Regulating Conflicts of Interest for Holders of Public Office in the European Union

Christoph Demmke
Mark Bovens
Thomas Henökl
Timo Moilanen
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A Comparative Study of the Rules and Standards of Professional Ethics for the Holders of Public Office in the EU-27 and EU Institutions

Christoph Demmke
Mark Bovens
Thomas Henökl
Timo Moilanen

A study carried out for the European Commission

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Abbreviations

BGN – Currency of Bulgaria (1 euro = 1.95583 Bulgarian lev)
CBFSAI – Central Bank and Financial Services Authority of Ireland
CoI – conflicts of interest
CSPL – Commission for Standards in Public Life in the United Kingdom
DG – Directorate-General
EC – European Commission
ECA – European Court of Auditors
ECB – European Central Bank
ECJ – European Court of Justice
ECT – European Community Treaty
EIB – European Investment Bank
EP – European Parliament
EU – European Union
HPO – Holders of Public Office
HR – Human Resources
ICAC – Australian Independent Commission against Corruption
IMF – International Monetary Fund
MEP – Members of the European Parliament
MNB – The Hungarian National Bank (Hungarian: Magyar Nemzeti Bank) is the central bank of Hungary.
MP – Members of Parliament
NGO – Non Governmental Organisation
OECD – Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
OGE – United States Office of Government Ethics
SCC – Supreme Chamber of Control
SIGMA – Support for Improvement in Governance and Management. Sigma is a joint initiative of the OECD and the European Union, principally financed by the EU.
UN – United Nations
# Abbreviations of countries

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Abbreviations in terms of the regulation of Conflicts of Interest

- GC: General codes and/or standards for all institutions
- GIC: General codes and/or standards for individual institutions
- GIL: General regulation applicable to individual Institutions
- GL: General regulation applicable to all institutions
- SC: Specific codes and/or standards for all institutions
- SIC: Specific codes and/or standards for specific institutions
- SIL: CoI legislation applicable to individual institutions
- SL: Specific regulation CoI applicable to all institutions
Note on Authors

Dr Christoph Demmke  
Professor, Unit “European Public Management”, European Institute of Public Administration (EIPA), Maastricht (NL)

Prof. Dr Mark Bovens  
Professor of Public Administration and Research Director at the Utrecht School of Governance (NL)

Thomas Henökl  
Researcher, Unit “European Public Management”, European Institute of Public Administration (EIPA), Maastricht (NL)

Karlijn van Lierop  
Researcher, USBO Advies, University of Utrecht (NL)

Timo Moilanen  
Researcher, University of Helsinki (FI)

Gerolf Pikker  
Senior adviser, University of Utrecht (NL)

Prof. Dr Ari Salminen  
Professor, University of Vaasa (FI)
I. Executive Summary

1. GENERAL OBSERVATIONS

1. With this study of the various national and institutional conflicts of interest (CoI)\(^1\) rules and CoI systems, much insight and interesting information has been found. In many respects, this study has given an insight into an area of fascinating complexity. As can be seen the current international reform process in the field of CoI is leading to reforms and innovations that may be of great interest not only for other national institutions but also for the EU institutions eager to reform their policies and instruments.

2. At present, two conflicting trends can be observed in the field of CoI. On the one hand, the current development is towards new transparency requirements\(^2\) and the emergence of new forms of accountability.\(^3\) On the other hand, another trend is the appearance of new ethic bureaucracies which have an impact (at least in some countries and institutions) on privacy issues. Within this context, the trend towards more disclosure requirements in registers and the setting up of new (independent) ethics committees and other monitoring bodies should also be seen as an ambivalent development. As this study shows, there is still too little knowledge of the impact of the above-mentioned developments on the effectiveness of the different ethic regimes and

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\(^1\) In the rest of this document, the abbreviation “CoI” is used.

\(^2\) The latest example at EU level was the request by the European Ombudsman to ask the Parliament (on 27 September 2007) to accept a request for public access to information regarding EU payments received by MEP’s to cover their travel expenses and broader "subsistence" and "general expenditure".

ethic instruments. However, this is also partly due to the fact that the monitoring of the registers and the working procedures of (many internal) ethics committees is highly intransparent, and information is not easily accessible. Neglecting the above-mentioned trends towards more transparency and accountability requirements would probably send a wrong signal to the public. Therefore, this report affirms that public registers and (independent) ethics committees are important elements of any CoI regime. These instruments may work internally (through self-regulation) or externally (through independent bodies). What is important is that a stronger emphasis should be placed on the credibility and the accountability of these monitoring bodies. Consequently, we propose that these bodies regularly report on the outcome of their activities. These reports should be published and should be accessible to the public.

3. This study on Rules and Standards for Holders of Public Office (HPOs) may imply the existence of an ethical deficit, and that not enough rules and standards exist for HPOs. However, our knowledge is limited as regards the number of ethical violations by HPOs. While in some institutions CoI may be almost inexistent, in others they may be in abundance. On the other hand, a single violation by only one HPO may be sufficient to cast public doubt on the integrity of the whole class of HPOs and the whole institution. This is also the case for the EU institutions. Thus, this study does not suggest that HPOs or individual institutions are not sufficiently ethical. However, it does suggest that HPOs have a specific public responsibility. Consequently, rules and standards are only one important instrument in the fight against CoI of HPOs.

4. The focus of this study is to analyse the existing “rules and standards” in the field of CoI. Consequently, this study also emphasises the many different control and monitoring issues. However, this does not imply that the importance of an ethics culture and the need for awareness-building regarding ethical principles, etc., should be neglected.

5. The adoption of more rules and standards requires that more concentration be given to implementation issues. The more rules exist, the more management capacity is required to implement these rules and standards. Here, new paradoxes are about to emerge. While individual requirements in fulfilling new obligations (mainly in the field of disclosure policies) are increasing, in many cases, control and monitoring
bodies (e.g., ethics committees) are still weak and lack resources. Unfortunately, this study also reflects the difficulties in obtaining more evidence on implementation, monitoring and enforcement issues. It is here that the real challenges are: How are registers of interest monitored? How are post-employment rules enforced? How do ethics committees work in practice? These are just some of the questions which merit a deeper examination.

6. Sanctions in relation to the misbehaviour of HPOs are rare and – for the most part – relatively “soft”, compared to those for civil servants. One simple solution would be to suggest more rigour in the enforcement phase and to treat HPOs like other public employees. However, enforcing the CoI issues of HPOs should also consider some specific features of the enforcement of HPOs. For example, while some HPOs enjoy immunity, others are confronted with strong media- and public-scrutiny. Consequently, the existing judicial and monitoring bodies should not shy away from enforcing the rules on the (mis-) behaviour of HPOs. On the other hand, administrative and legal processes imply the starting of fair, complex and time-consuming enforcement procedures. Although the enforcement of rules for HPOs may take time, the public may require a quick response to political scandals. Thus, enforcement requires that specific features of HPOs be taken into consideration. Consequently, the ethic regimes of civil servants should not be directly used as benchmarks for HPOs.

7. Because of the likelihood of more implementation and enforcement challenges in the future, as well as the growing expectations of the citizens (and the media) regarding the integrity of HPOs, we believe that weak implementation, monitoring and control mechanisms will be less tolerated in the future. Also the growing discrepancies between more rules and standards and weak enforcement practices are likely to create more criticism and public suspicion. In consequence, more people will call for the establishment of independent and effective ethics committees which have the power to carry out inquiries, and may even possess the power of sanction and of enforcement. At the same time, systems of self-regulation will be more and more discredited. Moreover, “more rules, at least when they are managed through self-regulation, may not help to build more public trust.”4
8. We recommend the Member States and the European institutions to anticipate these developments better, and proactively to improve the effectiveness of their ethics infrastructure for HPOs.

9. Today, there is still very little empirical, statistical and scientific evidence on the effectiveness of (independent) ethics committees (or monitoring bodies). In particular, the establishment of independent monitoring committees may also run the risk of creating a new (costly) and maybe even relatively ineffective ethics bureaucracy. On the other hand, failing to call for (more) independent monitoring bodies could be seen as an argument in favour of (the current forms of) self-regulation, or in favour of weak monitoring bodies. Moreover, the absence of empirical evidence for the effectiveness of monitoring and enforcement instruments cannot be regarded as a proof of their ineffectiveness. We continue to see these bodies as important instruments in the field of CoI.

10. Therefore, and in order to solve the above-mentioned dilemma (between recommendation 7 and 9), we propose that a careful impact-assessment and cost-benefit analysis be carried out with regard to the effectiveness and the efficiency of the different ethics committees (e.g., in the US, Canada, Australia, UK and Ireland).

11. Most national and EU institutions still focus on the introduction of more and new rules and standards. On the other hand, it seems that only few countries and EU institutions review and evaluate the strengths and weaknesses of their conflicts of interest systems.5 This is particularly regrettable, because the many reform activities that have taken place in the last few years provide a wealth of interesting material for evaluation and comparison. However, the lack of information on “implementation and enforcement issues” also makes it difficult to recommend specific models or certain CoI regimes.

12. Success in implementing new rules and standards is only possible if the different conflicts of interest systems are shaped to the needs of the specific administration, taking the particularities of the administrative

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5 Evaluations of the anti-corruption systems are mainly carried out by international organisations (OECD and the Council of Europe (GRECO)).
culture and political context into account. Thus, one important conclusion of this study is that new ethics policies should be developed in a manner that respects and reflects both the culture of the country and the nature of the different institutions. National rules and standards can hardly be purchased as standard “off-the-shelf” products, nor without taking their roles and repercussions in the respective administrations into account. Moreover, because there is such a multitude of codes, it is not possible to aim at suggesting a “patent recipe” for a perfect or “correct” code of ethics. Consequently, we remain sceptical as to whether a specific national code should be recommended to the (multi-cultural) EU institutions at all. Instead, we plead for a careful design and implementation of an ethics regime that fits to the proper institutional system, its own structures, processes, resources, culture and tradition. For example, gift-giving has a different symbolic importance in many countries, and therefore cannot be eliminated in an attempt to conform to a specific universal concept of ethical conduct. In addition, the answer to the question of what should be disclosed in a register of interests is subject to cultural differences. An approach that is too strict may conflict with the rights of the individual in certain countries and prove to be unworkable. There is also the risk that overly strict provisions on professional activities or on post-employment rules will discourage legislators in some countries from disclosing conflicts of interest. These examples show that offering universal or regional models is extremely difficult.

13. However, while cultural differences may lead to variations in the choice of certain instruments and in the choice of a certain ethics regime design, little disagreement exists worldwide as to what constitutes unethical behaviour and the need to fight conflicts of interest. Claims that these contextual factors prevent the possibility of learning from each other should be met with suspicion. In reality, many instruments, strategies, rules and standards take similar directions. Furthermore, codes of ethics are increasingly seen as an important instrument in the fight against unethical behaviour. This study also shows that codes are useful and important instruments because their introduction also triggers the introduction of other measures (training) and instruments (ethics committees).
2. MAIN EMPIRICAL FINDINGS

1. The use of law is the predominant form of regulation. While most Member States have adopted general anti-corruption or anti-fraud laws (which include CoI provisions), fewer Member States have also adopted specific CoI laws and regulations. Moreover, only a few Member States have adopted general CoI laws which apply to all institutions. Instead, most Member States have different and separate rules for the different institutions.

2. In almost all countries, codes of ethics are designed for the individual institutions. Only rarely do they apply to the whole governmental sector.

3. The new Member States are generally more regulated than the old Member States. Among the old Member States, Portugal – followed by the United Kingdom and Spain – have highly regulated systems. The countries with the lowest number of regulated CoI issues are Austria, Denmark and Sweden.

4. The countries with a high degree of overall regulation density are not necessarily the countries where all five institutions also have a high level of regulation density. Parliaments have a relatively high degree of regulation density with regard to the regulation of declarations of interests and – to a lesser extent – the registers of financial interests.

5. With regard to the institutional comparison, the highest regulatory density can be found for the national/EU Central Banks and for governments. Parliaments are the least regulated institutions.

6. The relative low degree of regulation of the Parliaments in Europe raises the question of whether the Parliaments are structurally underregulated. This study comes to the conclusion that this is (partly) the case. However, this conclusion should not be interpreted in the sense that the simple answer is that more regulation, and that ethics regimes of public officials or of other categories of Holders of Public Office, should be taken as a benchmark for the regulation of legislators. In fact, legislators need less rules and standards in specific fields. However, clear rules and standards in other fields may be very relevant for this category of HPOs.
7. Generally speaking, most of the European institutions are regulated more strictly than the Member States and the different institutions at national level. Only some new Member States have a higher regulation density as regards the regulation of certain CoI issues. Amongst the EU institutions, great differences exist as to the regulation of the different conflicts of interest within the different institutions.

8. As to the specific CoI issues, some categories are highly regulated, whereas others are not. Broadly speaking, general ethical principles and obligations are already well regulated. The category of post-employment is the least regulated CoI area among the Member States.

9. During the last years, disclosure policies have become one of the most important instruments in conflicts of interest policies. At present, almost all Member States oblige their HPOs to declare their interests. However, a distinction should be made between (public or confidential) declarations of financial interests, the declaration of additional interests and whether the declarations should (or should not) be stored in a register of interests. However, the content of what actually needs to be declared varies considerably. While new Member States, such as Poland, Romania and Bulgaria, have, in the main, very detailed disclosure requirements, other Member States require much less, which may even be on a voluntary basis (Sweden). Other differences concern the degree of openness (public disclosure or internal disclosure) and questions of sanctions if HPOs do not disclose their interests or disclose them too late. The new Member States, in particular, have very detailed disclosure requirements for all Holders of Public Office, including legislators.

10. In the case of HPOs, independent and external control is rare. For the most part, the different institutions (or HPOs) control themselves – if at all. Despite the current self-regulation practice, there seems to be a trend towards the establishment of more external committees. Unfortunately, little is known about the functions and powers of ethics committees.

11. Codes for the different categories of office holders are also subject to some considerable variation. In fact, the public institutions analysed in this study use codes for many different purposes. In addition, the different codes vary with regard to their legal and political effects. The differences among the different codes, their functions, their political...
and legal nature and their meaning in different traditions and cultures imply that it would be not wise to suggest any form of model code or best practice. From this, we conclude that it is better not to recommend best practices and more codes.

12. Despite all the existing differences and complexities in this study, we believe that it is possible to identify a number of CoI models and to classify a number of national systems in these models. We call these different models “conflicts of interest regimes”.
II. Rules and Standards for Holders of Public Office

1. INTRODUCTION

This study compares and analyses the existing rules and standards for Holders of Public Office (HPOs) as regards conflicts of interest in the Member States of the EU as well as in the EU institutions. More precisely, this study focuses on the analysis and comparison of the various rules and standards contained in the laws, regulations and codes of conduct for Members of Government, elected Members of Parliament (legislators), Judges of the Court of Justices (Supreme Courts or Constitutional Courts), and Members or Directors of the Courts of Audit and Central or National Banks.

As can be seen throughout this study, this is no easy task. The most important challenge when comparing and analysing ethical rules and standards for HPOs concerns the access to reliable data (or how to obtain honest answers to sensitive questions). In addition, research into conflicts of interest raises many controversial and sensitive issues. Because of the political nature of the subject matter, research into the world of applied conflicts of interest faces tremendous difficulties. Overall, analysing conflicts of interest policies for HPOs involves some of the greatest challenges and difficulties in legal, political and administrative science. To this should be added the difficulty in comparing and analysing different (legal) instruments in different legal and administrative traditions in different languages.

When considering all the existing levels of regulation and the use of the variety of soft and legally binding instruments, it is no surprise that, in the field of conflicts of interest, Member States face increasing challenges with regard to the quality of the existing rules, overlaps of rules, legal fragmentation and lack of coherence of approaches. As this study will show, there is no shortage of rules and standards in the field of conflicts of interest. In fact, conflicts of interest are becoming more regulated but not necessarily better managed and enforced in many countries.

In contemporary societies, it seems that when political scandals and
new conflicts of interest appear, “…failure is attributed to poor drafting and not enough law; typically the solution is “smarter” legal interventions...In the aftermath of serious scandal, concerns about guaranteeing integrity and about the appearance of integrity trumps efficiency. Rarely is the integrity/efficiency trade-off even considered.” Thus, calling for new rules and standards is an easy solution to a complex challenge. However, as this study will show, regulating and managing conflicts of interest requires more than a “compliance based approach”. In many countries, the existing rules and codes of ethics look good in themselves, but this does not mean that the different institutions and the people take them seriously. Generally, the rules are nothing but paper. Therefore, the problem is often not the rules but the shortcomings in their implementation and a lack of capacity and effort in the enforcement process. Codes of ethics are also essential at certain times and for certain purposes, but more is needed. Codes only work when they encompass people’s existing beliefs and practices and are well-designed, understood and supported by those who have to apply them in their daily lives. In addition, codes can only be effective in an atmosphere of trust. “A well-functioning democracy cannot survive without citizen trust and confidence in those who govern. Thus, behaviours or acts by officials that diminish citizen trust and confidence are a direct threat to democratic governance. While trust is a renewable resource, it is much easier to destroy than to renew. Many factors can destroy trust in governmental institutions. However, none may destroy trust easier or faster than unethical behaviour or blatant corruption of public officials.”

In all Member States of the EU and in the EU institutions, conflicts of interest are abundant in the fields where HPOs are active. At times, almost all countries and the all European institutions are confronted by incidents which regard breaches of integrity involving HPOs. This lack of integrity undermines the confidence that people have in both public institutions and political systems and also affects their authority. In particular, media reports about new scandals provoke discussions about the continuing need for new rules and standards for HPOs.

In recent years, the European institutions have also been repeatedly accused of nepotism, mismanagement and conflicts of interest. Perhaps paradoxically, these accusations have forced the European Commission to become more active in the field of CoI, and to do more than many others,

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8 See, for example, ECJE C-432/04, 11. July 2006.
including – for example – the European Parliament\textsuperscript{9} and the European Court of Justice. Apart from the rules laid down in the European Community Treaty (ECT), the Court of Justice has almost none of its own rules of ethics. The European Parliament, too, provides for only some basic principles in its rules of procedure, covering independency, transparency, financial interests, forms of corruption and immunities. The other EU institutions vary with regard to their levels of rules and standards for ethics. In their responses to this study, both the ECJ and the ECB have announced that they intend to review their ethics framework.

Despite all the differences that exist, all Member States and the EU institutions agree that specific rules and standards for ethics are necessary for HPOs. More than other “public persons”, HPOs are exposed to a number of (specific) conflicts of interest. They exercise important positions of power and influence, interact regularly with the private sector, take important decisions which have a financial impact, (often) hold important functions on boards, agencies or committees, possess information about important issues, allocate grants of public funds, make appointments to positions, etc. In addition, HPOs introduce measures to decentralise public services, enhance public-private partnerships, improve customer and citizen orientation, promote outsourcing policies and enhance mobility between the public and private sector. All of these developments have an impact on the emergence of new conflicts of interest in the wider public service.

Thus, this study seeks to shed light on the management of the conflicts of interest of those who govern Europe.

2. RESEARCH QUESTION AND WORK ASSIGNMENT

In 2006, the European Commission entrusted the European Institute of Public Administration – in co-operation with the University of Helsinki, the University of Vaasa and the Utrecht School of Governance – with a comparative study entitled: “Rules and Standards of Professional Ethics for Holders of Public Office in the Member States of the European Union and the EU institutions.”

According to the mandate given by the European Commission, this study was to analyse and compare the various rules and standards of professional ethics contained in the laws, regulations and/or codes of conduct for

\textsuperscript{9} However, it must be said that some national groups of MEPs are also bound by ethical rules that apply to their national Parliaments (as, for example, is the case in the UK, NL and LT).
ministers or other Members of the Government, elected Members of Parliament, Justices of the Supreme Court, and Members or Directors of the Court of Audit and Central or National Banks. At EU level, it was decided by the European Commission to analyse the situation in the European Commission, the European Parliament, the European Court of Justice, the European Court of Auditors, the European Central Bank and the European Investment Bank.

Another point of interest for the European Commission was to obtain more information regarding the effectiveness of the existing rules and the possibilities of suggesting a model or a code for the European institutions. These two questions are dealt with in Chapter VII and Chapter VIII.

The main part of this study compares the existing rules and standards (see Chapter IV). This chapter is divided in three sub-chapters. The first sub-chapter (IV.1) analyses and compares the rules and standards of the different countries. The second sub-chapter (IV.2) analyses and compares the different institutions, and third sub-chapter (IV.3) analyses and compares the different conflicts of interest. This chapter will conclude with a comparison of the EU institutions.

In the questionnaire, which was sent to the Member States and to the individual institutions (see Annex 1), we asked the Member States and the institutions to provide information on whether and how they regulate 15 different conflicts of interest issues, which range from declaration of interests and property, rules on confidentiality, and loyalty to post-employment policies. Because some of these issues overlap or are of less importance, it was decided to re-group some of them and to do some statistical calculations on the basis of six different CoI categories. For a more detailed description, see pages 17-18.

Apart from the analysis of the regulation of existing CoI issues, another objective of this study has been to discuss the development of the most important CoI instruments, registers of interests and ethics committees. Chapters V and VI examine the existence and working methods of registers and committees, how they operate, their monitoring and enforcement methods, etc. Both chapters also contain an overview of the existing registers or ethics committees in the EU institutions.

Finally, in accordance with the assignment, this study includes a discussion (in Chapter VIII) on the need (or not) for a proposal (or draft) for an informal standard model code of conduct which takes account of the provisions common to the majority of the countries studied and the provisions likely to guarantee the ethics standards of the HPOs in European institutions. This chapter contains a proposal for a prescriptive conflicts of interest regime model which could be applied to EU institutions.
The study will be completed by an overview for each country, summa-
rising the rules and standards by type of institution (national Parliament, 
national Government, Supreme Court, Court of Audit, Central Bank) and 
by conflict of interest issue. This overview can be found in the appendices 
to this study.

We hope that this study will generate a productive debate within the 
EU institutions. Any honest dialogue about ethics requires an ability to 
communicate about difficult issues and the courage to air open, and some-
times dissenting, opinions. It is well-known that conflicts of interest are 
considered to be a very serious problem in some countries, while they are 
considered much less of a problem in others. This presents an important 
challenge for a comparative study, and many of the issues which are dis-
cussed are complex and sensitive. Consequently, governments, organisa-
tions and even national experts shy away from discussing them openly.

We also hope that any debate about this study will generate sufficient 
scope for all-important viewpoints to be heard in order to achieve a fuller 
understanding. As this suggests, this fundamental dialogue is necessary in 
order to establish what constitutes perfect ethical behaviour, since this is 
unknown at the outset. Such a notion only emerges from the dialogue itself. 
In fact, this study attempts to look critically, openly and honestly at con-
flicts of interest policies. During the discussions which took place in 2007, 
it became clear to us that there are no perfect answers. However, as this 
study will show, there are some promising answers and many – surprising – 
results which contradict some widely-accepted theoretical concepts.

Finally, this study had to be accomplished within less than one year. 
Without doubt, this requirement represented the biggest challenge.

The authors of this study would like to thank Anna Melich (BEPA), 
Moritz Schwartz, Danielle Bossaert, Cristiana Turchetti and Adriana 
Dimova for their valuable support, and to express our gratitude to the vari-
ous national experts within the Member States and within the European 
Commission who helped us to carry out this study.

3. A NETWORK APPROACH: DATA COLLECTION AND DATA 
ANALYSIS

Because of the comparative and inter-institutional approach of this study, it 
may be considered as a pioneering work in the field of conflicts of interest 
in Europe. Indeed, this study may very well be the most detailed empirical 
study in the field of conflicts of interest that has been carried out so far. 
However, the authors of this study are well aware of the many difficulties
and challenges involved in doing this research. To this should be added the fact that the issue as such is highly sensitive and “political”. Consequently, we expected that not all national institutions in the Member States would be willing to contribute. When looking at the response rate, amongst the 27 countries, the European Commission, the European Parliament, the European Court of Justice, the European Court of Auditors, the European Central Bank, the European Investment Bank and a total of 141 institutions, it is quite surprising that so many institutions did agree to contribute to this study. Clearly, the high rate of participation confirms the great interest in this subject.

This study was carried out by a network of researchers from the European Institute of Public Administration, the Utrecht School of Governance, the University of Helsinki and the University of Vaasa. In addition, we cooperated with an external network – the European Public Administration Network (http://www.eupan.eu). The study was undertaken in the English language. However, the management of the work required the interpretation and the analysis of the research material to take place in different languages, given the fact that not all countries and institutions were able and/or willing to reply to our questionnaire in the English language. Another challenge was to examine and to compare the very different rules and documents which reflect the different cultures and legal traditions. In order to be able to manage these challenges, our expert team combined international and inter-disciplinary expertise with legal, political, administrative and cultural science backgrounds, and included academics with experience in practical comparative research. Another unique feature of this team was that almost all of the members of the research team had already gained substantial experience in analysing public ethics in all of the Member States of the European Union and at EU level. At times, 10 different experts from seven different countries (Austria, the Netherlands, Germany, Luxembourg, Italy, Bulgaria and Finland) contributed to this study. Over a period of one year, the team was in constant contact by email and via an interactive webpage. In addition, we organised three workshops and discussed many methodological questions as well as other issues.
Examples of important issues and questions during the study

- What is the concept of codes of ethics in different cultures?
- How are “rules” and “standards” defined in the different legal traditions?
- How are ethics committees and ethics commissions defined?
- Do (new) rules on CoI contribute to the solving of problems or not?
- What is the relationship between rules and standards and the development of public trust?
- Do more rules lead to more or fewer violations of ethics?
- Are some conflicts of interest rules more effective than others?
- How can deterrent policies be combined with the attractiveness of public posts?
- How are enforcement standards to be improved and bureaucracy decreased?
- How is openness, accountability and transparency to be created, but intrusion into privacy to be avoided?
- Do ethics committees work?
- Is there a future for self-regulation?
- What should be registered? What are the inherent limitations of disclosure policies?
- How are interests to be managed and registered effectively?
- Should different categories of Holders of Public Office be treated differently?
- What are the advantages/disadvantages of inter-institutional/sectoral approaches to CoI?

Another challenge in this study was to find ways to: a) find the right contact partners within the Member States; b) receive the right data from the Member States; and c) manage and analyse the data within one data management system according to the same criteria.

We received the national data via the European Public Administration Network (EUPAN). This network is composed of governmental officials from all the Member States of the EU and from the European institutions. This approach worked extremely (and surprisingly) well. In most cases, the national experts collected the replies from the different institutions and sent all the replies to our research team. In other cases, we contacted the relevant experts ourselves or contacted other experts who could help us to clarify the questions. In addition, bilateral contacts were necessary in many cases in order to gather more material and/or in order to clarify concepts or unclear
answers. Finally, as a member of the HRM working group, one member of
the project team was in a position to contact the different experts directly
and to discuss emerging issues with the different national members of the
network regularly. In the end, almost all the Member States (except Malta
and Slovakia) and all the EU institutions contributed to our study. In total,
78% of all the institutions contacted replied to our questionnaire. For an
international and comparative study of this size, this is an excellent result.

The above-mentioned interactive webpage was designed and managed
centrally at the European Institute of Public Administration. Here, all the
members of the research team could upload all the incoming information at
the same time. Thus, all the experts in the team could work on the data in
parallel according to their own specifically-defined tasks.

The quantitative research data consisted of 19 survey questions that
were asked to the five institutions in all Member States and six European
institutions. Therefore, the total data set could have included as great a
number as 141 institutions multiplied by 19 issues thus, equalling 3,102
observations. However, we received responses from 110 institutions, which
resulted in 1,968 answers. Adding to this the open-ended qualitative ques-
tions, there was even more data to be analysed, interpreted and put into con-
text. Roughly speaking, each institution provided us with about 50 – 100
pages of different documents (relevant legislation, codes of conduct/ethics,
etc.), so the total amount of the received qualitative data is around 5,000 to
10,000 pages. In order to avoid mistakes in data processing and to eliminate
inaccuracies in the statistic, the analysis was carried out by two independent
teams, using different software and methods. The results were counter-
checked in order to ensure both the reliability and compatibility of data.

In view of the complexity of the issues at hand, it was, in many
instances, difficult to judge the accuracy and correctness of the incoming
data. For example, in many instances, the national institutions did not
answer all the questions with a “Yes” or a “No”. On occasion, they did not
answer some questions at all. In these cases especially, it was difficult to
interpret this: is a “No” answer to be interpreted as a case in which no rules
or standards exist? Or, does this mean that the expert who replied to the
questionnaire simply did not know the answer? In this study, we could not
fully solve these methodological difficulties, although, in some cases, we
did manage to contact the national experts and obtain some clarification.

During a first evaluation of the answers, the team agreed to try to
reduce the number of “No” answers to the questions as much as possible,
and thus a second round of more specific investigations began. This also
had the advantage that some cases in which the questions had clearly been
misunderstood or misinterpreted were able to be corrected.
Another objective of this study is to offer a general view of the CoI regulation in force throughout the 27 EU Member States and within the European institutions. The underlying idea is to construct a model that reflects the main dimensions of CoI regulation. Accordingly, a model for “regulation density” was designed in order to obtain a picture of the overall level of regulation in a certain country or institution, including the different means of regulation (laws, codes or a combination of them). For this purpose, the level of CoI regulation is measured by a balanced-sum variable that consists of six main elements and 12 sub-items. The main elements of this model are: (1) outside activities; (2) financial disclosure; (3) gifts; (4) post-employment; (5) professional activities; and (6) other rules and regulations. The model is balanced in such a way that each element has equal weight in the final model. Each CoI element may consist of one or several sub-items. A short description of the main elements as well as their sub-items is given in Table 1. The table also shows the weight of each item within its category, as well as its impact on the whole model.

**Table 1: Model on level of CoI regulation**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category 1: outside activities</th>
<th>Weight in Category</th>
<th>Weight in Model</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>political activities</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>8.33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>other outside activities (honorary positions or conferences or publications)</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>8.33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Category 2: financial disclosure</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>declaration of financial interests and assets</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>8.33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HPO’s spouse’s activities</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>8.33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Category 3: gifts and similar issues</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>accepting gifts, decorations or distinctions</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>5.50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>missions, travel</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>5.50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rules on receptions and representation</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>5.50%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Out of the 141 institutions covered in this study, 88 (62%) responded to all questions that were used to construct the model. In 22 (16%) cases, most of the questions were answered but some information was missing. In this group, there were 285 valid answers out of a total of 330 answers, thus 45 answers were missing (average 2.0 missing items per institution). Thirty-one (22%) institutions did not contribute to the study.

In order to avoid unnecessary data drop-out, the partially answered 22 cases were included to the model with the assumption that the missing item(s) was “not regulated”. With this operation, the number of valid cases increased from 88 institutions (62%) up to 110 institutions (78%). The drawback of the above operation is that, in some cases, the missing item may, in fact, actually be regulated, so the operation may add imprecise information to the model. In order to understand the impact of this operation on the model, the distribution of missing information was analysed. As was established, the frequency of missing information is rather low, with the exception of CoI category number three, gifts and similar issues, where 27% of the data were missing. However, this does not have much impact on the whole dataset in this particular category (5%), and, in the whole model, its impact is less than 1%. Compared to the control group (N=88), it seems that the relative frequency of “not regulated” has slightly increased. However, we do not know if these cases are missing because of normal random

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category 4: post-employment</th>
<th>Weight in Category</th>
<th>Weight in Model</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>restrictions on professional commitments or holding other posts after leaving office</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>16.67%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category 5: professional activities</th>
<th>Weight in Category</th>
<th>Weight in Model</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>professional confidentiality</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>8.33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>professional loyalty</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>8.33%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category 6: other rules and regulations</th>
<th>Weight in Category</th>
<th>Weight in Model</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>general rules on impartiality and conflicts of interest</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>8.33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>specific rules on incompatibility of posts and professional activities</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>8.33%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
variation, or because they are actually less regulated. If the respondent does not know himself/herself if the item is regulated or not, it seems reasonable to assume that the item does not have much significance in practice.

4. THE STATE OF LITERATURE AND STUDIES IN THE FIELD OF COMPARATIVE CONFLICTS OF INTEREST

Interestingly, the literature on governmental ethics is almost exclusively North American, although, in Europe, the situation is slowly changing. However, in both continents, a) comparative empirical studies on b) conflicts of interest in c) different institutions for d) holders of public service, do not yet exist. There may be three main reasons for this:

a) lack of comparative data;
b) difficulties in comparing and analysing international data; and
c) difficulties in measuring ethics issues.

Only in the USA does the Center for Ethics in Government provide comparative information on the laws of ethics and the standards of ethics in the different US states (although not for different categories of Holders of Public Office).

So far, most European-wide comparative studies have been undertaken on public officials (Bossaert/Demmke (2005), Gilman (2005), OECD (2005), Salminen/Moilanen (2006), and Bovens/van Lierop/Pikker (2007). Other comparative studies are more limited and focus mainly on

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10 This can also be verified by comparing the level of regulation: the result is similar 67.7% (N=22) vs. 74.1% (N=88).
14 D.Bossaert/C.Demmke, Main Challenges in the Field of Ethics and Integrity in the EU Member States, Maastricht, 2005.
16 Amongst many studies: OECD, Managing Conflicts of Interest, 31 March 2006, Paris. See, also, http://www.oecd.org/topic/0,3373,en_2649_34135_1_1_1_1_37447,00.html (last checked on 11 July 2007).
legislators or Members of Government (the National Democratic Institute for International Affairs, 1999, Transparency International 2001, SIGMA 2005, Saint-Martin/Thompson 2006), or deal with more specific aspects of conflicts of interest (e.g. OECD – Post-Employment Study, 2006).

The numerous initiatives, recommendations, reports and studies about ethics and conflicts of interest reflect not only an increasing interest in the subject, but also growing concern about the development of values, moral and ethical standards, and equality and diversity issues in general. They also show a general trend towards higher expectations on the part of the public with regard to the quality of public services and the credibility of HPOs. These expectations do not just concern the field of ethics. Rather, they reflect a general tendency towards higher expectations in fields such as good governance, public performance, legitimacy and accountability, transparency and openness, diversity, non-discrimination and policies on unwelcome behaviour and harassment.

Moreover, the discussions on ethics and conflicts of interest should also be understood within the context of the new discussions about the corporate responsibility of internationally operating companies, the salaries of top managers, the medical benefits of genetic engineering, euthanasia, the ethics of green shareholding, the social and cultural impact of the new media, and our responsibility for climate change, etc. Thus, “[a]chieving an ethos of honesty and transparency becomes the Holy Grail.”

Today, not a day goes by without extensive media coverage of the cor-

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19 http://www.oecd.org/document/8/0,3343,en_2649_34135_27068488_1_1_1_1,00.html
Regulating Conflicts of Interest for Holders of Public Office

Corruption, fraud and unethical behaviour of certain Holders of Public Office. Consequently, discussions about ethical behaviour, conflicts of interest and integrity issues require answers to some very simple, but also very fundamental, questions: What is good and proper behaviour in times of changing and reforming government, decentralisation trends, the emergence of public-private partnerships, on-going internationalisation trends, new threats (terrorism), new challenges (best practices), new opportunities (more and better information technologies) and new values in our societies? These developments show that any discussion about conflicts of interest cannot be separated from an analysis of ethical behaviour in our societies in general.

Unfortunately, the increasing (scientific) interest in public ethics has not necessarily produced more clarity and consensus with regard to the right choice of policy instruments. For example, in the field of public disclosure, a “myriad of published studies on the public financial disclosure process represents an even broader spectrum of views. For example, some argue that a public reporting system is unnecessary, and that requiring the filing and review of confidential reports would sufficiently prevent financial conflicts of interest. Others believe that public scrutiny is essential to deterring potential conflicts of interest and to encouraging confidence in government. Even among those who favour a public disclosure system, there are very different opinions about the items of information that filers should be required to disclose. For example, some believe that filers should be required to report the identities of their assets, but not their values, under the theory that the magnitude of the financial interest is irrelevant to the question of whether it creates an actual conflict of interest. Others believe that the value of an asset is a critical predictor of whether it will actually cause a conflict of interest.”

Our present understanding of conflicts of interest seems to be more and more paradoxical: on the one hand, there have never been so many (regulatory) activities, reforms and studies in this field. On the other, scientific evidence about the effectiveness of the different reforms, measures and regulatory strategies is still lacking.

In addition, ethics experts face many difficulties in answering as to whether ethical challenges are increasing, decreasing – or both? Another development is also striking: while the media and the wider public call for the introduction of more rules and standards in the field, many experts point to the potential negative effects of more rules, stressing the fact, for example, to the fact that public discussions on ethics pay too little attention to the

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impact of ethics policies on administrative reactions, procedures, processes, monitoring requirements, costs and civil rights. The first experts to address these problematical issues in detail were Anechiarico and J.B. Jacobs in the year 1996! Thus, the literature on the challenges and the paradoxes of conflicts of interest policies is still fairly recent.

Naturally, this study can also shed light on only some of the many existing challenges in the field. However, during the analysis of the various studies, reports, publications, laws and codes, etc., much insight and many positive developments have been found. It is clearly noticeable that the regulation of conflicts of interest is gaining importance in all Member States. As a result, the current international reform process in the field is leading to a boost in innovation that could also be of great interest for both the EU institutions and the respective national practice. The international comparison provides a multitude of options for learning from the experiences and problems of others, without ignoring the particularities of national administrative structures.

