India. The donors, as found in the survey, want to give for long term benefits so they consciously avoid beggars (78%). Though 48% give to organisations like orphans, aged and disability centres, educational and animal protection organisations they still doubt the credibility of these organisations. Thus their rate of giving is less than what they would have liked to give had they been guaranteed the end use of the money. Dongre found out that many donors are interested in being educated in giving wisely, and being a part of sustained and purposive giving. This endeavour requires the creation of Third Sector organisations with credibility.

Third Sector: Growth, Governance, and Cooperation

In the recent past, the Third Sector has been growing steadily all over the world to draw and disburse philanthropy. There are two important aspects related to Third Sector organisations that call for better governance, control, and efficiency. Donor countries and international organisations are emphasising more Third Sector involvement in overseeing state activities. So Third Sector organisations should set their homes in order first. Second, with the drying up of overseas funds Third Sector organisations will have to depend on indigenous funds. The more credible the Third Sector organisations are in being efficiently managed, the more likely they are to raise more funds. Many papers presented in Osaka dealt with management and governance issues of Third Sector organisations and their performance in achieving goals.

In Bangladesh, based on a sample survey, Afroza Begum (1) reports, that the NGO activities have created more social than economic impacts on the beneficiaries. In fact, the political impacts of Third Sector activities in Bangladesh in the recent past seem to have been significant as well. The rate of election participation, especially in the case of female voters, has been impressive. In the general election held in 1996, 74% of the voters cast their ballots (as opposed to 48% in 1979 and 57% in 1991). In the local elections held in 1998, 83% of the women cast ballots, and 44,134 women participated in the elections - 90% of them were members of different voluntary organisations. This success is attributed to the consciousness raising and motivational works undertaken by civil society organisations, especially devel-

opment agencies functioning in rural areas of Bangladesh⁷. Actually what happened in Bangladesh and in other resource poor Asian countries is that the people, being failed by respective governments, did have very high hopes for financial achievement from Third Sector involvement. Thus there was a frustration because these organisations had to function within the socio-political framework of the countries concerned and could not do miracles. Further, most respondents to Begum's study were women. These respondents reported economic exploitation by their husbands. Thus the respondents, with new involvement in income generating activities, did not feel much of a change in their personal economic condition and/or decision making ability. Begum's study raises a major question, is economic achievement at all possible without a change in local social structure and attitudes?

In certain cases, however, economic impacts and achievements cannot be identified and analysed because of the secrecy surrounding it in Asian Third Sector organisations. Fernando Aldaba (10) reported in his paper that 90% of the surveyed non-government organisations in the Philippines are registered with the Securities and Exchange Commission. Nevertheless, most of these organisations do not fulfil the government's requirements of annual reporting. Three of the major issues of good governance for Third Sector organisations are: transparency, accountability, and financial sustainability. A major issue related to transparency is financial reporting and making financial accounts available to the public. Aldaba's reported organisations did not do that. Most importantly, however, the financial issues (or even facts) are so sensitive that Aldaba in his study did not ask the organisations any fund-related questions.

Govind Dhakal and Tek Nath Dhakal, in both their papers, referring, among other things, to financial mismanagement, echoes the problem highlighted by Aldaba. Govind Dhakal (12) assesses NGO's intervention in development and Tek Nath Dhakal (49) looks at NGO-government partnership in Nepal. There are more than 5,000 NGOs in Nepal and the 1998 Local Government Act makes it mandatory for the local government authorities to work in close cooperation with NGOs and consumer societies. But some NGOs have their own problems being involved in misappropriating funds and not keeping records nor making a good use of funds though they are "capable of surviving only on foreign funds." Thus Govind Dhakal suggests regular monitoring and evaluation of NGO activities "to keep NGOs in line with the interest of the people." Govind Dhakal in his paper raises two major issues: defining the interest of the people (the NGOs are involved with the poorest of the poor), and

ensuring that the monitoring does not become intervention.

Nepal, since its formation as a nation in 1769, has been "self-sufficient within its self-defined basic needs." Democracy was instituted in the country in 1951 and the government created various organisations at the grassroots level in the 1960s. The NGOs got involved in the development activities only in the 1990s. The local government bodies, grassroots organisations, and NGOs are involved in many development activities, particularly in education and health sectors. Analysing the implications of these essential facts, Tek Nath Dhakal (49) contends that due to the politicisation of both the public and the nonprofit sectors, a better co-ordination between the two has not been achieved. Further, there is a lack of co-ordinating institutions and a strong legal base for working together. His study shows that the awareness creation activities related to education and health achieved more in NGO programming than any income generating and financial activities. This finding is an echo of Afroza Begum's findings in the case of Bangladesh.

