

Abbreviations and Acronyms

ACPF	Asia Crime Prevention Foundation (Japan)
ADB	Asian Development Bank
BIFR	Board for Financial and Industrial Reconstruction (India)
BSE	Bombay Stock Exchange
CDF	Comprehensive Development Framework (Kyrgyz Republic)
CSO	civil society organization
DFI	development finance institution
GAP	Governance Action Plan (Cambodia)
GNP	gross national product
ICICI	Industrial Credit and Investment Corporation of India
IGEC	International Group of Experts on Corruption
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
NGO	nongovernment organization
NSPR	National Strategy for Poverty Reduction (Kyrgyz Republic)
PSPD	People's Solidarity for Participatory Democracy (Republic of Korea)
SCAC	Sennan City Agricultural Cooperative (Japan)
SEBI	Securities and Exchange Board of India
SICA	Sick Industrial Companies (Special Provisions) Act (India)
SOE	state-owned enterprise
TI	Transparency International
TIN	Transparency International Nepal
UN	United Nations
UNAFEI	United Nations Asia and Far East Institute for the Prevention of Crime and the Treatment of Offenders (Japan)
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme

Foreword

Corruption can reduce a country's economic output and deprive its citizens of precious resources that could enable the poor to better their lives. With the growing awareness of this negative impact of corruption, the attitude in Asia and the Pacific toward corruption seems to be changing. Companies are more reluctant to compromise their reputations and risk heavy sanctions for paying under-the-table fees to win contracts, and governments across the region acknowledge that corruption erodes the rule of law, undermines the public's trust in government, and threatens economic and political stability.

The endorsement of the Anti-Corruption Action Plan for Asia-Pacific (see appendix II) by 17 countries from the region clearly reflects this growing trend to take concrete action against corruption in the region.¹ This joint action came at the end of the third annual conference of the Asian Development Bank/Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (ADB/OECD) Anti-Corruption Initiative for Asia-Pacific, hosted by the government of Japan and organized by the ADB and the OECD in November 2001 in Tokyo.

The Tokyo conference was the third annual meeting of the ADB/OECD Anti-Corruption Initiative for Asia-Pacific,² and brought together some 150 senior government officials of Asian and Pacific countries and representatives from the private sector, civil society, the international donor community, and academia. The conference addressed the three main areas of the Action Plan that focus on key aspects of an effective fight against corruption: (a) developing efficient and transparent systems of public service, (b) strengthening anti-bribery actions and promoting integrity in business operations, and (c) supporting active public involvement. This publication contains selected conference papers pertinent to these three themes.

Countries that endorsed the Action Plan will now begin to design their individual strategies to implement it. According to the implementation strategy

¹ The 17 countries that have endorsed the Action Plan are Bangladesh, Cook Islands, Fiji Islands, India, Indonesia, Japan, Republic of Korea, Kyrgyz Republic, Malaysia, Mongolia, Nepal, Pakistan, Papua New Guinea, Philippines, Samoa, Singapore, and Vanuatu. Kazakhstan joined this group of countries by endorsing the Action Plan on 22 May 2002.

² The two previous meetings were held in Manila in October 1999 and in Seoul in December 2000.

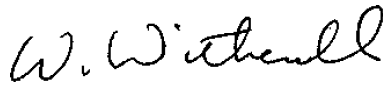
for the Action Plan, countries are required to identify up to three priority areas for reform under any of the plan's three pillars of action. Countries must then report on progress accomplished in relation to these actions. This takes place in the framework of the Action Plan Steering Group, which endorsing countries have established with support from the Initiative's secretariat.

Jak Jabes, advisor for governance, Regional and Sustainable Development Department, ADB; Frédéric Wehrlé, coordinator for anti-corruption initiatives, Anti-Corruption Division, Directorate for Financial, Fiscal and Enterprise Affairs, OECD; and Greta Fenner, manager of the Anti-Corruption Initiative for Asia-Pacific, Anti-Corruption Division, Directorate for Financial, Fiscal and Enterprise Affairs, OECD, coordinated the conference on which this publication is based and represent the two organizations in the Initiative's secretariat. Consultancy services and coordination by Denis Osborne, governance and development advisor, and editing by Alice Faintich, both under contract to the ADB, and support from the OECD's Public Management Service and Centre for Co-operation with Non-Members, are gratefully acknowledged. Marilyn Pizarro, consultant to the ADB, provided research and editorial assistance, and together with Wendy Prince, administrative assistant in the OECD's Anti-Corruption Division, handled the logistical arrangements for the Tokyo conference.

