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More than 50 years ago, the world community set about devising the institutional building blocks of an orderly social and economic world, largely in response to crises and problems of the first half of the twentieth century which had witnessed two world wars, the great depression, widespread labour strife, and the rise of fascist movements.

The establishment of the United Nations and the Bretton Woods institutions thus set markers for a model of multilateral governance for world order with the triumphant oligarchy of the second world war at the driving seat of the new world order and its institutional vehicles.

However, the pace of globalization in the past decade has had confounding effects on the world and its governing rules and institutions. The rampant restructuring of businesses, the global networking, the rise of international terrorism, the global environment, and problems facing sustainable developed are all pushing issues that surfaced to the world agenda with the advent of the new globalization.

These phenomena, old and new, spell out the urgent need to develop new fora and frameworks to deal with the challenges and prospects.

wave of globalization entails change of strategies of individuals, nations, corporations, communities, and global governance institutions in order to come to terms with the emerging global system.

In this context, the need for

the world bank 6 were subject to much criticism in the course of the Asian crisis, especially by Malaysia whose governing regime rejected the "Washington Consensus" recipe for reform. Prominent academics and economists have also refuted the "Asian Crisis" diagnosis which focused on domestic aspects of the crisis and ignored the systemic influences, e.g. the inevitable terms of trade, the intense and volatile capital flows and short term lending, international capital flows, gyrations in exchange rates, turmoil in financial markets, as well as new protectionism in the industrialised countries against exports of the developing countries.⁵

The financial crises of the 1990s have therefore demonstrated that the emerging global capital market is vulnerable to systemic failure. Accordingly, in the depths of the Asian crisis (around September 1997) there were calls by the leaders of the Group of Seven (G7) to reform the global financial architecture⁹ signaling the world's most powerful countries rather than coalitions of developing countries recognition of the need to reform global governance.⁶

Besides these financial crises, the more structural crises of underdevelopment persisted throughout the past decades with the few exceptions of the newly industrialised countries (NICs) or new \$s

thus becoming couched in interest conflict. The second, however efficient and having operational mechanisms for decision and implementation, are fraught with hegemony of the western industrialised countries and especially the U.S., whose voting power at the G7, G8, G20, and G20+1 altogether amounts to almost one half of the voting power. Hence, the G20+1's were deliberately designed to give the economically more powerful members a greater voice and vote in those organisations. Moreover, the influence of the economically powerful countries was enhanced through a series of fora that were established outside the G20+1 in which the world's leading industrial powers were the exclusive members for financial and economic decision-making, especially in the G20+1, which maintains a near monopoly over financial and economic decision-making.

The core members of the closed/Elitist groupings, i.e. the G20+1 and its predecessors, have always been the United States, Japan and Germany, the latter being replaced by the EU, which came to be termed as the G8+5.^c This Elitist nature of the G20+1's composition and decision-making procedures casts doubt on their representativeness of global problems and crises, and their credibility to work on behalf of the whole world, developing and developed. This apprehension proved to be more than a moral stance with the eruption of the financial crises of the 2000s as previously stated, which showed the practical vitality of a relatively more inclusive forum for global governance.

In spite of the attempts of established frameworks, including the G20+1, to adjust to new international developments through the inclusion of S&L

, inally, the regional integration fora fail, in turn, to address most of the global economic and financial problems, the worst scoring regional blocs being those formed of developing and least developed countries. In this context, the Latin American Integration Association (LAI) established in 1980 managed to raise intra-regional trade by merely 15% to reach 10% along 40 years of regional integration. Other regional blocs had failed totally to enhance intra-regional trade and cooperation, e.g. Customs and Trade Regime in 1990

markets and to issue a global financial stability report which focused attention on potential sources of international monetary crises, and areas of vulnerability within markets and international financial institutions. The G20 also established two important institutions- the Financial Stability Forum and the G20.

These various initiatives, though important, have been subject to a number of criticisms. In spite of the appeal of the idea of an international financial authority that has the power to intervene in the management of national capital markets, this idea runs counter to the concept of national sovereignty. Malaysia's position towards the prescriptions of the IMF, is a good example of this problem.