Denise, this is the last book which we have done together. A thousand thanks for all the excellent work during the past few years.
III. Conceptual Framework

1. ANALYSING RULES AND STANDARDS IN THE FIELD OF CONFLICTS OF INTEREST

In this study, we differentiate between laws and codes of conduct/ethics. All legally binding acts and provisions (constitution, laws, regulations, acts, statutes) have been treated as laws, whereas codes can be defined as all internal documents and administrative practices (such as codes of ethics, etc.). Most existing comparative studies in the field of conflicts of interest compare and describe very different laws, standards and codes of ethics. For example, in some Member States, general rules are laid down in the constitution or in the penal codes that refer to ethics (and conflicts of interest). These constitutional or criminal law rules are applicable to more than one institution and apply to the whole country. In other countries, the constitution does not regulate ethical issues at all. In contrast, in some Member States, general or specific rules and standards regulate all or specific institutions. The different degree of regulation and the different levels of regulation suggest that regulation by the constitution or the general penal code should be handled differently than specifically-designed rules on conflicts of interest.

So far, very little is known about levels of regulation and instruments in the field of conflicts of interest. Do Member States opt for centralised approaches or sectoral approaches, laws, regulations, administrative practices or codes? Or a new mixture of instruments? Answers to these questions are important because the results may allow us to find an answer as to whether the EU institutions should also have a centralised and inter-institutional approach or a decentralised and sectoral approach to ethics.

In order to analyse this question in greater detail, we have introduced a distinction between:

a) legally binding rules; and

b) internal administrative practices and codes of ethics.
Furthermore, the study distinguishes between:

a) centralised rules, for example, generally applicable ethics rules and standards (for example, penal law, law on corruption, etc.) for all Holders of Public Office; and

b) specific rules and standards in the field of conflicts of interest.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of regulation</th>
<th>ALL INSTITUTIONS (GOVERNMENT, PARLIAMENT, COURT OF JUSTICE, COURT OF AUDITORS, CENTRAL BANK)</th>
<th>INDIVIDUAL INSTITUTION(S) – “LESS THAN ALL” INSTITUTIONS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>General rule/and or regulation (including provisions on conflicts of interests)</td>
<td>General regulation applicable to all institutions [GL]: · Constitution · Penal Code · Administrative Acts · Civil Servants Act</td>
<td>General regulation applicable to individual institutions [GIL]: Example: Central Bank Act; Court of Auditors Act</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compliance based (normative)</td>
<td>General codes and/or standards for all institutions [GC]: Example: Seven Principles of Public Life (UK)</td>
<td>General codes and/or standards for individual institutions [GIC]: Example: Codes of Conduct, Rules of Procedure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Integrity based</strong></td>
<td>Specific regulation CoI applicable to all institutions [SL]: Example: Prevention of Corruption Act (SI); Ethics in Public Office Act (IE);</td>
<td>CoI legislation applicable to individual institutions [SIL]: Example: Incompatibility Act for Government and Parliament (AT);</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Specific rule and/or regulation (explicitly on ethics and conflicts of interests)</td>
<td>Specific codes and/or standards for all institutions [SC]: Example: Conflicts of Interest and Post-Employment Code for Holders of Public Office (CA)</td>
<td>Specific codes and/or standards for specific institutions [SIC]: Example: Ministerial Code of Ethics (UK)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In this study, another distinction will be introduced between the “regulation density” of rules on CoI in the Member States (and institutions) and the “choice of regulatory instruments”. We define “regulation density” as the quantitative degree of regulation of conflict of interests. For example, if a Member States regulates all conflict of interest issues, the country has a
regulation density of 100%. The notion of “choice of regulatory instruments” applies to the question of whether Member States have adopted laws and/or codes of ethics in the different areas.

During our work, we noted that definitions of rules and standards, regulation density and level of regulation are particularly difficult to apply to the EU institutions. The European Community Treaty (ECT) provides some ethical principles and rules which apply to the different EU institutions. One exception is the European Parliament: the ECT does not provide ethical principles which are applicable to the MEP. Apart from the Treaty principles, the EU institutions have never adopted legally binding rules of ethics which can be compared to specific or general laws in the Member States. Furthermore, no inter-institutional code of ethics exists. Only the European Code for Good Administrative Behaviour applies to all European institutions. Instead, the different EU institutions have adopted specific codes for their institutions, and also, in part, for the different categories of HPOs within their institutions. Exceptions are the European Court of Justice and the European Parliament. While the Protocol on the Statute of the Court of Justice mentions some principles of ethics and obligations, the Rules of Procedure of the European Parliament (in Annex I) make reference to some ethical duties.

Consequently, the EP and the ECJ have no code of ethics. In both cases, neither the protocol of the Statute of the Court of Justice nor the rules of procedure of the EP can be considered as a code of ethics. Normally, rules of procedure regulate organisational, financial and technical aspects within an institution. With regard to the European Parliament, some issues which are regulated in the Annexes of the Rules of Procedure regulate ethical issues. Because of this, we have decided to treat the EP Rules of Procedure as “rules and standards” within the meaning of our study.

2. DEFINING CONFLICTS OF INTEREST FOR HOLDERS OF PUBLIC OFFICE (HPOs)

The notion “conflicts of interest” is a social, political, economical, cultural and legal concept. It is full of controversy and ambiguity. Conceptions about what should be defined as conflicts of interest are constantly evolving. “In the last several decades, the public standard of morality has become much stricter....Previously accepted conduct...is now deemed unethical and previously unethical conduct is now deemed criminal.”26 Consequently, the

26 Anechiarico/Jacobs, The pursuit of Absolute Integrity, op. cit., p. 16.
Conflicts of interest of HPOs involve a conflict between public duty and private interests, whereby the HPO has a private interest which could improperly influence the public interest, through his or her activities and decisions. In this context, a conflict of interest is not necessarily corruption or fraud. However, it does constitute an “abuse of public office for private advantage”, and may contain the potential for unfair behaviour. Normally, all governments in the world provide conflicts of interest standards and norms for the executive, legislative and judicial bodies. In the main, these standards and rules overlap, but they are not always the same for the different branches of these bodies. For example, while some countries have general laws on corruption and disclosure policies which apply to all public institutions, the different institutions also have their own regulations, statutes, codes and ethical standards. The reason for this is simple: different categories of Holders of Public Office have different powers, tasks and functions, and work in different organisational settings. Consequently, they face different ethical challenges. Overall, the tasks of the different categories of HPOs determine (to a certain extent) the nature of conflicts of interest.

Many governments have moved from managing conflicts of interest through top-down approaches (prohibitions, restrictions, criminal and administrative sanctions) to more complex approaches, which include education, training, transparency requirements and better monitoring systems.

Nowadays, the common standards in the field of conflicts of interest comprise:

- A body of rules, codes, standards and principles. These instruments principally enumerate a number of prohibitions and restrictions (for example, not receiving gifts of a value superior to 250 euros). Here, important differences exist as to the number of prohibitions, restrictions and obligations.

- Disclosure policies and registers of interests that require the HPOs to register potential conflicts of interest and other interests. Here, differences exist with regard to transparency requirements, the level of detail of reporting obligations and specific obligations (for example, whether a spouse’s activities should be registered or not), etc.

- Monitoring and enforcement mechanisms. Here, important differences exist regarding powers and resources of the ethics committees and ethics commissions which have the task of advising on ethical questions and/or of monitoring and controlling the development of conflicts of interest.
interest within their organisations. Important differences also exist with regard to (criminal and administrative) sanctions in cases of ethical misconduct.

- Training and education requirements (for example, Is training compulsory for Holders of Public Office?)

The particular difficulty in regulating and in managing CoI results from the high number of potential conflicts. Conflicts of interest can arise at any time and may range from avoiding personal disadvantages to personal profit-seeking. They can have financial or non-financial reasons, and include many social and professional activities and interests. For example, a minister, judge, legislator, etc., may be a Member of a board, or have personal contacts with lobby groups, NGOs or may simply have friends whose activities or interests may create the potential of a CoI. Any of these relationships could be the source of conflicts of interest that could conflict with the public interest of the HPO.

As a consequence, most policies in the Member States separate conflicts of interest into two types: pecuniary and non-pecuniary.

- **Pecuniary interests** involve situations of financial profit or financial problems. However, financial property or financial interests do not need to change hands for an interest to be pecuniary. People have a pecuniary interest if they (or a relative or other close associate) own property, hold shares, have a position in a company bidding for government work, or receive benefits (such as concessions, discounts, gifts or hospitality) from a particular source.

- **Non-pecuniary interests** do not have a financial component. They may arise from personal or family relationships, or other activities. They include any tendency towards favour or prejudice resulting from friendship, animosity, or other personal involvement with another person or group.

According to the OECD, conflicts of interest can be actual, perceived or potential.

- An **actual conflict of interest** involves a direct conflict between a public official’s current duties and responsibilities and existing private interests;

- A **perceived or apparent conflict of interest** can exist where it could be
perceived, or appears, that a public official’s private interests could improperly influence the performance of their duties—independently of whether or not this is, in fact, the case;
• A potential conflict of interest arises when a public official has private interests that could conflict with his or her official duties in the future.

There are two other situations that Governments should be aware of when establishing a framework for managing conflicts.

The first situation is where a Holder of Public Office has multiple roles and could be said to wear “two hats”. In most Member States, this may be the case with legislators 28 who are allowed to exercise professional activities next to their position as Parliamentarians. However, wearing “two hats” (in the sense of having conflicting interests) can also be the case if a Judge, Director of the Court of Auditors, Central Bank, etc., is an (honorary) member of the board of an agency, NGO or company. Generally speaking, where individuals have more than one official role, it may be difficult to keep the roles distinct.

Another situation, which often arises, is the problem of insider dealing, which means that Holders of Public Office acquire confidential information that could be useful in relation to other clients or relationships. The risk of corruption in this situation is that the Holder of Public Office may be tempted to use the information improperly, to give advantage to another organisation, to lobbyists or to another person, or create bias against, or prejudicial treatment of, another group or person. Usually, these conflicts concern Members of Government, Directors of Banks and Directors of Audit Offices, more than Judges or legislators.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>In total, potential conflicts of interest concern different issues such as:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• violating general principles while exercising public office;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• receiving gifts;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• receiving other benefits;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• political activities;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• lobbyism;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• securing the appointment of relatives and nepotism;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• memberships of boards, NGOs, companies and non-profit organisations;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

28 Mainly Members of Government, Judges or Directors of the Central Bank or the Court of Auditors are not allowed to engage in additional professional activities.
Regulating Conflicts of Interest for Holders of Public Office

- affiliations with trade unions or professional organisations and other personal interests;
- involvement in secondary employment that potentially conflicts with an official’s public duties;
- relationships (such as obligations to professional, community, ethnic group, family, or religious group in a personal or professional capacity, or to people living in the same household);
- possession of important information;
- representing and acting for foreign countries;
- misuse of own position for private gain;
- misuse of government property;
- other professional activities;
- post-employment;
- future employment;
- financial interests;
- different responsibilities to different actors;
- honorary positions;
- invitations for holidays, dinners, speeches, participation in events, etc.

Looking at the (still growing) number of potential conflicts of interest, one may question whether the “Pursuit of Absolute Integrity”\(^29\) is possible at all, or whether this is an illusion. Despite the inherent limitation to the regulation of “behaviour”, some countries have established impressive lists of prohibitions and restrictions. These restrictions concern many diverse issues such as:

- the absolute prohibition to accept gifts;
- the regulation or restriction of political activities;
- the prohibition of the appointment of relatives;
- restrictions to the membership of boards, NGOs, companies and non-profit organisations;
- the prohibition of affiliations with trade unions or professional organisations and other personal interests;
- the prohibition of involvement in secondary employment that potentially conflicts with the public duties of an official;
- the prohibition of undertakings and relationships, such as obligations to professional, community, ethnic group, family, or religious group in a

\(^{29}\) According to the title of the publication from Anechiarico/Jacobs, The Pursuit of Absolute Integrity, op. cit.
personal or professional capacity, or to people living in the same household;
• the prohibition of the disclosure of public information;
• the prohibition of representing and acting for foreign countries;
• rules on the use of one’s own public position for private gains, and on the misuse of government property and information;
• resignation requirements;
• others.

In addition to these prohibitions and restrictions, the different countries and institutions implement new measures with regard to disclosure duties, general transparency requirements, monitoring and control instruments (such as ethics commissions), and training and awareness policies, as well as the reform of their administrative systems.

Despite these common trends, the Member States of the EU, the European institutions, and Canada and the US differ widely with regard to the degree of transparency policies, powers of the different ethics commissions and committees, training (obligatory or non-obligatory) and disclosure requirements (e.g., declaration of personal income, declaration of family income, declaration of personal and family assets, etc.). In addition, important differences exist with regard to the rules and standards in the field of post-employment policies (the existence of cooling-off periods, strict, flexible, or no restrictions and control of post-employment activities), complete or only partial restrictions, and control of gifts and other forms of benefits, personal and family restrictions on property, and divestment requirements.

As can be seen, the area of conflicts of interest is a field of extraordinary complexity and political and legal sensitivity. Only the principle, as such, is easy to define. However, to resolve a conflict and to distinguish between actual, apparent, real, and potential conflict situations usually requires legal, technical and managerial skills and a fundamental understanding of the many issues and points of view involved. Even the language is confusing: “having an interest” is not the same as being interested in an issue.

3. PURPOSE AND OBJECTIVES OF RULES AND STANDARDS

More and better rules on Conflicts of Interest for Holders of Public Office should – at least in theory – lead to more trust, greater accountability, more integrity and less unethical behaviour/corruption. New rules should also provide a tool for identifying and resolving potential conflicts of interest,
and also:
• increase public confidence in the government;
• demonstrate the high level of integrity of the vast majority of Government officials;
• deter conflicts of interest from arising because official activities would be subject to public scrutiny;
• deter persons whose personal finances would not bear up to public scrutiny from entering public service; and
• enable the public to judge the performance of public officials better in the light of their outside financial interests

Gradually, ethics policies are becoming more important everywhere. The underlying reasons for this worldwide development can be summarised as follows:
• First, Governments are increasingly expected to ensure that holders do not allow their private interests to compromise official decision-making;
• Second, society is becoming increasingly demanding with regard to the behaviour of Holders of Public Office. Consequently, potential conflicts of interest may weaken public trust.
• Third, new forms of relationship have developed between the public and private sector, and give rise to increasingly close forms of collaboration between the two sectors.
• Fourth, new forms of mobility between the public and the private sector may provoke more potential conflicts of interest as regards post-employment issues.
• Political scandals and increasing media attention put more pressure on the political actors to do even more in the field of ethics.

Today, throughout the world, governments, public institutions and international organisations such as the OECD, SIGMA, the World Bank, the United Nations, the Council of Europe, the European Foundations for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions, and NGOs (e.g., Transparency International) are all increasing their efforts to design new strategies on how to fight unethical behaviour and conflicts of interest in

the best way. In the past years, numerous reports and studies have been published on corruption, fraud and conflicts of interest. The World Bank, the OECD\textsuperscript{33} and the Council of Europe, in particular, have developed a number of initiatives and elaborated guidelines and procedures aimed at raising awareness of the increase in corruption, with a view to fighting this corruption and combating unlawful practices.

At present, the World Bank and the IMF, in particular, are very active in advising the new Member States\textsuperscript{34} of the EU (and other countries) in drafting, developing and implementing new conflicts of interest policies and laws. For example, under the heading “Toward a transparency reform scorecard”, the World Bank and the IMF support these countries in “effective implementation of conflicts of interest laws, separating business, politics, legislation, and public service, and adoption of a law governing lobbying.”\textsuperscript{35} Also, Transparency International\textsuperscript{36} is promoting new policies and initiatives in the field.

Throughout the last decades, the trend was clearly towards more rules and regulations in the field of ethics and conflicts of interest. In the USA and Canada, in particular, rules and standards of conduct were constantly rising. At the same time, there is still very little evidence as to whether conflicts of interest and corruption are decreasing. On the other hand, empirical evidence does not suggest that conflicts of interest are increasing. Indeed, a study by Mackenzie came to the following conclusion: “Worry about the ethics of public officials greatly exceeds formal evidence of ethical violations.”\textsuperscript{37}

Moreover, there is little empirical evidence about the development of conflicts of interest. The growing interest in public ethics reflects a growing interest in clear values, standards and norms. There would seem to be a trade-off between the growing complexity of our societies and the need for better, clearer and stricter rules. Moral and ethical standards are changing more rapidly than before. Also, concepts of conflicts of interest and corruption have changed over the years to include more types of official and pri-

\textsuperscript{33} The OECD (http://www.oecd.org/searchResult/0,2665,en_2649_201185_1_1_1_1_1_1,00.html) has been working on ethics for a number of years and has published a number of guidelines and recommendations on the so-called ethics infrastructure and also comparative and national reports on this issue. (last checked on 11 July 2007).

\textsuperscript{34} Within the framework of this study the term “New Member States” means all 12 countries that have become members of the EU after 2004.


\textsuperscript{36} http://www.transparency.org/ (last checked 20 June 2007).

vate conduct. What was legal a generation ago is considered corrupt today.38 Because of the increasing number of ethical rules and standards, “there are many more laws to be broken nowadays.”39

Modern approaches to ethics do result in more rules and more standards and – simultaneously – more insecurity about the right standards. At the same time, regulation in the field of conflicts of interest takes a stronger prophylactic approach. Prohibitions are regulated for an increasing variety of circumstances, and requirements for the disclosure of interests have shifted from an (original) concentration on financial issues into other non-pecuniary commitments. Public opinion, too, has shifted towards an objective conception of conflict and a subjective conception of interest.

The development of rules and standards for ethics is also, to a large extent, influenced by developments in the media. Today, media coverage with regard to ethics and values is becoming more frequent and more important. Consequently: “The days of unquestioned trust and admiration on the part of (...) the general public are over.”40

4. THE NEED FOR DIFFERENT RULES AND STANDARDS FOR DIFFERENT HPOs

All public authorities, governmental institutions, Parliaments, Central Banks and Audit Offices have one common objective: they must serve the public interest. Public trust and public confidence in the integrity of elected officials, politicians and ministers is fundamental to the rule of law.

A study (200641) in the United Kingdom shows that “[p]oliticians are much less trusted to tell the truth than members of most professions: while the vast majority of the public say they trust doctors, teachers, Judges and police officers, less than a quarter trust Government ministers, as few as trust estate agents; three in ten trust MPs in general.... The integrity of those who hold public office matters to the public. More people say it is very important that MPs and Government ministers should not take bribes, that they should tell the truth and that they should not use their power for their own personal gain than think it is very important they should be competent

39 Ibid.163.
41 Social Research Institute, Survey of Public Attitudes towards Conduct in Public Life, London 2006, p. 11.
at their jobs. Truthfulness is highly prized. Three-quarters of the public think it is “extremely important” that MPs and Government ministers should tell the truth – only the requirement that they should not take bribes is rated as important by more of the public. The public also rate highly the importance of those in public office not using their power for their own personal gain: three-quarters think it very important that MPs and ministers do not use their power for their own personal gain (and only a minority believe that most MPs or ministers actually do so). Few of the public suspect politicians as a group of outright corruption – only 7% say they think “all” or “most” Government ministers take bribes, and 6% that all or most MPs do. However, the 2006 survey found a greater degree of public doubt than in 2003/04: while the last survey found 80% saying that few or no MPs take bribes and only 3% that they didn’t know, the present survey found 21% saying “don’t know”, with those prepared to express confidence that such abuse is rare falling to 63%. A similar shift in opinion was found in perceptions of whether Government ministers take bribes or not. This sharp change from the results of the previous survey applied only to the question of bribery; there was no movement to any similar degree in other aspects of politicians’ perceived behaviour. The public apply very similar standards to senior public officials as they do to MPs and Government ministers in terms of the behaviour they demand. In general they express somewhat more confidence that officials are meeting those standards than that politicians are doing so.”

This survey shows that a) high standards of integrity are important, b) public perceptions are changing quickly and c) public trust is very fragile and vulnerable. Generally, people expect HPOs to have very high standards of integrity because they have more power, influence and decision-making discretion than any public official and any private persons. They exercise public powers on behalf of the country. They spend public money for important governmental projects. They raise taxes. They hunt down criminals. They protect the people. They take decisions which have an impact on the fundamental rights of the citizens. They decide on health and on risk protection. For all these important tasks, it is important that they exercise their role properly, and act lawfully, honestly and loyally without acquiring any personal advantage. Because of this, standards of integrity must be set at high levels.

However, the different categories of Holders of Public Office are not the same: they have different positions and tasks, enjoy different degrees of media attention, have different powers, and work in different organisa-

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42 Ibid.
Regulating Conflicts of Interest for Holders of Public Office

tional, institutional, political and legal settings.

A study by Gaugler in Germany shows that the higher the prestige and the position of an HPO, the more companies and organisations seek to establish contact, offer memberships in boards, etc. Accordingly, former cabinet members frequently assume important positions or functions in companies and organisations after they have left office. In recognising this, it seems appropriate that specific rules and standards seek to regulate ministerial behaviour and take these differences into account. The call to regulate post-employment issues more strongly for (former) Members of the Government also stems from these differences.

4.1 Legislators

This study shows that the higher the position of an HPO, the stricter the policy, regulations and codes of conduct that are required, and the greater the transparency that is necessary. For example, while Members of Government are often required to avoid or to withdraw from activities, memberships, financial interests or situations that would place them in a real, potential, or apparent conflict of interest, legislators are often allowed to take part in professional activities unless these activities are likely to give rise to a conflict of interest. As regards the latter the most important argument for this is that Parliaments should not develop into arenas where only full-time professional politicians are allowed to represent their constituencies. Another – frequently cited – argument is that legislators should be allowed to maintain their contact with their profession as this would also be beneficial for Parliamentary systems. Finally, full-time Parliamentarians may lose contact with the “real world” if they are prohibited from exercising other activities. The above-mentioned study from Gaugler (2006) shows that approximately 25% of all German MPs hold additional positions and memberships in addition to their public function as an MP. Another empirical study on additional professional activities of MPs (in Germany) reveals that 23.1% of all German MPs in the German Bundestag carry out another professional activity. In addition, 18.2% of all German MEPs exercise another professional activity (the figures correspond to 2003/2004).

The question of whether these additional professional activities should

45 Gaugler, Bunderstagsabgeordnete, op. cit., p. 79.
be (more strictly) regulated is the subject of intense discussion. Moreover, finding the right balance between the right to have a professional life, respect for ethical values and the avoidance of corruption and conflicts of interest remains a real challenge.\footnote{K.Schmitt/H.Best, Delegationseliten nach dem Systemwechsel, Kernbefunde im Überblick, University of Jena 2005.}

Legislators are placed in an area in the political system where conflicting interests are abundant. A comparative study\footnote{See, for example, Salminen, A., Accountability, values and the ethical principles of public service: the views of Finnish legislators, in: International Review of Administrative Sciences, No. 72, 2006, p. 171.} on legislative ethics concluded that “...the problem is not that legislators are inherently corrupt, or will necessarily become so. Rather, the nature of their positions requires legislators to continually face difficult ethical dilemmas. Legislators must constantly decide among competing interests: national, constituent-based, political and personal. This difficulty is amplified by the fact that most legislators simultaneously hold positions in the private sector, and, as such, are perpetually “changing hats” from one position to the other. In addition, legislators are subject to intense scrutiny by the media, non-governmental organisations and the public at large.”\footnote{National Democratic Institute for International Affairs Legislative Research Series, Paper No. 4 Legislative Ethics: A Comparative Analysis, National Democratic Institute for International Affairs (NDI) 1999.} In a way, being a politician implies being involved in the political process where different interests come together. Thus, being a legislator means per se being confronted with many conflicting interests. Consequently, having to deal with and to manage these conflicting interests and values is in the very nature of being a Member of Parliament (or a minister).

Clearly, politicians face different conflicts of interest than Judges or Directors of Central Banks. Moreover, the media scrutiny is different than for Judges or Directors of Banks, etc. Legislators also face different accountability and legitimacy challenges. For example, which has primacy: one’s own political career, one’s own professional activities, the party, the electorate, the government or the nation? Probably legislators face the widest range of potentially conflicting interests: personal, representational and other private pecuniary and non-pecuniary interests. Certain interests are personally inherent: as a resident of a town or province, as a parent, spouse, or child, as a female or male, as indigenous or non-indigenous, and so on. Other interests arise from the representative role: as a member of the legislature, as the representative of his or her electorate, and as a member of a

\footnote{National Democratic Institute for International Affairs, op. cit., p. 3.}
Regulating Conflicts of Interest for Holders of Public Office

political party. Further interests arise from outside activities as a member of a non-political organisation, as a businessman, professional, farmer, grazier, or employee. Another important difference between legislators and other categories of Holders of Public Office is the fact that, in most countries, the constitution assigns the Parliament the responsibility for the regulation of its Members of Parliament. Because of this – and it is different to the situation in the public services – Members of Parliament have little interest in monitoring themselves and deciding upon the setting up of independent ethics committees. Instead, rules of conflicts of interest for Members of Parliament are generally enforced through a system of self-regulation.

Conflicts of interest may also occur because, in most countries, legislators decide on essential parts of their own remuneration. In addition, politicians decide upon the laws and regulations, on party and election finance and on lobbying issues. Finally, they also legislate on behalf of their own interests when defining their own rules and standards in the field of conflicts of interest. Parliamentary immunity is also an issue for the Parliament itself. In many countries, this constitutes a sensitive issue, since Parliamentarians are almost exempt from any civil or criminal prosecution. Moreover, enforcing sanctions imply the initiation of time-consuming procedures (while the public may require quick responses to political scandals).

Thus, legislators do – at least partly – regulate themselves. This is problematical as it raises both suspicion and doubts about independence, fairness, and accountability. As a consequence, more countries are thinking about the introduction of external inter-institutional ethics committees or independent offices. “This is because traditional systems of self-regulation are more and more discredited. They can no longer command public confidence.”50 As a result, countries such as Canada and Britain have recently adopted measures which, for the first time, allow the involvement of “outsiders” in their system of ethics regulation, making it less internal and more external. The move towards a more external form of ethics regulation is designed to enhance public trust and confidence in the procedures that Parliament uses to discipline its Members. It is intended to de-politicise the process of ethics regulation. The goal is to mitigate the perception that MPs face inherent and unavoidable conflicts of interest when they sit in judgment on their fellow MPs. Yet, even if the maxim that “no one should be the judge in his own trial” has great moral power, it seems difficult to oppose.51 However, trends widely differ. While many Parliaments have at

50 Ibid.
least established different forms of self-regulation, others do not even have this. The European Parliament has the so-called Quaestors, who are responsible for monitoring the ethical conduct of MEPs. However, to date, little is known with regard to the internal control of the ethical standards by the Quaestors.

Our results in this study suggest that Parliaments, as genuinely self-regulating bodies, are generally comparatively “under-regulated”, i.e., they have at their disposal a significantly less developed set of ethics-related provisions and instruments. For example, our study shows that parliaments have less rules and standards in the field of gifts than other institutions. At the same time, this conclusion should not be interpreted in the sense that the simple answer is more regulation and that the ethics regimes of public officials or of other categories of Holders of Public Office should be taken as a benchmark for the regulation of legislators.

As we have seen, CoI are abundant for legislators. This also means that legislators need specific rules and standards in the field of CoI. In addition, they need to be trained on the complexity of CoI and must be made aware of (un-) ethical issues. At the same time, legislators need less rules and standards in specific fields (such as post-employment, the regulation of political, professional- and outside activities). However, clear rules and standards in the field of gift-taking, nepotism and lobbying may be very relevant for this category of HPOs.

4.2 Ministers and representatives of Government

Surprisingly little research has been undertaken with regard to the executive notwithstanding the fact that ministers face different motivations and have different responsibilities than Parliamentarians in general. Despite the widespread existence of established accountability mechanisms such as Parliamentary commissions, ethics advisors, ethics committees and Parliamentary procedures, it is difficult to find out whether Parliaments are able to monitor effectively the results of ethics policies on the executive.

What makes ministers a special case for ethical consideration? It is the different degree of power that significantly distinguishes ministers from their Parliamentary colleagues. As senior members of their parties, they wield considerable influence both inside and outside Parliament, demonstrating considerable autonomy and discretion in their dealings with both their colleagues and the public in general. The central place of the cabinet and the ministry in the political system itself puts the power of ministers on another plane to that of Parliamentarians on the whole.52 “Their status gives
them wide access to public sector confidential files and other privileged information. A minister also has the right to expert advice on matters pertaining to his/her portfolio and ready access to lobby groups with whom policy is discussed. Overall, the minister is in a very powerful, information-rich position. The potential abuses of this often confidential information make ministers vulnerable to ethical errors."53 “Additionally, ministers are subject to a variety of pressures – answerable not only to their constituents, but unlike their backbench counterparts, to the cabinet, the prime minister, special interest groups and Parliament. These kinds of often conflicting pressures in a party political system can be particularly onerous to co-ordinate and arguably expose ministers to potentially unethical situations.”54

In reality, the most stringent codes of ethics and rules on conflicts of interest apply to ministers, as ministerial positions include the power to decide upon public funds and programmes. Furthermore, ministers are typically exposed to more sensitive information than Parliamentarians. Ministers are more likely to face a direct conflict between their public duty and private interest, since, unlike legislators, they exercise specific discretionary powers. In addition, ministers have many different responsibilities. They are responsible to the Government for the administration of their portfolio, they are constitutionally responsible to Parliament, responsible to their constituents as well as to the broader public, responsible to the president, prime minister or chancellor, responsible to the cabinet, and responsible to their own political party. Consequently, ministers are subject to more detailed regulation by the various mechanisms discussed below.

4.3 Other Holders of Public Office

Directors of Banks and Audit Offices exercise similar important powers either in the National Banks or in Audit Offices, or in the European Central Bank and European Court of Auditors. Consequently, many rules concerning conflicts of interest overlap for these categories of Holders of Public Office. The same is true as regards the relationship between the codes of the European Central Bank and the National Banks. The codes of the European Central Bank, in particular, have a strong impact on the codes, standards and rules of the National Banks. This seems to be to a lesser extent the case for the relationship between the European Court of Auditors and national

52 International Institute for Public Ethics Conference, Ottawa, September 2000, p. 3.
53 Ibid.
54 Fleming/Holland, Motivating ethical conduct in government ministers, op. cit., p. 4.
Christoph Demmke et al.
auditors. Directors of Banks and Audit Offices are only indirectly responsible to the electorate. For example, the European Central Bank is a politically autonomous body. This fact could also be reflected when designing common ethical standards.

Generally, Parliamentarians and ministers are more frequently required to disclose their interests in public, whereas requirements for disclosure are, in the main, only open to internal monitoring bodies in the banking sector (as is the case in the European Central Bank where disclosure is made internally to the Board of Governors, etc.). On the other hand, rules and regulations in the field of insider dealing are often stricter for bankers and auditors than for legislators. This can be explained by the fact that bankers and auditors have direct access to confidential inside information regarding bank transfers, developments on the financial markets, etc. The fact that these bodies are in possession of very sensitive financial information and data requires that these fields are regulated more strictly. Similarly, the position of the Judges of the Constitutional Courts requires specific standards as to their political independence and neutrality.

Table 2: Potential need to decide upon rules and standards for different categories of HPOs as regards different CoI

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Government</th>
<th>Parliament</th>
<th>Supreme Court</th>
<th>Court of Auditors</th>
<th>Central Bank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Political activities</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional activities</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gifts, donations</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Activities during term</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-employment</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information, insider dealing</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recusal</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
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<tr>
<td>Divestment</td>
<td>Yes</td>
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### Regulating Conflicts of Interest for Holders of Public Office

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Honorary positions, membership</th>
<th>Government</th>
<th>Parliament</th>
<th>Supreme Court</th>
<th>Court of Auditors</th>
<th>Central Bank</th>
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</thead>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
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</table>
IV. Comparative Observations – Rules and Standards in the Member States and the EU Institutions

1. GENERAL OBSERVATIONS

In this study, we presented a list of 15 different conflicts of interest to the Member States, the EU institutions and the different institutions. In our questionnaire (Annex XI), the research team asked the Member States to indicate whether or not they regulate these issues and whether they have adopted legally binding provisions, or codes of ethics, or both instruments in these areas. In addition, we asked the Member States, the EU institutions and the different institutions to submit data on whether they provide for training for the different categories of HPOs, whether they have established specific registers of interests, and whether specific ethics committees for the different institutions exist.

In the following, we will present an empirical analysis of our findings (based upon the analysis of the replies of the institutions from 25 participating Member States and the EU institutions which contributed to this study). The following comparisons present an analysis of the existing standards and rules in: a) the Member States; b) the different institutions; c) per type of conflict of interest; and d) among the EU institutions. The statistical analysis as to “regulation density” in the Member States and the different institutions is based upon analysis of six CoI categories (as already mentioned in Chapter I.3).

2. SPECIFIC COMPARISONS

2.1 Country comparisons

All countries accept that the effective management of conflicts of interest requires an integrative policy which depends not only on the introduction of effective punitive measures, but also on guidance, prevention and (manage-
ment) instruments for increasing awareness. Proper behaviour should be supported by an overall ethical-friendly environment, characterised by the fact that the variables are inter-dependent. This means, for instance, that it is much more difficult to promote integrity where the separation of powers between the executive and the judiciary is blurred than it is in a system with a clear division of powers. Furthermore, relations between the political and the private sector are very sensitive and also give cause for conflicts of interest. With the increasing contact between these two sectors due to the increasing trend towards private-public partnerships, conflicts of interest situations are becoming more frequent.

The trend in most countries is clearly to strive for a higher degree of transparency with regard to the private lives of HPOs. For example, new requirements include an obligation to register additional jobs, private income or shares, or an obligation to provide information about the jobs/activities of his/her partner, which may be in conflict with the position of the holder. There are also rules which refer to the acceptance of gifts and invitations in order to prevent unwanted external influence on decision-making. This may include a dinner offered by a private firm or accepting a gift which can involve a holiday to an attractive place offered by an applicant in a public procurement procedure. Moreover, another observation is that the higher the position, the stricter the policy, regulations and codes need to be, and the more sophisticated the transparency mechanisms. In all Member States, Members of Government are required to avoid or withdraw from activities, memberships, financial interests or situations that would place them in real, potential or apparent conflict of interest.

Consequently, modern conflicts of interest systems are no longer based purely upon law, compliance and penalising wrongdoing. In fact, they are oriented towards preventing CoI from occurring, and towards encouraging proper behaviour through guidance and orientation measures, such as training and the introduction of codes of conduct. Consequently, all countries – to different degrees – offer a wide range of instruments in the fight against unethical behaviour and the emergence of conflicts of interest.

However, a comparison of the rules and standards in the Member States of the EU cannot be made without difficulty. Two countries did not participate in this study. Other countries did not contribute to this study for all of the five institutions. Consequently, important information was missing for some countries, and thus, in some instances, these countries could not be compared to the other countries. However, despite these methodological difficulties, our data allows for the presentation of trends and the drawing of some general conclusions.
2.1.1 Regulation density

Not surprisingly, the Member States and the European institutions differ enormously, not only with regard to regulation density, but also with regard to the numbers of conflicts of interest which are not regulated at all. Despite differences in detail, some conclusions can be drawn. For example, the new Member States have a higher regulation density than the “old” EU Member States. Latvia, followed by Bulgaria are the countries with the highest regulation density in Europe.

Figure 1: CoI regulation density by Member State

To sum up, the new Member States are generally more regulated than the old Member States (80,5% vs. 66,5%). The strictest system is used in Latvia, where all CoI categories are regulated for all institutions (100%). Among the old Member States, Portugal – followed by the United Kingdom and Spain – also has a highly regulated system. The countries with the lowest number of regulated CoI issues are Austria, Denmark and Sweden.55

55 As to the old Member States of the EU, Greece has the highest regulation density figure. However, Greece has only answered for one institution (Court of Justice). Therefore, the high percentage may be misleading in this case.
2.1.2 Choice of regulatory instruments

The situation is equally diverse when analysing the level of regulation in the field of legal instruments. While in some countries the constitution establishes some general ethical principles, in other countries the constitution is “silent” on ethical issues. In addition, different administrations and institutions within the Member States have produced additional administrative circulars, codes of ethics, guidelines, rules as to lobbyism and harassment, documents on whistle-blowing and guidelines for the prevention of fraud, the abuse of organisational resources, insider dealing, etc. To this should be added standards on good governance, good administration, citizen standards and standards on service delivery.

As can be seen in the table below, the use of law is the predominant form of regulation (60%). While most Member States have adopted general anti-corruption or anti-fraud laws (which include CoI provisions), less Member States have adopted specific CoI laws and regulations. Moreover, only a few Member States have adopted CoI laws which apply to all institutions. Instead, most Member States have different and separate rules for the different institutions. The same can be said for codes which are used in 19% of the cases. In almost all countries, codes of ethics are designed for the individual institutions. Only rarely (as in the case of the “Seven Principles of Public Life” in the UK) do they apply to the whole governmental sector. Moreover, while some Member States have highly regulated systems, other countries only regulate some specific topics. In 21% of the cases, the CoI issues are regulated both by legislation and by code of conduct/ethics. Another distinction can be made between the regulatory instruments: here, it is important to note the differences between the majority of countries, which regulate CoI by general and/or specific sectoral laws and regulations (and codes), and the United Kingdom, and to a certain degree, the Netherlands and Denmark, which regulate CoI by means of general and specific sectoral codes. The United Kingdom regulates CoI almost exclusively, and the Netherlands and Denmark partly, by means of the latter.
Our study does not give a clear explanation for this phenomenon. There seems to be a trend toward more rules (mainly by laws and regulations) and more standards (mainly by codes) as well as the regulation of an increasing number of conflicts of interest.