NGOs are growing and functioning worldwide but who are the people involved in these organisations? Sangwook Kang explores this question in Korea and reports the result in his paper (39). He classifies the growth of NGOs under two models: bottom-up (ordinary citizens spurting the growth) and top-down model (elite civil society with participation by special groups of people and characterised by a weak tradition of civil society and an authoritative political system). In Korea 34% of civil society organisation presidents have an NGO background and 16% of each are professors and company presidents. In advocacy (voice-oriented) organisations 65% of managers are university graduates and other specialist degree holders, whereas in service providing organisations this rate is 70% (with 37% specialists). This elite centred civil society movement in Korea has seen emphasis on "social issues" rather than "active civil activities." Thus Kang maintains that unless reoriented to specific social actions, civil society organisations in Korea "will reach a deadlock."

Kim Jungbu's paper (20) also supports the elitist nature of K-NGO (Korean NGO). Korean NGOs, termed 'quasi-political-party',⁸ strived to monitor democracy and democratic behaviour of the government in the country but they do not practice democracy themselves nor there is a proper mechanism of accountability. The elitist face of K-NGO has worked very well in terms of efficiency and effectiveness, but has made it difficult for the NGOs to fully capture and act on the rapid change of social demands. In order to survive and grow, Kim Jungbu suggests, K-NGOs "must allow more attentive citizens to take part in the decision mak-

ing bodies, and to disclose organisational management information, raising their openness to supportive people.”

As opposed to the situation in Bangladesh, Korea, and Nepal (as discussed above; where NGOs' success are visible more in socio-political activities), in China the government's “strong prohibition against political organisations outside the state has limited the involvement of voluntary and private institutions in political issues.” Qiusha Ma (32) suggests as long as NGOs do not overtly challenge official rules, the government leaves voluntary organisations alone by keeping “one eye open, the other closed,” because around 150,000 social organisations and more than one million non-government non-commercial enterprises (NGNCE) are registered with the Ministry of Civil Affairs. In addition, there are more than 50,000 voluntary organisations in China with around six million volunteers. The government simply does not have the means to keep close monitoring of these NGNCEs, and social and voluntary organisations' every action. Ma shows, how the Chinese government, in the last few years, has displayed an interest in adapting to new situations and initiating new policies. The growth of NGOs in China simultaneously “along the lines of corporatism, civil society, and other patterns indicates both the continuing power of the party-state as well as the decline in its capacity to control the growth of organizations.”

It is true that the nonprofit sector in China, like all the other countries, is growing. But Zhao Li-Qing (60) in his paper identifies five threats to the young non-profit sector in China: political pursuit, unlawful activities, corrupt practices, psychology of small-scale peasants (eg. social hierarchy, patriarchy), and alienation from common people. These organisations, according to LiQing, also face some challenges: enabling environment, individual organisation development, sectoral development (few horizontal ties), and funding mechanisms (lack of a system to promote and coordinate foundations, donations, international aid, fundraising, and other elements). These threats and challenges also make the government's monitoring work difficult. The nonprofit sector needs better coordination and cooperation to face these threats and challenges.

Cooperation among local groups are also important and desirable in many other situations. Jeffrey Anwar (16) in his paper talking about *adat* (traditional) communities suggests cooperative actions among all the stakeholders. It is evident from his study that the conflicts between state power and the Third Sector power over forest resources are higher in areas where *adat* movements are active. The confrontation and claims for dominant access or rights over the rich forest, and thus unnecessary conflicts lead to further destruction of

forests. Anwar suggests that the government's policy and the forest department officials' actions always favour commercial activities against the people's interests. Cooperation among local groups and nonprofit organisations is a better way of achieving 'goals,' but Anwar shows that does not happen to the detriment of people's interests.