The views expressed in this publication do not necessarily reflect those of the ADB's Board and member countries or of the OECD and its member countries. It is published jointly by the ADB's Regional and Sustainable Development Department and by the OECD's Directorate for Financial, Fiscal and Enterprise Affairs.



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Executive Summary

Experience from the Asia-Pacific region has shown that corruption harms a country's economy, undermines the rule of law, and weakens public trust in government. Given their dependence on public services, the poor are the hardest hit. Studies have shown that corruption can cost the equivalent of 17 percent of a country's gross domestic product, robbing the population of resources that could be used to reduce poverty and promote sustainable development.

To counter this destructive impact of corruption on their economies and on social stability, 17 participating countries of the Asian Development Bank/Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (ADB/OECD) Anti-Corruption Initiative for Asia-Pacific have endorsed an Anti-Corruption Action Plan for Asia-Pacific.¹ This joint action came at the end of the Initiative's third annual conference in November 2001, held in Tokyo, hosted by the government of Japan and organized by the ADB and the OECD with the support of the Initiative's partners, including the Department for International Development of the United Kingdom, the Pacific Basin Economic Council, Transparency International, and the United Nations Development Programme.

The call to develop a comprehensive set of actions against corruption was made at the Initiative's previous annual conference held in Seoul in December 2000. The text as endorsed in Tokyo results from an intensive drafting process by governments in the region and experts from civil society, the business sector, and the international donor community. As such, the Action Plan reflects shared concerns and aims of all stakeholders from Asia and the Pacific and builds upon the in-depth discussions between participants of the ADB/OECD Initiative in recent years. Its endorsement at the Tokyo conference is viewed as an important step in achieving concrete anti-corruption action and proves the region's strong commitment to the fight against corruption and to a regional and action-oriented approach.

¹ The countries that have endorsed the Action Plan are Bangladesh, Cook Islands, Fiji Islands, India, Indonesia, Japan, Republic of Korea, Kyrgyz Republic, Malaysia, Mongolia, Nepal, Pakistan, Papua New Guinea, Philippines, Samoa, Singapore, and Vanuatu. Kazakhstan became the 18th country to endorse the Action Plan on 22 May 2002. Other ADB member countries from Asia and the Pacific are invited to endorse the Action Plan. See Appendix II for the text of the Action Plan.

The agenda of the Tokyo conference aimed to support endorsing countries in defining their individual Action Plan implementation strategies by addressing key issues under the Plan's three pillars of action: Promotion of Accountable and Reliable States (Session II); Preventive and Enforcement Measures to Fight Bribery (Session III); and Strengthening Civic Participation (Session IV). Two parallel focus groups in each session sought to identify specific remedies for major problems in these areas as identified by participants in the Initiative. Results of the focus group discussions are expected to have a direct impact on anti-corruption reform efforts undertaken to implement the Action Plan. This publication presents a number of the oral and written contributions to these discussions.

MAJOR CHALLENGES AND THEIR SOLUTIONS

In the opening session speakers from Australia, Cambodia, and Nepal summarized a number of challenges that Asian and Pacific countries are facing in their fight against corruption. These range from coalition building efforts to further involve civil society in the fight against corruption and the donor community's role in helping countries establish central anti-corruption bodies and develop a national anti-corruption strategy, to undertaking public administration reforms in situations of economic and political instability. The aim of the opening session was to discuss how the proposed Action Plan could contribute to finding solutions to these kinds of challenges.

In this context the paper by Sum Manit, Cambodia's secretary of state, highlights the need to take a country's historical context into account when developing country-specific programs to tackle corruption, and to follow a holistic approach that provides for preventive as well as enforcement measures. Similarly, the paper by Barry O'Keefe, a supreme court judge in New South Wales, Australia, emphasizes that the primary responsibility for anti-corruption reform resides within countries. At the same time, and based on the long experience of assistance provided by the Australian government, his paper discusses the complementary role of the donor community in supporting anti-corruption efforts by countries in the region. The paper presented by Devendra Raj Panday, president of Transparency International Nepal, underlines the crucial but complex, and sometimes ambiguous, role of nongovernment organizations (NGOs) in the fight against corruption and, consequently, the urgent need to implement pillar III of the Action Plan.