Also problematic is the fact that the Financial Stability Forum is mainly consultative in nature, and has limited representation. Membership to the FSB, includes Finance Ministers, Central Banks and the main financial regulators from the G20 countries in addition to representatives of the various Trade Unions of regulators such as the Basel Committee of Banking Supervisors, the International Organization of Securities Commissions (IOSCO) and the International Association of Insurance Supervisors (IAIS).

offer models of development within the constraints created by the international economic and financial system against developing countries. Moreover, even though the state has played an important role in the process of economic development in most of these countries and the process of democratisation was thereby postponed, it is important to note two things. First, the private sector played an important role in the process of development in these countries. Their development strategies especially in Asia were outward oriented. The stability of their development strategies was thus dependent on the stability of their export sector and continued access to foreign markets. Second,

The ')0 as a response to contextual global governance and crises should be designed taking heed of such challenges and how to best address them. In other words, the new institution should mirror the intricacies and spirit of the current global order, specially pertaining to globalisation, the new geo-economic agenda, and the necessity to integrate emerging markets and developing countries- agenda into the global governance order. The main proposed features of the ')0 are-

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.o far, the ')0 has shown a narrow orientation with the central role of finance issues and finance ministers. This was evident even during its first meeting in Berlin in Hecember /000, where the inaugural meeting laid the roadmap 0Scfin

broadening the ')0-s agenda will depend, in part, on which country is nominated to chair the group in particular, non& ' + member&states.

3 n e%panded agenda of the group should include as a start-

encourage other parties (members and non-members* to undertake similar initiatives when they observe the positive return of trade liberalisation.

Experiences of non-discriminatory liberalisation have generally taken one of several forms.¹⁾ First= open membership, which refers to flexible and broad approach towards membership. This approach is based on a theoretical assumption that broad membership leads to better adaptation to legal multilateral frameworks, as well as screening down the discriminatory effect against non-members. Despite the merits of such an approach, open membership in the broad sense seems less convenient in the WTO because of previously discussed inefficiency problems associated with open fora.

Second= unconditional application of the Most Favoured Nation condition (MFN). This approach denotes automatic and unconditional spillover of trade and investment liberalisation privileges within the group to non-members. This approach agrees with the spirit of article XXIV of the GATT agreement and eliminates the prospects of trade disputes that are usually associated with perceived discrimination. However, this approach denies the group its bargaining power with non-members, creating a free-rider phenomenon where non-members automatically and unconditionally get the collective prerogatives of membership without attached responsibilities.

Third= conditional application of the MFN condition, which seems best suited

2. Market Integration

This model is based on the necessity and vitality of the role of market mechanisms, and the private sector as the main engine for economic growth within the WTO. In other words, the WTO should be based on market integration as the governing concept of global market integration, in contrast to government-based integration experiences of the fifties through the eighties, with its mechanism of governmental contractual agreements. The market driven integration model in this context entails the continuity of the government role but restricting it to agenda setting and devising public policies favorable for trade liberalization and investment.

2.1. The Nature of the Institutional Model

It is the contention of the current study that the flexible institutional model is the best suited model for the WTO. Institutional flexibility in this context refers to two aspects, first, a limited hierarchy based on a small secretariat in the form of small bureaus in member states; second, a non-binding legal framework in contrast to the traditional contractual and binding legal frameworks of earlier multilateral frameworks for cooperation.

It is noteworthy that the flexible institutionalist philosophy evolved as a backlash against the shortcomings of the regional and multilateral integration experiences in the fifties through the mid-eighties of the twentieth century. These institutional fora have led to the establishment of large bureaucracies demanding vast resources, which proved to be among their main flaws. Moreover, the binding legal frameworks of these multilateral fora, coupled with their very wide scope of interests and ambitions have led anonymously to their failure in attaining its objectives, or at

best to their stagnation. Within this rigid institutional framework, i.e. the legal institutionalism, differences among member states were reflected in the mandates through excessive exceptions and precautions, leading the institution to be void or idle.

The flexible institutional model moreover shows increased merits in the case of the EU in particular because of its composition of countries of differential developmental capacities, in terms of their GDP, population, etc. In which case institutional flexibility would be best suited to counter apprehensions of the less developed that the group will be dominated by the most powerful.