In her paper, Sadeka Halim (37) looks at women and NGO interface in social forestry program in Bangladesh. After identifying some cultural (barred from going to market) and economic issues (women are producers without tenancy rights, men, as nonproducers, yield benefits from land tenancy) related to women's empowerment contends that the NGOs' work have not been very effective. “Interventions by the NGOs have been partially successful in raising awareness about the oppressive structures and situations at different levels, but NGOs do not mount a direct challenge to the existence of such hierarchies and inequities.”

Halim observes that rural communities and their organisations are always left alone to deal with their own problems. In fact, at the beginning, nonprofit organisations' leaders all over, including Bangladesh, consciously distanced themselves from controversial issues not to jeopardise their relationships with the authorities approving their projects and programs. However, after achieving financial solvency (receiving enough overseas funds and getting involved in commercial ventures) and having formed a network to increase their collective strengths, many Third Sector organisations have become involved in political issues. But then horizontal cooperation cannot be regarded as a panacea of all ill. In the recent past, political polarisation among NGOs has diminished this collective strength.

The government organisations, in many instances, however, coopted community groups in many programs and service delivery activities, for example forest management. P.R. Siyag reports on forestry projects in India. The Village Forest Protection and Management Committees created as a part of Joint Forest Management program has yielded some benefit for the villagers involved. The paper is written from a professional point of view highlighting the patronage offered to the common people (forest users). The involvement of the people has triggered greater interest among communities for protection and management of their forests. But the forest users are also said to be involved in “petty chores” (that the forest department officials are happy to have given up, any way). Thus this paper very correctly identifies the colonial bureaucratic mentality existent in many Asian countries that hinders true participation of the clients in forest management and other programs through Third Sector organisations.

For strategic reasons, many governments have been incorporating NGOs in to their development and environment management efforts. China is a good example. In recent times China has also seen the formation of genuine popular organisations or NGOs, and development of relationships with the government. Xiumei Zhao (55) in her paper analyses the relationship of these organisations and the government. These NGOs are “issue-oriented social groups, rather than interest groups or pressure groups.” The term ‘NGO’ was popularised in China during the later’s preparation for the UN Conference on Women (see Qiusha Ma). The 2008 Olympics bid for Beijing gave these organisations more importance. Two major ‘genuine’ popular organisations or NGOs, Global Village of Beijing and Friends of Nature, were coopted to the official Olympics bid committee. The paper charts the route of NGO growth in China from obscurity to prominence with governmental support and suggests that its growth will not cease.

States, even China, may not be able to control the growth of civil society organisations so each state can allow these organisations to become partners in governance. Many governments are taking that route. Francisco Magno (11), in his paper, shows how the Local Government Act 1991 in the Philippines created this opportunity for civil society organisations. “Through their participation in local bodies, civil society leaders acquire new skills and confidence in policy negotiations.” Local officials also see “civil society groups not as potential competitors for voters but as legitimate partners in governance.” The process breaks down the traditional patronage linkages and thus “opens more spaces for civil society to participate in policy reform and governance.” Following the 1991 Act, the Philippines Department of Finance “challenged” the NGO community to establish a self-regulatory body to certify legitimacy, accountability and transparency of NGOs, especially those receiving donations from individuals and corporations, in the Philippines. The Philippine Council for NGO Certification (PCNC) was born. The NGOs certified by the PCNC are eligible for tax exemptions and also can claim membership in relevant local government bodies⁹.

Government’s resources to the nonprofit sector and its impact is an issue for all countries. Apart from being involved in government initiated programs, Third Sector organisations receive funds from governments for their activities. Kyungrae Park (24) in his paper analyses the impacts of government subsidies on self-financing NPOs in Korea. He suggests that the government subsidy does not have any “statistically significant impact on self-financing because of the offset effects of each constituent element of

self-financing revenues.” The paper further contends that the check and balance mechanism between managers and the members prevents government subsidy from flowing fully into NPOs. The size and affects of government subsidy depends on the governance structure of the NPO concerned.

The situation is, however, different in some other countries. For example, in Japan it is claimed that the government’s funds along side the control mechanism may have ensured standardisation of services but have destroyed entrepreneurship, innovation, and dynamism in the nonprofit sector. In the past in Japan, ‘private’ organisations relied heavily on the government for funding and managing their ‘public interest’ activities in education and health sectors, and were not independent. The post-war constitution intended to provide these organizations their financial freedom. The Japanese Constitution, Article 89, prohibited government organisations from giving public money to private, charitable, educational, philanthropic, or religious organisations and congregations. These institutions, suddenly being asked to be independent and run as private nonprofit organizations, faced financial troubles. In the recent past the government has started to provide money to private organisations if the governmental control can be ensured. The objective of the recent governments has been to ensure control over the private organisations. Successive governments in Japan approached the Third Sector with funds to achieve this objective by re-interpreting the relevant constitutional provision (see: <http://www.asianphilanthropy.org/countries/japan/policy.html>).