If this observation is correct, comparisons with the United States become increasingly interesting. With the adoption of the “Honest Leadership and Open Government Act” in the US (which has probably the most regulated system worldwide) efforts are being undertaken to regulate the system further in even more detail. This concerns measures which aim to regulate lobbyism more strongly, to toughen the rules on receiving gifts and “revolving doors policies” and to expand public disclosure of lobbyist activities.

56 It should be noted that the form of regulation and the regulation density are not fully comparable. When we analysed “regulation density”, we weighted certain issues over others. For example, post-employment had more weight in the model than honorary positions. However, weighting is not meaningful when analysing the form of regulation. Regulation density is a theoretical construct based upon 12 CoI items, while the form of regulation takes into account all 15 CoI items.
# A Step towards more detailed rule-making in the US: Honest Leadership and Open Government Act of 2006

## Summary:

- Extends from one to two years the lobbying ban for former senior executive personnel, former Members of Congress, and legislative branch officers and employees.
- Denies floor privileges to any former Members and House officers if he or she is a registered lobbyist or agent of a foreign principal.
- Requires public disclosure by Members of Congress and senior congressional staff of employment negotiations.
- Amends the Lobbying Disclosure Act of 1995 (LDA) to revise requirements for lobbying disclosures reports.
- Amends the Rules of the House of Representatives to: (1) exclude gifts from lobbyists from the gift ban exceptions; and (2) prohibit privately funded travel by a Member, Delegate, Resident Commissioner, officer, or employee.
- Establishes the Office of Public Integrity within the Office of Inspector General of the House.
- Amends the LDA to increase the penalty for failure to comply with lobbying disclosure requirements.
- Requires certification that congressional travel meets certain conditions, subject to civil fines for false certifications.
- Establishes mandatory annual ethics training for House employees.
- Makes it out of order to consider any reconciliation legislation which has the net effect of reducing the surplus or increasing the deficit compared to the most recent Congressional Budget Office (CBO) estimate for any fiscal year.
- Limits recorded electronic votes to 20 minutes, except in certain circumstances.
- Makes requirements for earmarks in funding measures.
- Makes it out of order to consider a resolution providing for adjournment *sine die* unless, during at least 20 weeks of the session, a quorum call or recorded vote was taken on at least four of the weekdays (excluding legal public holidays).

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57 The following summary is provided by the Congressional Research Service, which is a nonpartisan government entity that serves Congress and is run by the Library of Congress. The summary is taken from the official website THOMAS: http://www.govtrack.us/congress/bill.xpd?tab=summary&bill=h109-4682 (last time checked 10 October 2007).
• Makes it out of order, with certain exceptions, for the House to consider a bill or joint resolution until 24 hours, or in the case of legislation containing a district-oriented earmark or limited tax benefit, until three days after copies of such measure are available.
• Makes a motion to request or agree to a conference on a general appropriation bill in order only if the House expresses its disagreements with the Senate in the form of numbered amendments.
• Requires all provisions on which the two chambers disagree to be open to discussion at any meeting of a conference committee.
• Prescribes minimum requirements for political appointees holding public safety positions.
• Amends the Office of Federal Procurement Policy Act (OFPPA) to require an executive agency, after awarding a contract, to make specified information regarding it available to the public, including over the Internet in a searchable database.
• Amends the Federal Property and Administrative Services Act of 1949 (FPASA) to prohibit awarding of a monopoly federal contract to a single contractor.
• Specifies conditions under which such contracts may be awarded.
• Amends the FPASA to require revision of the Federal Acquisition Regulation to require competition for certain multiple award contracts.
• Provides for suspension and debarment of unethical contractors.
• Amends the federal criminal code to impose fines and penalties on cheating taxpayers and wartime fraud.
• Revises requirements and prohibitions regarding contractor conflicts of interest.
• Requires disclosure of certain government contractor overcharges.
• Subjects individuals to penalties for improper sole-source contracting procedures.
• Prescribes disclosure requirements for organisations established to raise funds for creating, maintaining, expanding, or conducting activities at a former or existing presidential archival depository or its facilities.

The US case raises the question of whether countries and organisations find themselves trapped in a regulatory process in which these systems are becoming over-regulated. With regard to the European Union, this may very well be the case for countries such as Latvia, Bulgaria, Poland and Romania. These countries have highly regulated CoI systems which are...
similar to the US model (except for the area of post-employment). However, very little is known regarding the daily experience in the implementation, management and enforcement of the different rules and standards in practice.

2.2 Institutional comparisons

2.2.1 Regulation density

As our comparative data show, the highest regulatory density can be found for the national/EU Central Banks and for Government. Parliaments are the least regulated institutions.

Figure 3: Regulation density of the EU Member States by institutions

While the differences between the Central Banks and Governments are not very significant, they are significant between all the institutions and the Parliaments. The relative low degree of regulation of Parliaments in Europe poses the question of whether Parliaments are structurally under-regulated.

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And if so, why this is the case? Most US literature suggests that Parliaments are, indeed, structurally under-regulated because the legislators must regulate themselves. However, in reality, most Parliaments are not very eager to regulate themselves.

The under-regulation of Parliaments does seem to be problematical. Studies by Transparency International\(^ {59} \) show that the political sector is one of the most corrupt sectors of all and most vulnerable to corruption. If this observation is correct, one should also draw from this the conclusion that legislators and governments should be more strongly regulated.

Other observations are equally important:

1. The countries with a high degree of overall regulation density are not necessarily the countries where all five institutions also have a high level of regulation density. For example, the governmental level in Austria is relatively strongly regulated while the Parliament and the Supreme Court are not. This makes an interesting contrast with Germany where the Government is less regulated but the Parliament and the Court are more regulated. Another interesting case is the United Kingdom where all conflicts of interest issues are regulated for the governmental level.

These few cases show that it is important to analyse the different institutions separately. In the following, we will examine the different institutions from a comparative point of view.

2. Institutions with a relatively low degree of regulation density (e.g. Parliaments) do not necessarily have a low degree of regulation density as regards all CoI issues. For example, Parliaments have a relatively high degree of regulation density regarding the regulation of declarations of interests and – to a lesser extent – registers of financial interest. Today, in most countries, Parliaments have rules on the obligations regarding financial declarations and registers.

Table 3: Declaration of financial interests and assets by type of institution in EU Member States (N=27)\textsuperscript{a}  
\textit{(Frequencies in parenthesis)}

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Institution</th>
<th>Declaration of Financial Interests</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Government</td>
<td>95% (22)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parliament</td>
<td>95% (21)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supreme Court</td>
<td>65% (20)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Court of Auditors</td>
<td>63% (19)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central Bank</td>
<td>81% (21)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EU-27 average</td>
<td>81% (103)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\textsuperscript{a} The number of total cases in each category does not correspond to 27 since missing cases are excluded.

A possible explanation for this overall contradictory picture may be that legislators are often allowed to exercise additional (professional) activities, while this is much less the case in other institutions. Another explanation is the fact that “lobbying” may be stronger in Parliaments than in Courts or banks.

On the other hand, Government does not always have a high degree of regulation density. The analysis of individual CoI items, such as “outside and professional” activities shows that these issues are regulated much more strongly for Governments and much less so for Parliaments. In total, the Central Banks, Courts of Auditors and the Supreme Courts have a much higher degree of regulation density than Governments.

Table 4: Regulation of political activities by type of institution in EU Member States (N=27)\textsuperscript{a}  
\textit{(Frequencies in parenthesis)}

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Institution</th>
<th>Political Activities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Government</td>
<td>62% (21)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parliament</td>
<td>70% (20)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supreme Court</td>
<td>86% (21)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Court of Auditors</td>
<td>89% (18)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central Bank</td>
<td>95% (21)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EU-27 average</td>
<td>80% (101)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\textsuperscript{a} The number of total cases in each category does not correspond to 27 since missing cases are excluded.
In most Member States, however, disparities of regulation exist among the different types of professional activities. For example, many national Parliaments have at least some regulatory instruments which regulate the incompatibility of posts and professional activities before or during the term of office, but rules on outside political activities are less frequently in place. Not surprisingly, it is the Supreme or Constitutional Courts that regulate political activities the most strictly. Similarly, the highest percentage of rules and regulations for the Directors of the Courts of Audit and the Directors of the Central Banks can also be found in the field of outside political activities.

These few comparisons can, at the very least, show that the same conclusion which has been drawn for the comparative country analysis can also be drawn for the comparative analysis of the institutions: while it is possible to identify which country or institution is more strongly (or less) regulated than another, this does not mean that, with regard to the regulation of specific individual CoI issues, less regulated institutions (or countries) have more (and stricter) rules regarding individual CoI items.

### 2.2.2 Choice of regulatory instruments

Another interesting level of analysis is to examine the choice of regulatory instruments. Here, our findings show that the dominant regulatory instrument is still the law (especially in the Supreme Courts and in Government). However, one important exception is the Central Banks, which have a relatively high level of regulation by codes of ethics. The Court of Auditors uses codes relatively widely. In contrast, the Supreme Courts and Parliaments do not use codes to such a large extent.

**Table 5: Form of regulation by type of institution in EU Member States (N=27)\(^a\)**

*(Frequencies in parenthesis)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institution</th>
<th>Not regulated</th>
<th>Law</th>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Both</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Government</td>
<td>23% (71)</td>
<td>48% (150)</td>
<td>16% (49)</td>
<td>14% (44)</td>
<td>100% (314)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parliament</td>
<td>40% (122)</td>
<td>45% (138)</td>
<td>9% (28)</td>
<td>6% (20)</td>
<td>100% (308)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supreme Court</td>
<td>29% (88)</td>
<td>50% (152)</td>
<td>5% (14)</td>
<td>16% (50)</td>
<td>100% (304)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Court of Auditors</td>
<td>28% (77)</td>
<td>40% (113)</td>
<td>11% (30)</td>
<td>21% (60)</td>
<td>100% (280)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central Bank</td>
<td>20% (63)</td>
<td>32% (100)</td>
<td>28% (87)</td>
<td>19% (59)</td>
<td>100% (309)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EU-27 average</td>
<td>28% (421)</td>
<td>43% (653)</td>
<td>14% (208)</td>
<td>15% (233)</td>
<td>100% (1519)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^a\) The number of total cases in each category does not correspond to 27 since missing cases are excluded.
Especially in the case of the regulation of gifts, missions and travel, it can be seen that the Central Banks use codes of ethics extensively and (much) more than the other institutions.

**Table 6: Means of regulating gifts by type of institution in EU Member States (N=27)**

*Frequencies in parenthesis*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Not regulated</th>
<th>Law</th>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Both</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Government</td>
<td>14% (3)</td>
<td>48% (10)</td>
<td>10% (2)</td>
<td>29% (6)</td>
<td>100% (21)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parliament</td>
<td>29% (6)</td>
<td>48% (10)</td>
<td>10% (2)</td>
<td>14% (3)</td>
<td>100% (21)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supreme Court</td>
<td>19% (4)</td>
<td>48% (10)</td>
<td>5% (1)</td>
<td>29% (6)</td>
<td>100% (21)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Court of Auditors</td>
<td>0% (0)</td>
<td>37% (7)</td>
<td>16% (3)</td>
<td>47% (9)</td>
<td>100% (19)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central Bank</td>
<td>5% (1)</td>
<td>24% (5)</td>
<td>43% (9)</td>
<td>29% (6)</td>
<td>100% (21)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EU-27 average</td>
<td>14% (14)</td>
<td>41% (42)</td>
<td>17% (17)</td>
<td>29% (30)</td>
<td>100% (103)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* The number of total cases in each category does not correspond to 27 since missing cases are excluded.

**Table 7: Means of regulating missions and travels by type of institution in EU Member States (N=27)**

*Frequencies in parenthesis*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Not regulated</th>
<th>Law</th>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Both</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Government</td>
<td>11% (2)</td>
<td>39% (7)</td>
<td>22% (4)</td>
<td>28% (5)</td>
<td>100% (18)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parliament</td>
<td>50% (10)</td>
<td>35% (7)</td>
<td>15% (3)</td>
<td>0% (0)</td>
<td>100% (20)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supreme Court</td>
<td>32% (6)</td>
<td>47% (9)</td>
<td>21% (4)</td>
<td>0% (0)</td>
<td>100% (19)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Court of Auditors</td>
<td>22% (4)</td>
<td>33% (6)</td>
<td>22% (4)</td>
<td>22% (4)</td>
<td>100% (18)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central Bank</td>
<td>45% (9)</td>
<td>10% (2)</td>
<td>35% (7)</td>
<td>10% (2)</td>
<td>100% (20)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EU-27 average</td>
<td>33% (31)</td>
<td>33% (31)</td>
<td>23% (22)</td>
<td>12% (11)</td>
<td>100% (95)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* The number of total cases in each category does not correspond to 27 since missing cases are excluded.

### 2.3 Conflicts of interest comparison

Having looked at the most important country and institutional comparisons, we will now move into the area of individual CoI issues. Here, too, it is possible to draw some interesting conclusions. However, we will refrain from
analysing the regulation of all individual conflicts of interest as this would overburden the study.

2.3.1 Regulation density
A comparative overview of the regulation density by CoI category reveals the differences between the individual CoI categories, as well as some differences between the old and new Member States (Figure 4). While some categories are highly regulated, others are not. Broadly speaking, general ethical principles and obligations are already well-regulated. In fact, the highest degree of regulation concerns two general principles: rules on impartiality, and rules on the incompatibility of posts. These general principles are mentioned (or enumerated) in many laws and codes. The category of post-employment is the least regulated CoI area among the Member States. We will discuss these and other CoI categories in more detail later in this section. Figure 4 also shows that the new Member States have introduced more regulations than the old Member States. The most remarkable difference can be found with regard to financial disclosure, where the new Member States have considerably stricter regulations (87%) than the old Member States (55%).

Figure 4: Regulation density by category – all institutions in the Member States (%)
In the following section, the study discusses the CoI items included in the previous CoI categories. Figure 5 analyses the individual CoI items (sorted by CoI category), and Table 8 provides information on the individual CoI issues by type of institution.

**Figure 5: Regulation density of CoI issues and by CoI category**

Impartiality and incompatibility of posts are the two most regulated single items, as already indicated in Figure 4. In the category of professional activities, we find professional confidentiality (91%) more regulated than professional loyalty (75%). Professional confidentiality is an important issue which is mentioned in almost all codes in the Central Banks and in the Courts of Auditors. In the next category regarding outside activities, the most regulated issue is political activities. Political activities are strongly regulated with the understandable exception of ministers and legislators (see Table 8 for inter-institutional comparison). A further analysis reveals that rules and standards relating to honorary positions (66%), publications (55%) and conferences (52%) are less regulated. This is not surprising given the fact that these issues are of less importance overall.

In the CoI category concerning financial disclosure, the declaration of financial interests and assets as well as the provisions relating to them are, in general, widely regulated (81%), although the members of the Supreme Court (65%) and Court of Auditors (63%) are less subject to them than
other HPOs. Furthermore, the regulation of the activities of spouses constitutes one of the most conflictory issues. As can be seen in Figure 5, this issue is regulated less (57%). Consequently, many Member States and institutions require the declaration of financial interests but without requesting information as to the activities of spouses. When looking at an inter-institutional comparison, it is evident that Parliaments do not regulate the activities of spouses as frequently as other institutions. Another issue which is fairly highly regulated is the category of gifts and similar issues. Generally, gifts are fairly regulated (86%). Rules and standards on missions or travel (67%), as well as rules on receptions and representation (55%), are less frequent.

According to the data, post-employment is the least regulated CoI area of all. Interestingly, many new Member States have also introduced rules on post-employment (58%). It seems that post-employment in particular is under-regulated. Although some countries have prohibitions and restrictions in laws, regulations and codes in order to avoid conflicts of interest in post-public employment, this is not the case in the majority of countries. In approximately 49% of all cases analysed, post-employment issues are not regulated. Differences as to the percentages of institutions which do not have regulation at all in the field of post-employment rules range from 33% in the Central Banks, to 71% in the Parliaments. Some Member States have rules which are both very extensive and strict as well as different cooling-off periods for different categories of HPOs. Others do not have cooling-off periods at all. For example, France prohibits post-employment in any corporation owned or subsidised by the Government, and also in real-estate-related firms or banks. In Austria, a Member of the Government may not be appointed President of the Court of Audit for four years after his/her term of office. The Act of 6 August 1931 does not allow former Belgian MPs to mention their former capacity in documents or publications concerning profit-seeking companies. Appointments to remunerated state functions at federal level are prohibited before, at the earliest, one year after the end of their mandate (except for ministers, Judges of the Constitutional Court, diplomats, governors and secretaries general of provinces). However, half of the institutions included in this study do not have any regulations on post-employment. This is an issue where (at least some of) the European countries and the USA and Canada differ considerably.
Table 8: Regulation of CoI issues
by type of institution in EU Member States (N=27)\textsuperscript{a}
(Frequencies in parenthesis)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Government</th>
<th>Parliament</th>
<th>Supreme Court</th>
<th>Court of Auditors</th>
<th>Central Bank</th>
<th>EU-27 average</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>impartiality</td>
<td>95% (22)</td>
<td>81% (21)</td>
<td>95% (21)</td>
<td>100% (19)</td>
<td>100% (21)</td>
<td>94% (104)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>incompatibility of posts</td>
<td>95% (22)</td>
<td>85% (20)</td>
<td>95% (21)</td>
<td>89% (19)</td>
<td>95% (21)</td>
<td>92% (103)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>professional confidentiality</td>
<td>100% (21)</td>
<td>70% (20)</td>
<td>95% (20)</td>
<td>89% (19)</td>
<td>100% (21)</td>
<td>91% (101)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>professional loyalty</td>
<td>86% (21)</td>
<td>38% (21)</td>
<td>90% (21)</td>
<td>83% (18)</td>
<td>75% (20)</td>
<td>74% (101)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>political activities</td>
<td>62% (21)</td>
<td>70% (20)</td>
<td>86% (21)</td>
<td>89% (18)</td>
<td>95% (21)</td>
<td>80% (101)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>honorary positions</td>
<td>65% (20)</td>
<td>70% (20)</td>
<td>57% (21)</td>
<td>61% (18)</td>
<td>75% (20)</td>
<td>66% (99)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>publications</td>
<td>55% (20)</td>
<td>33% (21)</td>
<td>60% (20)</td>
<td>53% (19)</td>
<td>71% (21)</td>
<td>54% (101)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>conferences</td>
<td>48% (21)</td>
<td>50% (20)</td>
<td>55% (20)</td>
<td>42% (19)</td>
<td>62% (21)</td>
<td>51% (101)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>declaration of financial interests and assets provisions relating to the declarations</td>
<td>95% (22)</td>
<td>90% (21)</td>
<td>65% (20)</td>
<td>63% (19)</td>
<td>81% (21)</td>
<td>81% (103)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HPO’s spouse’s activities</td>
<td>68% (22)</td>
<td>43% (21)</td>
<td>50% (20)</td>
<td>63% (19)</td>
<td>62% (21)</td>
<td>57% (103)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gifts, decorations or distinctions missions, travels</td>
<td>86% (21)</td>
<td>71% (21)</td>
<td>81% (21)</td>
<td>100% (19)</td>
<td>95% (21)</td>
<td>86% (103)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>receptions and representation</td>
<td>89% (18)</td>
<td>50% (20)</td>
<td>68% (19)</td>
<td>78% (18)</td>
<td>55% (20)</td>
<td>67% (95)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>post-employment</td>
<td>52% (21)</td>
<td>29% (21)</td>
<td>55% (20)</td>
<td>47% (19)</td>
<td>67% (21)</td>
<td>50% (102)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\textsuperscript{a} The number of total cases in each category does not correspond to 27 since missing cases are excluded.

However, of the more important issues, post-employment seems to be under-regulated, given the fact that conflicts of interest are abundant in this field. In the United States, “there has been an increasing concern about former members of the administration, former law-makers, and their staff gaining undue access as lobbyists because of the relationships they have made while working for the Government.”\textsuperscript{60} Similar developments were...
Regulating Conflicts of Interest for Holders of Public Office

reported in Germany.\textsuperscript{61} Thus, there is some evidence that the issue of post-employment, in particular, is highly under-regulated.

Although many countries have prohibitions and restrictions in laws, regulations and codes in order to avoid conflicts of interest in post-public employment, this is not the case in the majority of countries. In approximately 50% of all cases analysed, post-employment issues are not regulated. Differences as to the percentages of institutions which do not have regulation at all in the field of post-employment rules range from 33% in the Central Banks to some 70% in the Parliaments.

To conclude, the existing differences in regulation density suggest that the Member States that already have a relatively high degree of regulation density should not be advised to add new laws and regulations continuously. Instead, they should be recommended to introduce regulatory impact assessments and to reform their regulatory systems only in those areas in which more and better rules are really needed. Otherwise, there is a danger that these Member States and institutions will over-regulate their integrity systems.

2.3.2 Choice of regulatory instruments

Having analysed the most important results regarding the regulation density of the different issues, we now look at the choice of the regulatory instruments of/for the different issues. Here, the most important result is that laws are still the predominant type of regulation. General principles such as impartiality, confidentiality and loyalty are, in particular, the CoI issues which are most regulated by laws and codes of ethics. On the other hand, declarations of financial interests, post-employment issues and the activities of spouses are much less regulated by codes.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Not regulated</th>
<th>Law</th>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Both</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Austria</td>
<td>49% (37)</td>
<td>32% (24)</td>
<td>13% (10)</td>
<td>5% (4)</td>
<td>100% (75)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belgium</td>
<td>45% (33)</td>
<td>41% (30)</td>
<td>11% (8)</td>
<td>4% (3)</td>
<td>100% (74)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\textsuperscript{60} http://rules.senate.gov/newsroom/PR07/080207reform.htm (last time checked on 10 October 2007, p. 2).

\textsuperscript{61} Der Spiegel, Diskrete Dienste, No. 2/2007, p. 32.
The number of total cases in each category does not correspond to 27 since missing cases are excluded.

For example, in the case of the regulation of the activities of spouses, law is the dominantly used regulatory instrument. Codes play a significant role only for the governments and for the Central Banks. All Courts of Auditors and almost all Parliaments do not regulate this issue by codes at all.

Overall, this case shows that the choice of law is still the most important regulatory instrument. The importance and the use of codes vary from issue to issue. While 68% of governments, 63% of all Courts of Auditors, and 62% of all Central Banks regulate the activities of spouses, roughly only 53% of all Courts of Justice and not more 43% of Parliaments have regulatory provisions. The regulation of “outside activities and honorary positions” also seems to be a CoI issue in which the use of regulatory

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Not regulated</th>
<th>Law</th>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Both</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Bulgaria</strong></td>
<td>10% (6)</td>
<td>52% (31)</td>
<td>13% (8)</td>
<td>25% (15)</td>
<td>100% (60)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Cyprus</strong></td>
<td>40% (18)</td>
<td>56% (25)</td>
<td>4% (2)</td>
<td>0% (0)</td>
<td>100% (45)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Czech Republic</strong></td>
<td>33% (9)</td>
<td>67% (18)</td>
<td>0% (0)</td>
<td>0% (0)</td>
<td>100% (27)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Germany</strong></td>
<td>31% (23)</td>
<td>27% (20)</td>
<td>19% (14)</td>
<td>23% (17)</td>
<td>100% (74)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Denmark</strong></td>
<td>41% (31)</td>
<td>19% (14)</td>
<td>32% (24)</td>
<td>8% (6)</td>
<td>100% (75)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Estonia</strong></td>
<td>34% (25)</td>
<td>43% (32)</td>
<td>8% (6)</td>
<td>15% (11)</td>
<td>100% (74)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Greece</strong></td>
<td>7% (2)</td>
<td>53% (16)</td>
<td>10% (3)</td>
<td>30% (9)</td>
<td>100% (30)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Spain</strong></td>
<td>21% (15)</td>
<td>38% (28)</td>
<td>7% (5)</td>
<td>34% (25)</td>
<td>100% (73)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Finland</strong></td>
<td>22% (10)</td>
<td>53% (24)</td>
<td>11% (5)</td>
<td>13% (6)</td>
<td>100% (45)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>France</strong></td>
<td>42% (31)</td>
<td>36% (26)</td>
<td>12% (9)</td>
<td>10% (7)</td>
<td>100% (73)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Hungary</strong></td>
<td>19% (14)</td>
<td>57% (43)</td>
<td>16% (12)</td>
<td>8% (6)</td>
<td>100% (75)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Ireland</strong></td>
<td>39% (22)</td>
<td>14% (8)</td>
<td>18% (10)</td>
<td>30% (17)</td>
<td>100% (57)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Italy</strong></td>
<td>30% (12)</td>
<td>40% (16)</td>
<td>23% (9)</td>
<td>8% (3)</td>
<td>100% (40)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Lithuania</strong></td>
<td>18% (13)</td>
<td>64% (47)</td>
<td>8% (6)</td>
<td>11% (8)</td>
<td>100% (74)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Luxembourg</strong></td>
<td>44% (19)</td>
<td>56% (24)</td>
<td>0% (0)</td>
<td>0% (0)</td>
<td>100% (43)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Latvia</strong></td>
<td>11% (8)</td>
<td>61% (46)</td>
<td>3% (2)</td>
<td>25% (19)</td>
<td>100% (75)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Netherlands</strong></td>
<td>31% (23)</td>
<td>30% (22)</td>
<td>32% (24)</td>
<td>7% (5)</td>
<td>100% (74)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Poland</strong></td>
<td>17% (13)</td>
<td>44% (33)</td>
<td>1% (1)</td>
<td>37% (28)</td>
<td>100% (75)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Portugal</strong></td>
<td>2% (1)</td>
<td>62% (39)</td>
<td>10% (6)</td>
<td>27% (17)</td>
<td>100% (63)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Romania</strong></td>
<td>24% (13)</td>
<td>64% (35)</td>
<td>0% (0)</td>
<td>13% (7)</td>
<td>100% (55)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sweden</strong></td>
<td>46% (27)</td>
<td>27% (16)</td>
<td>12% (7)</td>
<td>15% (9)</td>
<td>100% (59)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Slovenia</strong></td>
<td>16% (11)</td>
<td>51% (36)</td>
<td>17% (12)</td>
<td>16% (11)</td>
<td>100% (70)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>United Kingdom</strong></td>
<td>17% (5)</td>
<td>0% (0)</td>
<td>83% (25)</td>
<td>0% (0)</td>
<td>100% (30)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

EU-27 average | 28% (421) | 43% (653) | 14% (208) | 15% (233) | 100% (1515) |

*a The number of total cases in each category does not correspond to 27 since missing cases are excluded.*
Regulating Conflicts of Interest for Holders of Public Office

Instruments differs widely. While 29% of all Central Banks, 22% of the Courts of Audit and still some 14% of governments regulate this issue by codes, this is only the case for approximately 5% of all Parliaments. With regard to this particular issue, Courts of Justice do not deploy this instrument at all. However, this issue is mostly regulated by law.

\[\text{Table 10: Regulation of political activities by type of institution in EU Member States (N=27)}^a\]
\[\text{(Frequencies in parenthesis)}\]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Not regulated</th>
<th>Law</th>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Both</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Government</td>
<td>38% (8)</td>
<td>48% (10)</td>
<td>14% (3)</td>
<td>0% (0)</td>
<td>100% (21)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parliament</td>
<td>30% (6)</td>
<td>55% (11)</td>
<td>5% (1)</td>
<td>10% (2)</td>
<td>100% (20)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supreme Court</td>
<td>14% (3)</td>
<td>62% (13)</td>
<td>0% (0)</td>
<td>24% (5)</td>
<td>100% (21)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Court of Auditors</td>
<td>11% (2)</td>
<td>56% (10)</td>
<td>22% (4)</td>
<td>11% (2)</td>
<td>100% (18)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central Bank</td>
<td>5% (1)</td>
<td>57% (12)</td>
<td>29% (6)</td>
<td>10% (2)</td>
<td>100% (21)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EU-27 average</td>
<td>20% (20)</td>
<td>55% (56)</td>
<td>14% (14)</td>
<td>11% (11)</td>
<td>100% (101)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[a \text{ The number of total cases in each category does not correspond to 27 since missing cases are excluded.}\]

Like most other CoI policies, post-employment issues are usually regulated by law. In the Parliaments and the Courts of Auditors, post-employment is almost exclusively regulated by laws.

\[\text{Table 11: Regulation of post-employment by type of institution in EU Member States (N=27)}^a\]
\[\text{(Frequencies in parenthesis)}\]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Not regulated</th>
<th>Law</th>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Both</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Government</td>
<td>48% (10)</td>
<td>33% (7)</td>
<td>10% (2)</td>
<td>10% (2)</td>
<td>100% (21)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parliament</td>
<td>71% (15)</td>
<td>29% (6)</td>
<td>0% (0)</td>
<td>0% (0)</td>
<td>100% (21)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supreme Court</td>
<td>45% (9)</td>
<td>45% (9)</td>
<td>0% (0)</td>
<td>0% (2)</td>
<td>100% (20)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Court of Auditors</td>
<td>53% (10)</td>
<td>42% (8)</td>
<td>0% (0)</td>
<td>5% (1)</td>
<td>100% (19)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central Bank</td>
<td>33% (7)</td>
<td>38% (8)</td>
<td>14% (3)</td>
<td>14% (3)</td>
<td>100% (21)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EU-27 average</td>
<td>50% (51)</td>
<td>37% (38)</td>
<td>5% (5)</td>
<td>8% (8)</td>
<td>100% (102)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[a \text{ The number of total cases in each category does not correspond to 27 since missing cases are excluded.}\]
This is an interesting difference with the situation in the US and in Canada; post-employment issues are strongly regulated in laws and in codes in the USA, and the OECD has also discussed the need to regulate post-employment issues in laws and in codes. According to the OECD, many countries are in a process of strengthening and re-enforcing these provisions.\(^{62}\) “Accepting future employment or appointment, for example, to a board of Directors, advisory or supervisory bodies, and misusing “insider information” are at the centre of new reforms and new prohibitions and restrictions. At the same time new dilemmas are also discussed more frequently.

In the field of post-employment, the country and inter-institutional disparities are considerable. While some countries regulate this issue by law and codes, other countries regulate this issue by code or not at all. Ireland and the UK are the two states where codes are used. In Belgium and Spain, both laws and codes exists. No regulation is in place in Germany, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, the Netherlands, Slovenia and Sweden. Interestingly, most countries which have a long tradition of rule of law and (or countries which are perceived as abiding by the law very strictly – Germany, Denmark, Finland, the Netherlands and Sweden) do not have rules on the restrictions of professional commitments or the holding of posts after leaving office.\(^{63}\)

Parliaments also regulate post-employment issues very differently. While Parliaments in the new Member States tend to have more and more detailed rules regarding conflicts of interest (four out of five new Member States answering this question have legal rules for the post-employment of MPs: Cyprus, Hungary, Latvia and Slovenia), in total, only a few Member States regulate post-employment issues for their Parliamentarians. With regard to the Supreme Courts which participated in this study, approximately half of them have rules and standards in the field of post-employment. Approximately 10% combine laws and codes, and one fourth rely on provisions of law. Codes alone were not found to be an instrument for regulating post-employment for the Courts of Justice. As for the Courts of Audit, the results show a low regulation density. As with the Courts of Judges, regulation exclusively by codes did not seem to be applied in any cases). The number of countries with no regulation for their Court of Auditors is considerable. Many Courts of Auditors reported that there were no data available and no answer could be given to this question. Finally, post-employment is regulated for less than half of the Directors of Central Banks. In many cases, there were no data as to this issue.

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\(^{62}\) OECD, Avoiding Conflict of Interest in Post-Employment, op. cit.

\(^{63}\) No data were available for the Czech Republic, Greece, Luxembourg, Malta and Slovakia.
3. CONFLICTS OF INTEREST AND THE EUROPEAN INSTITUTIONS – COMPARATIVE OBSERVATIONS

3.1 Institutional comparison

3.1.1 Regulation density
At present, the various EU institutions have entirely different and separate rules and standards in the field of conflicts of interest for Holders of Public Office. By studying regulation density amongst the six EU institutions, it can be seen that the European Investment Bank and the European Commission occupy the first rank of issues regulated, followed by the European Central Bank and the European Court of Auditors (ECA). The institutions with the highest number of unregulated issues are the European Court of Justice and the European Parliament.

A comparison between national institutions and EU institutions (see Figure 6) presents an interesting result. With the exception of the EP and the ECJ, the regulation density in all EU institutions is higher than in the national institutions. The difference regarding both the EP and ECJ to their national counterparts is 8% each, and the average regulation density of the EU institutions is still 9% higher than in national institutions (81% vs. 72%).

Figure 6: Regulation density by type of institution in the EU Member States and European institutions
In general, most of the European institutions are regulated more strictly than the Member States and the different institutions at national level. Only some new Member States have a higher regulation density with regard to the regulation of some CoI issues.

**Figure 7: CoI issues by European institutions and old and new Member States**

![Bar chart showing regulation density by CoI issues for European institutions, old Member States, and new Member States.](image)

### 3.1.2 Choice of regulatory instruments

Because of the lack of secondary law, codes are the most important regulatory instrument of the EU institutions. In total, the EU institutions have adopted more than ten different codes which regulate the different HPOs.

Contrary to the situation in the Member States, the different EU institutions are not regulated by “law”. Only the EC Treaty makes special reference to the regulation of conflicts of interest in the different chapters that regulate the different EU institutions. Secondary law (EU regulations, EU directives, etc.) that regulates the CoI of the Holders of the Public Offices of the different EU institutions does not exist.
Figure 8: Form of regulation by type of institution and European institutions

Thus, the existing rules and standards for the Court of Justice stem almost exclusively from existing rules in the Treaty articles and from the Protocol to the Statute of the Court of Justice. Apart from these rules, the European Court of Justice has almost no other rules (and no codes) that govern the behaviour of the Judges and Advocates General, etc., of the ECJ.

The situation is different for the European Parliament. With regard to this institution, the ECT does not contain any rules as to the CoI of HPOs in the European Parliament. The existing rules of the EP are only those that are mentioned in the Rules of Procedure of the European Parliament (and in particular in Annex I of the Rules of Procedure). Thus, because it was not possible to classify the Rules of Procedure of the EP as a law, we have decided to classify the Rules of Procedure (in the following table) as a code within the meaning of this study. From a methodological point of view, this was the only way to recognise that the EP has specific ethical standards. Generally, however, rules of procedure cannot be classified as codes of ethics.
Table 12: Codes within the European institutions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institution</th>
<th>Code</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>European Parliament</td>
<td>No Code (Rules of Procedure)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>European Court of Justice</td>
<td>No Code (Protocol on the Statute of the Court of Justice)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Court of Auditors</td>
<td>Code of Good Administrative Conduct for Staff</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Code of Conduct for the Members of the Court</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rules for Implementing the Rules of Procedure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>European Central Bank</td>
<td>Code of Conduct of the ECB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Code of Conduct for the Members of the Governing Council</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Supplementary Code of Ethical Criteria for the Members of the Executive Board</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ECB Staff Rules</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>European Commission</td>
<td>Code of Conduct for Commissioners</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>European Investment Bank</td>
<td>Statement on Governance at the EIB (incl. provisions regarding the Chief Compliance Officer)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Code of Conduct for the Members of the Board</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Code of Conduct for the Members of the Audit Committee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Management Committee Code of Conduct</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These codes are very different and range from Statements on Governance, Codes of Good Administrative Conduct and Codes of Conduct to Codes of Ethical Criteria. In some cases, there are even differences within one institution. For example, the Management Committee Code of Conduct in the EIB differs from the Code of Conduct for the Members of the Board of Directors of the EIB. The Code of Conduct of the European Central Bank is also different to the Code of Conduct for the Governing Council of the ECB. These few cases show that each code is designed for/around the proper structure of the organisation in question.

Differences can also be seen as to the length and content of the various texts. Compared to the codes of the EIB and ECB, the Code of Conduct for the Members of the Court of Auditors is relatively short. Another specific case is the Statement on Governance of the EIB which introduces the function of Chief Compliance Officer at the EIB. No other institution has introduced such a function.

The Court of Justice has announced that it intends to develop a new code of ethics. If this occurs, the European Parliament will be the only EU
Institution without a proper code of ethics.

These differences with regard to the codes are not surprising as such. Moreover, it is nothing special if some institutions have more detailed rules and standards than others. For example, given their specific duties and tasks, the Commissioners and MEPs have less detailed standards. For example, the Commissioners are bound to respect the duties of independence, impartiality, the duty to behave with integrity and discretion as regards the acceptance of posts, appointments, benefits and functions after they have ceased to hold office (Article 213 ECT) and of confidentiality (Article 287 ECT). The Code of Conduct for Commissioners adds that “they shall refrain from disclosing what is said at meetings of the Commission.” This example illustrates that different categories of Holders of Office must have specific ethical standards which are designed towards the specific tasks and duties. Consequently, it makes little sense to design one detailed code of ethics for all Holders of Public Office in the different institutions.