It is noteworthy that expected future status and voice within global and regional integration institutions has been one of the key determinants of the success of integration experiences. According to Joseph M. Grieco, successful experiences of legal institutionalism have been recorded among countries where increased levels of legal institutionalism are not perceived as retracting from the relative status of member countries and their influence within the integration forum, whereas less successful experiences were symptomatic to experiences where more institutionalism meant less relative power or status to one or more of the member states, in which case institutionalism becomes synonymous to hegemony.¹⁶

In the EU context, the issue of differential levels of development and/or the fear of hegemony could be moderated institutionally through flexible institutionalism, and its various modus operandi, e.g. the adoption of the variable speed approach, which entails the formulation of general objectives and guidelines for the economic and financial policies of the member states, while allowing individual members to implement the general strategy in self-designed mechanisms and paces within an agreed upon time limit.

To this effect, the creation of a businessmen-s council that brings together representatives from the private sectors of the member countries and an academic council that brings together representatives from research institutes and

of the ')0. At a later stage, the Academic Network can conduct research on ways to improve the international economic and financial system.

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The decision to establish the ')0 indeed marked the '+-s intent to broaden participation in discussions on international financial affairs among countries whose size or strategic importance gives them a particularly crucial role in the global economy.

This is a significant step forward towards better representative global governance. However the ')0 contains no representation of the poorest and smallest developing countries, because the poorest and smallest are unlikely to constitute any systemic threat. But there is a major systemic impetus to incorporate developing countries problems into the architecture of the ')0 not necessarily through direct membership. This could be achieved through the group-s accountability to the broader international community, and other more inclusive fora especially the United Nations Economic and Social, as well as increasing the transparency of the group-s activities to enhance its credibility through disclosing its discussion papers, documents, and reports publicly.

Moreover, membership to the group should be decided upon objective criteria for membership, through deliberation of a special committee to be established to this effect within the ')0, the committee would put forward the criteria and indicators that render a country a candidate for the group membership.

Suggested criteria could be, achieving considerable economic growth, a certain degree of global integration according to designated indicators, a minimum level of

democratization and political openness, an autonomous private sector, as well as equitable geographical representation.

In line with broadening the membership and scope of the '00 previously suggested, several formulations or 'levels' of membership could be applied to integrate candidate members or include non-members into the group deliberations. Among these are the 'dialogue partner', or 'guest country', in addition to the broadening of the membership of the auxiliary councils, i.e. the Business Council and the Academic Network.

It is the contention of the current paper that according to all these criteria, Egypt is a viable candidate for '00 membership in terms of fulfilling basic requirements as well as its representativeness of the Middle East and the Arab region, which will be discussed in the following and last section.

2.2 The Position and the Mission

Geography as well as history has defined, to a large extent, Egypt's position in the Middle East and its regional and global reach. Situated at the southeast corner of the Mediterranean Sea lanes to Europe, at the crossroads of the three continents of the old world, at the end point of the River Nile, and at the maritime passage to the Indian Ocean and Asia through the Suez Canal and the Red Sea, Egyptian geographic position has become in the very center of the region and the world, a position no other country in the Middle East could parallel.

On the other hand, one of the main features of the Egyptian history is the unbroken unity of the country. As Charles Issawi stated: "From the time that Menes unified Upper and Lower Egypt and founded the first dynasty up to the present day the

land was always except for brief periods during the old and middle empires had a single government. Egypt, thus, has known the phenomenon of statehood for over five thousand years. Throughout this very long history, Egypt interacted with the greatest of civilizations over the Mediterranean, with the Macedonians, Romans, the French and the British and over the African-Asian land bridge, with the Assyrians, Babylonians, Persians, Byzantines, Arabs, and Turks.

The statehood of Egypt and the unbroken unity of the country made Egypt a haven for great civilizations. The ancient Pharaonic civilization, the Greek and Roman empires

The most evident sector of technological infrastructure progress in Egypt is the communication infrastructure. In the year 2000, Egypt had 5.7 million fixed telephone lines. In the year 2007, Telecom Egypt was able to raise the number to 11.7 with a teledensity of 10 lines per 100 inhabitants, reaching a teledensity of 17 lines per 100 inhabitants in the year 2009).