Irrespective of the flow of government funds to the Third Sector organisations, multi-sectoral collaboration is essential to the success of modern development initiatives. There are many good instances of multi-sectoral collaboration all over the world. A good example, is the cooperative sector in Japan. In his paper Akira Kurimoto (2) studies cooperatives involved in health care. The cooperatives seek to create better communities based on the member’s participation by strengthening health-medical-welfare networks. It is not possible for them to provide the service alone, so they intend to collaborate with other organisations including nursing homes and local authorities. In fact, horizontal cooperation among all different types of organisations in social economy can only multiply its impacts. The earlier the organisations concerned realise that and act accordingly, the better it is for everybody concerned.

Social Capital in Sustainable Development Management

The developing country government’s efforts in devising sustainable development strategies in the past, did not focus

on capability building or enablement in achieving the 'goals,' and became ineffective. In the face of the government's 'poor' performance in achieving the 'goals,' there have been recommendations for 'minimal government,' and a larger role for civil society in policy dialogue, planning, and implementation. Civil society organisations, including the grassroots organisations along with the people, are creating social capital to achieve some of the defined 'goals.' The term 'social capital' to mean the norms, networks, and trust existent in social life or organisation that allow participation and collective action to achieve defined objectives¹⁰, has been in use for only a decade now. A large volume of literature has emerged, mostly in Western societies though. In the East, especially in Asia, not much empirical work has been done on the topic. In order to fill this gap, Asian Third Sector Research Unit, University of Technology Sydney (UTS), proposed two panels on social capital and Asian sustainable development for the Osaka conference. Seven papers were presented in two panels on the topic¹¹.

Four capitals, economic, natural, human, and social, are essential for development. Traditional approaches to development have, however, heavily emphasised the use of financial capital and the exploitation of natural capital. Jenny Onyx (18) in her paper takes social capital theory as its analytical starting point and discusses it in terms of key characteristics, including trust, participation in social networks, norms for collective action, and the importance of social agency. The use of social capital further increases its future availability. Onyx also looks at social entrepreneurs who are able to mobilise the community to take initiatives in solving community problems, including the formation of "community businesses."

All forms of local and sustainable development involve generation and mobilisation of social capital through grassroots organisations. Ratana T. Boonmathya (34), looks at trust, network, family, kinship, linkages, etc. in traditional and modern organisations and their impacts on each other and on capability building. The paper argues that social capital is context-dependent. Boonmathya analyses roles of social capital in family and kinship support, benefits mediated by extrafamilial networks, and social sanctions and control, and discusses its negative consequences that lead to disparity, exclusions, and conflicts. She provides empirical evidence pertinent to these contrary consequences that are largely neglected in contemporary development discourses in Thailand. The paper thus raises a major question that if trust, network or kinship, in the process of becoming social capital for a group, creates unfavourable outcomes for people outside the 'group' can this be regarded as good?

Samiul Hasan (38), in his paper, raises a different sets of questions. He looks at formal and informal organisations, associations and cooperatives to analyse aspects and roles of social capital in the functioning and goals fulfilment of those organisations. Hasan shows that in the absence of the governmental efforts on capability building, many local organisations in Bangladesh have been involved in creating and improving capacity for the general people to enhance their access to and use of resources and fulfill developmental needs in terms of the five dimensions of sustainable development. He contends that generally, people in Bangladesh have survived and done better than expected in the absence of governmental mechanisms, through organizing, collective efforts, networking, and mutual cooperation. These local level actions have provided the concerned people with opportunities in achieving different segments of developmental goals. Hasan questions social capital's life span and ability in playing significant roles in the face of government program failure and tries to analyse if the degeneration of social cohesion in recent times in rural Bangladesh is a result of this because, like all other resources, social capital is liable to deplete if over (or mis) used¹².