3.2 Conflicts of interest comparison

3.2.1 Regulation density and choice of instruments

Amongst the EU institutions, great differences exist regarding the regulation of the various conflicts of interest within individual institutions. For example, while the European Commission regulates the duty to register the activities of spouses, this is not the case in the ECB, the EP and the ECJ. Other interesting differences concern the focus on specific topics: while the European Commission and the European Investment Bank regulate post-employment (and establish specific ad hoc committees in this area), other EU institutions do not regulate this issue at all. The ECB mentions post-employment issues in Article 3.1.2. of the Code of Conduct of the ECB dated 8 March 2001.

Other interesting features concern the fact that the different codes within the EIB (page 4 of the Code of Conduct for the Members of the Board of Directors, page 8 of the Management Committee Code of Conduct), the CoA (Article 6 of the Code for the Members of the Court, Article 1 of the Code for the Members of the Court) and the ECB (Article 3.2. of the Code of Conduct of the ECB, Article 3 of the Code of Conduct for the Members of the Governing Council, and Article 5 of the Code of Conduct for the Members of the Governing Council) are more focused on issues such as insider dealing, independency, confidentiality and secrecy, than the Code for the Members of the European Commission.
Other differences concern the nature and content of the declaration of financial interests in a register of interest (threshold of 50,000 EURO in the Court of Auditors), the existence and role of ethics committees, and the regulation of post-employment rules. With regard to the latter, differences range from existing and monitored to non-existent.

**Comparison of rules and standards in the EU institutions**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institution</th>
<th>Rules and Standards</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| European Commission  | Article 213 (2) ECT, Article 287 ECT  
|                      | On-line permanent publication of the Declarations of Interests of Commissioners and public register of received gifts with a value of more than EUR 150  
|                      | Note from the President and Mrs Kroes to the Members of the Commission on the identification of actual or potential conflicts of interest concerning the Commissioner for Competition (SEC(2004) 1541 of 1 December 2004)  
|                      | Proposal for an Agreement between the European Parliament, the Council, the Commission, the Court of Justice, the Court of Auditors, the Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions establishing an Advisory Group on Standards in Public Life /* SEC/2000/2077 final  
|                      | Ad hoc ethics committee on activities post-employment (in operation) established by Decision C (2003) 3570 of 21 October  
|                      | No external ethics committee with investigative or sanctioning powers – procedures for self-regulation by the President of the European Commission |
| European Parliament  | Article 189 – 201 ECT  
|                      | “Parliament may lay down rules” (Article 9 RoP)  
|                      | No codes  
|                      | Register of Interest  
|                      | No ethics committee (self-regulation by Bureau of EP and Quaestors) |
Interestingly, the existing rules on post-employment are also different within the European Commission. While the Staff Regulations and the Commission Decision on “outside activities and assignments” (2004) require former officials, for a period of 2 years after leaving the Commission, to inform the institution on envisaged assignments or outside activities, the Code of Conduct for Commissioners obliges Commissioners, only

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institution</th>
<th>Rules and Standards</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>European Court of Justice</td>
<td>Article 222 ECT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Statute of the ECJE (January 2007)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No codes (in preparation)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No register on declaration of interests (in preparation)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No control, no sanctions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No ethics committee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>European Court of Auditors</td>
<td>Articles/Arts. 246 ECT, 247 ECT, 248 ECT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Code of Conduct of the Members of the Court, Decision No. 92 – 2004 lays down the rules for implementing the rules of procedure of the Court of Auditors, especially Articles/Arts. 5 and 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Register of Interest – only public if Court agrees</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Article 4 of the Code of Conduct requires “A special committee of three Members shall be instructed to examine Members’ outside activities”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Register of Interest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Article 7 of the Code of Conduct: “The Governing Council shall appoint an Ethics Adviser to provide guidance to the Members of the Governing Council.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>European Investment Bank</td>
<td>Articles 266 – 267 ECT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Statute of the EIB, Rules of Procedure, Statement on Governance at the EIB, Code of Conduct of the Members of Board of Directors of the EIB (22 July 2003), Code of Conduct of Members of the Audit Committee of the EIB, Management Committee Code of Conduct, Register of Interest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Audit Committee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>An ad hoc ethics committee provided by Article 2.4.10 of the Management Code of Conduct</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
for a period of one year after the end of their term of office, to inform the Commission “in good time” of their intention to engage in an occupation. However, one should also bear in mind that Commissioners are expected to respect their duty to behave with integrity and discretion with regard to the acceptance of certain appointments or benefits, after they have ceased to hold office. This is a permanent obligation. Moreover, the Court of Justice, on application by the Council or the Commission, may, in the event of infringement to this duty, on the basis of Article 213(2) third paragraph in fine, rule that the Commissioner concerned be deprived of his right to a pension or other benefits in its stead). Finally, the above-mentioned one-year period applies only to the obligation to inform the Commission on envisaged post-Commission occupations, the duty of integrity and discretion applies life-long; similarly, former officials are also subject to a permanent duty of integrity and discretion with regard to the acceptance of certain appointments or benefits ex vi Article 17 paragraph 2 of the Staff Regulations.

Despite the fact that the relatively vague provisions for Commissioners’ cooling-off periods have been criticised for being too short (and that the Code imposed no sanction in cases of non-compliance), they are still longer than the six-month period of the European Investment Bank. Moreover, not all the institutions regulate this issue in detail (or, at least, more specifically). The European Parliament, the Court of Auditors and the European Court of Justice simply do not have post-employment rules at all.
V. Registers and Financial Disclosure Policies

1. GENERAL

During the last years, disclosure policies have become one of the most important instruments in conflicts of interest policies. At present, almost all Member States oblige their HPOs to declare their (financial) interests. However, a distinction should be made between (public or confidential) declarations of financial interests, the declaration of additional interests, and whether the declarations should (or should not) be stored in a register of interest. Although in some cases HPOs have obligations to declare “only” their financial interests, in most cases they must also declare other issues (such as professional activities, honorary memberships, presentations, etc.) in registers of interest. Thus, the most important questions concern what should be declared, whether (or not) the declarations should be made public, whether (or not) independent bodies should have the power to monitor the registers, and whether (or not) there should be sanctions for non-compliance.64

The popularity of public disclosure “seems due in part to the ease of implementation and the clear message it sends of a commitment to transparency in government.”65 In addition, obligations to declare personal interests in public will contribute to the establishment of a more open and

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transparent political sector, which is vital if legitimacy and the trust of citizens is to be increased.

Despite the popularity of these instruments, discussions on the pros and cons of registration obligation and the obligation to register financial interests remain the subject of stimulating discussions within the countries and the different institutions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pro register, public disclosure and against professional activities</th>
<th>Against disclosure, public disclosure and in favour of professional activities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Legislators should serve the public interest and not the private interest.</td>
<td>• Legislators are not civil servants (and should never be) and should be allowed to exercise additional activities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Today, being a legislator is a full-time job. Generally, the pay of legislators is structured in such a way that legislators do not need another job.</td>
<td>• Too detailed public disclosure requirements violate fundamental rights (right to privacy, right to exercise a profession, etc.).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Additional professional activities would require too much time.</td>
<td>• Experience shows that registers are not very functional. Often, the public is not interested in the media. However, registers are abused by the media.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Additional activities influence the work of legislators. Consequently, private activities constitute a challenge to the need to act in the public interest.</td>
<td>• The introduction and monitoring of registers creates unnecessary bureaucracy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• The constituency has a right to know what legislators are doing, how much money they receive and from whom.</td>
<td>• Public disclosure does not reduce conflicts of interest.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Public disclosure is the best way to control and to deter legislators. It is also a means of monitoring whether legislators use their mandate for the public, and not the private, cause.</td>
<td>• Additional activities do not necessarily create conflicts of interest.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Citizens have a right to know whether political decisions are the outcome of private economic interests.</td>
<td>• Additional activities allow legislators to maintain contact with “reality” (and with former jobs).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Additional and professional interests necessarily produce conflicts of interest.</td>
<td>• Legislators do not need to work full-time.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• In order to be in a position to judge the performance of a legislator, people have the right to know what kind of potential conflicts of interest exist.</td>
<td>• Disclosure requirements can have negative effects with regard to jobs that require a certain confidentiality (advocates, etc.).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Transparency and openness are important elements of a democracy.</td>
<td>• Too much transparency can harm individual freedom.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Self-regulation does not work in many instances. Thus, control is necessary.</td>
<td>• Voters should best judge and scrutinise the behaviour of legislators – and not registers.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
One of the main criticisms against the declaration of interests in registers is that the reporting systems are usually too simplistic, as they merely require an HPO to report in a very general way. An interesting illustration of this example is the comparison of financial declarations in the European Commission with those in the European Parliament. While some Commissioners make relatively detailed declarations, almost all of the MEPs make very general statements in their forms (or simply reply “Nothing to declare”). This case illustrates that declarations and registers work only if the requirements (as to what must be declared) are clear and known. Second, there must be a means of monitoring these declarations and registers effectively (and independently). Thirdly, there must be credible sanctions for non-compliance. If all of this does not exist, it will be difficult to detect wrong, misleading or partial information. On the other hand, financial disclosure policies and registers must be designed in such a way that the collection, storage and management of detailed financial disclosure forms will not cause a new conflicts of interest bureaucracy.

Another problem is a legal challenge: While in some countries politicians are required to declare detailed information (for example, even the income and assets of their family) in a register, in other countries detailed requirements to register are not easily accepted. For example, some countries believe that registers are in conflict with fundamental rights (rights to privacy, personal rights, family rights, etc.). Because of the different attitudes towards registers and financial declarations, some Member States require very detailed disclosure requirements, while others ask for much less information.

In Germany, the question of whether public registers are allowed and whether declarations should include detailed financial information was even the subject of a legal case in the German Constitutional Court (Bundesverfassungsgericht) in 2007. The result was that the German Constitutional Court rejected the lawsuit of nine German Members of Parliament against the German Parliament’s Register of Financial Interest. The lawsuit aimed at a new code for the Bundestag, which obliges Members of Parliament to notify the President of the Parliament of their incomes and those of their families. The ruling now paves the way for this new code, which has been on hold due to the lawsuit since early 2006.

Despite these ongoing discussions, financial disclosure requirements are generally seen as an important instrument to reduce conflicts of interest. As our empirical analysis shows, in only a few cases do declarations of financial interests not exist at all.

However, the content of what needs to be declared varies considerably. While the new Member States such as Poland, Romania and Bulgaria for
the most part have very detailed disclosure requirements, others require much less or even have it on a voluntary basis (Sweden). Other differences concern the degree of openness (public disclosure or internal disclosure) and the questions of sanctions if members do not disclose or disclose too late. The new Member States, in particular, have very detailed disclosure requirements for all Holders of Public Office, including legislators. There are bans on honoraria, limits on other earned income, and restrictions to the acceptance of gifts.

**Examples of disclosure requirements in a new Member State**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Content of disclosure requirements</th>
</tr>
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</table>
| Bulgaria   | The persons under Article 2, para 1 (Law for Publicity of the Property of Persons Occupying High State Positions) shall declare in the public register the following property and income:  
1. real estate;  
2. motor, road, water and air vehicles;  
3. cash, takings and liabilities over 5 thousand levs in local or foreign currency;  
4. securities, shares in limited liability companies and limited joint-stock companies, personal stock in joint-stock companies, including that acquired through participation in privatisation transactions, other than bond (mass) privatisation;  
5. income other than that for the position occupied by the persons under Article 2, paras 1 and 3, received during the preceding calendar year when they exceed 500 levs;  
(2) Subject to declaration security and expenses made by or in favour of the persons mentioned under Article 2, paras 1 and 3 with their consent, when they are not paid by their own resources or by resources of the institution they occupy the position for:  
1. education  
2. travel outside the country  
3. other payments of a unit price exceeding 500 levs. |
Finally, another distinction concerns the time management of registers. Some countries require HPOs not only to file financial reports, but also to file them within a given period. The majority of the countries surveyed provide an exact schedule of disclosure requirements, although the specifics vary. Polish legislators, for example, must file a financial disclosure statement within 30 days of taking office, and annually thereafter. The same is true for Germany, where each member must file the required data at the beginning of their four-year term, but must also report any additional income, honoraria, or gifts during that period. Some countries, such as the Czech Republic and Ireland, merely require their members to file the data annually.

In the following overview, we will present the state of affairs according to our empirical findings.

2. EMPIRICAL RESULTS AS TO REGISTERS AND FINANCIAL DECLARATIONS

Registers are more frequently used in Parliaments and Governments than in the Courts of Justice (Supreme Courts), the Central Banks and the Courts of Auditors. Most of these registers are publicly accessible. However, the registers of most other institutions (Supreme Courts, Courts of Auditors, Central Banks) are not publicly accessible.

In Latvia and Poland, registers are used by all five institutions.

Table 13: Registers in the EU Member States by institutions\textsuperscript{a}

(\textit{Frequencies in parenthesis})

\begin{tabular}{|l|c|}
\hline
Type of Institution & Register \\
\hline
Government & 81\% (21) \\
Parliament & 86\% (21) \\
Supreme Court & 48\% (21) \\
Court of Auditors & 53\% (19) \\
Central Bank & 50\% (20) \\
\hline
EU-27 average & 64\% (102) \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

\textsuperscript{a} The number of total cases in each category does not correspond to 27 since missing cases are excluded.
Is there a register or not?
Registers are most dominantly used by Parliaments (86%) and Governments (81%). However, in a few cases, there is no formal register, but there are provisions that have more or less the same function. An example of this is the situation for the Court of Auditors in Lithuania: there is no official register, but the tax administrator verifies the accuracy of the data included in property declarations, and collects and safeguards the declarations filed, as well as other data on the property owned by residents obtained from other sources. Another example is the Court of Auditors in Denmark: there is no formal register, but regulations concerning declarations of financial interests are embodied in the Instructions for the Auditor General. This means that the actual percentage of provisions on declaration of financial interests by HPOs is probably higher.

Is it publicly accessible?
Most registers of Governments and Parliaments are publicly accessible. Belgium is an exception: both registers are confidential. Registers regarding the Courts of Justice, the Courts of auditors, and central or National Banks show a mixed picture: most of them are not publicly accessible.

What details does it contain?
It is difficult to sketch a general picture. Only Bulgaria and Romania have provided detailed information for most institutions. In Bulgaria, Members of Government, Judges of the Supreme Court, and Directors of the Central Bank have to declare the following property and income: real estate; motor road, water and air vehicles; cash, receivables and liabilities over BGN 5,000 in local or foreign currency; securities, shares in limited liability companies and limited partnerships, registered shares in joint-stock companies, also acquired through participation in privatisation transactions, other than bond (mass) privatisation; income, other than that for the position occupied by these persons, received during the preceding calendar year if it exceeded BGN 500. In Romania, the declaration of Members of Parliament, Magistrates of the Supreme Court, Directors of the Audit Office, and Directors of the Central Bank includes own goods, common goods including those of children, and also information as to land, property, production spaces, shares, capital, arts and antiques, foreign exchange deposits, cars, tractors, boats, jewellery and other goods.

What are the requirements for spouses?
Important differences exist with regard to whether the activities of spouses should also be declared. Some Member States oblige the HPOs to declare
the activities of their spouses. The purpose of this rule is to make it more
difficult for HPOs to circumvent financial disclosure rules by transferring
income, financial interests, property, assets, etc. to their spouses or to other
members of their families. However, our study reveals that many countries
do not require a disclosure of the activities of spouses or families. In total,
rules on the declaration of the activities of spouses exist for only half of all
institutions. Most Parliaments have no rules regarding spouses. In some
countries, this raises privacy issues.

Figure 9: Institutional preferences for means of regulation in the Member
States: Regulation of declaration of HPO’s spouse’s activities

Who monitors the register and how often is it updated?
Sometimes monitoring is done internally, but most of the time it is done
externally by another institution. An example of internal monitoring is the
register for the Members of Parliament in the Netherlands. This register is
kept in the Clerk’s Office. Romania provides another example of internal
monitoring; the wealth declarations of the deputies and senators in Roma-
nia are submitted to the President of the Chamber that they are part of. An
example of external monitoring is the Register of Parliament in Belgium:
this is kept by the Court of Auditors. Hungary offers another example: here,
the Parliamentary Committee on Immunity, Conflicts and Mandate Inspec-
tion takes care of the managing of the declaration of wealth of the President
of the Supreme Court.

There is little information on the updating of registers. When information is provided, it is mostly annual. This is the case, for example, for Members of Government in Bulgaria, Hungary, Ireland, and Romania. The registers for Members of Parliament in Germany, Ireland, and the United Kingdom are published on websites and updated regularly.

**Are there sanctions for non-compliance?**

Information is only available in one case: Members of Parliament in Belgium who fail to file a property declaration commit a misdemeanour and are liable to punishment of a fine of up to 5,000 euros.

### 2.1 Government

**Is there a register or not?**

Seventeen out of 21 Member States (which responded to this issue) have registers on the declaration of interests for their Members of Government: Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, Cyprus, Denmark, Estonia, Hungary, Ireland, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden and the United Kingdom (81%); four Member States have no register, namely, Germany, France, Italy and the Netherlands (19%).

**Is it publicly accessible?**

Most of the registers are publicly accessible. The register for Members of Government in Belgium is confidential. In Bulgaria, the declaration of financial interests is made public; however, it cannot be published in the mass media or in any other way without the written consent of the persons concerned. In Hungary, the declarations are published on the webpage of the Government. In Latvia, the public part of the information on public officials’ assets, incomes and financial liabilities is available on the homepage of State Revenue Service. In Spain, a comprehensive statement of senior officials’ financial position is published, excluding information relating to their location and safeguarding the holders’ privacy and security. The reports on declarations in Romania are public, and they are published on the website for the relevant institution.

**What details does it contain?**

In Bulgaria, the law requires a declaration of property, income, and expenses (real estate, motorised vehicles, cash, takings and liabilities, securities, shares, income, etc.). In Denmark, the questionnaire concerns per-
Regulating Conflicts of Interest for Holders of Public Office

Personal and economic interests. Holders of political posts in Portugal must file a declaration of no-disqualification or impediment, stating all offices, duties and professional activities performed by the applicant, as well as any shares initially held. The register of the European Commission includes professional activities, other remunerated functions or activities, and any support from third parties.

What are the requirements for spouses?
No information is available.

Who monitors the register and how often is it updated?
In Austria, the register is kept by the Board of Audit, which reports to the President of the National Council. In Belgium, the register is kept by the Court of Auditors. In Portugal, holders of political posts must file a declaration with the Constitutional Court, which reviews, monitors and confirms the declarations submitted. In Romania, the President sends the declaration to the President of the Constitutional Court, the Prime Minister to the President of Romania, and the Members of Government send their declarations to the Prime Minister. Some registers are updated every year. This is the case, for example, in Bulgaria, Hungary, Ireland and Romania.

Are there sanctions for non-compliance?
No information is available.

2.2 Parliament

Is there a register or not?
Eighteen Member States (out of the 21 countries which replied to this question) have a register for their Members of Parliament: Belgium, Cyprus, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Ireland, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, the Netherlands, Poland, Portugal, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, and the United Kingdom (86%); three (14%) Member States have no register: Austria, Italy and Romania.

Is it publicly accessible?
The register for Members of Parliament in Belgium is confidential. Property declarations have to be sent to the Court of Auditors in a sealed envelope. They can only be opened at the request of a Judge who is investigating criminal offences that a Member of Parliament allegedly committed in the performance of his duties. The registers in Germany are accessible through
Christoph Demmke et al.

a webpage and are published in the handbook of the German Bundestag. The same counts for the Members of Parliament in Ireland: the register is published on the website of Dáil Éireann. In Lithuania, the public part of information on public officials’ assets, incomes and financial liabilities is available on the homepage of State Revenue Service. In Portugal, individuals’ lists of interest are available to the public for consultation. The register in the United Kingdom is available for public inspection in the Committee Office of the House of Commons and is also available on the Internet.

What details does it contain?
Members of Parliament in Belgium have to file a “property declaration” at the beginning and at the end of their term of office with the Court of Auditors. This declaration consists of an overview of all savings, shares, real estate and high value movable property held by each individual Member of Parliament. In the Netherlands, the Members of Parliament are obliged to enter the other positions they hold (paid and unpaid) in a public register and also all details of the remuneration that they receive. The Members of Parliament in Portugal have to make a declaration of no-disqualification or impediments, stating all offices, duties and professional activities performed by the applicant, as well as any shares that they hold. In Romania, the deputies and senators are obliged to declare their wealth in writing. This declaration includes their own goods and common goods, as well as those of their children. The declaration also includes information regarding land, property, production spaces, shares, capital, arts and antiques, foreign exchange deposits, cars, tractors, boats, jewellery and other goods.

What are the requirements for spouses?
Although little information is available, there are requirements for the spouses of the Members of Parliament in Hungary and Romania.

Who monitors the register and how often is it updated?
In Hungary, the property statement – with the exception of the property statement from relatives – is publicised by the Speaker of Parliament. The property statement of relatives is kept by the Immunity, Incompatibility and Mandate Examination Committee of the Parliament. In Ireland, completed declarations are sent by the Members of Parliament to the Standards in Public Office Commission, or, in the case of a “nil return”, to the Clerk of the House concerned (at either the Dáil or the Seanad). In either case, all the actual completed declarations are sent to the Clerk of the House concerned where they are tabulated and published on the Houses of the Oireachtas website. In the Netherlands, this register is also held in the Clerk’s Office.
The wealth declarations of the deputies and senators in Romania are submitted to the President of the Chamber that they are part of. The duty of compiling the register for the Members of Parliament in the United Kingdom rests with the Parliamentary Commissioner for Standards.

Little information is provided on the updating of the registers. In Germany, the register is updated regularly on the webpage of the Bundestag. The declarations of Members of Parliament in Ireland are also published on a website and updated regularly. In the United Kingdom, the register is updated annually. Between publications, the Register is regularly updated in loose-leaf form and is available in this form for public inspection in the Committee Office of the House of Commons.

**Are there sanctions for non-compliance?**

Only a little information is available. In Belgium, any person who fails to file a property declaration commits a misdemeanour and is liable to punishment by a fine of up to 5,000 euros.

### 2.3 Supreme Court

**Is there a register or not?**

Ten Member States (of the 21 which replied to this question) have a register for Judges of the Supreme Court: Estonia, Finland, Hungary, Latvia, the Netherlands, Poland, Romania and Slovenia (48%); Eleven Member States have no register: Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Denmark, France, Germany, Ireland, Luxembourg, Portugal and Spain (52%). The European Court of Justice has a register. The Supreme Court of Lithuania does not have a special register on declarations of financial interests of the Judges. However, according to the Law on Adjustment of Public and Private Interests in Public Service, a candidate judge has an obligation to declare his or her private interests and to deliver the declaration directly to the Chief Commission on Official Ethics 15 days before appointment. If the details of the declaration have changed, the Judge is expected to amend the declaration immediately. Each year, Judges also have to declare their personal income and property to the State Tax Inspectorate.

**Is it publicly accessible?**

The declaration of wealth in Hungary, with the exception of that of relatives, is public. The declaration of wealth that is made available to the public does not contain any identification data. In Latvia, the public part of the information on public officials’ assets, incomes and financial liabilities is
available on the homepage of State Revenue Service. In the case of the European Court of Justice, the President of the Court of Auditors is in charge of keeping the register confidential. If an outside party wishes to consult the register, the College of Members has to give prior approval. In Poland, the register is not publicly accessible; Judges have to submit their declarations to the First President of the Court, who examines them and deposits them at the Secret Information Office of the Supreme Court. The Taxation Office is also informed and checks the financial statements, too.

What details does it contain?
In Bulgaria, Judges of the Supreme Court have to declare in the Public Register the following property and income: real estate; motor road, water and air vehicles; cash, receivables and liabilities over BGN 5,000 in local or foreign currency; securities, shares in limited liability companies and limited partnerships, registered shares in joint-stock companies, as well as those acquired through participation in privatisation transactions, other than bond (mass) privatisation, and income other than that from the position occupied received during the preceding calendar year if it exceeds BGN 500. Magistrates in Romania are obliged to declare their assets in writing. This declaration includes their own goods and common goods, as well as those of their children. The declaration also includes information regarding land, property, production spaces, shares, capital, arts and antiques, foreign exchange deposits, cars, tractors, boats, jewellery, and other goods. In the case of the European Court of Justice, interests and assets over 50,000 euros and unremunerated outside activities have to be declared. Only courses given free of charge need not be declared.

What are the requirements for spouses?
In Hungary, the person obliged to make this declaration has to enclose the declaration of his/her spouse or partner in life living in the same household, as well that of his/her children. The register of the European Court of Justice is also applicable for spouses.

Who monitors the register and how often is it updated?
In Finland, declarations are made to the Ministry of Justice. The Office of the National Court of Justice takes care of managing the declaration of wealth of Judges of the Supreme Court in Hungary. The Parliamentary Committee on Immunity, Conflicts and Mandate Inspection takes care of the managing of the declaration of the wealth of the President of the Supreme Court. In Romania, the declaration is submitted to the President of the Constitutional Court.
There is little information on the updating of the registers. In Estonia, there is an obligation to present an annual declaration of interests. The Judges and the President of the Supreme Court in Hungary have to declare their wealth every three years.

*Are there sanctions for non-compliance?*
No information is available.

### 2.4 Court of Auditors

*Is there a register or not?*
Ten Member States (of the 19 which answered this question) have a register for Directors of the Court of Auditors: Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Portugal and Sweden (53%). Nine Member States have no register: the Czech Republic, Denmark, France, Germany, Greece, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Slovenia and Spain (47%). The European Court of Auditors has a register of declarations of financial interests. The Court of Auditors in Denmark has no register, but regulations concerning this issue are embodied in the Instructions for the Auditor General. In Lithuania, too, there is no register, but the tax administrator verifies the accuracy of the data included in property declarations, and collects and safeguards the declarations – as well as other data – filed on the property owned by residents obtained by means of other sources.

*Is it publicly accessible?*
In Hungary, the property declarations of senior officials and auditors are not public. In Latvia, the public part of information on public officials’ assets, income and financial liabilities is available on the homepage of State Revenue Service. The declarations of financial interests in Poland are confidential and not made public. The register of the European Court of Auditors is also not made public. In Portugal, the register is held by the Constitutional Court which maintains a national open register.

*What details does it contain?*
In Romania, the Director of the Audit Office is obliged to declare his or her wealth in writing. This declaration includes own goods and common goods, as well as those of his or her children. The declaration also includes information regarding land, property, production spaces, shares, capital, arts and antiques, foreign exchange deposits, cars, tractors, boats, jewellery and other goods.
What are the requirements for spouses?
Little information is available. The register of the European Court of Auditors is not applicable to the spouses of the Members of the Executive Board.

Who monitors the register and how often is it updated?
In Hungary, the property declarations of the President and the Vice Presidents of the State Audit Office are registered and verified by the Parliamentary Committee on Immunity, Conflicts and Mandate Inspection. The property declarations of the senior officials and auditors are registered and verified by the President of the State Audit Office. In Poland, the President of the SCC passes his declaration on to the President of Supreme Court. The other HPOs pass their declarations on to the General Director of the SCC, who scrutinises them. In Romania, the declaration of financial interests of the Director of the Audit Office is submitted to the President of the Constitutional Court. There is little information on updating the registers. Top managers of the Court of Audit in Portugal have to present a declaration of interests, assets, incomes and activities to the Constitutional Court every year.

Are there sanctions for non-compliance?
No information is available.

2.5 Central or National Bank

Is there a register or not?
Ten Member States (of the 20 Member States which answered this question) have a register for the Directors of the National or Central Banks: Bulgaria, France, Hungary, Ireland, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Portugal, Romania and Spain (50%); Ten Member States have no register: Austria, Belgium, Cyprus, Denmark, Estonia, Germany, Italy, the Netherlands, Sweden and Slovenia (50%).

In the case of Ireland, the information is not stored in register format. However, the Secretary of the Central Bank and Financial Services Authority of Ireland (CBFSAI) holds the disclosure of interests forms submitted under the Code of Conduct for the Disclosure of Interests in a secure area. In Portugal, for professional activities, including training, conferences and teaching, staff are legally obliged to declare and ask for approval, and an internal register is maintained. In Denmark, there is no register, but there is a system with random checks. Latvia, too, does not have a register, but the public part of the information on public officials’ assets, incomes and finan-
cial liabilities is available on the homepage of State Revenue Service. In Lithuania, there is no separate register on the Board’s declarations of financial interests, but there is a common register of declarations of financial interests for all who have to declare an interest under the Law on the Declaration of the Property of the Residents of the Republic of Lithuania. In Slovenia, too, there exists no specific register for declarations of financial interests. Nevertheless, a declaration of financial interests and assets may be implicitly understood as a pre-requisite for proper implementation of the principle of limited ownership of securities according to the Code of Conduct for Employees of the Bank of Slovenia, since the employees are not allowed – directly or indirectly – to own stock in Slovene banks and savings banks. However, evidencing or registering of such declarations (whether in the form of a statement or an inventory) is not envisaged. The European Central Bank has no register, either.

Is it publicly accessible?
Little information is available. In the case of Hungary, the declaration of wealth, with the exception of that of relatives, is public.

What details does it contain?
In Bulgaria, Directors of the Central Bank have to declare the following property and income in the Public Register: real estate; motorized vehicles; cash, receivables and liabilities over BGN 5,000 in local or foreign currency; securities, shares in limited liability companies and limited partnerships, registered shares in joint-stock companies, as well as those acquired through participation in privatisation transactions, other than cases of bond (mass) privatisation; and all income, other than that for the position occupied, received during the preceding calendar year if it exceeds BGN 500. In Romania, the declaration includes their own goods and common goods, as well as those of their children, etc. It also includes information regarding land, property, production spaces, shares, capital, arts and antiques, foreign exchange deposits, cars, tractors, boats, jewellery, and other goods.

What are the requirements for spouses?
In Hungary, the person obliged to make this declaration has to enclose the declaration of his/her spouse or partner in life living in the same household, as well that of his/her children. In Romania, the declaration also includes the goods of the children and of previous spouses. In Spain, the statement includes the activities and the net worth of non-separated spouses and their dependent children.
Who monitors the register and how often is it updated?
In Ireland, the forms submitted by the Directors, as required by the Ethics in Public Office Acts, are sent via the Secretary to the CBFSAI, who then submits them to the Standards in Public Office Commission, but retains a copy for the CBFSAI. In Poland, the statement of the President of National Bank of Poland is transmitted to the First President of the Supreme Court; the First President of the Supreme Court analyses the information from the statement. In Romania, the declaration is submitted to the President of the Constitutional Court. In Spain, the statement is submitted to the Oficina de Conflictos de Intereses and inscribed in the Register of Interests of Senior Officers. The Oficina de Conflictos de Intereses is an independent body organically assigned to the Minister in charge of Public Service Affairs (Ministerio de Administración Pública). There is little information available on how often registers are updated, but in the case of Hungary and Spain declarations must be updated each year.

Are there sanctions for non-compliance?
No information is available.

Registers on Declaration of Financial Interests in the Member States of the EU

Table 14: Registers on declarations of financial interests by Member State (N=27)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Government</th>
<th>Parliament</th>
<th>Supreme Court</th>
<th>Court of Auditors</th>
<th>Central Bank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Austria</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belgium</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bulgaria</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cyprus</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Czech Republic</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denmark</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Estonia</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finland</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greece</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hungary</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ireland</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3. REGISTERS ON FINANCIAL INTERESTS IN THE EU INSTITUTIONS

In the European Commission, Commissioners must declare outside activities, i.e., honorary, unpaid posts in political, cultural, artistic or charitable foundations or similar bodies and in educational institutions currently held and held over the last 10 years. They must also declare any financial interest or assets which might create a conflict of interests in the performance of their duties. The financial interests which must be declared are any form of individual holding in company capital. This therefore not only includes shares but also any other form of holding such as convertible bonds or investment certificates. Units in unit trusts, which do not constitute a direct interest in company capital, do not have to be declared. Any property owned either directly or through a real estate company must be declared, with the exception of homes reserved for the exclusive use of the owner or his/her family. Other property, the possession of which could create a conflict of interests, especially from a tax point of view, must also be declared. To obviate any potential risk of a conflict of interests, Commissioners are required to declare the professional activities of their spouses. This declaration must state the nature of the activity or the title of the position held, and,
if applicable, the name of the employer. The declaration shall include any holdings by the Commissioner’s spouse which might entail a conflict of interest.

**Registers in the EU institutions**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EU Institutions</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EU Commission</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>European Parliament</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Court of Justice</td>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Court of Auditors</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central Bank</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>European Investment Bank</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Other European institutions have less detailed rules with regard to the financial interests of spouses. The rules of procedure for MEPs oblige them to declare their professional activities and any other remunerated functions or activities as well as any financial and material support. These declarations must be updated every year. However, the provisions are much more general than in the Commission and the rules on sanctions also permit a lot of flexibility.

In the European Court of Auditors, the financial interests that must be declared include any form of individual financial participation in the capital of an enterprise. They include shareholdings, but also any other form of participation, such as, for example, convertible bonds and investment certificates. Declarations must also include the total amount of all other financial interests which exceed 50,000 euros. Land and property must be declared, as must other assets which exceed 50,000 euros. The President and the Members of the Management Committee of the EIB must declare outside activities (posts in foundations or similar bodies currently held and held over the last 10 years, and posts in educational institutions currently held and held over the last 10 years), the professional activities their spouses (other than academic or unpaid activities), financial interests (shares and stocks, insurance policies and bank deposits), assets (real estate and other property), and loans or liabilities. In the European Central Bank, the executive Board Members have to submit a written statement about the
their patrimony, the source of their wealth and their prospective assets to the President.

**Disclosure requirements in the EU institutions**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institution/EU body</th>
<th>Duties to declare</th>
<th>Specification</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EU Commission</td>
<td><strong>Outside activities (honorary, unpaid posts in political, cultural, artistic or charitable foundations or similar bodies and in educational institutions).</strong> The declaration must include honorary posts held over the last ten years and must distinguish between posts held before the Member of the Commission took up office and those which will continue after that point. Any financial interest or asset which might create a conflict of interests Any form of individual holding in company capital. Shares, holding – (convertible bonds or investment certificates – units in unit trusts, which do not constitute a direct interest in company capital, do not have to be declared) Any property owned either directly or through a real estate company must be declared, with the exception of homes reserved for the exclusive use of the owner or his/her family Other property the possession of which could create a conflict of interest, especially from a tax point of view, must also be declared A declaration of the professional activities of their spouses (nature of the activity or the title of the position held and, if applicable, the name of the employer). The declaration shall include any holdings by the Commissioner’s spouse which might entail a conflict of interest</td>
<td>Professional activities: No (according to their Code of Conduct, Commissioners may not engage in any other professional activity, whether paid or unpaid) Financial interests: Yes Property: Yes Assets: Yes Loans/Liabilities: No Activities of spouse: Yes Financial interests of spouse: Partly</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Christoph Demmke et al.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institution/ EU body</th>
<th>Duties to declare</th>
<th>Specification</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EU Parliament</td>
<td>MEPs must declare their professional activities and all activities or functions which have been remunerated</td>
<td>Professional activities: Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Financial interests: No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Property: No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Assets: No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Loans/Liabilities: No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Activities of spouse: No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Financial interests of spouse: No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Court of Justice</td>
<td>No register</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Court of Auditors</td>
<td><strong>Outside activities</strong> (honorary, unremunerated offices in foundations or similar organisations in a political, cultural, artistic or charitable sphere or in educational establishments)</td>
<td>Professional activities: Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The <strong>financial interests</strong> that must be declared include <strong>any form of individual financial participation</strong> in the capital of an enterprise. They include shareholdings, but also any other form of participation, such as, for example, convertible bonds and investment certificates. Declarations must also include the total amount of all other financial interests <strong>which exceed 50,000 euros</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Land and property must be declared</strong></td>
<td>Financial interests: Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Other assets which exceed 50,000 euros. Professional activities of spouse must also be declared</td>
<td>Property: Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Assets: Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Loans/Liabilities: No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Activities of spouse: Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Financial interests of spouse: Not clear</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In the EP, the Rules of Procedure stipulate that the names of Members who have not completed the register within the due time limit will be published in the minutes after due warning. The rule then goes on to state: “If the Member continues to refuse to submit the declaration after the infringement has been published, the President shall take action in accordance with Rule 124 to suspend the Member concerned.” However, when “checking” the declarations on the webpage of the European Parliament, many declarations are filled in with “Nothing to declare”. This practice puts the usefulness of the instrument as such into question. Therefore, we advise that all
institutions should have obligatory registers that are open to the public. The content and the question of what should be declared should be left to the individual institutions. For example, this concerns questions such as whether the activities of the spouse should also be listed, and whether reporting thresholds should be introduced. Credible monitoring and control mechanisms are probably more important than detailed reporting obligations. So far, this does not seem to be the case for all EU institutions (and, most of all, for the ECJ).
VI. Ethics Commissions

1. INTRODUCTION

Ethical principles for HPOs cast suspicion on any process in which the Holders of Public Office discipline themselves. “No one should be the judge in his own trial.” This maxim has guided judges of controversies and the makers of constitutions since ancient times. It expresses fundamental values of due process and limited government, providing the foundation for the separation of powers, judicial review, etc. Consequently, most other professions and most other institutions have come to appreciate that the self-regulation of ethics is inadequate and have accepted at least a modest measure of outside discipline.