In the year 2000, Egypt had 100,000 computers, 150,000 internet users, and 1.2 million cell phone users. In 2007, the number of PCs doubled to reach 2.0 million. By the year 2009, the number of internet users had increased almost 4 fold to reach 600,000 million accounts with more than three users per account, while the number of cell phones increased almost three fold to reach 11 million by the year 2009).

Although these figures are small by world standards, Egypt has one of the fastest growth rates in these areas. And all the above are supported by an extraordinary progress in developing Egypt's infrastructure which adds up to the diversity of the Egyptian productive apparatus to make the Egyptian economy one of the most balanced and best qualified for take off and sustained growth in the region.

The Egyptian financial market has also boomed in the 2000s and major MNCs are attracted to the Egyptian market. Egypt currently manufactures quality textile fashion products on license for major European businesses such as Pierre Cardin, Armani, Kenzo, Stefanel and Naf Naf, and export them to France, Germany, England and the United States. Automobile assembly and spare part manufacturing resulting from either licensing or joint venture agreements has recently flourished in Egypt. Examples of assembly and licensed production in Egypt are Suzuki, General Motors, Citroen, Hyundai, Nissan and Peugeot. International brand name consumer and electronic products are also assembled, and their components manufactured, in

Egypt. Egypt has also developed industrial experience in furniture, pharmaceuticals and steel production.

Egypt's industrial and mining sectors account for 11.5% of GDP and 10.5% of employment. Over the last five years, Egypt has drawn multinationals into exploration for oil and gas. Moreover, with increased private sector role, key industries are starting to flourish, such as metals, petrochemicals, cement, automobiles, textiles, consumer electronics, and pharmaceuticals.

Moreover, Egypt enjoys a remarkable supply of skilled and inexpensive manpower. Its large pool of entrepreneurial, scientific and technical elements qualifies it for meeting the challenges of high-tech sectors and enterprises.

These changes were accompanied by a steady enhancement of the role of the private sector in the Egyptian economy. Since the mid-1990s the role of businessmen and private business in the Egyptian economy has constantly expanded. Egyptian businessmen comprise residuals of the pre-1950s capitalists, new entrepreneurs, and former state managers. Businessmen hold assets in agriculture, real estate, tourism, car assembly, electronics, and banking. Estimates conclude that by the year 2000, private sector contributed 40% of the Egyptian economy.

Businessmen have moreover, gained representation in a variety of associations and unions that indirectly bolster the private sector.

business profile has been promoted, through heading 5 parliamentary committees of strategic importance, or almost one fifth of all parliamentary committees, namely The Committee for Budgeting and Planning, The Committee for Economic Affairs, The Committee for Workforce, The Committee for Housing, and the Committee for Louth.¹⁰

Without undermining Ireland

the global market makes it a candidate to be a hub of its own for cargo e%changed
between the East and West. It could also act as a comple% centre linking East and West by
means of ports, banks, and stockyards, in order to stimulate multi-national companies-
investments.

.ince 1950, much effort has been undertaken to widen and deepen the Canal
but also in developing its linkages to the Egyptian hinterland, North Africa, and the
rest of the Middle East via Jordan, Palestine and Israel through an extensive networks
of roads and highways. The new scheme for the irrigation of Jordan, which is
currently under impl"



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Egypt has also been active in the regional sphere in the field of ICT, Egypt's
Eurascom is especially working a network of communications through Africa and
some Asian Arab countries, e.g. Syria and Jordan, and most recently post war Iraq.

Against this backdrop, Egypt has been involved in an extraordinary range of
common endeavors with nations of the region and worldwide, preparing its economy
to work as a regional hub, and weaving a series of economic networks, the most
important of these are the MEFTA free trade zone agreement with African
countries, and the signing of the Egyptian-European Partnership Agreement, in
addition to the attempts at revitalizing the Arab common market. Egypt has
demonstrated, in the last few years, a capacity to benefit from important developments
in the area of establishing regional and trans-regional liberalization projects which
have looser membership criteria. These new experiments have raised economic
interests above geo-strategic and cultural considerations and have promoted outward
and export-oriented economic modernization.

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