Expansion of human capacity in achieving goals is indeed a major function of social capital. M. Yusof Kasim and Madeline Berma in their paper (28) attempt to analyse the role of social capital in alleviating poverty in Malaysia by using the AIM program as a case study because this program was built on the strength of personal relationships, trust, group participation, and joint liability. The Malaysian government sees eradication of poverty and restructuring of society as two fundamental development challenges. In 1999, about 409,300 (8.1 percent) of Malaysia's population, mostly *Bhumiputra* (indigenous people) living in rural areas, were poor. The rural communities have abundant land and water (physical capital) and strong social ties (social capital), but they often lack education and skills (human capital) and organisations to mobilise their natural resources into economic resources or access to institutional sources of finance. This paper also reviews the relationship between social capital and the performance of AIM as a credit delivery program. The paper, with examples, demonstrates the importance of social capital which allow participation and collective action in meeting poverty alleviation in Malaysia.

Cooperation and collective actions reinforce social capital in rural communities. T.N. Sreedhara's paper (45) is on the role that social capital can play or has been playing in rural electrification programs in India through cooperative organisations. It analyses the tradition, status, and features of social organisations such as networks, norms, and social

trust in Karnataka that facilitate coordination and cooperation for mutual benefit, and examines the existing mechanisms of civic engagements and social connectedness and how those have made possible the formation of groups for collectively enjoying rural electrification programs in Karnataka.

Nihal Jain and Kalpana Jain (29) also emphasise group formation and dynamics, and the impact on monitoring and supervising aspects of forest management, or environmental conservation and/or protection based on community-based organisations (CBOs) as a part of joint management of forest resources in India. The effective functioning of CBOs depends on the social structure of the community, especially the social and economic homogeneity of users, the existence of social networks, associations, and trust between households. The paper shows that the efforts for fostering social capital included sensitising villagers about the need and rationale of collective action, about the value and relevance of ensuring participation of all the members, about the technical activities necessary for improving the forest productivity and about the role of voluntary efforts for supporting regeneration process.

Concluding Remarks

Following the end of the cold war and the 'third wave' of democratisation, many Asian country governments' not so impressive work in serving the citizens well have come under fierce criticism from within and outside the countries concerned. Donor countries and international organisations suggest minimal governmental involvement in program and service delivery activities and in the provision of a significant role for the Third Sector in policy analysis and planning, as prescriptions for good governance. At the same time the donors are channelling more funds to Third Sector organisations and asking the later to mobilise funds from indigenous sources. An improvement in the management style and governance of Third Sector organisations and the success in indigenous philanthropy are interrelated. Further, motivation and leadership are two important aspects of sustainability in philanthropy as well as Third Sector viability.

Since the 1990s, due to an interest in social capital, the study of its relationship to development and sustainability has created interests among researchers. Social capital that always has been existent in Asian countries in different forms and shapes, has become an important research topic, following the publication of *Making Democracy Work*. Social capital has the potential to contribute to and be involved in sustainable development management in resource poor countries in Asia.

The papers presented in Osaka dealt overwhelmingly on the above three broad areas. Fifteen papers were on philanthropy, thirteen were related to growth, governance, cooperation, and performance of the Third Sector, and another seven were on social capital in Asian sustainable development management. Thus the Osaka conference papers captured the present trends in Third Sector research highlighting the major issues.

Notes

¹ The numbers in the parentheses correspond to the paper number in the list below.

² Quoted from P. Menchik and B. Weisbord, "Volunteer Labor Supply", *Journal of Public Economics*, 32, pp. 159-83, 1987.

³ Quotations in this essay are from the papers under discussion taken from electronic copies. Thus page numbers are not provided because page numbers might be different when printed.

⁴ K.R. Monroe, *The Heart of Altruism: Perceptions of A Common Humanity* (Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1996), p. 6.

⁵ K.R. Monroe, *The Heart of Altruism: Perceptions of A Common Humanity* (Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1996), p. 7.

⁶ The fact that the bills are normally drafted by the bureaucrats suggests that in this case the MPs were very much eager to appreciate and encourage nonprofit activities in the country.

⁷ S. Hasan, 'Good Governance, Local Participation, and Civil Society in Bangladesh' invited chapter in F. Columbus, ed. *Politics and Economics in Asia* (NY: Novascience, 2001).