In the case of HPOs, independent and outside control is rare. For the most part, the different institutions (or HPOs) control themselves – if at all. This current practice is not satisfactory since only outside and independent bodies are able to oversee and to monitor ethical rules and standards in a fair and impartial way. Outside bodies would also “be likely to reach more objective, independent judgments. It could more credibly protect Members’ rights and enforce institutional obligations without regard to political or personal loyalties. It would provide more effective accountability and help restore the confidence of the public in the ethics process. An additional advantage that should appeal to all Members: an outside body would reduce the time that any Member would have to spend on the chores of ethics regulation.”

Finally, the “move toward a more external form of ethics regulation is designed to enhance public trust and confidence in the procedures that Par-

68 Thompson, Overcoming the Conflict, op. cit., p. 18.
The Parliament uses to discipline its Members. It is intended to depoliticise the process of ethics regulation.  

However, as our empirical findings show (see below in this chapter), HPOs are very reluctant to accept independent experts to judge their CoI. This does not mean that the Member States and the different institutions are not willing to establish any form of control. In fact, Member States often agree on the above-mentioned forms of institutional self-control and establish internal reporting obligations and monitoring mechanisms.

Despite current practice, the development seems to be towards the establishment of more external committees.

**Self-regulation or independent forms of ethics committees – main differences**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Self-regulation committees</th>
<th>Independent ethics committees</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Members are internal experts, officials or elected/nominated HPOs.</td>
<td>Members are independent experts.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal oversight. Committee Members oversee their peers’ compliance with ethical rules.</td>
<td>External oversight. Commission oversees the compliance of HPOs with ethical rules.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Can be an office, Parliamentary Committee, presidential office within own organisation.</td>
<td>Independent with own budget, mainly controlled by Parliament.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Duties can include: Advising colleagues on CoI; Creating awareness for violations of rules of ethics.</td>
<td>Duties can include: Providing ethics training; Investigating ethics complaints; Own inquiry; Determining penalties; Issuing advisory opinions; Receiving financial disclosure and monitoring reporting statements.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exist in most EU countries and in EU institutions.</td>
<td>Pure models do not exist: US, Canada, Australia, to a lesser extent IRL and UK.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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2. STRUCTURAL FEATURES – POWERS, FUNCTIONS AND RESOURCES

Unfortunately, little is known with regard to the functions and powers of ethics committees. From what is known, it seems that Member States provide for ethics bodies that give advice, but very few of these are allowed to investigate allegations and/or to impose sanctions. Other important differences include budgetary powers, and responsibilities for collecting and analysing private disclosure statements by Members (or whether this is done by the personnel administration, the President, etc.). However, from a comparative point of view, very little is known as to the operation of these – relatively intransparent – ethics committees, commissions, etc. In addition, little evidence exists as to their internal operations, budgets, rules of procedure and working styles. In the United States, the Congress (House of Representatives and Senate) and the Judiciary all have different ethics committees. In addition, thirty-six states have ethics commissions, which vary enormously in size and capacity. “Budgets vary from 5,000 dollars in Michigan to 7 million dollars in California.”

In Europe, the best known ethics committee is probably the Committee on Standards in Public Life and Privileges in the UK. In a survey by Saint-Martin, the author shows that “[e]thics commissions in the US are generally more powerful than in the Canadian provinces and in Britain. Their mandate is broader and covers thousands of government employees. And as a rule, they have the power to conduct investigations at their own instigation.” Key differences between ethics commissions in the US and those in Westminster concern the fact that the US commissions cover officials in the executive branch, whereas most commissions in the Westminster system focus on the legislative branch. The main role of the British Committee on Standards and Privileges is in investigating cases which have been recommended by the Parliamentary Commissioner for Standards. The Committee can also recommend penalties to be voted on by Parliament. According to Saint-Martin, the most powerful ethics commission is probably the Australian Independent Commission against Corruption (ICAC). Its main function is to investigate allegations of unethical conduct by Members of Parliament, Judges, ministers, police officers and all employees in government departments and local authorities.

---

70 Menzel, Ethics Management, op. cit., p. 135.
72 Saint-Martin, Should the Federal Ethics Counsellor Become an Independent Officer, op. cit.
Table 15: Differences between ethics committees and ethics commissions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Advisory Function</th>
<th>Enforcement</th>
<th>Own Inquiry</th>
<th>Budget/Resources per year</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Australia (ICAC)</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>15 million Australian $</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UK</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Not known</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USA (fed.)</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Approx. 7.5 million $</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USA (California)</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Not known</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>6 million $ (2004)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USA (New York City)</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>1.5 million $</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada (fed.)</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>5.026 Canadian $ (2006/2007)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>European Commission Ad Hoc Ethical Committee for Commissioners (2003)</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>2,100 euros</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>European Commission Proposal for an Inter-Institutional Committee (2000)</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Not known</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ireland</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No but inquiries</td>
<td>Generally not</td>
<td>886,000 euros (2005)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In its Annual Report for 2004, the Irish Standards Commission noted that, while it can appoint an Inquiry Officer where a complaint is made in relation to a specified act or a contravention of the Ethics Acts, it cannot do so if it is acting on its own initiative and has not received a complaint.

Despite the fact that little is known as to ethics commissions and ethics committees in general, there seems to be a trend towards the introduction of more of these bodies. In most cases, these committees are neither independent bodies nor do they have important monitoring and enforcement powers. Most institutions in the Member States of the EU are of the opinion that any form of self-regulation has the advantage that it is simpler, easier and less

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73 Some data were taken from Saint-Martin, Should the Federal Ethics Counsellor Become an Independent Officer of Parliament?, op. cit., p. 203.
conflictual. Therefore – at least at present – the Member States and the European institutions prefer this model.

The problem with this practice is that the public increasingly tends to question practices where public institutions regulate their own ethical conduct. Increasingly, it seems that any form of self-regulation causes suspicion. On the other hand, arguments both against and in favour of the creation of an independent ethics watchdog are still more based upon faith than upon empirical evidence. There is also much confusion and exaggeration linked to independent watchdogs. In particular, the challenge facing legislative ethics committees is how to ensure their credibility with the press or the public. Most professions – including doctors, lawyers and teachers – discipline their own members through internal committees without having to face accusations of attempts to protect their own. However, legislators who intend to discipline their fellow members face a higher level of scrutiny, one that results from a commitment to the public.

Our data suggest that there is also some link between codes of ethics and the existence of ethics committees (see Table 16). In one third of the cases in which an institution had adopted a code of conduct/ethics, it had also established an ethics committee to provide guidance and monitoring on ethical issues. This is logical, since the adoption of the code would expectedly lead to the establishing of such committees. On the other hand, to function effectively committees need to have a code that sets the standards for ethical behaviour.

Table 16: Ethics committees by code of ethics/conduct in the EU Member States (N=27)\(^a\)

(Frequencies in parenthesis)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ethics Committees</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Code of Ethics/Conduct</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>75% (27)</td>
<td>25% (9)</td>
<td>100% (36)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>66% (48)</td>
<td>34% (25)</td>
<td>100% (73)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EU-27 average</td>
<td>69% (75)</td>
<td>31% (34)</td>
<td>100% (109)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^a\) The total number total cases in each category does not correspond to 27 since unregulated or missing cases have been excluded.
However, the actual difference between the institutions that had a code of conduct/ethics, and those that were lacking such a code did not seem to be very significant. Among the institutions that did not have a code, in one fourth of the cases they still seemed to have an ethics committee. The presence of these committees in the absence of a code also stems from the fact that, in the majority of these cases, the ethics committees were in fact the Parliaments’ standing committees. Nevertheless, it may be somewhat debateable as to whether these committees can be considered typical ethics committees, since the regulation of ethical practices constitutes only a part of their overall responsibilities.

In the EU, many Member States have established an internal body that oversees the conduct of the members of the institution. Depending on the institution in question, these may take the form of a Parliamentary Committee or a specific Central Bank Committee. In other cases, the President of the Parliament is in charge of overseeing ethical standards. A model that depends on legislators investigating and sanctioning their fellow members can be problematical. Dennis F. Thompson notes that legislators “rarely report improprieties of their colleagues or even of the members of their colleagues’ staffs, and they even more rarely criticise colleagues in public for neglecting their legislative duties.” Germany has adopted a somewhat market-oriented approach: the President of the Federal Parliament discloses any violations to the voters, thereby letting them decide the political fate of the Member in question. Another institutional model involves establishing a regulatory system within the legislature or executive. Such a system is usually created through internal standing rules rather than through legislation. It generally takes the form of a Parliamentary Committee composed of Members, combined with an independent Parliamentary Commissioner or Commission. Ireland and the United Kingdom adopted this model in the wake of several ethics scandals in the mid-1990s. In the British House of Commons, Members appoint a Parliamentary Commissioner for Standards, who, along with the Registrar, maintains the Register of Members’ Interests.

At EU level, the European Commission proposed the setting up of an Advisory Committee on Standards in Public Life (SEC (2000) 2077 final). The main features of the Commission’s proposal were:

• The Advisory Committee should provide advice on ethical standards in the European bodies whilst excluding the possibility of monitoring individual cases. Each institution would be entitled to seek the advice of the Committee on its own initiative. However, the request would

74 These cases being Austria, Cyprus, Hungary, Lithuania, Portugal and Spain.
have to relate to the ethical standards of only the institution putting forward the request.

- The European bodies would have to commit themselves to co-operating fully with the Committee (through providing information, attending hearings, etc.).
- The Advisory Group should consist of five external experts to be appointed by common agreement of the European institutions.
- The criteria for the selection process were: independence, impeccable record of professional behaviour, sound knowledge of the existing legal framework and the working methods of the European institutions, geographical balance, and gender balance.

This model would have no sanctioning powers and would also have no powers with regard to the management and monitoring of registers of interest. However, despite some differences, it has some similarities with the UN Ethics Office, which has also a more consultative and advisory role and of which the tasks are:

- administering the organisation’s financial disclosure programme;
- undertaking the responsibilities assigned to it under the organisation’s policy for the protection of staff against retaliation for reporting misconduct and for co-operating with duly authorised audits or investigations;
- providing confidential advice and guidance to staff on ethical issues (e.g., conflicts of interest), including administering an ethics helpline;
- developing standards, training and education on ethics issues, in coordination with the Office of Human Resources Management and other offices as appropriate, including ensuring annual ethics training for all staff;
- such other functions as the Secretary-General considers appropriate for the Office.

The inter-institutional proposal of the European Commission was not welcomed by the European Parliament. As a result, inter-institutional as well as sectoral independent ethics committees are still lacking at EU level. Instead, the Commission set up its own Ad Hoc Ethics Committee for Commissioners in 2003 in the field of post-employment. This ad hoc ethical committee is not empowered to provide advice on outside activities during the term of office of Commissioners. Our study suggests that this situation needs to be changed. Increasingly, it seems that any form of no regulation or self-regulation will cause growing public suspicion. The EU institutions are called to act – probably at an inter-institutional level (and according to
the proposal pending from the Commission) – either for their own institutions or for both.

3. STATISTICAL RESULTS

Our study shows that ethics committees and ethics commissions have only partly been introduced in the Member States. None of the Member States has an ethics committee for each of the five institutions. Most ethics committees have been established within Parliament.

In some cases, Member States indicated they did not have formal ethics committees. However, in practice, they have installed other types of committees. For instance, Slovenia replied that, with the exception of the Court of Justice, they do not have ethics committees for any of their institutions. But, in accordance with the Prevention of Corruption Act, a Commission on Prevention of Corruption does exist for both the Parliament and the Government. Both these committees have an internal and an external committee. The external committee deals with ethical questions, while the internal committee supervises the performance of tasks of the external committee.

Formally, Lithuania has no committees for any of its institutions, either, except for the Parliament, but misconduct, and acts in conflict with the Code of Ethics for Judges must be brought before the Commission for Judicial Ethics and Discipline.

In the new Member States, committees exist relatively more often. Sometimes the committee’s authority is regulated by law. For example, in Latvia, the authority and the procedures of the Judicial Disciplinary Committee are regulated by the Judicial Disciplinary Liability Law, and by the Regulations on the Judicial Disciplinary Committee. In Slovenia, the Commission on the Prevention of Corruption was founded as laid down in the Prevention of Corruption Act, which applies to several institutions.
As is already the case in the regulation of conflicts of interest, the new Member States are also more active in this area than the old Member States: More new Member States have established ethics committees than old Member States.
Table 18: Ethics committees by old and new Member States (N=27)\textsuperscript{a}
(Frequencies in parenthesis)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Old Member State</td>
<td>73% (44)</td>
<td>27% (16)</td>
<td>100% (60)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Member State</td>
<td>65% (28)</td>
<td>35% (15)</td>
<td>100% (43)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EU-27 average</td>
<td>70% (72)</td>
<td>30% (31)</td>
<td>100% (103)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\textsuperscript{a} The total number total cases in each category does not correspond to 27 since unregulated or missing cases have been excluded.

Is it internal/external?
The majority of ethics committees are internal. In the case of the Central or National Banks, all five ethics committees are internal. Examples are:
- the Permanent Commission on Ethics and Procedures in the Parliament in Lithuania;
- a committee in Italy where the Central Bank set up an evaluation team within the Legal Affairs Department to examine and share opinions on questions concerning the application of the code of conduct;
- the Irish Standards in Public Office Commission that provides advice to Members of the Government.

An example of an external ethics committee is the Commission for Standards in Public Life (CSPL) in the United Kingdom. This committee was set up as an advisory non-departmental public body.

Is it independent?
There is little information available on the issues of independence of the committees. The fact that most committees are internal might indicate their limited independence.

What is their budget?
There is no information available regarding the budget that the committees have.
Does it have inquiry rights, conduct investigations upon its own initiative? Does it have an advisory function and/or sanctioning possibilities?
Most ethics committees have an advisory function and no sanctioning possibilities.

Who are its members and who appoints them?
The members can be Members of the Court (Court of Auditors), Magistrates (Court of Justice), or members from each Parliamentary group (Parliament). The Ethics Committee of the Hungarian Central Bank consists of five members with different positions and backgrounds: the Chairman of the Committee is the managing director, who guides the HR Department, the members are the representatives of the trade unions, HR Department, Department of Law, and the representative of the bank elected directly by the employees of the bank.

The European Investment Bank’s committee consists of the leading personalities from the financial sector.

With regard to the national Parliaments, the committees are often institutionalised as Parliamentary Committees.

Who does the committee report to?
The data received do not provide information on the question of how or to whom the committees should report.

What is the distribution of committees in the different Institutions?
As already stated, in none of the Member States does an ethics committee exist in all five institutions. Latvia seems to be an exception: apart from the Government, all institutions have installed ethics committees. On the other hand, in many Member States, such as the Netherlands and Belgium, the institutions do not use Ethics Committees.

In fact, as already stated, ethics committees have, for the most part, been introduced in Parliaments (57%), but much less in the Governments, Courts of Auditors, Supreme Courts and Central Banks. Within the Courts of Auditors, only 16% make use of a committee. Compared to the use of registers, committees are less often used as an instrument.
Table 19: Ethics committees in the Member States (N=27)\(^a\)
*(Frequencies in parenthesis)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Institution</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Government</td>
<td>22% (23)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parliament</td>
<td>57% (21)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supreme Court</td>
<td>29% (21)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Court of Auditors</td>
<td>16% (19)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central Bank</td>
<td>25% (20)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EU-27 average</td>
<td>30% (104)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^a\) The total number total cases in each category does not correspond to 27 since unregulated or missing cases have been excluded.

The situation is not very much different at EU level, where none of the EU institutions have a powerful ethics committee. The European Commission, the Court of Auditors and the European Investment Bank allow for the establishment of an ad hoc ethics committee (mainly in the area of monitoring post-employment issues). The Statute of the European Central Bank calls for the invitation of external ethics advisors.

Table 20: Ethics committees in the European institutions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EU Institution</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>European Commission</td>
<td>Ad hoc committee</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>European Parliament</td>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Court of Justice</td>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Court of Auditors</td>
<td>Committee</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central Bank</td>
<td>Advisors</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>European Investment Bank</td>
<td>Ad hoc committee and Compliance Officer</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.1 Government

*Is there an ethics committee?*

Five out of 23 Member States have installed an ethics committee for Members of Government: Austria, Estonia, Ireland, Spain, and the United Kingdom (22%); eighteen Member States have no ethics committee (78%):
Regulating Conflicts of Interest for Holders of Public Office

Belgium, Bulgaria, Cyprus, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Hungary, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Slovenia and Sweden (78%). Four countries did not answer. The European Commission has a specific ad hoc ethical committee with advisory capacity on the issue of post-Commission employment.

Is it internal/external?
Four of the five ethics committees that are installed at Government level are external: the Committee on the Application of the Anti-Corruption Act in Estonia; the Standards in Public Office Commission in Ireland; the Conflicts of Interest Office in Spain; and the Committee on Standards in Public Life in the United Kingdom. In the main, these committees cover other institutions as well.

In the case of Slovenia, the Government does not have an ethics commission; nevertheless, there is a commission responsible for assisting the competent authorities on ethical issues – the Commission on Prevention of Corruption. The European Commission, in accordance with the last paragraph of point 1.1.1 of the Code of Conduct for Commissioners, established a specific ad hoc ethical committee with an advisory capacity on the issue of post-Commission employment. At the European Parliament, the Bureau du PE and Quaestors are responsible for keeping a register and drawing up detailed rules for the declaration of outside support, and a Commission des affaires juridiques.

Is it independent?
There is little information available on the issue of independence of the committees.

What is their budget?
There is no information available regarding the budget that committees have.

Does it have inquiry rights, conduct investigations upon its own initiative?
Most ethics committees at governmental level do not seem to have inquiry rights, and cannot conduct investigations on their own initiative. The Conflicts of Interest Office in Spain might be an exception. The Court of Justice Committee in Estonia – the Judges’ Disciplinary Committee – discusses disciplinary matters concerning misconduct in terms of law or code of ethics.
Does it have an advisory function and/or sanctioning possibilities?
Most of the ethics committees seem to have an advisory function. The Conflicts of Interest Office in Spain might be an exception.

Who are its members and who appoints them?
There is no information available as to who are on the committees or by whom they are appointed.

Who does the committee report to?
The data received do not provide information on the question of how and to whom the committees should report.

3.2 Parliament

Is there an ethics committee?
Twelve out of 21 Member States have an ethics committee installed for Members of Parliament: Austria, Cyprus, Denmark, Ireland, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Spain, and the United Kingdom (57%). Nine Member States have no ethics committee at Parliament level: Belgium, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Italy, Netherlands, Slovenia and Sweden (43%). Six Member States did not answer. The European Parliament does not have an ethics committee.

Cyprus has a Parliamentary committee specifically responsible for ensuring the application of its provisions on the Declaration and Control of the Assets of the President, the Ministers and the Members of the Parliament of the Republic of Cyprus.

Germany has no special committee, but has a Parliamentary committee with an advisory role. In Hungary, the Parliament has no ethics committee, but the Immunity, Incompatibility and Mandate Examination Committee of the Parliament fulfils ethical tasks relating to, for example, the immunity affairs of the Members of Parliament. In the case of Slovenia, too, the Government does not have an ethics commission; nevertheless, there is an independent commission – outside the Parliament – which deals with ethical questions and performs tasks for all holders of public functions (deputies, ministers, etc.). Furthermore, the National Assembly set up a commission – inside Parliament – in accordance with the Prevention of Corruption Act, which supervises the performance of tasks of the Independent Commission.
Regulating Conflicts of Interest for Holders of Public Office

Is it internal/external?
The ethics committee in Ireland is internal. In fact, each of the two Houses (the Dáil and the Seanad) have their own committee, called Committees on Members’ Interests.

Although Slovenia does not have a formal ethics committee, there is an internal and an external committee. The external committee deals with ethical questions, while the internal committee supervises the performance of the tasks of the external committee.

Is it independent?
Although Slovenia does not have a formal ethics committee, the body which deals with ethical questions in Slovenia has both an internal and an external sub-committee. The external committee is independent.

What is their budget?
There is no information available regarding the budget that these committees have.

Does it have inquiry rights, conduct investigations upon its own initiative?
There is little information available on the rights and possibilities for ethics committees to undertake inquiries. However, the functions of the committee in Ireland are not only advising, but also investigating and deciding sanctions for Members of Parliament.

Does it have advisory function and/or sanctioning possibilities?
There is little information available on the sanctioning possibilities of the committees. The Irish Committees on Members’ Interests are allowed to sanction. The committee in Romania that is called the Juridical Committee on Appointments, Discipline, Immunities and Validations is also authorised to sanction (“application of disciplinary sanctions”).

Who are its members and who appoints them?
There is little information available on who is in the committees and by whom they are appointed. In Spain, the committee consists of one member from each Parliamentary group. It has a chairman, a vice chairman and a secretary, all of whom are representatives of the three largest Parliamentary groups at the beginning of the Parliamentary term.

Who does the committee report to?
The data received do not provide information on the questions of how and to whom the committees should report.
3.3 Supreme Court

Is there an ethics committee?
Six out of the 21 Member States have an ethics committee for Judges of the Supreme Court (29%): Estonia, Germany, Greece, Poland, Slovenia and Latvia. Fifteen Member States have no register: Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Denmark, Finland, France, Hungary, Ireland, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Portugal, Romania and Spain (71%). Six Member States did not answer. The European Court of Justice has no ethics committee.

Lithuania has no formal committee. Nevertheless, the Judicial Council and Chairman of the Court concerned may initiate disciplinary action against the Judge in the event of an act incompatible with the Judge’s honour and in conflict with the requirements of the Code of Ethics for Judges, discrediting the office of the Judge and undermining the authority of the Court. Any misconduct must be brought before the Commission of the Judicial Ethics and Discipline. In Portugal, too, no formal committees exist; the functions of advice and the control of the conduct of Judges in the ethical aspect is the responsibility of the Higher Council of Magistrates and the Higher Council of Administrative and Tax Courts. Slovenia has no formal committees, but the Juridical Council gives its opinion on questions regarding actions by other Judges in line with judicial ethics. Furthermore, the Slovenian Association of Judges has its own Council for Judicial Ethics, linked with the (non-binding) Code of the Association.

Is it internal/external?
There is no information available regarding the question of whether the committees function mainly internally or externally. The German committee is an internal committee. The Latvian committee – the Judicial Disciplinary Committee – is external.

Although Lithuania does not have a formal ethics committee, there is an external commission, the Commission of the Judicial Ethics and Discipline. Poland does not have a formal ethics committee, either, but the existing permanent commission on Judges’ professional ethics of the National Judicial Council could be considered as an internal committee. The board of the Supreme Court is authorised to adopt resolutions on ethical issues.

Is it independent?
There is little information available on the issue of independence of the committees.
What is their budget?
There is no information available regarding the budget that committees have.

Does it have inquiry rights, conduct investigations upon its own initiative?
There is no information available on the rights and possibilities to undertake inquiry.

Does it have an advisory function and/or sanctioning possibilities?
There is little information available on the sanctioning possibilities. The committee in Estonia – the Judges’ Disciplinary Committee – discusses disciplinary matters concerning misconduct in terms of law or code of ethics. The committee in Latvia has the authority to decide on disciplinary and administrative violations by Judges of the District (City) Courts, by the Land Registry, by the regional Courts and by Supreme Court Justices. This committee ensures that the named officials who do not follow the law while in the office are held accountable. Disciplinary proceedings may be initiated by the Minister of Justice, the Chief Justice of the Supreme Court or the chairpersons of lower and regional Courts.

Who are its members and who appoints them?
There is no information available on who is in the committees or by whom they are appointed.

Who does the committee report to?
The data received do not provide information on the questions of how and to whom the committees should report.

3.4 Court of Audit

Is there an ethics committee?
Three out of 19 Member States have an ethics committee for Directors of the Court of Auditors (16%): Czech Republic, France and Latvia; 16 Member States have no ethics committee: Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, Denmark, Estonia, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Lithuania, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Poland, Portugal, Slovenia, Spain and Sweden (84%). Eight Member States have not answered. The European Court of Auditors has an ethics committee.
Is it internal/external?
There is no information available regarding the question of whether the committees function mainly internally or externally. The committees of France, the Czech Republic and the committee of the European Court of Auditors are internal.

Is it independent?
There is no information available on the issues of the independence of the committees.

What is their budget?
There is no information available regarding the budget that the committees have.

Does it have inquiry rights, conduct investigations upon its own initiative?
There is little information available on inquiry rights.

The Code of Conduct and the Rules for Implementing the Rules of Procedure provide for a committee responsible for the examination of the outside activities of the Members of the European Court of Auditors, who have to declare their outside activities to the President of the Court, who, in turn, forwards this information to a committee which is composed of three Members of the Court, who are preferably not engaged in outside activities. The President of the Court ensures that negative recommendations by the committee are implemented. The committee is apparently only competent to judge on outside activities.

Does it have an advisory function and/or sanctioning possibilities?
There is little information available on the sanctioning possibilities of committees. The role of the French Collège de Déontologie is to examine questions on the conflicts of interest (integrity, neutrality, discretion, secrecy and impartiality) of the people in charge, and to and to make recommendation on these questions. The commission advises on how to interpret, evolve and adapt the principles in the existing ethics charter.

Who are its members and who appoints them?
There is little information available as to who are on the committees or by whom they are appointed. The ethics committee in the Czech Republic – Disciplinary Chamber – is composed of the State Audit Office President and two Members of the Supreme Court. The committee of the European Court of Auditors is composed of three Members of the Court (who are preferably not engaged in outside activities). The French ethics committee,
the Collège de Déontologie, is made up of three Magistrates. The Committee of European Court of Auditors consists of three members, who should preferably not be engaged in any outside activities.

Who does the committee report to?
The data received do not provide information on the question of how and to whom the committees should report.

3.5 Central or National Bank

Is there an ethics committee?
Five out of 20 Member States have an ethics committee for Directors of National or Central Banks: Germany, Hungary, Ireland, Italy and Latvia (25%); 15 Member States have no register: Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, Cyprus, Denmark, Estonia, France, Lithuania, the Netherlands, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Slovenia, Spain and Sweden (74%). Seven Member States did not answer. Both the European Central Bank and the European Investment bank have provisions regarding ethics commissions.

Germany has an advisor for corporate governance, whose main task is to interpret the Code of Conduct for the Management Board and the Central Bank Council. The Central Bank and Financial Services Authority of Ireland does not have an ethics committee or advisory group, but it does have an Ethics Advisor (a former Governor). In Italy, an evaluation team has been set up within the Legal Affairs Department to examine and share opinions on questions concerning the application of the Code of Conduct.

In Lithuania, there is no specific ethics committee, but the code of ethics lays down that Members of the Board should consult each other and that employees should consult each other or any Member of the Board. Within the Bank of Slovenia, no committee or advisory group exists; however, the General Secretary is entitled to the interpretation of the code.

According to the Code of Conduct for the Members of the Board of Directors of the European Investment Bank, an Ad Hoc Ethics Committee is set up in the Terms of Reference.

The European Central Bank appoints an Ethics Advisor to the Executive Board in order to ensure a consistent interpretation of the Code of Conduct of the ECB and the Supplementary Code of Ethical Criteria for the Members of the Executive Board.
Is it internal/external?
All five committees of the Central Banks operate with an internal focus.

Is it independent?
There is little information available on the issues of the independence of the committees.

The Ethics Advisor in Ireland is an independent person of appropriate standing and experience and is available for Directors to consult in confidence in cases of uncertainty about any issue relating to the annual disclosure of interests requirements.

What is their budget?
There is no information available regarding the budget that committees have.

Does it have inquiry rights, conduct investigations upon their own initiative?
No information is available on the rights and possibilities of undertaking inquiries.

In Hungary, one of the tasks of the ethics committee is to follow closely the enforcement of the rules of the code and to take initiatives to amend the internal regulations within the framework of this.

Does it have an advisory function and/or sanctioning possibilities?
There is little information available on the sanctioning possibilities. Most committees seem to have an advisory function and no sanctioning possibilities.

Who are its members and who appoints them?
Little information is available on who is in the committees and by whom they are appointed. In Hungary, the Ethics Committee of the Central Bank has five members: the Chairman of the Committee is the Director of the HR Department, the members are the representatives of the trade unions, HR Department, Department of Law, and the representative of the bank elected directly by the employees of the bank. In the case of the European Investment Bank, the Ad Hoc Ethics Committee consists of three members who are leading persons in the financial sector.

Who does the committee report to?
The data received provide little information on the question of how and to whom the committees should report. In the case of Hungary, the Ethics
Committee prepares annual reports for the Governor of the MNB. The Ad Hoc Ethics Committee of the EIB is consulted by the Secretary General in accordance with the Presidency of the EIB. Information is not disclosed to third parties.

3.6 Ethics commissions in the EU institutions

Important differences also exist amongst the EU institutions with regard to the existence of ethics commissions and/or ethics officers. Compared to countries such as the USA, Canada and Australia, the EU institutions have no external ethics committees or inter-institutional ethics bodies. Instead, some of the European institutions have established internal committees or advisors who should be consulted on ethical questions. For example, the European Commission and the European Investment Bank have established ad hoc committees which should be consulted concerning post-employment issues. Also the Code of Conduct and the Rules for Implementing the Rules of Procedure of the European Court of Auditors provide for a committee responsible for examining the outside activities of the Members of the Court of Auditors. To this should be added the Ethics Advisor of the European Central Bank and the Compliance Officer in the European Investment Bank. The European Court of Justice and the European Parliament have no advisory bodies.

Because of the non-existence of (independent) external ethics committees (with investigative and/or sanctioning powers), all EU institutions reply on the principle of self-regulation of conflicts of interest. Self-regulation means that the ultimate decision-making and sanctioning powers will be decided by internal bodies or persons.

Interesting cases concern the Code of Conduct of Commissioners, the Code of the European Investment Bank and of the European Court of Auditors. For example, the Code of Conduct of Commissioners stipulates: “Whenever Commissioners intend to engage in an occupation during the year after they have ceased to hold office, whether this be at the end of their term or upon resignation, they shall inform the Commission in good time. The Commission shall examine the nature of the planned occupation. If it is related to the content of the portfolio of the Commissioner during his/her full term of office, the Commission shall seek the opinion of an ad hoc ethics committee. In the light of the committee’s findings it will decide whether the planned occupation is compatible with the last paragraph of Article 213(2) of the Treaty” (1.1.1. Outside activities, Code of Conduct for Commissioners).
The Code of the Investment Bank is very similar. According to the Code, former members of the Board of Directors shall “submit for adjudication to the Secretary General” any official/professional position proposed to them”, for a period of six months following the termination of their mandate. If the Secretary General considers that a potential conflict of interest could arise, he will advise the President of the Bank to submit it to the Ethics Committee (Code of Conduct of the Board of Directors, p. 4).

In the European Court of Auditors, Article 6 of Decision No. 92 – 2004 rules that: “Members shall declare their outside activities to the President of the Court who forwards these to a Committee which is composed of three Members of the Court, who shall preferably not be engaged in outside activities.”

When reading these rules carefully, it can be seen that the ultimate decision-making powers on conflicts of interest should be kept internal. There is no space here to discuss more extensively whether these forms of self-regulation are effective and/or credible, or whether they may even produce new conflicts of interest for the persons who must ultimately decide. In most cases, the decision-making power is given to internal persons (the Commission, the President, Members of the Court of Auditors), who are in close contact with the person in question.

Another interesting case of self-regulation concerns the note from the President and Mrs Kroes to the Members of the Commission on the identification of actual or potential conflicts of interest concerning the Commissioner for Competition (SEC(2004) 1541 of 1 December 2004). This document provides for a number of detailed steps to be taken in order to identify and to evaluate actual and potential conflicts of interest for the Commissioner for Competition. Here, a key role is given to the Director General of DG Competition and to the Director General of the Legal Service, who shall assess whether the particular situation relates to a:

- Category I situation (factual circumstances involving a specific undertaking listed in Annex 2 during the time that the Commissioner served on boards or as an advisor);
- Category II situation (factual circumstances involving any specific undertaking listed in Annex 2 although the Commissioner was not serving on a board or as an advisor); and
- Category III situation (other factual circumstances that may give rise to a potential conflict of interest)

Whereas the rules and standards which are laid down in this international arrangement may be impressive, it is another question as to whether they do not create new dilemmas for the Directors-General con-
cerned and for the President of the European Commission when analysing actual or potential CoI. The President may decide on the reallocation of the dossier to another Commissioner or to decide to take the case himself. It should be stressed that, in accordance with the Framework Agreement on relations between the European Parliament and the Commission, the President of the Commission shall be fully responsible for identifying any conflict of interest which renders a Commissioner unable to perform his or her duties. The same framework agreement adds that the President of the Commission shall inform the President of Parliament of all cases of reallocation of dossiers due to possible conflicts of interest.

Thus, according to these rules the ultimate decision on a breach of the Code by a Commissioner lies with the President of the European Commission. This raises the question of whether the ultimate power to decide on breaches of interests of individual Commissioners will not produce another conflict of interest for the President of the Commission. Even if he or she were neutral, would he or she have an interest in provoking a crisis within his or her own Commission? Or would he or she be tempted to save the face of the Commission? And what happens if the President breaches the code? A similar question arises with regard to the position of the Quaestors in the European Parliament.

In the Court of Auditors, too, internal conflicts of interest may be provoked when Members of the Court declare their outside activities to the President of the Court, who forwards these to a committee which is composed of three Members of the Court, who shall preferably not be engaged in outside activities (Decision No. 92 – 2004). The President of the Court ensures that negative recommendations by the committee are implemented. This practice also poses enormous challenges with regard to the independent behaviour of the President.

However, the European Commission and the EIB (and partly the CoA) are still far ahead of the other institutions that have no, or even weaker, forms of internal self-regulation. In order to change this situation, the European Commission proposed setting up an Advisory Committee on Standards in Public Life in the year 2000. The purpose of the 2000 proposal was to propose a very “light” form of ethics committee. The committee’s tasks were to offer independent advice to the European institutions on ethical standards. It was NOT expected to comment on individual cases. However, the European Parliament did not support the proposal for a single advisory

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75 It should be mentioned here that additional detailed ethical rules on financial interests, gift policies, insider-dealing and personal relationships apply to the Staff of DG Competition as well as to seconded national experts and the Cabinet of the Commissioner.
ethics committee made by the Commission in 2000. Instead, the Parliament felt that it should have its own ethics committee, rather than a single body competent for all institutions. However, to date, no such committee has been set up.
VII. Evidence as to the Effectiveness of Conflicts of Interest Regimes

1. POSITIVE ASPECTS OF RULES AND STANDARDS IN THE FIELD OF CONFLICTS OF INTEREST POLICIES

Most supporters of more and better rules and ethical standards claim that rules and standards are important because Holders of Public Office “hold positions of such importance and such accountability that the public can claim a reasonable right to know some of the details of their personal finances and the potential conflicts those might create.”\(^76\)

In the field of registers of financial interest in particular, requirements for more transparency and declaration of information, etc., reveal important information to the public, which would otherwise be kept secret. For example, in the United States, a study from the Center for Public Integrity shows that “more than 28 percent of state legislators who reported their finances sat on a committee with authority over at least one of their personal interests in 2001 (...). Eighteen percent disclosed ties to organizations registered to lobby state Government. And 10 percent were employed by other government agencies...”\(^77\) The publication of these figures may not be sufficient to discipline office holders and improve ethical behaviour because public exposure acts as a stimulus. However, only the fact that public disclosure is not hidden from public view enables the public to control HPOs at all.

The same argument can be used for strict regulations on gift policies. Apart from the regulation of general ethical principles, gifts and related benefits are by far the most regulated item in the field of conflicts of interest. Our study shows that only 14% of all institutions have no regulations in the field of gifts. Almost all Courts of Auditors and Central Banks that contributed to our study have rules in this field. In the literature, some authors

\(^{76}\) Mackenzie, op. cit., p. 168.
\(^{77}\) The Center for Public Integrity, D. Dagan Personal Politics, Special Report, 24 September 2004.
suggest that the laws of ethics that had “the greatest impact on the legislative process are those that ban or limit gifts (...) from lobbyists or their principals, or laws that simply require their disclosure.” In most states, these laws have reduced gift giving and gift taking.” 78 “Gift bans and gift disclosure requirements have been highly effective.” 79 If this observation is correct, the situation in Europe looks relatively positive. On the other hand, the answer from national Parliaments to our study reveals that 30% of all Parliaments have not regulated gifts, decorations and distinctions. Given the importance of this subject, this is too high a figure.

Table 21: Regulation of gifts and similar issues by type of institution in EU Member States (N=27)\textsuperscript{a}
(Frequencies in parenthesis)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Institution</th>
<th>Accepting gifts, decorations or distinctions</th>
<th>Missions, travels</th>
<th>Rules on receptions and representation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Government</td>
<td>86% (21)</td>
<td>89% (18)</td>
<td>65% (20)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parliament</td>
<td>71% (21)</td>
<td>50% (20)</td>
<td>30% (20)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supreme Court</td>
<td>81% (21)</td>
<td>68% (19)</td>
<td>42% (19)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Court of Auditors</td>
<td>100% (19)</td>
<td>78% (18)</td>
<td>67% (18)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central Bank</td>
<td>95% (21)</td>
<td>55% (20)</td>
<td>74% (19)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EU-27 average</td>
<td>86% (103)</td>
<td>67% (95)</td>
<td>55% (96)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\textsuperscript{a} The number of total cases in each category does not correspond to 27 since missing cases are excluded.