Regarding the role of the Action Plan in solving some of these challenges, the participants agreed that it was a timely and welcome instrument

that offers useful guidelines, and that its implementation mechanisms promised to produce some tangible outcomes.

Following the overview on the current situation in the region, the participants split up into smaller working groups to address specific measures proposed by the Action Plan that could help overcome some of the challenges evoked in the opening session.

PROMOTING RELIABLE AND ACCOUNTABLE STATES

Accountable and reliable public services inspire public trust and create a favorable environment for businesses, and hence contribute to the functioning of markets and to economic growth. Public servants who serve the public interest fairly and reliably and who manage public resources properly are a prerequisite for public trust in government and a keystone of good governance. The papers presented in this session discussed specific tools to ensure accountable and transparent public administration, namely, the disclosure of public servants' assets and interests and the enforcement of rules governing transparency in politics.

Disclosure of Information

Access to relevant information by citizens, and thus the disclosure of such information by the state, are key conditions for transparency in public service and for citizens to trust and be involved in public affairs. Disclosure of information about public officials' personal interests, for example, is a powerful tool for avoiding conflicts of interest. Similarly, the disclosure of their personal assets and liabilities is an important prerequisite for ensuring the proper use of public resources, and thus for a more effective fight against corruption. In many countries, however, citizens encounter difficulties when trying to access such information, and governments are reluctant to release certain information. This is often because the laws governing access to information are unclear or nonexistent. Furthermore, even when such laws are on the books their enforcement is frequently insufficient, sometimes because it implies profound changes to the traditional operation of public services.

The media have a major role to play in facilitating the public's access to information. The paper by Zohra Yusuf from the Human Rights Commission of Pakistan shows how the legacy of Pakistan's past, that is, the nondisclosure of information that traditionally reigns in the military and the struggles

between political parties, has instilled a culture of nondisclosure of information in Pakistan. The absence of a legal framework governing access to and disclosure of information has made the media the primary source of information, a fact that even Pakistan's superior courts have acknowledged in a number of corruption investigations involving high-ranking officials. While the author concludes with a list of recommendations for any government's attempt to establish a meaningful freedom of information law, she also stresses that any such law can only be effective if it is supported and understood by the citizenry at large and by free media.

The late entry into force of an access to information law in Japan (April 2001) has a somewhat different background, as highlighted in the paper by Akira Yamada from the Information Disclosure Review Board of Japan. Two main factors seem to have contributed to the passage of this law. First, competition between political parties in 1993, when for the first time in many years a new party took over the government, seems to have accelerated the development of an access to information law. Second, the author argues that the exposure of wrongdoing in Japan's public service, mainly by the media since the mid-1980s, has made the general public more critical about the work of the public administration, and hence the call for more accountability and transparency.

Yet implementation of this law continues to suffer from a number of problems, including the difficulty of clearly defining the notion of accountability, which consequently makes the concept hard to understand for both the public and civil servants who have to implement this principle. Furthermore, implementation of the law is hindered by a shortage of human resources and problems linked to conflicts between the protection of personal information and sufficient disclosure of administrative information. Nevertheless, overall the law has contributed to changes in the attitude and mentality in public administration, both positively and negatively. Public officials seem to have a greater sense of responsibility and to be more inclined to keep a spirit of accountability in mind when doing their work; however, they now also tend to avoid documenting delicate issues or innovative proposals so as not to expose themselves to possible public exposure or criticism.

The establishment and enforcement of an adequate and effective information disclosure policy in the ADB had to cope with similar challenges as those its member countries experienced. While recognizing that only the greatest possible degree of transparency and accountability in its activities

can ensure the success of ADB's mission, legal and practical constraints continue to pose problems. To ensure free and frank discussion with its member countries, confidentiality is often an important prerequisite, and the efficiency in releasing classified information often suffers from the need to request authorization from authors or other parties that legally own the copyright to certain documents. The paper by Clay Wescott explains the mechanisms that ADB has put in place to overcome some of these challenges and underlines that the most important preconditions for effective implementation of information disclosure rules include education, constant dialogue between concerned parties, and the use of modern communication technologies.

Promoting Integrity in Politics

Integrity in politics is a major problem in most countries and nontransparent political financing has been at the root of many recent large-scale corruption scandals both within and outside the Asia-Pacific region. In established democracies political corruption contributes to growing disillusionment with democratic processes. In emerging democracies it poses an even greater threat to the sustainability of democratic institutions. To reduce political corruption and strengthen accountability in government, the relevant rules should strive for a high degree of disclosure and regulation of political financing with at least minimal standards of transparency.