⁸ In the case of India, Sen terms these as non-party political formation see, S. Sen, 'India', in L.M. Salamon and H.K. Anheier, eds. *Defining the Nonprofit Sector: A Cross-National Analysis* (Manchester: Manchester University Press, 1996), pp. 401-45.

⁹ Information is collected from PCNC brochure.

¹⁰ R. Putnam with R. Leonardi, and R. Nanetti, *Making Democracy Work: Civic Tradition in Modern Italy* (Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1993).

¹¹ These and some other papers are now being compiled for a book.

¹² See Albert Hirschman; Cited in and R. Putnam with R. Leonardi, and R. Nanetti, *Making Democracy Work: Civic Tradition in Modern Italy* (Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1993).

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1. *Afroza Begum*, Impact Assessment of NGO Activities in Bangladesh: Experience from the Field
2. *Akira Kurimoto*, Co-Operation in Health and Social Care: Its Role in Building Communities
3. *Alvar Hugosson*, The Introduction of the Social Economy Concept in Japan and Sweden
4. *Anthony Rausch*, Role of Print Media in Generating a Volunteer Consciousness
5. *Arato Okawa*, Strategies of Citizen Participation in Community Based NPOs: Multi-Cultural Analysis between Japan and the U.S
6. *Atsuko Hattori*, Study of the Role of Social Entrepreneurs to the Creation of the Employment – The Comparison between the UK and Japan
7. *Biswajit Sen*, Development of the Fourth World: Role of the State and Third Sector
8. *C.K. Renukarya*, Quantitative Method for Evaluation of Grassroot Co-Operatives for their Viability
9. *Ding Yuan-Zhu*, Volunteering in Third Sector and Community: Challenges and Policy Options – Volunteering in China
10. *Fernando T. Aldaba*, NGO Governance: The Philippine Case
11. *Francisco Magno*, Engagements in Governance: Civil Society in the Philippines
12. *Govind Dbakal*, NGO's Intervention in Development: An Assessment of their Performance in Nepal
13. *Hari Goyal*, Role of Volunteering in Building Stronger Communities – A Case Study of Mongolia
14. *Hiromi Mizota* (Wimalasiri), Role of Nonprofit Advocacy in Social Security Policy in American Welfare State: Historical Transition of Senior Rights Movement from Civil War to the Present
15. *Hisayo Katsui*, Disability NGOs and Lives of Disabled People
16. *Jeffry Anwar*, Toward Forest People: Lessons-Learned from Civil-Society Movement Supporting Community-Based Forest Management – Indonesia
17. *Jenny Green*, Key Strategic HR Issues in the Third Sector: The Australian Experience
18. *Jenny Onyx*, Social Capital in Sustainable Asian Development Management: A Theoretical Framework
19. *Junki Kim*, Impact of Information Technology on NGOs in Korea: Some Empirical Evidence
20. *Kim Jungbu*, Accountability Issues on Korean NGOs – Focusing on their Openness to Attentive Citizens
21. *Kim Reimann* and *Richard Forrest*, Connecting Global and Local Activism: International Politics, NGOs and the Environmental Movement in Japan
22. *Klaus Draskowitsch*, Efficiency Problems of Concentrating Institutions
23. *Kun-Jung Liao*, Third Sector and Emergency Management of Local Government in Taiwan
24. *Kyungrae Park*, Effects of Government Subsidies on Self-Financing of NGOs in Korea
25. *Lu-Yi Hsieh*, When Trainers Meet Suits, Let's go Tango – The Story of Meinung People's Association
- 25A. *Makokto Imada*, Income Generating Efforts by NPOs – Experiment in Hyogo Prefecture
26. *Mark Lyons*, Asian Philanthropy – A Four Country Study
27. *Masayuki Deguchi*, "Linguapolitical" Situation in an Era of Internet Civil Society
28. *Mohd Yusof Kasim* and *Madeline Berma*, Social Capital and Poverty Eradication in Malaysia
29. *Nibal C. Jain* and *Kalpana Jain*, Fostering Social Capital in Community-Based Organisations for Improving their Effectiveness: Evidence from West India
30. *Noriko Ishikawa*, *Eiko Ibuki*, *Y. Tsutui* and *N. Yamauchi*, Nonprofit Education and Training in Japan
31. *P.R. Snyag*, Empowering Community Organisations in Afforestation Programmes: A Case Study
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