Other positive effects of rules and standards are that they contribute in transforming cultures. One example is the British example of the \textit{Seven Principles of Public Life} \textsuperscript{80} which is one of the few European standards of ethics which is applicable for all Holders of Public Service. The Seven Principles were set out by the Committee on Standards in Public Life and became a well-known standards document – also at international level.

\textsuperscript{78} Saint-Martin/Thompson, op. cit., p. 172.
\textsuperscript{79} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{80} http://www.public-standards.gov.uk/about_us/the_seven_principles_of_life.aspx (last checked 20 June 2008).
The seven principles are:

**Selflessness**
Holders of public office should act solely in terms of the public interest. They should not do so in order to gain financial or other benefits for themselves, their families or their friends.

**Integrity**
Holders of public office should not place themselves under any financial or other obligation to outside individuals or organisations that might seek to influence them in the performance of their official duties.

**Objectivity**
In carrying out public business, including making public appointments, awarding contracts, or recommending individuals for rewards and benefits, holders of public office should make choices on merit.

**Accountability**
Holders of public office are accountable to the public for their decisions and actions and must submit themselves to whatever scrutiny is appropriate to their office.

**Openness**
Holders of public office should be as open as possible about all the decisions and actions that they take. They should give reasons for their decisions and restrict information only when the wider public interest clearly demands it.

**Honesty**
Holders of public office have a duty to declare any private interests relating to their public duties and to take steps to resolve any conflicts arising in a way in order to protect the public interest.

**Leadership**
Holders of public office should promote and support these principles by leadership and example.

The popularity of these principles may have also convinced other countries (such as Slovenia, Bulgaria and Romania) to adopt centralised codes of ethics.

For the most part, those in favour of more or better rules do not pretend that more rules and standards will reduce corruption and conflicts of inter-
est. However, additional standards may deter HPOs from questionable behaviour! More or better-designed rules are also meant to eliminate the sometimes arbitrary practices and privileges inherited from the past. The process of the accessions of the new Member States to the EU in 2004 and 2007 had the positive effect that all new Member States reformed their laws on ethics, corruption and conflicts of interest. Today, the regulation density is higher in these countries than in the founding Member States. This is certainly a positive development. In the meantime, most of the new Member States have introduced more and stricter rules for all governmental institutions. Despite all the problems in implementing and enforcing these rules, this can be considered as a positive process.

In addition, the process of elaborating rules and codes of standards may have important educational effects. “It would be unfortunate if the emphasis on a code of ethics as a product obscured the value of the process by which a code is developed and subsequently revised. This process is a time of critical self-examination by both individual members and the profession as a whole. The profession must institutionalise a process whereby its moral commitments are regularly discussed and assessed in the light of changing conditions both inside and outside the profession. The widespread participation of members in such an effort helps to reinvigorate and bring into sharp focus the underlying values and moral commitments of their profession. It is a time of testing one’s professional ethics against those of colleagues and for testing the profession’s ethics against the experience of its members and the values of society. This process of self-criticism, codification, and consciousness-raising reinforces or redefines the profession’s collective responsibility and is an important learning and maturing experience for both individual members and the profession.”

So far only few studies have demonstrated a clear connection between rules and standards in the field of conflicts of interest, and a decrease in conflicts. However, a study by Fain shows that strict gift policies (so-called zero gift policies) have a positive impact on gift-taking. Strict gift policies may seem extreme by prohibiting public officials from receiving gifts from anyone. However, they eliminate any doubt, are easy to understand and also easy to enforce.

Other experts claim that “strict rules, standards and management instruments in the field of conflicts of interest bring other benefits for public sector organisations. First and foremost, opportunities for corruption or improper conduct are reduced. Second, effective policies and procedures

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81 Frankel, op. cit., p. 112/113.
for identifying, disclosing and managing conflicts of interest mean that unfounded accusations of bias can be dealt with more easily and efficiently. Third, the organisation can demonstrate its commitment to good governance by addressing an issue that is commonly associated with corruption and misconduct. Fourth, a transparent system that is observed by everyone in an organisation as a matter of course will also demonstrate to members of the public and others who deal with the organisation that its proper role is performed in a way that is fair and unaffected by improper considerations. Fifth, failure to identify, declare and manage a conflict of interest is where serious corruption often begins and this is why managing conflicts of interest is such an important corruption prevention strategy.83 Another empirical study by Feldheim and Wang demonstrates that the ethical behaviour of public officials improves public trust. The authors find higher levels of public trust in cities where managers have higher perceptions of ethical behaviour. Furthermore, “integrity, openness, and loyalty to the public interest (...) are crucial in increasing public trust”.84

2. CHALLENGES AND UNINTENTIONAL SIDE-EFFECTS OF RULES AND STANDARDS IN THE FIELD OF CONFLICTS OF INTEREST POLICIES

Interestingly, critical approaches as to the effects of conflicts of interest rules are abundant in the USA and in the UK, but much less in continental Europe. This can be explained by the fact that the US system provides for more and stricter rules and standards of ethics, more control and monitoring requirements than most other European countries, and the existence of a real (ethics) bureaucracy. Some experts also claim that ethical problems are more discussed in the US than in continental Europe because of differences in culture and tradition. Behncke,85 for example, believes that ethics as a policy issue is much less important in Germany because German public officials have a stronger public service ethos than their colleagues in the US. In Germany, most top-officials “grow up” in a legalistic administrative culture. The positive side of the “lawyers’ monopoly” in the strong legalis-

tic tradition in Germany is that HPOs are – generally – well-aware of existing rules and standards in the field of ethics. Other issues also play an important role: Traditionally, German top-officials are also less mobile (for example, with regard to moving between the public and private sectors) than their US counterparts and face fewer ethical risks.

2.1 Ethics rules and public trust

Critics (Anecharico and Jacobs,\textsuperscript{86} Mackenzie,\textsuperscript{87} Stark,\textsuperscript{88} Saint-Martin/F.Thompson,\textsuperscript{89} Behncke,\textsuperscript{90} Bovens,\textsuperscript{91} etc.,) argue that more rules of ethics do not necessarily provide an efficient response to the decline of public trust and integrity issues, but may cause even more cynicism regarding public and political institutions. The problem, critics say, is that the expansion of ethics regulations and more public discussions about the need for more and better (conflicts of interest) rules have not contributed to an increase in public confidence in government. In fact, the calls for more and better ethics have the opposite effect. More “ethics regulations and more ethics enforcers have produced more ethics investigations and prosecutions....Whatever the new ethics regulations may have accomplished,...they have done little to reduce publicity and public controversy about the ethical behavior of public officials”.\textsuperscript{92}

Most ethics experts are, indeed, of the opinion that more rules, even if well managed, may not build more trust. In fact, they may actually contribute to decrease public trust “by generating a sense that all lawmakers are fundamentally untrustworthy”.\textsuperscript{93} The most prominent case is the situation in the United States where “Legions of lawyers and journalists earn their living from ethics lawsuits and scandals. In particular after scandals, a new wave of conflicts of interest, financial disclosure or gift acceptance regulations seemed to be the appropriate way to re-establish public trust by signalling that “something was being done”. These ethics measures have mostly been introduced by politicians with an eye on the perceived problem

\textsuperscript{86} Anecharico/Jacobs, The Pursuit of Absolute Integrity, op. cit.
\textsuperscript{87} Mackenzie, Scandal Proof, op. cit.
\textsuperscript{88} Stark, Conflict of Interest, op. cit.
\textsuperscript{89} Saint-Martin/Thompson, op. cit.
\textsuperscript{90} Behncke, Modeerscheinungen, op. cit.
\textsuperscript{91} M. Bovens, Het Ongelijk van Dales, in: Bestuurskunde, 2006/1, p. 64.
\textsuperscript{92} Mackenzie, op. cit., p. 112.
of decreasing public trust. The intention of increasing public trust, however, was never met in reality. Quite to the contrary, meanwhile the ethics infrastructure in the US has reached a level in which it contributes to further undermining public trust. The complaint about scandals, corruption and low ethical standards always seems justified and the promise to establish higher standards is always likely to be a promising means to gain votes. Similarly, most presidential candidates from Dwight D. Eisenhower to Bill Clinton tried to gain profile by emphasising the “ethics gap” and announcing uniform and higher standards of behaviour for the federal government, tightening post-employment restrictions or enlarging the financial disclosure requirements. 

As Behnke shows, “in spite of the individual rationality of these strategies, the collective irrationality lies in the fact that ever more transparency, ever higher standards and tighter regulations create ever more violations of ethical rules, more scandals and more investigations, thus undermining the legitimacy of the institution and destroying public trust and creating collective costs that far outweigh the individual benefits. In addition to the individual rationality leading to collective irrationality, the last element that makes the situation a real Prisoner’s Dilemma is the fact that no built-in mechanism can stop this arms race”. The assumption on the part of the legislators and the Members of Government who favour the adoption of new rules and standards is that this will have a positive effect and increase public trust in Government. However, a strong focus on ethics, too strict approaches, too much publicity and too many rules may also undermine public trust.

### 2.2 Ethics rules as a political instrument

The more rules and standards are introduced, the more often rules and standards can be violated. Consequently, media and the public may interpret this as a sign of declining ethical standards. “Thus, rather than decreasing the number of cases of unethical behaviour, by declaring behaviour unethical which was formerly in accordance with the rules, the absolute number of scandals and cases of unethical behaviour increases, thus creating the appearance of public officials becoming more unethical. In reality,

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95 Behncke, Ethics as Apple Pie, op. cit., p. 3.
however, higher ethical standards lead to an overall more ethical public service.”96

However, from a political point of view, it is difficult to be against new initiatives and new rules in the field. Regulating ethics policies is popular. Consequently, being against more rules and standards is risky – from a political point of view. On the other hand, ethics policies are becoming increasingly politicised. Ethics is slowly emerging as a perfect policy field in electoral campaigns. Politicians can be sure that calls for new initiatives will be applauded by the citizenry because these calls reflect a widespread perception in European societies that levels of corruption and conflicts of interest are increasing, and that something must be done. From the point of view of a Holder of Public Office (and even more of a legislator or a Minister), it would not just be detrimental to be against new or even higher ethical standards. In fact, the call for higher ethical standards and tighter rules of ethics are more and more becoming the subject of election campaigns in many countries.

The downside of this development is that it becomes more difficult to avoid that ethics – as a policy issue – is abused as a moral stigmatisation. More and more politicians use “accusations of unethical conduct as a political weapon...”97 Rules of ethics, in particular, are resources that politicians mobilise to attack and to discredit their opponents. Consequently, ethics are increasingly used as a moral instrument with the aim of denouncing political opponents.

2.3 Ethics rules as effective instruments in the fight against corruption

Rules of ethics are only one instrument in the fight against corruption, fraud and conflicts of interest. The reasons for corruption, fraud, etc., are too complex and there are too many variables that cause corruption which cannot be discussed here. However, the results of our study show that many new EU Member States have introduced very detailed and strict rules in the field of conflicts of interest. Often, these countries are also those with a high degree of perceived corruption and fraud. The adoption of new and stricter measures in these countries is also a reaction to important real life concerns and problems; thus, these rules are introduced with the best intentions. A different question is whether these countries have the necessary

96 Behncke, Ethics as Apple Pie, op. cit., p. 8.
capacities and skills to implement, manage, monitor and enforce the rules which they have adopted properly.

Clearly, the existence of strict rules and standards is no guarantee of an ethical government. In some of the new Member States, in particular, it seems that one of the objectives of the introduction of strict and detailed rules (covering all categories of Holders of Public Office) was prophylactically to prohibit HPOs “from entering into an ever-increasing number of specified, factually ascertainable sets of circumstances because they might lead to inner conflict.”\(^\text{98}\) Another objective was, clearly, to satisfy the requirements of EU membership. The situation in some of the new Member States is in interesting contrast with the situation in most Scandinavian countries, which have much fewer rules and standards in place, but which, at the same time, have relatively low levels of corruption and bribery.

In our study, our calculations on regulation density address the relationship between the level of corruption and the level of regulation. They support the hypothesis that more regulations do not lead to less corruption. Instead, it seems that more regulation is not required in those situations or countries where high levels of public trust exist.

**Figure 10: Comparing CPI score and regulation density**\(^\text{99}\)

\(^{98}\) Stark, Conflict of Interest, op. cit., p. 264.

\(^{99}\) CPI score refers to Transparency International’s Corruption Perceptions Index that was published in 2006. The following categorisation is used: low CPI score refers to scores below 5, medium CPI score refers to scores from 5 to 7.5 and high CPI score refers to scores above 7.5.
This short analysis allows us to draw two conclusions:

- First, there is no automatic link between strict rules and a low degree of corruption (and conflicts of interest). A low degree of regulation density may also be perfectly compatible with a low number of conflicts of interest.
- Second, this is not to say that countries with a high level of corruption and conflicts of interest should have fewer rules in place.

This comparison shows that tough and strict rules are not a necessary condition for low levels of conflicts of interest. Moreover, too many ethics measures can damage the public interest instead of enhancing it. This is the case if the introduction of more rules supports the perception that these rules were introduced because of the existing high level of corruption and conflicts of interest. The problem is that subjective perceptions of increasing levels of conflicts of interest “risk reflecting citizens’ general predispositions towards government, rather than actual experienced corruption”.

2.4 Ethics rules and the regulatory quality

Particularly highly regulated countries and institutions face the challenge of the poor quality of the rules, overlapping rules and the low level of awareness of the existing rules and standards (which are, for the most part, not codified into one document, but fragmented over several documents).

Because of the tendency to regulate an ever-increasing number of issues and situations, in the United States, one evaluation report of the Office of Government Ethics (2006) points out: “The Government’s and the public’s interests in public financial disclosure, however, must be balanced against the privacy interests of, and burden on, filers. Considering these sometimes competing interests, we have concluded that the current public financial disclosure system requires reporting more information than is useful or necessary to achieve its fundamental goals of preventing conflicts of interest and maintaining the public’s confidence in Government. It is not the general subject of the information requested, but rather the level of detail required, that is burdensome and overly intrusive.”

Consequently, the Office of Government Ethics suggests “improving
the public financial disclosure reporting requirements by: (1) raising certain monetary reporting thresholds; (2) reducing the number of valuation categories prescribed for assets, income, transactions, and liabilities; (3) shortening certain reporting time-periods; and (4) eliminating the requirement to report information that is unnecessary for conflicts analyses”.

The present trend towards more regulation of ethical rules in the United States also shows that highly regulated ethics regimes are not necessarily more effective and/or efficient than other less regulated regimes. However, the present trend towards more regulation, as well as the increasing criticism against too many rules is still very much a US and Canadian phenomenon. Most US and Canada administrations and legislators increasingly criticise the potential negative impact of too severe rules and requirements in registers and stringent post-employment rules that have negative impact on individual careers, the attractiveness of top positions in government, and recruitment and retention policies. As the Canadian Ethics Commissioner mentioned in his Annual Report (2005): “A pitfall of this approach is that a requirement to provide a more detailed public disclosure of assets, holdings and corporate interests may deter well-qualified and experienced persons from seeking or accepting public office because of legitimate privacy concerns.” Another US study in the National Institute of Health came to the conclusion that strict obligations as to the duty to divest financial interests and prohibitions as to outside activities had a negative impact on the ability of the different agencies to recruit and retain staff. Many employees were also of the opinion that it would better simply to enforce the rules better rather than strengthening the rules. More than 50% of employees felt that these rules had a negative impact.

These examples in the US (and partly in Canada) suggest that European administration may learn from these experiences and thus avoid too many rules, too much bureaucracy and too burdensome reporting requirements, etc. As Figure 10 indicates, there is even a negative correlation (-0.427) between regulation density and the CPI score.

Because too many rules and standards may either be in conflict with other rights, unworkable, counter-productive in practice, or may create impediments to bringing experienced people into public office, the OECD has also started to warn that too strict approaches, and excessive prohibitions and restrictions have negative effects. Thus, a modern conflicts of

102 Ibid.
103 B. Shapiro, Ethics Commissioner, Office of the Ethics Commissioner, Issues and Challenges, October 2005.
interest policy should strike a balance between the need to regulate CoI issues and the guaranteeing of both individual and organisational freedom and flexibility.\textsuperscript{105}

2.5 Ethics rules, disclosure policies and effectiveness

By 1996, Anechiarico and Jabobs had already found that, despite “the millions of dollars spent on setting up the financial disclosure apparatus in New York City, only three public officials have ever been caught for intentional violations! The ritual performance of filling out disclosure forms on an annual basis has become a symbolic act...Of more than 12,000 forms filled in 1994, only 1,000 were reviewed for conflicts of interest.”\textsuperscript{106}

From a more practical issue, the working time needed in the USA to fill in the financial disclosure forms correctly is increasing everywhere (not counting the time needed to check them and to propose and enforce measures to prevent conflicts of interest). Meanwhile, even professional ethics advisors in the United States (OGE and other Ethics Committees) are critical with regard to the usefulness of extended financial disclosure requirements. As Mackenzie shows, the immense quantity of publicly available data on financial interests is abused by the rainbow press. Such a use of the register information, however, is not very helpful for the image of the public service or for the whole political system.\textsuperscript{107}

Evidence in the United States shows that HPOs “who have been caught violating only disclosure rules rarely suffer any serious sanctions from their colleagues, let alone from the voters. In the period of some of the most active committee activity (1977-1992), only three of the sixteen cases involving disclosure violations considered by the committees involved no other charges. Of the seven cases in which a committee decided to impose a sanction, only one did not involve other charges. Only two of those sanctioned were defeated when standing for re-election. Another deficiency of disclosure is that it does not cover some conduct issues that raise serious ethical questions at all. It cannot satisfy legitimate concerns about the jobs that members take \textit{after} they leave office, the province of post-employment rules. Disclosure here simply comes too late. For some other types of misconduct, such as conflicts of interest violations, disclosure reveals too little. These violations often come to light only after careful investigation of com-

\textsuperscript{105} OECD, Managing Conflicts of Interest, 31 March 2006, op. cit., p. 8.
\textsuperscript{106} Anecharico/Jacobs, The Pursuit of Absolute Integrity, op. cit., p. 55.
\textsuperscript{107} Mackenzie, Scandal Proof, op. cit., especially, pp. 87-149.
plex financial relationships. Neither the voters nor the press are usually in a position to conduct such investigations.

What is disclosed is generally not used effectively. Stories relating to the financial resources of members are rarely presented in a way that would help voters to make balanced judgements about the ethics of members. The press is often most interested in who the wealthiest members are, how much their spouses earn, or who takes the most expensive trips paid by corporations.108

Experience in the USA and in Canada shows that the EU institutions (and of course, the Member States) should be prudent in copying other institutional models. At present, only a few European countries (for example, the United Kingdom, Ireland, Romania, Poland, Bulgaria, etc.) have disclosure requirements that can be compared to those in the United States.

Thus, even if disclosure policies are important, they mostly reveal conflicts of interest without providing any guidance for resolving them. In order to offer possible suggestions, one option could be the one proposed by Thompson: “Independent ethics committees could regularly review the financial activity of members, identify potential problems, and recommend measures to correct them. They would publicise information only if members failed to correct the problems. Committees could ask for much more information than is now disclosed, but most members would have to make much less public. As always, leaks would be a risk, but both ethics committees have unusually good records in protecting confidential information. Furthermore, the information could be targeted more specifically to the problems that particular members may have. More relevant than the range of amounts of members’ holdings is their history of relationships and patterns of investments.”109

2.6 Ethics rules and costs of a professional ethics regime

Even if new ethics rules and standards have brought the expected results, any analysis must also include the potential costs of the introduction of new ethics policies. What are the financial, organisational and personnel costs of regulations, standard-setting, management, monitoring and training? The costs of monitoring the behaviour of holders of public officials also have to be mentioned. In the USA and in Canada, almost every state has special ethics committees and monitoring bodies at its disposal. Menzel estimates

108 Thompson, Overcoming Conflicts of Interest in Congressional Ethics, op. cit., p. 6.
109 Thompson, Overcoming Conflicts of Interest in Congressional Ethics, op. cit., p.7.
that “nearly 15,000 full and part-time ethics officials can be found in the federal executive branch.”\textsuperscript{110} In 2004, the City of Los Angeles alone had an Ethics Management Programme with a budget of over two million dollars and 24 employees.\textsuperscript{111}

In Canada, the Office of the Ethics Commissioner has 34 employees and a budget of 5,026,000.00 Canadian dollars for the year 2006-2007. In the USA, “not only have the ethics handbooks of the three central ethics coordination bodies, the ethics committees of House and Senate and the Office of Government Ethics, steadily grown thicker over the years, incorporating ever more regulations, exceptions and illustrations as to how to interpret the rules in practice; the costs have increased also in terms of the personnel which is needed to interpret ethics rules, to train public officials in ethical behaviour and to execute ethics regulations”.\textsuperscript{112} In the Office of Government Ethics, “the task alone of collecting and checking the yearly financial disclosure forms consumes the whole workforce of several persons”.\textsuperscript{113} In his cost-benefit analysis of the US ethics system, Mackenzie comes to the conclusion that the total costs amount to millions of dollars. In comparison, the Ethics Committee in Ireland has a budget of less than 1 million euros (2005). The cost estimate of the (proposed) Ad Hoc Committee for the European Commission was estimated at 2,100 euros per year (2003). However, the tasks of the Ad Hoc Ethics Committee cannot be compared to the US and Canadian examples. However, these examples show that building up professional ethics bodies cannot be done without the parallel allocation of a (considerable) budget.

In the light of the above-mentioned figures, it is at least questionable as to whether all the Member States of the EU would be ready to follow the US or Canadian examples. Moreover, it is at least doubtful as to whether some of the (mostly new) Member States (which have reformed their regulatory systems and adopted detailed ethical rules, standards and highly-sophisticated disclosure requirements) were aware of the cost implications for the implementation, monitoring and enforcement requirements of these rules. Clearly, the adoption of more detailed rules and standards alone does not suffice. Instead, in all cases, they must also be accompanied by the introduction of additional monitoring, educational and control mechanisms. Rules and standards without capacity-building mechanisms and “awareness” are rather useless. As we have already seen, this logic applies – albeit

\textsuperscript{110} Menzel, Ethics Management, op. cit., p. 15.
\textsuperscript{111} Menzel, Ethics Management, op. cit., p. 88.
\textsuperscript{112} Behncke, Ethics as Apple Pies, op. cit.
\textsuperscript{113} Mackenzie, Scandal Proove, op. cit., p. 206 (pp. 116ff.)
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to a different degree – to all Member States. Clearly, too little is being done in the field of training for HPOs.

2.7 Ethics rules and the limits of transparency requirements

More transparency, openness, accountability, new ethical rules and access to government-held information, as well as more effective declaration of interests by HPOs, are widely applauded as remedies for public and individual deficiencies. The theory of public financial disclosure, in particular, is rooted in US post-Watergate concepts of “Government in the Sunshine,” which aims to increase public confidence in the integrity of HPOs. However, in reality, “these policies are often more preached than practised, more often invoked than defined, and indeed might ironically be said to be mystic in essence, at least to some extent”.114

Especially in the field of conflicts of interest, requirements for more transparency and declarations of information, etc., are supposed to discipline institutions and office holders, thus making information about their potential conflicts of interest public. In this way, transparency, in particular, is positively related to ethical behaviour, because public exposure is presumed to act as a stimulus: the more the public knows about HPOs, the better they behave. Transparency and openness requirements are also popular since they are widely supposed to make institutions and their office holders both more trustworthy and more trusted. In addition, more reporting requirements about conflicts of interest should contribute positively to public trust. Thus, many experts in the field propose that HPOs should be required to disclose more personal information.

However, these suggestions are not without difficulties. For example, public disclosure requires effective management systems and may produce (depending on how strict the requirements are and how many HPOs are required to make detailed reports) huge quantities of information. Another question is whether this information – which is offered for public scrutiny – is of interest and understandable for the wider public. So far, experience suggests that this is not the case. For example, in Canada, “there’s surprisingly a great interest in having a public registry but there seems to be very little interest in reading it”.115 This also true of the USA: “This has become one of the great empty rituals in all American life. Almost no one looks at any of these reports.”116

Another challenge is that financial disclosure and public registers can easily be politically abused because of “the high degree of partisanship that occurs on a given issue.” Political parties seem to use the instrument of public disclosure for their own political purposes. Similarly, there are many ways in which declarations and registers can be abused for populist (media) purposes. On a more personal level, financial reporting can also provoke jealousy over income, activities and unequal rewards. Thus, despite all positive intentions, the reporting requirement does not just have the intended effect. Instead, it also has a number of unintentional, negative effects.

It remains to be seen as to whether this trend towards more transparency requirements and reporting obligations will continue. In the US, in particular, claims for more freedom of information, transparency, and rules on ethics and conflicts of interest have increased. However, especially since 11 September 2001, claims for other rights built on confidentiality, secrecy and the restriction of the right to privacy have also become more prominent. It is still an open question as to how the past trend towards more openness and transparency will be combined with new trends which call for more control, tighter management of information, better individual performance monitoring, and restrictions of human rights, etc.

2.8 Ethics rules and the need for training of HPOs

If the number of CoI rules and standards increase, HPOs must be made aware of the rules adopted. While adopting new rules and standards is a key element to any successful ethics regime, Holders of Public Office also need to be educated with regard to those rules. Training is an important instrument in any strategy to increase awareness of the existence of rules and standards. However, “one-stop training” will not be enough, either. The effective implementation of a conflicts of interest policy will require the ongoing education of all HPOs. Clearly, one important challenge is to convince ministers, legislators, judges and directors to take the necessary time and to participate in training courses. Another challenge will be to convince HPOs of the need for training. The findings in this study show that training on conflicts of interest for HPOs is very much underdeveloped. Many Member States do far too little in order to make HPOs sufficiently aware of the existence of these rules. In total, only 27% of all HPOs receive training.

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While training – as such – is underdeveloped, some institutions offer training courses for their HPOs. However, the figures differ among the different institutions. According to the answers from the Member States, most training programmes are offered for the Members of Court of Auditors. Only a few Central Banks and Parliaments offer training for their HPOs. In the United Kingdom, the Government offers training courses for Holders of Public Office. From our analysis, we draw a clear conclusion that conflicts of interest training programmes should be offered for every institution and for every category of HPO. Training programmes and teaching courses can increase awareness and give realistic and practical descriptions of the circumstances and relationships that can lead to conflicts of interest. This is particularly important for HPOs in both the Government and the Parliament who face rapidly-changing new developments and many different ethical dilemmas. In addition, most HPOs in Government and Parliament face many delicate situations in different dossiers and situations such as subsidy policies, private-public partnerships, privatisation issues, de-regulation programmes, relations with non-government organisations, the interchange and the personal contact with lobbyists, voters, political parties, the media, etc.; in all these cases, potential conflicts of interest are not far away.

In this study, we could also find evidence that countries who have introduced codes also provide more training than those countries and/or institutions that regulate CoI exclusively by laws. These findings are important because they imply that codes are important as a regulatory instrument: if the Member States and the different institutions decide to adopt codes of ethics, it is also more likely that training will be offered.

Ideally, an HPO should not only be trained in ethics, but also have (at any time) access to organisational support, guidelines, advice and other information that will help him/her to identify and disclose a conflict of

Table 22: Training programmes by code of ethics/conduct
(Frequencies in parenthesis)\textsuperscript{a}

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Training programmes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Code of Ethics/Conduct</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>86% (30)</td>
<td>14% (5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>69% (50)</td>
<td>31% (22)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>75% (80)</td>
<td>25% (27)</td>
<td>100% (107)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\textsuperscript{a} The number of total cases in each category does not correspond to 27 since missing cases are excluded.
interest. In addition, those who attend training days should not just be those who are interested in these subjects, anyway, (or those who are involved in ethics management issues).

Getting advice on dealing with CoI is also important: In the Member States, the task of providing advice is mainly delegated to ethics committees. For example, in Ireland, the Ethics Commission is explicitly charged with providing advice to members (and may also maintain a high degree of confidentiality). The United States’ House Committee on Standards of Official Conduct similarly emphasises education and counselling. Indeed, an important part of the Committee’s work “is responding to questions from, and providing advice to, House Members and staff regarding the laws, rules and standards that govern their official conduct. Committee staff are available to provide informal advice over the telephone, by e-mail, or in person, and the Committee will provide a formal written opinion in response to a proper written inquiry.” The Committee also distributes a lengthy *House Ethics Manual* to assist Members with interpreting the rules. Another example is Article 7 of the Code of the European Central Bank, which provides advice on ethical matters to the members of the ECB Council.

These few cases document why ethics committees are important. They should not just control and monitor CoI. Instead, they should also support and help HPOs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Positive effects of rules and standards</th>
<th>Negative effects or unintentional side-effects of rules and standards</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Strict rules have a deterrent effect. They give clear signals with regard to what is not allowed;</td>
<td>1. More rules do not enhance public trust. On the contrary, they may contribute to decreasing levels of public trust;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Citizens have higher expectations. Therefore, stricter rules and standards are necessary;</td>
<td>2. There is no evidence that more rules reduce conflicts of interest and corruption;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. The public and the media do not tolerate any form of self-regulation of HPOs anymore. Therefore, external forms of control will increase the credibility and accountability of HPOs;</td>
<td>3. For the most part, ethics rules are poorly designed, largely because they often represent hasty responses to scandals;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Stricter rules limit the possibility of HPOs allowing private interests to be in conflict with public duties;</td>
<td>4. Too strict rules violate legislators’ privacy;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Regulating Conflicts of Interest for Holders of Public Office

3. ARE CONFLICTS OF INTEREST INCREASING?

One important development in the field of ethics is the growing importance of international organisations and NGOs. In particular, international organisations such as the OECD and the World Bank claim that conflicts of interest are increasing and consequently that levels of public trust are decreasing.

There is insufficient time and space to discuss all these developments here. However, claims that conflicts of interest are increasing (and levels of public trust are decreasing) are difficult to prove with hard facts. Instead,
the findings of this study suggest that:

a) Often, general calls for more rules are not always the best solution. For example, it may well be that while post-employment conflicts are on the rise, gift-taking and nepotism are decreasing. Simply asking for more rules would be an ineffective way of managing these issues.

b) Today, it is increasingly popular to link the discussions on conflicts of interest with those about the development of public trust. Many people believe that more rules and standards bring higher levels of public trust. However, in reality, the concept of public trust is very complex. For example, while many observers believe that levels of public trust are constantly decreasing, in reality levels of public trust vary from country to country and from institution to institution. Levels of public trust also fluctuate. For example, Bovens and Wille discuss ten different factors that have an impact on the level of public trust (performance of the public sector, general perceptions of the government, the economic situation, scandals and dramas, media reporting, change of political culture, changing expectations, emergence of a new generation with different values, and the changing role of middle class). Bovens and Wille come to the conclusion that the perception of the policies of the government has the strongest impact on the sudden changes of public trust.

Not long ago, politicians and other HPOs were not suspected of having conflicts of interest when exercising additional honorary positions. Today, almost all ancillary activities are seen as sources of potential conflicts of interest. This can be interpreted in positive, but also in more critical, ways. For example, strict regulations for HPOs can be justified with the importance of their position and the impact of the decisions they take on the society in general. The difficulty is that it is important to distinguish between ethical requirements and moral requirements. The higher the ethical requirements for legislators and ministers, the more likely it is that “ethics” will be abused for political reasons or – also – by the media. Throughout the last years, ethical issues, in particular, have also become a political instrument. Ethics are also increasingly linked with moral arguments. Despite the fact that rules which regulate conflicts of interest should not involve moral judgments on the ethics of HPOs, laws are also becoming a “moral measurement” and both people and the media “place stigma” on HPOs who vio-

late ethics codes. According to Stark, the “problem with conflict of interest law is that it has become a mortal stigmatisation when, in reality, it is just law.”

Consequently, positive intentions can easily turn into unintentional and paradoxical effects. Thus, a better balance is needed between effective rules and standards, and the need to avoid too much scrutiny and suspicion. It is true that HPOs have an important public mission. At the same time, they are “watched”, controlled, monitored and distrusted as never before.

Thus, the danger is that ever more rules, tougher disclosure requirements, stricter monitoring structures, and additional transparency requirements will reveal more violations of rules and standards. However, this development produces the opposite of what rule-makers intend to achieve: public trust is decreasing because the citizens have the perception that their Holders of Public Office are less ethical than they were before. Ultimately, the price to be paid for the introduction of more rules and standards can also be ever more public disappointment.

Despite the growing amount of literature, studies and policy recommendations, there is still no common understanding as regards the development of conflicts of interest. The difficulties cannot only be found in the difficulties in detecting conflicts of interest. Today, the existence of more rules in the field of conflicts of interest also brings the possibility of more violations of the rules. However, an increasing number of violations is not an indicator that conflicts of interest are increasing as such. Only decades ago, fewer violations were detected simply because fewer rules were in place. However, it could well be that conflicts of interest were more numerous than today.

Demmke suggests that the dynamics, contradictions and unintentional side-effects of governmental reform processes produce neither less nor more ethical challenges. Instead, new reform initiatives and changing concepts of governance always create new forms of unethical behaviour, conflicts of interest and new ethical challenges. At the same time, new rules and standards, growing awareness and new policies also have a positive impact with regard to the effectiveness of measures. Consequently, certain ethical challenges may also be reduced, decrease or even disappear. This observation is comparable to those by Thompson in the United States, who observes that “[e]thics in Congress deserves greater attention not because

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121 Ibid.
members are more corrupt (they are not), not because citizens are more dis-
trustful (they are), but because the institution itself continually poses new
ethical challenges. The complexity of the institutional environment in
which Members of Congress work invites more calls for accountability and
creates new occasions for corruption. As the circumstances of potential cor-
ruption change, so too must the institutions of actual enforcement.”

This study will not be able to give a reliable picture with regard to the
development of conflicts of interest. In fact, there seems to be more evi-
dence for the argument that, while some forms of unethical behaviour
decrease, others are rather stable and others increase. Moreover, different
forms of conflicts of interest may increase and decrease at the same time.
Thus, new rules and standards may be important in new emerging areas of
conflicts of interest. However, rules and standards in different fields may
also have a different impact: “– financial disclosure will impact one way
and gift restrictions will impact in a very different manner. If that is the
case, each measure has to be considered on its own...”

Are Conflicts of Interest increasing – or not?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Field/Sector</th>
<th>Increase/Decrease?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>General values, standards and principles</strong> Acceptance of laws, standards, principles and values.</td>
<td>Values are changing, overall no loss of values; Generally higher expectations as to ethical behaviour; More awareness of rules and standards, Generally high level of distrust of HOPs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Corruption</strong>&lt;br&gt;Bribery</td>
<td>Overall, little evidence about developments, Indexes on Bribery and Corruption (Transparency International) Generally no evidence on increasing levels of corruption and fraud.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| **Nepotism**                      | Little evidence, more awareness for negative conse-
sequences due to recent scandals (e.g. in the World Bank). Because of more awareness decreasing rather than increasing. |
| **Fraud and Theft**<br>Abuse of organisational re-
resources.                        | More possibilities to abuse internal and org. resources for own benefit. Especially as regards the abuse of information technologies for own purposes. |

Regulating Conflicts of Interest for Holders of Public Office

The development of the different forms of unethical behaviour and conflict suggest that reforms should concentrate on some issues more than on others, and regulate CoI – according to the issue at stake – with a different mixture of instruments. While in some cases strict and new rules make sense, in others soft instruments and awareness increasing may be more effective. Thus, it becomes of primary interest to find answers to the question of which instruments are best designed to fight the different forms of unethical behaviour. Can some of these problems be better confronted with more and stronger rules? With codes? More transparency? More training? Or alternatively, could these objectives also be better achieved with fewer standards and fewer requirements? As necessary as these discussions are, the focus of the CoI discourse discussion is still about the effectiveness and the pros and cons of (more) rules and standards in the field. Supporters and opponents of the different camps can roughly be divided into those who a) claim that more and better rules are needed, and b) those who believe that new rules and regulatory regimes may impact negatively and have contradictory effects. In the following, we will present the arguments of both sides.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Field/Sector</th>
<th>Increase/Decrease?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Violation of general principles such as confidentiality, serving the public interest, loyalty, etc.</td>
<td>Generally no evidence about increasing levels of CoI; More rules and standards lead to more violations? Higher requirements as to declarations of interests.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>conflicts of interest – involvement in post employment activities that potentially conflict with duties</td>
<td>Possibly increasing levels of CoI due to more contact with private sector, more mobility, etc.; however, also more rules and standards.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Involvement in professional activities, secondary activities, memberships that potentially conflict with duties</td>
<td>Possibly increasing during to more contacts with lobbyists. However, secondary activities, memberships, honorary activities not seen as posing CoI for a long time. Thus, new CoI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abuse of position, information, insider dealings</td>
<td>No evidence, possibly increasing levels because of more contacts between private- and public sector. Also more regulated.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gift taking and taking of benefits</td>
<td>Possibly decreasing due to more awareness of strict rules.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The development of the different forms of unethical behaviour and conflict suggest that reforms should concentrate on some issues more than on others, and regulate CoI – according to the issue at stake – with a different mixture of instruments. While in some cases strict and new rules make sense, in others soft instruments and awareness increasing may be more effective. Thus, it becomes of primary interest to find answers to the question of which instruments are best designed to fight the different forms of unethical behaviour. Can some of these problems be better confronted with more and stronger rules? With codes? More transparency? More training? Or alternatively, could these objectives also be better achieved with fewer standards and fewer requirements? As necessary as these discussions are, the focus of the CoI discourse discussion is still about the effectiveness and the pros and cons of (more) rules and standards in the field. Supporters and opponents of the different camps can roughly be divided into those who a) claim that more and better rules are needed, and b) those who believe that new rules and regulatory regimes may impact negatively and have contradictory effects. In the following, we will present the arguments of both sides.
VIII. Codes of Ethics in the Member States and the EU Institutions – Best Practices for the EU Institutions?