Lim Guan Eng, a former member of Parliament from Malaysia, addressed a number of issues arising from money politics, political patronage, and conflicts of interest caused by the narrow links between political parties and corporations in Malaysia. Political leadership and political will, transparency and accountability with clear rules as to the full and free disclosure of information, public declaration of personal assets, and open invitations to public scrutiny are extremely important in this context. An independent judicial system based on the rule of law is also a crucial prerequisite, as illustrated by recurrent failures of enforcement of the relevant laws in Malaysia and elsewhere in the region.

Remedies to these challenges do exist, however. The lack of enforcement of relevant laws needs to be countered by further strengthening of the judiciary, the police, and independent regulatory bodies; political will and more public trust in government and public services can be fostered by the existence of a strong political opposition and healthy democratic processes in government as well as in political parties; and inadequate access to

information and insufficient understanding of disclosed information by citizens can be countered by education targeted at all levels of society and the involvement of citizens in governmental processes.

The question of whether the OECD Anti-Bribery Convention provides additional mechanisms to prohibit the bribery of political parties and party officers and other forms of influence raised much interest among the participants. The answer to the question is yes and no. In some legal systems definitions of “political party” and “party officer” are vague and the assimilation of these notions with the concept of “public official” is difficult; however, the convention does cover some acts of bribery involving these people, for instance, if a political party officer also happens to be a public official or if he or she acts as an intermediary between the briber and the public official. Furthermore, if the bribery transaction takes place between the briber and the public official, but the political party and the party officer are the beneficiaries, the convention can still be applied to punish the bribe payer. Nevertheless, this leaves important gaps for which the paper by Enery Quinones, head of OECD’s Anti-Corruption Division, seeks to identify a number of solutions.

PREVENTIVE AND ENFORCEMENT MEASURES TO FIGHT BRIBERY

Another issue addressed at the Tokyo conference dealt with the question of how to prevent corruption in business and how to sanction such practices where they occur. In this context the participants discussed two separate but related tools, first, improving (compliance with) corporate governance standards; and second, enhancing law enforcement mechanisms for dealing with bribery in business transactions.

Corporate Governance and Compliance Schemes

Understanding is growing that the basic responsibility for preventing and detecting corruption in business operations resides with company management. Key management functions include (a) monitoring and managing potential conflicts of interest by management, board members, and shareholders; (b) ensuring the integrity of the corporation’s accounting and financial reporting systems; and (c) monitoring the effectiveness of the governance practices under which the firm operates. Against this background, the participants discussed successes and challenges of current approaches by policymakers and market participants in the region and categories and modes

of governance using India and Japan as examples. The report from India focuses on external factors that have influenced the development of corporate governance, while the report from Japan concentrates on internal factors.

The paper by Omkar Goswami of the Confederation of Indian Industries argues that while corporate governance has been slow in making its mark in India, the next few years are likely to see progress in this regard because of Indian corporations' extensive and growing exposure to competitors from the industrial countries. The opportunity to attract foreign investment grows if governance standards are improved, and the arrival of relatively young, modern, outward-oriented professionals at the top of new companies is further contributing to the establishment of higher standards in corporate India. In addition to these external factors, the media, in particular the financial press, and public opinion have increasingly been playing an important role in encouraging the private sector to enhance its corporate governance policy.

In Japan factors inherent to Japanese social and economic culture have had a stronger impact on the development of corporate governance. Yoichiro Hamabe, partner at the law firm of Hamabe and Matsumoto in Japan, explains that preferential treatment granted to so-called "professional shareholders" and scandal that have often involved these professional shareholders in recent years have encouraged many companies to consider implementing internationally recognized principles of corporate governance and adopting compliance schemes. In developing such instruments, however, a number of questions arose in the specific context of the Japanese economy, namely, whether the adoption of another country's or culture's model can be sufficiently adapted to the specific economic structure in Japan, or what impact the erosion of the lifetime employment system might have on Japan's corporate structures. Issues related to the general role of shareholders also need attention, as well as the question of how to separate decisionmaking responsibilities from executing bodies.²

During the subsequent discussion the participants observed that even if companies subscribed to the sophisticated corporate governance policies inherent in international codes and standards, for example, in relation to accounting rules, niches for bribe payments or interest-driven party contributions continue to exist. They also raised concerns about possibly

² An unedited version of this paper can be found at <http://www1.oecd.org/daf/ASIAcom/publications.htm>.

corrupt or understaffed judiciaries that would impede the effective enforcement of relevant laws and regulations, and about the overwhelming power of multinational enterprises that many suspected of applying double standards, that is, one at home and another abroad. They considered the OECD's work on combating bribery of foreign public officials in international business transactions to be a good approach to convincing companies to change their attitudes in this regard.