1. INTRODUCTION

Since the main objective of this study is to compare and to analyse the existing rules and standards in the field of conflicts of interest, we will refrain from discussing theoretical concepts in more depth. However, throughout the work on this study, we realised that the field of comparative conflicts of interest still lacks a credible comparative theory.125 This means there is also a lack of knowledge regarding the best practices and the identification of clear criteria for effective model codes and CoI regimes. For example, many experts believe that conflicts of interest reforms are scandal-driven processes. On the other hand, the theory of path-dependency (which is very much linked to identifying the importance of national traditions and national cultures) could also be very useful in the field of conflicts of interest. In their comparative study, Saint-Martin and Thompson show that scandal-driven theories encounter difficulties when they have to account for the differences between the USA and Great Britain.126 On the other hand, the path-dependency theory would offer important explanations with regard to the existing differences between the US and the UK model. However, it is difficult to explain why Roman law countries which have a long legalistic tradition not only have less formal and less written norms on CoI than the US, but also have less rules and standards than the UK.

Traditionally, countries with a Roman law tradition have regulated the status and conditions of civil servants with much greater precision than countries with a Common law tradition. It is especially in countries such as France, Germany, and Spain, etc., that ethics and corruption have been regulated with great precision both in their constitutions and by many pieces of different (and often fragmented) legislation. Consequently, soft-law

125 Ari Salminen, etc.
approaches were seen as a (less important) complement to the existing hard-law approaches. Although codes of ethics have existed for a long time in countries such as France, Spain, and Germany, they “rarely seem to have been seen by civil service managers or by civil servants themselves as real ethical guides.”

In these countries, administrative conduct was mainly based upon the strong public service ethos of acting in the public interest and fulfilling one’s duties. Often, top public servants had a strong legal education and were not as mobile as their counterparts in the United States. Thus, conflicts of interest were seen as being sufficiently regulated. In addition, the strong public service ethos and the bureaucratic features of the public service systems (career systems) contributed to the position that held that additional soft-instruments were not necessary. This can also be seen in our study. While some Member States regulate the field of ethics for the holders of public office almost exclusively by the way of codes (for example, the United Kingdom, the Netherlands) the traditional career systems Member States (France, Germany, etc.) use the instrument of a code only as a supplement to the already existing (and highly detailed) legal instruments. For example, given the “volume of legislation already on the statute books, and the detail in which it existed, it is certainly difficult to see what would have been added by a code of conduct”, for French legislators. Thus, in the French context, nobody believes that a code would add anything.

The situation is very different in the Common Law countries (but also in countries such as the Netherlands). In the UK, “…very few words have ever been put into hard law regarding either ethical behaviour, or the role and status of civil servants. This is not to say that their role and status is unclear... but this does not depend on formal law.” Because of this, the so-called soft-law approaches have a greater importance in the UK than in many other countries. Consequently, our study also confirms that the UK manages the field of conflicts of interest almost entirely by the way of codes. Thus, informal institutions and procedures, such as ethics committees, can also be found in the UK, but are still quite unpopular in other countries.

Interestingly, traditional Roman law countries have also started with important ethics reforms within the last years. Today, changing values, more mobility, public-private partnerships, more contacts between the

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128 Hine, Ibid.
129 Hine, Ibid.
public and private sector, the greater flexibility of career systems, the introduction of new public management instruments, etc., have had a tremendous impact on approaches to ethics. In traditional career systems, too, the public service ethos and administrative conduct is increasingly based upon managerial thinking, performance, motivation and individual responsibility. Today, no one foregoes providing performance incentives, because the public servant ethic and duty ethic represent a performance ethic that is not only based upon values, but also upon material performance incentives. Changing values, decentralisation and individualisation processes all force the Roman law countries to adopt more soft-law approaches and to offer more individual guidance and training.

These few examples show that, in order to understand the specific models, the different codes of ethics, the instruments of ethics and ethic typologies, the different models should always be analysed within their own institutional “history”. However, even theories such as scandal-driven theories, path-dependence theories, modernisation theories, etc., cannot sufficiently explain not only the many differences that exist, but also the many overlapping reforms and innovations that span very different traditions and cultures. Consequently, identifying role models and best practices remains a huge challenge.

2. THE DIVERSITY OF CODES

Professional codes of conduct have existed since antiquity. In particular, when applied to the professions – doctors, lawyers and public servants – they have always been an important expression of values, ethical standards and principles. One important common feature of almost all codes is their overall purpose: codes should guide behaviour. However, it is not clear how or, indeed, whether they actually fulfil this objective. For example, codes may be only useful for the people who want guidance because they want to act ethically. If a Holder of Public Office wants to act unethically, it is very unlikely that a code will stand in his or her way. “If the moral reward of doing the right thing is not sufficient to stop someone acting corruptly, why would the existence of a code do so?.... One answer might be that in reality few individuals have no moral sense, but many have underdeveloped ones.”130 Consequently, codes should have an educational effect. “However, once written down, significant problems arise.” For example, codes without an effective institutional implementation strategy and without sup-

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130 Hine, Codes of Conduct, in: Saint-Martin/Thompson, op. cit., p. 45.
port from the top are likely to be relatively useless. The same is true if no enforcement and no sanctions for misconduct exist. According to Gilman, “[…]successful codes rely on an environment ready to nurture them”.

Our study shows that no country regulates ethics exclusively by laws, regulations and procedural norms. Especially in the field of ethical misconduct, it seems to be inadequate to regulate ethical behaviour exclusively by legislation and by administrative and criminal law. Instead, the notion of political and public-sector values requires softer instruments, too, such as codes. “Structural developments…put a new emphasis on soft ethics measures such as training and information in contrast to rules and sanctions.”

Despite this, codes of ethics are still mainly used as an instrument to supplement other legal instruments. The situation is only different in the National Banks, which use codes more widely than the other EU institutions.

Examples of the existence of many different codes can be found on the webpage of the OECD, which has set up an “Observatory on Ethics Codes and Codes of Conduct in OECD Countries”. The different examples represent different cultures and regulatory traditions.

Our analysis shows that many codes regulate general ethical principles. However, they are used much less to regulate post-employment issues and declarations of financial interests. In these fields, laws are still the predominantly used. In addition, codes are very widely used for a number of CoI issues. However, they are mainly used as a complementary instrument.

Other differences are evident: for example, the Code of Conduct for judges in the United States is very different (and more detailed) from many other codes for judges belonging to the EU Member States. The same could be said for the British “Ministerial Code”, which is a 48-page “Code of Ethics and Procedural Guidance for Ministers”. This code is very different from many other codes for Holders of Public Office at governmental level. To make things even more complicated, there are countries with relatively simple codes – for example, the British “Code of the Committee for Standards in Public Life” – and very complex codes – for example, the codes of the US Office of Government Ethics. With regard to the British code, the approach is based mainly upon values to guide behaviour, while the US

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132 N. Behncke (Strohm), Why Germany does not (yet?) have a Nolan Committee?, in: Polis, Nr. 53/2001, University of Hagen, p. 26.

133 http://www.oecd.org/document/12/0,3343,en_2649_201185_35532108_1_1_1_1,00.html (last time checked on 11 July 2007).
codes are more compliance oriented. The different codes for the EU institutions are also very different (see Chapter IV, Section 3).

The objectives and functions of codes also differ widely. “Every profession faces the difficult task of trying to maintain a balance between fulfilling its functions for its members and for the larger community. This difficulty is reflected in codes of ethics, which are intended to appeal to many interests such as, for example, the general public, the media, clients, the profession’s members, other professions, and government. These interests will, on occasion, overlap, while, at other times, they will diverge. It is not surprising, therefore, that a code of professional ethics which, after all, defines a profession’s relationship to these various interests, reflects this reality.”

Overall, the current deployment of codes of conduct for the different institutions follows a fragmented approach and is inconsistent. This is particularly true “in terms of institutional clarity, however, it is important to understand what different political systems mean when they use the term ‘codes of conduct’.” “A code may be a statement of the quasi-constitutional status of the relevant reference group....It may be a very general statement of the ethical climate in which the public service should operate. It may be a guide to more detailed ethical behaviour applying to the whole of the public service or to particular categories....Or it may contain general statements of what the public can expect....”

Codes for the different categories of office holders are also subject to some considerable variations. In fact, the public institutions analysed in this study use codes for many different purposes. In addition, the different codes vary as to their legal and political effects. Furthermore, with regard to the term “code”, many countries differentiate between code of ethics, code of conduct, and code of rules and regulations.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>code of ethics</th>
<th>code of conduct</th>
<th>code of rules and regulations</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>abstract principles (value statement)</td>
<td>aspirational values and expectation values, moderately abstract to moderately concrete</td>
<td>concrete behavioural expectations and disciplinary consequences (law)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

134 Frankel, Professional Codes, op. cit., p. 111.
137 Hine, Codes of Conduct, in: Saint-Martin/F. Thompson, op. cit., p. 5.
138 M. Van Wart, Codes of Ethics as Living Documents, in: Public Integrity, Vol. 5, No. 4, p. 331.
Generally, most codes can be divided into three types. While codes of ethics discuss general and abstract principles of behaviour, codes of rules and regulations set more concrete behavioural expectations. These codes may also have disciplinary consequences in the case of non-compliance. Codes of conduct fall between these two extremes: generally, they contain norms that set both aspirational values and expectation values. Thus, their level of abstractness varies from moderately abstract to moderately concrete. This distinction is a heuristic device, and, in practice, these terms are used in a more or less interchangeable way.

According to Frankel, “three types of codes of ethics can be identified. An aspirational code is a statement of ideals to which practitioners should strive. Instead of focusing on notions of right and wrong, the emphasis is on the fullest realisation of human achievement. Another type is an educational code, one which seeks to buttress understanding of its provisions with extensive commentary and interpretation. A conscious effort is made to demonstrate how the code can be helpful in dealing with ethical problems associated with professional practices. A third type is a regulatory code, which includes a set of detailed rules to govern professional conduct and to serve as a basis for adjudicating grievances. Such rules are presumed to be enforceable through a system of monitoring and the application of a range of sanctions. Although conceptually distinct, in reality, any single code of professional ethics may combine features of these three types. A decision about which type of code is appropriate for any single profession at a particular point in time will necessarily reflect a mixture of both pragmatic and normative considerations.”

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**Categories of Codes**

- Legally-binding or voluntary;
- Aspirational, compliance oriented or regulatory;
- Educational or public relations;
- Integrative ethics instrument or guideline;
- Combined with sanctions or without deterrent mechanisms;
- Detailed or general/short.

One of the main weaknesses of codes of conduct, however, is that, in most cases, they are characterised by weak enforcement mechanisms, compared to other instruments. This means that, on the one hand, they are very

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139 Frankel, Professional Codes, op. cit., pp. 110-111.
vulnerable to non-observance and violations, and, on the other, their successful implementation depends to a large extent on the existence of an environment of trust, and an ability to ensure organisational adherence to a code. In addition, the HPOs themselves must provide leadership and must actively support the codes as “living documents”.

Another significant factor to consider is consultation with all key stakeholders in the development phase, or, in a more general way, the involvement of all key persons in the drafting of such a code. A further prerequisite for an effective code of conduct is that its content is expressed in such a way that it can easily be understood and implemented by HPOs. This hurdle can be overcome by drafting a code which is clear, consistent, comprehensive, and which has a practical application. Consistency means that it harmonises with existing legislation and procedures, while clarity should aim to minimise ambiguity. However, the objective of more clarity is just as difficult to achieve as the requirement for less bureaucracy in the Member States, or better regulation at EU and national level.

A further significant factor for guaranteeing an effective functioning of codes relates to the implementation phase. Quite often, drafting and adopting codes of conduct is looked upon as being an end in itself. Once adopted, they are often forgotten and not implemented. However, this is only the first step, and in order to make the code a viable document and part of the organisational culture, training and the raising of the awareness of the content of the codes should be an ongoing task. Moreover, with regard to communicating the various codes, many administrations focus on the distribution via Internet and intranet. It is therefore unlikely that HPOs are regularly reminded of the existence of codes on a daily basis. One may also doubt whether these are the most effective channels of communication for this task.

The differences among the different codes, their functions, their political and their legal nature, and their meaning in different traditions and cultures suggests that it would be not wise to suggest any form of model code or best practices. From this, we conclude that it would be better not to recommend best practices and model codes. For example, Hine suggests that, while the best known and most popular codes for HPOs are probably the British, US and Canadian codes,¹⁴⁰ the German code “seems to get close to what we might think of as a model code of conduct. It is detailed, practical,

¹⁴⁰ For example, the British Ministerial code: A Code of Ethics and Procedural Guidance for Ministers, the Canadian Conflict of Interest and Post-Employment Code for Public Office Holders or the US-Standards of Ethical Conduct for Employees of the Executive Branch.
and apparently taken quite seriously by departments and individual civil servants alike."\textsuperscript{141} However, a totally different question is whether the German code would “fit” into other legal and administrative cultures. Clearly, national codes cannot be exported easily and do not have the same meaning, acceptance and purpose in other administrative cultures. We conclude from this that the issue of whether there is a case for introducing common codes across differing legal, administrative and institutional cultures “might be thought of as questionable.”\textsuperscript{142}

3. COMPLIANCE-BASED ETHICS REGIMES AND INTEGRITY-BASED ETHICS REGIMES – A USEFUL CONCEPT FOR THE EU?

If the discussion on common codes is questionable, what else could be recommended as good international practice? In the previous chapter, we discussed the difficulties involved in identifying model codes. In this chapter, we will go one step further and ask whether it might be possible – instead – to identify effective models of conflicts of interest. Thus, we will move away from a discussion of single codes to the discussion of broader concepts and approaches. As we will see, it is much easier to define model concepts than model codes.

In the international literature, a “classical distinction” proposed by the OECD in the mid-1990s serves as a widely-accepted model for the different approaches to ethics. According to this approach, the Member States may be classified according to:

a) compliance-based ethics regimes (law); and  
b) integrity-based ethics regimes (code of ethics)

For example, countries such as the United Kingdom and Germany differ widely with regard to their approaches to ethics. Germany has a highly-professionalised public service, and clear and detailed regulations against all instances of corrupt behaviour, such as bribery, fraud, corruption and conflicts of interest. “In Germany, to start with, the mere notion of ‘ethics’ is still quite unusual: instances of ethical or unethical behaviour are thought of rather in terms of ‘legal’ or ‘illegal’ behaviour. Ethics measures are mostly found to be laws proscribing certain types of behaviour, establishing control mechanisms and stating sanctions in case of violations. They are embedded in the tradition and strong systematic of the German legal sys-

\textsuperscript{141} Hine, Codes of Conduct, in: Saint-Martin/Thompson, op. cit., p. 66.  
\textsuperscript{142} Hine, Codes of Conduct, in: Saint-Martin/Thompson, op. cit., p. 66.
Regulating Conflicts of Interest for Holders of Public Office

tem. This means that usually they form paragraphs or articles of particular law books such as the criminal law or the public service law. Consequently, they can be changed or adapted only through a formal process of legislation passed by Parliament. The rules are stated in a very parsimonious manner, expressing nothing more than the dry judicial facts. This prevalent type of ethics measures is called by the OECD Compliance-based ethics management (OECD, 2000, 25). The OECD calls this the “low road” approach: setting minimum standards beyond which behaviour should not fall. The emphasis is on policing actions and catching wrongdoings, thus reinforcing the tendency to manage by rules because they provide a base-line for identifying error.

While the compliance-based approach is more based upon rules and enforcement, the integrity-based approach focuses on soft-instruments and codes. The elements of an “integrity-based ethics management are codes of ethics, a central ethics co-ordination body, ombudsmen or procedural arrangements, which aim at avoiding unethical behaviour by raising awareness and enhancing the sensitivity for delicate situations, are only rarely found in Germany”.

The integrity-based approach is more focused on results and less on legislation and legal control mechanisms by the Courts. “While there are clear rules against illegal behaviour, and sanctions applied when they are breached, the focus is on the actions or effects that should be achieved, rather than on the behaviour that should be avoided.” This suggests an emphasis on:

• the definition of overall aspirational “values” for the public sector (the OECD calls this the “high road”);
• what is achieved, rather than how it was achieved, (that is, a focus on ends rather than means); and
• Encouraging good behaviour, rather than policing errors and punishing bad behaviour.

As this study will show, (too) many countries do not fit into either of the two scenarios.

Moreover, both approaches may include either detailed or general, bureaucratic or flexible, and “tough” or “soft” requirements with regard to the management of conflicts of interest. For example, France – as an exam-

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143 N. Behncke, Monitoring public administrators or signalling trustworthiness to the demos? The two functions of ethics regulations, in: Polis, No. 61, 2004, University of Hagen, p. 3.

ple of a country with a compliance-based approach – does not regulate almost 40% of all analysed categories of conflicts of interest. Germany, too, has a relatively high record of conflicts of interest which are not regulated at all. In contrast with this, the regulation density in an integrity-based system (such as the United Kingdom) can be higher than in a compliance-based system. The Netherlands, a country which also has an integrity-based approach, has the same high number of issues that are not regulated as Germany. The main difference between these countries is that Germany regulates mainly by way of laws and codes, while the Netherlands focus mainly on codes.

These examples show that comparisons between compliance-based countries and integrity-based countries are problematical and may lead to simplistic conclusions. Although the authors of this study find it useful to offer generalised typologies, we were not convinced that this classification offered by the OECD is the most accurate way to describe the reality. For example, while the OECD model suggests that compliance-based countries face more enforcement challenges, we believe that this may also be the case in integrity-based countries.

Today, most countries seem to fall into a spectrum that combines self-management and self-regulatory practices, independent and external monitoring practices – and legal approaches (including stricter sanctions for non-compliance). During the last 10 years, there has been growing evidence that countries are working to strengthen their legal systems (more regulations), and, at the same time, are introducing more codes of conduct as well. This has been the general trend throughout Europe. For example, Finland has traditionally relied on legal instruments, but, during the last ten years, a number of soft instruments, such as values statements and codes of conduct, have been introduced. Thus, these regimes are not necessarily mutually-exclusive. Therefore, if a country wants to foster good behaviour, basic legal norms and top approaches are needed. These rules can be established in legislation, or in codes of conduct. If properly used, legislation and codes of conduct complement each other effectively. Moreover, many classically compliance-based regimes are in the process of introducing more and more policies of self-regulation, and are introducing more soft instruments.

Thus, the OECD model is an interesting, but also a very simplified model, since it does not reflect the growing complexities of CoI concepts within the Member States and at EU level. Pure forms of either of these models do not exist, and, consequently, cannot be recommended to the EU institutions. Other models should be explored, instead.146

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4. “STRICT”, “MODERATE” AND “SOFT” CONFLICTS OF INTEREST REGIMES AND MODELS

Despite all the existing differences and complexities in this study, we believe that it is possible to identify a number of CoI models and to group national systems according to these models. We call these different models “conflicts of interest regimes”. For example, the USA has a very strict ethics regime which comprises a high regulatory density, the existence of a detailed number of restrictions and prohibitions, broad requirements as to registers and disclosure requirements, strict post-employment rules, and relatively powerful and independent ethics committees, etc. In contrast to this, Sweden has a relatively low degree of regulation density, only few restrictions and prohibitions, voluntary disclosure policies and no external ethics committees. In our study, we call the US model the “tough” conflicts of interest regime, and the Swedish model the “soft” conflicts of interest regime.

In our study, we have classified most Member States into three different categories of conflicts of interest regimes. We believe that this prescriptive model can also be very helpful for the different EU institutions when thinking about possible future reforms.

Despite the existing difficulties in defining role models or best practices in the field of conflicts of interest concepts and (even more) for codes of ethics, it is possible to classify the different conflicts of interest regimes into three categories. Here, we distinguish between those countries and institutions:

• which regulate, prohibit and restrict a number of issues, require a detailed number of reporting obligations and have independent control and monitoring mechanisms in place – Model 1: restrictive approach;
• which regulate, prohibit and restrict a number of issues but leave room for some exceptions, and have less strict control mechanisms in place – Model 2: moderate approach;
• which are mainly based upon voluntary approaches and rely on different forms of self-regulation and self-enforcement – Model 3: soft approach.

146 For example, Maesschalck has elaborated an interesting classification by adopting the grid-group theory. See J. Maesschalck, Approaches to Ethics Management in the Public Sector, Public Integrity, Winter 2004/2005, Vol.7, 2005, p. 21.
### Model 1 – RESTRICTIVE APPROACH

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rules and standards</th>
<th>Content, restrictions and requirements</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rules, standards and general ethical principles</td>
<td>Existence of general and specific rules and standards applicable to all institutions; High degree of regulation (high number of prohibitions, restrictions, etc.).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial declaration and register of interests</td>
<td>Financial declarations and register of interests; Obligatory reporting; Annual reporting; Obligatory updating; Detailed requirements (few exceptions); Information on spouse’s activities required; Public access to register; Monitoring of register by public and by internal or external control mechanisms (e.g., ethics commission); Sanctions for non-compliance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethics committee</td>
<td>Mainly no self-regulation; Inter-institutional and/or sectoral committee; Guaranteed resources; Advisory role; Training role; Own inquiry rights; Monitoring and sanctioning powers; Independent composition.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-employment rules</td>
<td>Prohibition to exercise activities after leaving the position which are related to the former functions; Cooling-off period.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional activities</td>
<td>General restrictions on additional activities (except legislators).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## Model 2 – MODERATE APPROACH

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rules and standards</th>
<th>Content, restrictions and requirements</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rules, standards and general ethical principles</td>
<td>Some specific standards for individual institutions; High number of regulations (prohibitions, restrictions, etc.) with regard to different conflicts of interest.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial declarations, and registers of interests</td>
<td>Some financial declarations and registers of interest; Obligatory reporting; Annual reporting; Obligatory updating; Detailed disclosure requirements that allow for exceptions (e.g., for self-employed persons, money thresholds etc.); Few requirements on spouse’s activities; Public access (internal and/or external); Monitoring by public and internal control mechanisms (mainly by internal offices or by the president); Sanctions available but not used in practice.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethics committee</td>
<td>Mainly self-regulation; Mainly internal office/commission; Limited or no resources; Mostly advisory role; No own inquiry rights; No monitoring and sanctioning powers; Composed of nominated/elected experts from own institution or outside.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-employment rules</td>
<td>No rules or notification duties when taking up a new position; No cooling-off period.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional activities</td>
<td>Exceptions, legislators are allowed to exercise additional activities.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Model 3 – SOFT APPROACH

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Rules and standards</strong></th>
<th><strong>Content, restrictions and requirements</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rules, standards and general ethical principles</td>
<td>Some specific standards for individual institutions; Moderate number of restrictions and prohibitions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial declarations and register interests</td>
<td>Some financial declarations and existence of registers; Voluntary and/or confidential reporting; Voluntary annual reporting; Optional updating; Disclosure requirements that allow for exceptions (e.g., for self-employed persons, money thresholds, etc.); No requirements on spouse’s activities; Public access (internal and/or external) or restricted access; No monitoring by public and internal control mechanisms (mostly internal offices or president); Sanctions available but not used in practice.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethics committee</td>
<td>Self-regulation (if existing); No committee.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-employment rules</td>
<td>No rules.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional activities</td>
<td>Exceptions, legislators are allowed to exercise additional activities.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is difficult to classify the EU institutions into one of these models. Apart from the relevant treaty provisions, the European institutions are mainly regulated by codes of ethics. The strictest regime applies to the European Commission, although it has only established an ethics committee with very restricted tasks and competences. Consequently, the European Commission should be classified between Model I and Model II. On the other hand, the weakest regimes are those of the European Parliament and the European Court of Justice. Although the European Parliament does have an obligatory register of interests, it has very few general rules and standards with regard to conflicts of interest restrictions and prohibitions. Both institutions (The ECJ and the EP) have no internal- or external ethics committees. We have no information on the monitoring role of the Quaestors in the EP. Likewise, we have no information on training activities.
within most institutions (apart from the European Commission). The Court of Justice has some rules and standards, but no register or ethics committee, etc. All the existing rules are derived from the ECT and from the Statute of the ECJ. Thus, while the EP could possibly be classified according to the Model III, the European Court of Justice would not fit into any of these models. The other EU institutions would probably fit best into Model II, although the EIB has a more developed ethics regime than the ECB.

Most important standards and instruments in the EU institutions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rules and standards</th>
<th>EU institutions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rules, standards and codes</td>
<td>General rules and standards as regulated in the ECT;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Additional specific codes for COM, ECB, EIB and Court of Auditors;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Parliament has no code, but Rules of Procedure (Annex I);</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ECJ (none).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Register of interest</td>
<td>All institutions except for the ECJ.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Register requirements</td>
<td>Detailed in COM, EIB;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rules allow for flexibility in CoA, EP and ECB;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No regulation of spouses in EP and ECB;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No register in ECJ.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monitoring of register</td>
<td>In general, public access to registers – not in ECB;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>in ECA, only if College of Members approves</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>General monitoring responsibility by president of the institution</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Quaestors monitor in EP;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sanctions may be decided by the ECJ or internally;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No register in ECJ.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rules and standards</td>
<td>EU institutions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------------</td>
<td>------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-employment</td>
<td>EC – Rules on information on activities after leaving the Commission (one-year period)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>EIB – Rules on post-employment (six-month period)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No or only general rules in other institutions (e.g., Article 4 of Statute of the ECJ states: “When taking up their duties, they [the Judges] also give solemn undertaking that, both during and after their term of office, they will respect the obligation arising therefrom, in particular the duty to behave with integrity and discretion as regards the acceptance, after they have cease to hold office, of certain appointments or benefits.”)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethics committee</td>
<td>None of the institutions have an external ethics committee;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>EIB has an ad hoc committee on post employment and a Compliance Officer; ECA and COM have ad hoc committees, respectively, on outside activities and on post-employment occupations;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>All bodies have only advisory powers and no own inquiry and enforcement powers (except the Compliance Officer in the EIB).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional activities</td>
<td>Restrictions for all institutions, MEPs are allowed to exercise professional activities.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EU Institution</th>
<th>Conflicts of ethics regime model</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>European Investment Bank</td>
<td>Model 1/Model 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>European Commission</td>
<td>Model 1/Model 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>European Court of Auditors</td>
<td>Model 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>European Central Bank</td>
<td>Model 2/Model 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>European Parliament</td>
<td>Model 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>European Court of Justice</td>
<td>Cannot be classified into the different models because of the lack of a code of ethics, register, monitoring arrangements and an ethics committee.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
IX. Conclusions and Recommendations

This study shows that more regulations do not necessarily lead to less CoIs or to less corruption. Instead, it seems that more regulation is not required in those situations or countries where high levels of public trust exist. On the other hand, tough and strict rules are not a necessary condition for low levels of conflicts of interest. From this, the study draws the conclusion that there is also no ideal type of CoI system: the need for different CoI systems as well as the conditions for their successes and failures depend to a large extent on the particular socio-cultural environment. Consequently, so-called “high-trust” countries need different rules and standards than “low-trust” countries with a high level of corruption. In addition, regulation as such is only one instrument and does not solve any problem on its own. Therefore, emphasis should always be put on the need for an integrity-infrastructure which consists of a pro-active approach towards CoI (and ethics in general) including a combination of awareness-raising instruments (including leadership), transparency policies, rules and standards, as well as deterrent measures.

1. RECOMMENDATIONS TO THE EU MEMBER STATES

1. Generally speaking, there is no evidence that conflicts of interest are increasing as such. Therefore, demands for the introduction of more and stricter rules would send the wrong signal and would (possibly) be even counter-productive. Moreover, conflicts of interest cover many different situations. While some issues (e.g., post-employment) deserve more attention and better rules and standards, other issues (e.g., gift policies) are generally well-managed. Thus, we recommend that new policies should be designed diligently and only after carrying out a careful cost-benefit analysis.
2. While public integrity measures tend to be over-restrictive in the USA, this can not be said for the majority of the Member States of the EU. However, the present trend in many Member States seems to point towards the regulation of an ever-increasing number of issues. At present, this is particularly the case in the new Member States. However, as this study shows, too many and too restrictive rules may become counter-productive. Another challenge is the implementation and the enforcement of the rules in practice. While a certain minimal set of rules is absolutely necessary, too many and too tight restrictions and prohibitions can be costly, bureaucratic, and potentially even ineffective. Therefore, we recommend a finely-balanced approach between risk and regulation. In particular, (some of) the new Member States should move away from the concentration on more regulatory activity. Instead, these countries would be well-advised to focus on implementation and enforcement issues.

3. Despite these warnings against over-regulation, this study also shows that some CoI issues are under-regulated in some institutions and in some EU Member States. The findings of this survey do not confirm that all governments and institutions are aware of the potential risks of conflicts of interest as a result of the Holders of Public Office leaving public office. In fact, our comparative analysis of conflicts of interest issues has shown that post-employment is the least regulated CoI issue of all. This may be problematical, as leaving the position (because of a career stop, retirement, stepping down, ending the appointment, etc.) raises legitimate questions about the future use of the special knowledge and insight of the former Holders of Public Office. The latter have unique and important (and often confidential) inside-information which is sensitive and can produce an unfair advantage over competitors. Suspicion of impropriety, such as the potential misuse of “insider information”\textsuperscript{147} for the illicit benefit of former Holders of Public Office, is a widely-shared concern across most EU countries (and also within most EU institutions). Clearly, the future challenge lies in balancing issues, such as the need to avoid conflicts of interest with the need to maintain mobility between the different sectors and the need to ascertain the attractiveness of public sector employment. Notwithstanding this, we recommend paying more attention to potential conflicts of interest regarding post-employment.

\textsuperscript{147} Information not available to the public, such as classified government information (e.g., on policy intention, national security, etc.), data on personal privacy as well as commercially sensitive information (e.g., trade secrets).
2. RECOMMENDATIONS TO THE EU INSTITUTIONS

1. Some EU institutions (in particular, the European Commission and the European Investment Bank) have already established a relatively sophisticated conflicts of interest infrastructure. However, this is not the case in a number of other institutions. The Court of Justice and the European Parliament in particular should (at least) adopt proper “minimum” rules and standards in the field of conflicts of interest. We are not aware of any CoI violations in the ECJ and our study does not suggest that HPOs in the ECJ are not sufficiently ethical. However, it does suggest that the introduction of standards for HPOs in the ECJ could send an important signal to the public and could contribute to the prevention of future CoIs in the ECJ. During the work on this study, the ECJ has already signalled that it plans to adopt a code and a register.

2. At the same time, the ethic regimes of other EU institutions should not be used as simple benchmarks for the ECJ and the EP. For example, parliaments in general have a lower degree of regulation density than Banks and Governments. In addition, while Parliaments need to focus on specific items (e.g., lobbying) more closely than Courts of Justice, other CoI may be less relevant (such as the regulation of post-employment).

3. However, it may be recommendable to use comparable national institutions as benchmarks. As this study shows, both the ECJ and the EP have a less-developed ethical regime than comparable institutions at national level. This is especially the case of the EP. Over the past fifteen years, the European Parliament’s institutional weight has increased, and its powers have been strengthened, especially with the introduction of co-decision and control rights over the Commission. Due to this evolution, there is less reason to manage CoIs in the EP differently than in the national parliaments.

4. The ECJ and the EP are advised to adopt a code of conduct. In the case of the EP, this may be even more important than for the ECJ, since the existing rules and standards of the EP are exclusively regulated by the Rules of Procedure of the EP (and partly by national rules and standards). Other ethical rules for the members of the EP do not exist.

5. However, adopting a code of conduct is not sufficient. Much time and energy is usually spent in designing, formulating, and adopting a code,
but many institutions stop here. The code remains a “paper tiger” and is never implemented or monitored. The future challenge should be to “utilise the dynamics which have emerged from the formulation of the code. This will support a continuous process of reflection on the central values and standards contained in the code”.\textsuperscript{148} This recommendation is valid for all EU institutions.

6. Only a few Member States have inter-institutional codes of ethics, because of the very distinctive and specific institutional features of the different institutions. Consequently, we suggest that rules and standards be (generally) designed to the specific needs of the different European institutions (and HPOs). Different EU institutions should have their own specific rules and standards that fit their specific institutional needs and particularities. Nevertheless, there may be room for a general and short, aspirational code for all EU institutions. Such an aspirational code might give a signal to the public that the EU institutions take these issues very seriously and might have a certain public relations effect. At national level, the British \textit{Seven Principles of Public Life Code} is probably the best-known example of such an aspirational code in Europe. Another example, at EU level, is the Code on Good Administrative Behaviour. In line with the latter example, we propose that this inter-institutional code should be managed and promoted by the European Ombudsman.

7. Such an inter-institutional aspirational code should contain general principles and obligations which should also be applicable to all Member States, such as:

\begin{itemize}
  \item In carrying out their official duties, HPOs should arrange their private affairs in a manner that will prevent real, apparent or potential conflicts of interest from arising.
  \item If conflicts of interest arise, they should be resolved in favour of the public interest.
  \item HPOs should not have private interests that can be affected by the actions in which they participate.
  \item HPOs should not abuse their positions of power and use public property for private interests.
  \item HPOs should not support private interests or persons in their
\end{itemize}

deals where this would result in preferential treatment for these persons.

- HPOs should not knowingly take advantage of (insider) information that was obtained in the course of their duties as a HPO.
- HPOs should avoid preferential treatment or assistance to family or friends.

8. Because of the different roles, powers, functions and obligations of the different EU institutions, and the fact that the EU institutions are very diverse, it is advisable that each EU institution adopt its own specific codes in order to regulate the particular conflict of interests that its HPOs might face. This implies that the EP and the ECJ should devise their own specific codes. All institutions should have rules and standards regarding transparency, confidentiality, and secrecy. Similarly, they should all have rules and standards (albeit different ones) on gifts, memberships, honorary activities, etc. We would also advise the European Commission, the Court of Justice, the Court of Auditors and the European banks to have rules and standards in the fields of post-employment, insider-dealing, the incompatibility of posts, professional activities and outside (professional) activities. It is recommended that these institutions regulate post-employment of their office holders for a period of at least one year. This issue is less salient for members of the EP. Finally, all institutions should have rules and standards on financial (public) disclosure and ethics committees. Each institution should be free to regulate additional issues on the misuse of positions for private gain or the misuse of government property, nepotism, etc.

9. The design of gift policies, in particular, should be left to the individual institutions. Generally, receiving gifts is more problematical for legislators and Members of Government than for other HPOs. The presentation of gifts to political representatives is generally perceived as an expression of friendship, respect, and politeness. However, gifts may also represent compensation for political favours. In order to protect Members of Government and legislators, as well as the integrity of their positions, these institutions should be advised to design specific policies on gifts. As a general rule, HPOs should not accept or solicit any gifts, hospitality, or other benefits that may have a real or apparent influence on their objectivity in carrying out their official duties or may place them under obligation to those who offer the gifts. Gifts, hospitality, and other benefits may only be accepted if they are not received on a
regular basis, are of minimal value and are within the normal standards of courtesy or protocol.

10. Probably more important than having detailed CoI regimes is to have a credible monitoring and control mechanism in place, the crucial issues being transparency and accessibility of information, monitoring and enforcement.

11. The public increasingly tends to question practices by which public institutions regulate their own ethical conduct. Forms of self-regulation tend to cause suspicion. However, little evidence exists with regard to the effectiveness of (independent) ethics committees. In the Member States, only very few countries have established an independent Ethics Committee or an Office of Government Ethics. We consider it advisable that the EU institutions have their own ethics committees that have the authority to advise both about general issues and about specific cases. In some instances, it may be advisable to give these ethics committees the authority to decide upon specific conflicts of interest that have been brought before them (instead of the present peer system). Another possibility would be to establish an independent Standards in Public Office Commission, which would have advisory tasks and/or supervisory and monitoring tasks. This Office could be set up under the authority of the European Ombudsman. An interesting model might be the Irish Standards in Public Office Commission (http://www.sipo.gov.ie/en/AboutUs/). At EU level, the EIB has established the position of an independent compliance officer. However, with regard to the latter, no (public) evidence exists as to this position and its work in practice.

12. With regard to the Commission, it seems questionable (especially in the light of the institutional architecture defined by the EC Treaty, Article 217), as to whether it would be legally possible to establish an Ethics Committee with both sanctioning powers and the authority to decide upon specific conflicts of interest concerning the EU Commissioners. Despite these legal restrictions, we believe that the existing Ad-hoc Committee has too limited a role. It is only responsible for post-employment issues. We recommend that an ethics committee be established with a broader mandate (advising HPOs, restricting the monitoring role, and the public role).
13. The findings in this study show that registers of interest that are open to the public are a popular and widely-used instrument in the Member States. However, our study also cast doubts as to the effectiveness of registers, and also to the potential political abuse of public registers. On the other hand, HPOs have access to a great deal of power and influence. In addition, people place a tremendous amount of trust in them. Thus, they should also be subject to public scrutiny (and not only by being exposed to the voters’ verdict). Consequently, we welcome the intention of the European Court of Justice to establish a register of interests (which should be open to the public). We would also suggest that the ECJ introduce its own ethics committee and/or participate in the setting up of an Independent Standards in Public Office Commission.