The Role of the Judiciary: Improving the Investigation and Prosecution of Bribery

All countries of the region have made bribery of domestic public officials a criminal offense, and this extends to bribery of foreign officials from states that are signatories of the OECD Bribery Convention and a few other countries such as Singapore.³ Despite these positive achievements, many countries have found prosecuting such offenses hard because of weak coordination between law enforcement agencies, slow cooperation with foreign jurisdictions, and lack of adequate enforcement resources.

The study presented by Narayanan Srinivasan from Edith Cowan University in Australia illustrates similar perceptions in the Australian and Indonesian police forces with respect to effective investigation of corruption, signaling that regional cooperation in relation to training investigative bodies can be mutually beneficial and can contribute to better international cooperation in such matters. His study also finds a number of differences between Western and Asian approaches to investigating and prosecuting corruption, with the former being perceived as focusing on processes rather than outcomes, and the author stresses that processes need to be kept as simple as possible to avoid creating opportunities for additional corrupt behavior. In this context the question arises whether the process or the outcome of an investigation and prosecution of corruption is more important, hence whether being "accountably corrupt" can be accepted as long as the process is being followed, or whether ethical and moral issues should play a role as well.

Questions related to investigative procedures are also addressed in the paper by Yuichiro Tachi from Japan about the role of Japan's public prosecutors in enforcing anti-corruption legislation. One of the major

³ Countries from the Asia-Pacific region that have ratified the OECD Anti-Bribery Convention are Australia, Japan, Republic of Korea, and New Zealand.

problems prosecutors encounter is linked to provisions for criminal immunity for witnesses. Major cases such as the Lockheed case highlight that the Japanese Code of Criminal Procedure does not sufficiently provide for an efficient and fair application of criminal immunity. The paper therefore argues for the need to modify Japanese legislation to introduce new investigative techniques, including provisions that permit prosecutors to offer immunity in return for evidence, and states that this might happen as a result of Japan's ratification of the United Nations Convention Against Transnational Organized Crime.

The paper by Gerald Sumida, ADB general counsel, also looks at issues pertaining to enforcement. While adequate anti-corruption rules and legislation are in place in most countries, enforcement poses serious problems. The Asia-Pacific region faces a number of specific challenges in this regard, including a shortage of skilled and equipped investigators and the lack of clear separation between and within the judicial system, the police administration, the investigative and prosecutorial administration, and other parts of the government structure involved in law enforcement and the administration of justice. Addressing these problems requires that comprehensive judicial reform efforts are put in a much broader societal context centered around strengthening of the rule of law in general, and therefore focus on increasing the public's respect for the rule of law and the legal order. Without full public and political support and without recognizing that judicial reform needs to be placed in a long-term perspective, any reform effort will fall short of its goals.

The concerns raised by Narayanan Srinivasan, Yuichiro Tachi, and Gerald Sumida were shared by the participants, who during the subsequent discussion focused on possible remedies, such as the need for appropriate training and clear formal guidelines for pertinent personnel, the need for greater public awareness, and the importance of protecting those willing to cooperate with investigative authorities.

STRENGTHENING CIVIC PARTICIPATION IN THE FIGHT AGAINST CORRUPTION

Attacking the problem of corruption calls for deep social change, which cannot take place without the involvement and support of civil society organizations. To ensure such involvement, governments need to take proactive steps, and continuous capacity building within NGOs, the private sector, and the media is necessary to ensure that their anti-corruption actions remain effective.

Government-NGO Interaction

A prerequisite for effective collaboration between governments and civil society is both parties' acknowledgment of the value added of such collaboration. Furthermore, such collaboration has to result in concrete outcomes if it is not to remain as simple lip service.

Experience in the Kyrgyz Republic, presented by Tolondu Toichubaev from the Corporate Technologies Center, shows that efficient collaboration between governments and NGOs often suffers from a lack of understanding and acceptance on the part of governments of the value added of national anti-corruption coalitions that involve various social partners. Under such conditions NGOs must receive the necessary support for capacity building to enable them to actively promote and foster such coalitions.

In the Republic of Korea, as illustrated in the paper by Taeho Lee of the People's Solidarity for Participatory Democracy, the involvement of civil society organizations in government activities has recently gained in acceptance. . The campaign for meaningful anti-corruption legislation since 1996 by the People's Solidarity for Participatory Democracy and other NGOs has significantly changed attitudes toward corruption in the government and among the general public, and resulted in the entry into force of Korea's Anti-Corruption Law in 2002. The paper showcases a number of ways in which NGOs can run such a campaign, for example, by submitting petitions to the government, holding public discussions and running street campaigns, collecting signatures, and collaborating with the media.

The subsequent discussion in the focus group raised the problem of NGOs' independence, given that they often rely on funding from the state or from international donors, and the need to monitor NGOs in relation to their own transparency. Furthermore, the participants addressed the reluctance of both governments and NGOs to cooperate if one perceives the other to be hostile or critical, and the dilemma that this causes given that a certain level of criticism is acknowledged to be healthy for a productive relationship between the two.

Society in Action Against Corruption

Many governments in the Asia-Pacific region have recently engaged in reforming the legal and organizational infrastructure for instilling transparency and accountability in governance. Laws have been passed and specialized anti-corruption bodies have been created. Yet corruption continues to be

rampant, and top political leaders and judges have been charged with corruption and cronyism. Under these circumstances the demand for and recourse to civil society measures for enhancing transparency and accountability is increasing. Such measures can include lifestyle checks, civil society watchdog organizations, report cards, and integrity pacts.

Minoru Shikita from the Asian Crime Prevention Foundation analyzes the successes and failures of the fight against corruption in Asia, with a specific spotlight on civil society action in Japan. The author concludes that some of the important tasks of NGOs in supporting anti-corruption efforts by governments are to reflect on innovative and effective legal and criminal justice mechanisms, to promote best practices, to encourage and monitor the impartiality of investigations, and to strengthen preventive measures throughout government and society.

The paper by Gopakumar Krishnan gives an example of such targeted action by NGOs. The Public Affairs Centre in Bangalore has engaged in reflections about how to improve access to information with the aim of increasing political participation by civil society. A key task to be solved in this context relates to how to ensure the quality of information as opposed to its quantity. Major steps to be taken include challenging discretionary abuse by the state and the opaqueness of political party financing and entering the difficult terrain of “contested information”. The paper presents a number of specific actions to enhance proper enforcement of access to information laws or, in the absence of an adequate legal framework, to promote the establishment of such a framework.

Framework for Action

After concluding presentations by the government of Japan, representatives from civil society (Transparency International), the private sector (the Pacific Basic Economic Council), and the international donors’ community (Department for International Development of the United Kingdom), and the Initiative’s secretariat, 17 countries from the Asia-Pacific region that were participating in the Tokyo conference endorsed the Anti-Corruption Action Plan for Asia-Pacific. The endorsing statements clearly expressed the countries’ strong commitment to take concrete and action-oriented steps to enhance their fight against corruption and to cooperate in these efforts in the framework of the Action Plan.⁴

⁴ The endorsing statements can be found in the Action Plan pamphlet published in March 2002 by ADB and OECD, and at <http://www.oecd.org/daf/ASIAcom/ActionPlan.htm>.

In a next step, based on the Implementation Plan of the Action Plan, the endorsing countries identified up to three priority areas for reform under any of the Plan's three pillars of action. The countries discussed this first set of priority areas for reform and corresponding implementation projects in May 2002 in Manila. Officials at the meeting reported on and reviewed initial reforms envisaged or already taken to comply with the Action Plan, including training investigation and prosecution authorities to ensure the proper enforcement of relevant laws; clarifying and, if required, amending existing legislation on corporate governance; providing integrity training programs for civil servants; implementing new systems to protect whistle-blowers; and launching public awareness campaigns in cooperation with civil society organizations. Most of the selected reform areas reflect discussions held at the Tokyo conference.

The endorsing countries will meet again in early 2003 for a first assessment of the concrete impact of these measures and to consider additional legislative and enforcement actions. Through the Initiative's web site, and in the framework of the follow-up meeting to the Tokyo conference, endorsing countries' achievements in implementing the Action Plan will be shared with a larger public, including interested representatives from civil society, the private sector, and the international donor community.