14. At present, not all institutions have credible monitoring and enforcement mechanisms regarding their registers of interest. In most cases, the declarations of interest are sent to the president of the institutions. However, it is questionable whether the office of the president has the necessary means and resources to “manage” the monitoring of registers. Thus, this form of self-regulation may lack credibility and deterrent effects. We propose the establishment of independent monitoring officers whose task would be to report annually (and publicly) on the received data. The content and the question of what should be declared in a register of interests should be left to the individual institutions. For example, this concerns questions such as whether the activities of spouses should also be listed, and whether reporting thresholds should be introduced.

15. This study shows that, although more rules and standards exist, HPOs are not made sufficiently aware of the existing rules, or trained on how to implement them. Consequently, we propose an increased effort in the training of HPOs and also in other awareness-raising techniques that aim at enhancing the knowledge of the rules.

16. Our study shows that the strict conflicts of interest regimes that have been adopted in Anglo-Saxon countries and in some of the new Member States do not score well on a cost-benefit analysis. They are quite costly in terms of bureaucratic and financial burdens. Moreover, there is an inverse relation between the density of regulation in the Member States and their scores on the Corruption Perception Index. Also, there is too little evidence that a strict regime would indeed enhance popular
trust and reduce corruption. Consequently, we would not advise the implementation of these models. As to our proposed CoI regime menu, the moderate regime (Model II) would be the most advisable, as it would require the EU institutions to install a regime of ethical rules and institutions, without burdening them with a series of very elaborate forms and procedures. The moderate regime would, however, go considerably beyond the present state of affairs. This would imply that some EU institutions (mainly the European Parliament and the Court of Justice) would have to increase their efforts to regulate and to enforce ethical rules and standards.
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XI. Annexes
ANNEX 1 – Questionnaire

1. Standards of conduct for Holders of Public Office

Below you will find a list of ethical issues that are regulated in many Member States by law and/or code of conduct. In some countries, these issues are not formally regulated – they are part of administrative culture, habits and tradition. What is the situation with regard to the parliamentarians? Are there any specific standards concerning:

Please note that the options Law and Code of Conduct are not exclusive. You can mark both options if needed. If the Code of Conduct has a legal status in your country you can mark both options and write a comment below.

|   |   | Law | Code of Conduct | Unregulated |
|---|---|-----|----------------|--|---|
| a) | declaration of financial interests and assets |   |   |   |
| b) | HPOs’ spouses’ activities |   |   |   |
| c) | provisions relating to the declaration of interests |   |   |   |
| d) | outside activities: political activities |   |   |   |
| e) | outside activities: honorary positions |   |   |   |
| f) | outside activities: conferences |   |   |   |
| g) | outside activities: publications |   |   |   |
| h) | professional confidentiality |   |   |   |
| i) | professional loyalty |   |   |   |
| j) | missions, travels |   |   |   |
| k) | rules on receptions and representation |   |   |   |
| l) | accepting gifts, decorations or distinctions |   |   |   |
| m) | general rules on impartiality and conflicts of interest |   |   |   |
| n) | specific rules on incompatibility of posts and professional activities before or during term of office |   |   |   |
| o) | restrictions on professional commitments or holding other posts after leaving office |   |   |   |
| p) | other rules and standards, what |   |   |   |
Comments:

2. If your institution uses a code of conduct or several codes, please specify its name:

................................................................................................................................................

**Please send a copy of the code of conduct to the survey conductors** as a file attachment or as a paper copy. The Code of Conduct for Commissioners is a good example of a code.

3. Please make a list of relevant legislation concerning the above issues that are relevant in defining the professional ethics for the holders of the public offices. In many countries, this includes laws, such as the Constitution, Penal Code, Act on Openness of Government Activities, etc. What laws are relevant in your country concerning the holders of public office in this institution?

**Please send a copy of the relevant legal provisions to the survey conductors** as a file attachment or as a paper copy. If you send the whole laws, please highlight the relevant parts.

4. Does your institution provide training programs concerning professional ethics for the holders of public office (e.g., how to act in a conflict-of-interest situation)?
   - [ ] yes; please provide more information on training:
   - [ ] no

5. Does your institution have an ethics committee or advisory group on ethics responsible for assisting the competent authorities when they are called upon under the terms of a code of conduct or similar provisions to rule on certain aspects of the application of these rules?
   - [ ] yes; please provide more information on committees:
   - [ ] no

6. Do you have a register on declarations of financial interests?
   - [ ] yes; please provide more information how the register operates:
   - [ ] no
## ANNEX 2 – Data Matrix

### List of conflict-of-interest items used in the study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a1</td>
<td>Political activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a2</td>
<td>Honorary positions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a3</td>
<td>Conferences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a4</td>
<td>Publications</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a5</td>
<td>Specific rules on incompatibility of posts and professional activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b1</td>
<td>Declaration of financial interests and assets</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b2</td>
<td>HPOs’ spouses’ activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b3</td>
<td>Provisions relating to the declaration of interests</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c1</td>
<td>Accepting gifts, decorations or distinctions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c2</td>
<td>Missions, travel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c3</td>
<td>Rules on receptions and representation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d1</td>
<td>Restrictions on professional commitments or holding other posts after leaving office</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e1</td>
<td>General rules on impartiality and conflicts of interest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e2</td>
<td>Professional confidentiality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e3</td>
<td>Professional loyalty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e4</td>
<td>Other rules and standards</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Values**

- **0** Not regulated
- **1** Regulated by law
- **2** Regulated by code of ethics/conduct
- **3** Regulated by law and code of ethics/conduct
- **.** Not known/not applicable

### List of other issues included in the study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>f1</td>
<td>Training programs concerning professional ethics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f2</td>
<td>Ethics committee or advisory group on ethics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f3</td>
<td>Register on declarations of financial interests</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Values

<table>
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176
## Judges of Supreme Court

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| BG Bulgaria     | 1  | 1  | 0  | 0  | 1  | 1  | 1  | 1  | 1  | 1  | 0  | 1  | 3  | 1  | 3  | 0  | 0  | 0  | 0  |
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| DE Germany      | 1  | 0  | 1  | 0  | 1  | 0  | 0  | 0  | 3  | 1  | .  | 0  | 1  | 1  | 1  | 0  | .  | 1  | 0  |
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| EL Greece       | 1  | 3  | 2  | 2  | 3  | 3  | 3  | 3  | 3  | 2  | 0  | 0  | 3  | 3  | 3  | .  | 0  | 1  | 1  |
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<td>UK</td>
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</table>
### Directors of National Bank

| Country       | a1 | a2 | a3 | a4 | a5 | b1 | b2 | b3 | c1 | c2 | c3 | d1 | e1 | e2 | e3 | e4 | f1 | f2 | f3 |
|---------------|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|
| AT Austria    | 2  | 2  | 2  | 0  | 0  | 0  | 0  | 2  | 2  | 2  | 0  | 2  | 2  | 2  | 0  | 0  | 0  | 0  | 0  |
| BE Belgium    | 1  | 0  | 0  | 0  | 1  | 1  | 0  | 1  | 2  | 0  | 2  | 1  | 2  | 3  | 2  | 2  | 0  | 0  | 0  |
| BG Bulgaria   | 1  | 1  | 2  | 1  | 3  | 3  | 1  | 3  | 2  | 3  | 3  | 0  | 3  | 3  | 2  | 2  | 0  | 0  | 1  |
| CY Cyprus     | 1  | 1  | 0  | 0  | 1  | 1  | 0  | 1  | 1  | 0  | 0  | 1  | 1  | 1  | 1  | .  | 0  | 0  | 0  |
| CZ Czech Republic | . | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  |
| DE Germany    | 1  | 2  | 2  | 2  | 2  | 0  | 2  | 3  | 2  | 2  | 2  | 3  | 3  | 2  | .  | 0  | 1  | 0  | .  |
| DK Denmark    | 2  | 2  | 2  | 2  | 3  | 0  | 0  | 2  | 2  | 2  | 2  | 0  | 2  | 1  | 0  | .  | 0  | 0  | 0  |
| EE Estonia    | 1  | 1  | 0  | 0  | 1  | 1  | 1  | 1  | 1  | 0  | 0  | 0  | 1  | 1  | 1  | 0  | 0  | 0  | 0  |
| EL Greece     | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  |
| ES Spain      | 2  | 2  | 2  | 2  | 3  | 3  | 3  | 3  | 3  | 3  | 0  | 0  | 3  | 3  | 3  | 0  | .  | 0  | 0  |
| FI Finland    | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  |
| FR France     | 1  | .  | 1  | 1  | 1  | 1  | 0  | 1  | 0  | 0  | 0  | 0  | 1  | 1  | 1  | 0  | .  | 0  | 0  |
| HU Hungary    | 1  | 1  | 1  | 1  | 1  | 1  | 1  | 2  | 2  | 1  | 1  | 1  | 1  | .  | 1  | 1  | 1  | .  | .  |
| IE Ireland    | 3  | 0  | 2  | 2  | 2  | 3  | 3  | 3  | 3  | 3  | 2  | 0  | 3  | 3  | 2  | 0  | 0  | 1  | 1  |
| IT Italy      | 1  | 2  | 2  | 2  | 3  | 1  | 0  | 2  | 2  | 2  | 1  | 2  | 3  | 3  | 2  | 0  | 0  | 1  | 0  |
| LT Lithuania  | 0  | 3  | 2  | 2  | 1  | 1  | 2  | 1  | 2  | 0  | 2  | 1  | 3  | 3  | 2  | .  | 0  | 0  | 1  |
| LU Luxembourg | 1  | 0  | 0  | 1  | 1  | 0  | 1  | 0  | 1  | 0  | 0  | 0  | 1  | 1  | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  |
| LV Latvia     | 1  | 1  | 0  | 0  | 1  | 1  | 1  | 1  | 1  | 1  | 1  | 1  | 3  | 3  | 3  | 2  | 1  | 1  | 1  |
| MT Malta      | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  |
| NL Netherlands| 2  | 2  | 2  | 2  | 2  | 1  | 2  | .  | 2  | 2  | 2  | 2  | 3  | 2  | .  | 1  | 0  | 0  | .  |
| PL Poland     | 3  | 3  | 0  | 1  | 3  | 1  | 1  | 1  | 3  | 1  | 2  | 3  | 3  | 3  | 3  | .  | 1  | 0  | 1  |
| PT Portugal   | 2  | 3  | 3  | 2  | 3  | 1  | 1  | 1  | 3  | 2  | .  | 3  | 3  | 3  | 3  | .  | 0  | 0  | 1  |
| RO Romania    | 1  | 0  | 0  | 0  | 1  | 1  | 1  | 1  | 1  | .  | .  | 0  | 1  | 1  | 0  | .  | 0  | 0  | 1  |
| SE Sweden     | 1  | 1  | 0  | 0  | 1  | 3  | 0  | 2  | 3  | 0  | 2  | 1  | 1  | 3  | 0  | .  | 0  | 0  | 0  |
| SI Slovenia    | 2  | 0  | 2  | 2  | 1  | 0  | 2  | 0  | 2  | 0  | 2  | 1  | 2  | 3  | 3  | 3  | 0  | 0  | 0  |
| SK Slovakia   | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  |
| UK United Kingdom | . | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  | .  |
Members of European Institutions

|        | a1 | a2 | a3 | a4 | a5 | b1 | b2 | b3 | c1 | c2 | c3 | d1 | e1 | e2 | e3 | e4 | f1 | f2 | f3 |
|--------|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|
| EC     | 2  | 2  | 2  | 3  | 2  | 2  | 2  | 2  | 2  | 2  | 2  | 3  | 3  | 3  | 3  | .  | 0  | 0  | 1  |
| EP     | 2  | 0  | 0  | 2  | 2  | 0  | 2  | 2  | 2  | 0  | 2  | 0  | 0  | 0  | 0  | 0  | 0  | 1  |
| ECJ    | 1  | 0  | 0  | 1  | 0  | 0  | 0  | 0  | 1  | 0  | 1  | 1  | 1  | 1  | .  | 0  | 0  | 0  |
| ECA    | 3  | 3  | 2  | 2  | 2  | 2  | 2  | 2  | 1  | 2  | 2  | 0  | 3  | 2  | 3  | .  | 1  | 1  | 1  |
| ECB    | 3  | 1  | 3  | 3  | 3  | 0  | 3  | 3  | 1  | 1  | 3  | 3  | 3  | 3  | .  | 0  | 1  | 1  |
| EIB    | 3  | 1  | 3  | 2  | 2  | 2  | 2  | 2  | 2  | 2  | 2  | 3  | 3  | 3  | .  | 0  | 1  | 1  |
ANNEX 3 – Country Profiles

Summary: Conflicts of Interest Policy in Austria

General profile

Austria joined the European Union in 1995. For four of the institutions in Austria, most issues (Government) or practically all issues (Parliament, Judges and auditors) are regulated by law. As for the Central Bank, most issues are regulated by code, and only a few by law.

Out of laws concerning possible conflicts of interest, the Incompatibility Act of 1983 is central: it is applicable to all officials in most institutions. Besides this law and other general laws, two institutions have specific laws: The Supreme Court (Supreme Court Act of 1953) and Court of Audit (Court of Audit Act, 1948).

Out of the unregulated issues, the following are worth noting:

a) no declaration of financial interests and assets: Parliament, Supreme Court, Court of Audit, Central Bank;
b) no restrictions on professional commitments or holding other posts after leaving office for most of the institutions, except regarding precisely-defined functions for (former) Members of the Government.

Initially, it was mandatory to declare all incomes above 140,000 Euro in the register of the Court of Audit (Meldepflicht gem. §8 Bezügebegrenzungsgesetz). After being brought before the Administrative High Court in 2003, the Supreme Court finally annulled the law in 2004 on the grounds of the constitutional right to the protection of privacy and the data protection directive (Directive 95/46/EC).

The Supreme Court and the Central Bank do not have a public register on declaration of financial interests, either.

There is a Parliamentary Incompatibility Committee, entitled to discuss and decide about individual cases of conflicts of interest and incompatibility.
Members of Government

In general:
Most of the issues are regulated by law. There is no reference to a code of conduct.

Relevant laws:
• Incompatibility Act of 1983 (Official Gazette of the Republic of Austria, No. 330/1983) (SIL);
• Constitutional law on Ministerial responsibility (Official Gazette of the Republic of Austria, No. 1/1930, and No. 100/2003, “Ministerverantwortlichkeit”) (GIL);
• Revenue Act (“Bundesbezügegesetz” Official Gazette of the Republic of Austria, No. 273/1972, and 392/1996) (SL);

1 The abbreviations GL, GIL, SL, SIL, SC, etc., refer to the definition chart on p. 17 of the study.
More specific:

A – Professional activities
Most professional activities are regulated by law (specific rules on incompatibility of posts and professional activities before or during the term of office regulated by law, although outside activities such as political activities, and honorary positions are unregulated.

B – Declaration of income
For the Austrian Government, most of the issues regarding declaration of income (declaration of financial interests and assets, provisions relating to the declaration of interests) are regulated by law. The HPO’s spouses’ interests and assets are unregulated.

C – Gifts, missions and travel
Accepting gifts as well as missions and travel are regulated by law (Penal Code § 310 (2): Geschenkanahme) Decorations, distinctions as well as receptions and representations are not regulated.

D – Post-employment
There are restrictions on professional commitments or holding posts after leaving office, i.e., a former Member of the Government may not be appointed director of the Court of Audit within one year of leaving office.

E – Other Conflicts of Interest
Other conflicts of interest (e.g., general rules on impartiality and conflicts of interest, professional confidentiality and professional loyalty) are regulated by law.

Instruments
The Austrian Government does not provide training to HPOs. The competent ethics committee is the Parliamentary Incompatibility Committee. According to the Incompatibility Act, a register on the declaration of financial interests is kept by the Court of Audit.

Members of Parliament

In general:
Generally, issues regarding conflicts of interest are regulated by law. The Austrian Parliament does not have a code of conduct.

Where some questions were not answered, it could be assumed that regulation does not exist. These issues concern:
• Rules on receptions and representation;
• Outside activities: political activities;
• Outside activities: honorary positions;
• Outside activities: conferences.

Relevant laws:
• Incompatibility Act (SIL);
• Rules of Procedure (Geschäftsordung) of the National Council (SIC).

More specific:

A – Professional activities
The Austrian Parliament has regulated specific rules on the incompatibility of posts and professional activities before or during the term of office, and rules on writing publications. The issues that are not regulated are outside activities concerning political activities, honorary positions and conferences.

B – Declaration of income
The Austrian Government has regulated all issues regarding the declaration of income (declaration of financial interests and asset, HPO’s spouses’ activities, and provisions relating to the declaration of interests) by law.

C – Gifts, missions and travel
Two out of the three issues are regulated: the acceptance of gifts, decorations, and distinctions, and there are rules concerning missions and travel. There seems to be no rules on receptions and representation.

D – Post-employment
There seems to be no restrictions on professional commitments or holding posts after leaving office.

E – Other Conflicts of Interest
All other issues (general rules on impartiality and conflicts of interest, professional confidentiality, professional loyalty and others rules and standards) are regulated.

Instruments
The Austrian Parliament does not provide training for HPOs and the relevant Parliamentary committee for conflict of interests issues is the Incompatibility Committee. But there is a register on declaration of financial interests: according to the provisions in the Incompatibility Act, deputies have to declare their property.
Regulating Conflicts of Interest for Holders of Public Office

Judges of the Supreme Court

In general:
Most of the issues are regulated by law. There is no reference to a code of conduct for Judges of the Austrian Constitutional Court.

Relevant laws:
- Constitutional Court Act of the Republic of Austria (GL);
- Penal Code of the Republic of Austria (GL).

More specific:

A – Professional activities
All outside activities are regulated by law except activities related to honorary positions, these are unregulated. Specific rules on incompatibility of posts and professional activities before or during the term of office are regulated by both code and law.

B – Declaration of income
No legal regulations regarding the declaration of income.

C – Gifts, missions and travel
Rules on accepting gifts are regulated by law. Missions, travel, decorations and distinctions, receptions and representation are unregulated.

D – Post-employment
Restrictions on professional commitments or holding posts after leaving office are unregulated.

E – Other Conflicts of Interest
By law (Supreme Court Act, 85/1953), Judges are excluded from rulings under clearly defined circumstances. According to the VFGG of 1953 (Law on the Constitutional Court) § 2 (4) former Members of the Parliament at the time of passing a certain law are excluded from decisions about the constitutionality of these particular laws. Furthermore, professional confidentiality is regulated by law (“Amtsverschwiegenheit”).

Instruments
The Austrian Supreme Court does not provide any training programmes and there is neither an ethics committee, nor a register for financial interests.
Members or Directors of the Court of Audit

In general:
Most issues in the Austrian Court of Audit are regulated by law, the Court of Audit Act of 1948. There has been no reference made to a code of conduct.

Relevant laws:
- Incompatibility Act of 1983;
- Court of Audit Act, No. 143/1948;
- Penal Code;
- Decree on reimbursement of costs relating to business trips abroad.

More specific:

A – Professional activities
Almost all professional activities are regulated by law (outside activities: honorary positions, conferences and publications). The outside activities regarding political activities are regulated by code. Specific rules on the incompatibility of posts and professional activities before or during the term of office are regulated by both code and law.

B – Declaration of income
One of the issues is regulated by law, one is regulated by code and one is regulated by both code and law.

C – Gifts, missions and travel
All issues concerning gifts, missions, and travel are regulated by law.

D – Post-employment
Restrictions on professional commitments or holding posts after leaving office are not regulated.

E – Other Conflicts of Interest
General rules on impartiality, conflicts of interest, and professional confidentiality as well as professional loyalty are regulated by law.

Instruments
The Court of Audit does not provide training programmes. Furthermore, neither registers, nor ethics committees exist.
Members or Directors of the Central or National Banks

In general:
Most issues are regulated by the Code of Conduct, some of them are governed by law.

Code:
• The Code of Conduct for employees of the National Bank of Austria.

Relevant laws:
• National Bank Act;
• Penal Code.

More specific:

A – Professional activities
Rules regarding honorary positions are unregulated. Specific cases of the incompatibility of posts and professional activities before or during the term of office are regulated by law. Conferences and publications are regulated by the code of conduct.

B – Declaration of income
HPOs’ spouses’ activities as well as declaration of financial interests and assets are not regulated.

C – Gifts, missions and travel
Missions and travel as well as accepting gifts, receptions and representations are regulated by code. Decorations and distinctions were not mentioned.

D – Post-employment
Restrictions on professional commitments or holding posts after leaving office are not regulated.

E – Other Conflicts of Interest
All other issues on the topic of conflicts of interest are regulated by the Code and professional confidentiality is regulated by the Code of Conduct.

Instruments
There are no further instruments relating to the issue of conflicts of interest. There is no specific training programme concerning professional ethics for the directors of the Central Bank of Austria. Also, no specific register for the declaration of financial interests is available.
Belgium is one of the six founding members of the European Coal and Steel Community, and, since 1957, is a member of the European Atomic Energy Community and European Economic Community, now the European Union.

For all four institutions roughly half of the issues are regulated. Similarly, most outside activities are unregulated for all four institutions.

There is a specific law on conflicts of interest that is directly applicable to Members of Government and Parliament and only indirectly to the directors of the National Bank (“Wet van 2 mei 1995 betreffende de verplichting om een lijst van mandaten, ambten en beroepen, alsmede een vermogensaangifte in te dienen”): this law regulates the declaration of financial interests. Interestingly, these declarations are confidential.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institution</th>
<th>Issues regulated</th>
<th>Form of regulation</th>
<th>Ethics Committee</th>
<th>Public register</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Government</td>
<td>9 out of 15 issues regulated (60%) – 6 issues unregulated (40%)</td>
<td>Law (GL 2 + SL 2 + SIL + GIL) + Code (GC 3)</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parliament</td>
<td>6 out of 15 issues regulated (40%) – 9 issues not regulated (60%)</td>
<td>Law (GL, GIL, SIL)</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supreme Court</td>
<td>9 out of 15 issues regulated (60%) – 6 issues unregulated (40%)</td>
<td>Law</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Court of Auditors</td>
<td>7 out of 15 issues regulated (50%) – 7 issues not regulated (50%) – 1 N/A</td>
<td>Law (GL 4 + GIL 2 + SL)</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
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<tr>
<td>Central Bank</td>
<td>10 out of 15 issues regulated (66.67%) – 5 issues not regulated (33.33%)</td>
<td>Law (GL 2, GIL, SL) + Code (GC, SC)</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Members of Government

In general:
Half of the issues are regulated: half of them by law and half by code. Among the unregulated issues are all outside activities. There are no training programmes and there is no ethics committee, but there is a register on declarations of financial interests. This register is confidential.

Relevant laws:
• Grondwet (GL);
• Wet openbaarheid bestuur (GL);
• Wet betreffende de verplichting om een lijst van mandaten, ambten en beroepen, alsmede een vermogensaangifte in te dienen (SL);
• Wet betreffende de classificatie en veiligheidsmachtiging, veiligheidsattesten en veiligheidsadviezen (SL);
• Wet houdende vaststelling van de onverenigbaarheden en ontzeggingen betreffende de ministers, gewezen ministers en ministers van staat, alsmede de leden en gewezen leden van de wetgevende kamers (SIL);
• Gemeentewet (GIL).

Relevant codes:
• Ministeriele omzendbrieven (GC);
• Nota van de studiedienst van de Kanselarij van de Eerste Minister inzake Demande d’informations – Ancien Premier Ministre – Avantages – Restrictions quant à l’exercice d’activités politiques ou commerciales (GC);
• Informatienota betreffende de bezoldiging en vergoeding van regeringsleden (GC).

More specific:

A – Professional activities
All outside activities are unregulated; specific rules are regulated by law.

B – Declaration of income
Declaration of financial interests and assets, and provisions relating to the declaration of interests are regulated by code; spouses’ activities are unregulated.

C – Gifts, missions and travel
Accepting gifts is unregulated; missions and travel, and rules on receptions and representation are regulated by code.
D – Post-employment
Regulated both by law and code.

E – Other Conflicts of Interest
General rules are regulated by law and code, professional confidentiality is regulated by law, professional loyalty is regulated by code, and other rules and standards are unregulated.

Instruments
There are no training programmes and no ethics committee for Members of Government. There is a register on declaration of financial interests, but it is confidential.

Members of Parliament

In general:
Few issues are regulated, all of them by law; there is no code, no training programmes, no ethics committee, but there is a register on declarations of financial interests. This register is confidential.

Relevant laws:
• Constitution;
• Act of Parliament;
• Rules of procedure of the Houses of Parliament.

Relevant codes:

More specific:

A – Professional activities
Of the outside activities, only political activities are regulated by law. Specific rules are also regulated by law.

B – Declaration of income
Declaration of financial interests and assets, and provisions relating to the declaration of interests are regulated by law. Spouses’ activities are unregulated.

C – Gifts, missions and travel
Unregulated.

D – Post-employment
Regulated by law.
E – Other Conflicts of Interest
General rules on impartiality and conflicts of interest and professional loyalty are unregulated. Professional confidentiality is regulated by law.

Instruments
No training programmes and no ethics committee. With regard to the register on the declaration of financial interests, Members of Parliament have to file a “property declaration in the beginning and at the end of their office with the Court of Auditors”. This declaration consists of an overview of all savings, shares, real-estate and high value movable property held by the Member of Parliament concerned. It aims to provide a financial statement of the wealth of each MP in the beginning and at the end of his term of office.

The property declarations of Members of Parliament are confidential. Property declarations are send to the Court of Auditors in a sealed envelope. They can only be opened at the request of a Judge who is investigating criminal offences that a Member of Parliament is allegedly to have committed in the performance of his duties. After decease or five years after the end of the last mandate, the declarations are returned. Any person who fails to file a property declaration commits a misdemeanor and is liable to punishment of a fine of up to 200,000 BEF (5,000 EUR).

Judges of the Supreme Court
N/A

Members or Directors of the Court of Audit

In general:
Half of the issues are regulated. Only one of them is regulated by code (missions and travels); the other seven by law.

Relevant laws:
• European Convention on Human Rights as to the exercise of the Court’s jurisdictional competence (GIL);
• Constitution (GL);
• Penal Code (GL);
• Court of Auditors’ organic law of 29 October 1846 (GIL);
• Law on the formal motivation of administrative acts of 29 July 1991 (GL);
• Law on the publicity of administration of 11 April 1994 (GL);
• Special and ordinary laws of 2 May 1995 and special and ordinary laws of 26 June 2004 on the obligatory submission of a list of mandates, functions and occupations as well as a declaration of assets (SL).
Relevant codes:

More specific:

A – Professional activities
Outside political activities are unregulated. Specific rules on the incompatibility of posts and professional activities before or during the term of office are regulated by law.

B – Declaration of income
Unregulated.

C – Gifts, missions and travel
Missions and travel are regulated by code, and accepting gifts, decorations and distinctions by law. There are no rules on receptions and representation.

D – Post-employment
Unregulated.

E – Other Conflicts of Interest
There are general rules (law) on impartiality and conflicts of interest. Professional confidentiality and professional loyalty are unregulated.

Instruments
No training programmes, no ethics committee. With regard to the register on the declaration of financial interests: “Sinds 1 januari 2005 is tal van openbare mandatarissen en hoge ambtenaren bij wet de verplichting opgelegd geregeld twee documenten in te dienen bij het Rekenhof, nl. een lijst van mandaten, ambten en beroepen, enerzijds, en een vermogensaangifte, anderzijds. Deze indieningsverplichtingen moeten echter niet noodzakelijk tegelijkertijd worden vervuld. De mandatenlijsten worden na controle gepubliceerd in een editie van het Belgisch Staatsblad. Wat de onder gesloten omslag ingediende vermogensaangiften betreft, deze worden altijd ongeopend bewaard in een daartoe speciaal beveiligde opslagruimte.”

Members or Directors of the Central or National Bank

In general:
Eleven out of 16 issues are regulated, either by law or code. One of these issues is regulated both by law and code: professional confidentiality. Five issues are not regulated. There are no training programmes, ethics committee, or a register on the declaration of financial interests.
Regarding a register on the declaration of financial interests, the Belgian legislation in the field of declaration of financial assets is not applicable to the Directors of the Bank in their role as Members of the Board of Directors. However, since the Directors are also Member of the Bank’s council of regency, this legislation is, nevertheless, applicable to them.

Relevant laws:
• Organic Act dd. 22 February 1998 of the National Bank of Belgium (GIL);
• Penal Code: article 458 (GL);
• Companies Act: article 523 (GL);
• Wet van 2 mei 1995 betreffende de verplichting om een lijst van mandaten, ambten en beroepen, alsmede een vermogensaangifte in te dienen (SL).

Relevant codes:
• Belgian Code on Corporate Governance (GC);
• Deontologische code van de Nationale Bank van België (SC).

More specific:

A – Professional activities
Except for political activities, all outside political activities are unregulated. Specific rules on the incompatibility of posts and professional activities before or during the term of office are regulated by law.

B – Declaration of income
Declaration of financial interests and assets, and provisions relating to the declaration of interests are regulated by law. Spouses’ activities are unregulated.

C – Gifts, missions and travel
Accepting gifts, decorations and distinctions, and receptions and representation are regulated by code. Missions and travel are unregulated.

D – Post-employment
Regulated by law.

E – Other Conflicts of Interest
There are general rules (code) on impartiality and conflicts of interest. Professional confidentiality is regulated both by law and code. Professional loyalty is regulated by code. Among other rules and standards, HPOs have to show all due restraint in the conduct of all private financial dealings (code).

Instruments
None.
General profile

Bulgaria is a new Member State of the EU: it joined the EU on 1 January 2007.

For four of the institutions in Bulgaria (Government, Supreme Court, Court of Auditors, Central Bank) most issues are regulated by law. In the Central Bank, most issues are regulated by both law and a code. There is a lack of information on Parliament.

Out of laws concerning possible conflicts of interest, the Law for the Publicity of the Property of Persons Occupying State Positions is central – it is applicable to all five institutions. In addition to it, in the Central Bank, there is also a code. In the Court of Auditors, there are two specific regulations – the National Audit Office Act and the Code for the Auditor’ Conduct.

Out of the unregulated issues, the following is worth noting: There are no restrictions on professional commitments or holding other posts after leaving office concerning Court of Auditors and the Central Bank.

In conclusion, there is a strong tendency in Bulgaria to regulate the possible conflicts of interest of HPOs by law. Both laws and codes of conduct are recent: most of them have been amended during the last years.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institution</th>
<th>Issues regulated</th>
<th>Form of regulation</th>
<th>Ethics Committee</th>
<th>Public register</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Government</td>
<td>All issues regulated</td>
<td>Law (SL 1+ GL1)+ Code (SC 1)</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parliament</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supreme Court</td>
<td>12 out of 15 regulated (80%) – 3 unregulated (20%)</td>
<td>Law (GL 1+ GIL 1+ GC 1+ SL 1)</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Court of Auditors</td>
<td>13 out of 15 regulated (86.67%) – 2 unregulated (13.33%)</td>
<td>Law (GIL 1+ SL 1)+ Code (SC 1)</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central Bank</td>
<td>14 out of 15 regulated (93.33%) – 1 unregulated (6.67%)</td>
<td>Law (GIL 1+SL 1+GL 2+ SIL 1) + Code (GC 1+ SC 1)</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Members of Government

In general:
All issues are regulated by law. In addition there is a code of ethics.

Relevant laws:
- Law on Publicity of the Property of Persons Occupying State Positions – a declaration for property, income and expenses (real estate, motor road, water, air vehicles, cash, takings and liabilities, securities, shares, income, etc. The Declaration is made public; each person shall have the right to access the data. However, it shall not be published by the mass media or in any other way without the written consent of the person concerned.

Relevant Code:
- Code of ethics of senior executive Government officials (State Gazette No. 92 of 2005).

More specific:

A – Professional activities
All professional activities are regulated by law – including outside political activities, honorary positions, conferences, and publications, as well as the specific rules on the incompatibility of posts and professional activities before or during the term of office.

B – Declaration of income
The Bulgarian Government has regulated all issues regarding the declaration of income (declaration of financial interests and assets, HPOs’ spouse’s activities, and provisions relating to the declaration of interests) by law.

C – Gifts, missions and travel
Accepting gifts, decorations, distinctions and missions, travel, and rules on receptions and representation are regulated by law.

D – Post-employment
Restrictions on professional commitments or holding posts after leaving office are regulated by law.
E – Other Conflicts of Interest
Other conflicts of Interest (e.g., general rules on impartiality and conflicts of interest, confidentiality, professional loyalty) are regulated by law.

Instruments
The Bulgarian Government does not provide training for HPOs and has not established an ethics committee. But they do have a register on the declarations of financial interests.

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Members of Parliament
N/A

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Judges of the Supreme Court

In general:
Almost all issues are regulated by law. Only a few issues are not regulated (participation in outside activities like conferences (1) and publications (2) as well as rules on receptions and representation (3)).

Relevant laws:
- Constitution of the Republic of Bulgaria;
- Constitutional Court Act;
- Rules on the Organisation and activities of the Constitutional Court;
- Law for publicity of the property of persons occupying high state positions.

More specific:

A – Professional activities
All outside activities are regulated by law, except activities related to participation in conferences or publications, these two are unregulated.

B – Declaration of income
All issues with regard to declaration of income are regulated by law.

C – Gifts, missions and travel
Rules on missions, travel and on accepting gifts, decorations and distinctions are regulated by law. Rules on receptions and representation are unregulated.
Regulating Conflicts of Interest for Holders of Public Office

D – Post-employment
Restrictions on professional commitments or holding posts after leaving office are regulated.

E – Other Conflicts of Interest
All other issues regarding conflicts of interest are regulated by law.

Instruments
The Bulgarian Supreme Court does not provide any training programmes and there is no ethics committee. But there is a register on the declaration of financial interests.

_______________________________

Members or Directors of the Court of Audit

In general:
The Court of Audit has regulated most issues. Out of all issues, none are regulated by law. Some are regulated by code (5). And two issues – participation in outside activities and conferences as well as the restrictions on professional commitments or holding posts after leaving office – are not regulated.

Relevant code:
• Code for the Auditor’s Conduct.

Relevant Law:
• National Audit Office Act.
• Law for the Publicity of the Property of Persons Occupying State Positions requires a declaration of property, income and expenses (real estate, vehicles, financial assets and liabilities, securities, shares, income, etc.) Declaration is made public; the public have the right to access the data. However, the detail cannot be published by the mass media or used in any other way without the written consent of the person.

More specific:

A – Professional activities
Half of the professional activities are regulated by law (outside activities, honorary positions, the specific rules on the incompatibility of posts and professional activities before or during the term of office, and the register on declaration of financial interests). The outside activities regarding political activities and publications are regulated by code. There is no regulation concerning outside political activities, such as conferences.
B – Declaration of income
All issues are regulated by law.

C – Gifts, missions and travel
All issues concerning gifts, missions and travel are regulated by law, except receptions and representation, which are not regulated.

D – Post-employment
Restrictions on professional commitments or holding posts after leaving office are not regulated.

E – Other Conflicts of Interest
General rules on impartiality and conflicts of interest and professional loyalty are regulated by code. Professional confidentiality is regulated by law.

Instruments
The Court of Auditors does not have an ethics committee, but it does have some training programmes concerning ethics for HPOs. In addition, there is a “Public Register” directorate in the National Audit Office of the Republic of Bulgaria. The main activity of the “Public Register” directorate is the keeping and maintaining of a register on declarations of financial interests, according to the Law for Publicity of the Property of Persons Occupying High State Positions.

Members or Directors of the Central or National Banks
In general:
Most issues are regulated by both law and code (8). Four issues are regulated by law, three by code and one issue is not regulated at all.

Relevant code:
• Rules of Procedure of the Governing Council of the Bulgarian National Bank;
• Code of Conduct for Employees of the Bulgarian National Bank.

Relevant law:
• Bulgarian National Bank Act;
• Public Disclosure of the Property of High Public Officials Act;
• Labour Code;
• Social Insurance Code;
• Ordinance on Business Trips and Training Abroad.
More specific:

A – Professional activities
Outside political activities, outside activities like honorary positions and publications are regulated by law. Outside activities: conferences are regulated by code. Both specific rules on incompatibility of posts and professional activities before or during the term of office and the register on declaration of financial interests are regulated by code and law.

B – Declaration of income
The activities of the spouses of HPOs are regulated by law. The declaration of financial interests and assets, and the provisions relating to the declaration of interests are regulated by both law and code.

C – Gifts, missions and travel
The acceptance of gifts, decorations and distinctions is regulated by code. Missions, travel, rules on receptions and representation are regulated by both law and code.

D – Post-employment
Restrictions on professional commitments or holding posts after leaving office are not regulated.

E – Other Conflicts of Interest
General rules on impartiality and conflicts of interest and professional confidentiality are regulated by code and law. Professional loyalty is regulated by code only.

Instruments
The Bulgarian Central Bank does not provide any training programmes and there is no ethics committee. But it does have a register on the declarations of financial interests.
General profile

Cyprus is a new Member State of the EU: it joined the EU on 1 May 2004.

In the Parliament and the Central Bank in Cyprus, most issues are regulated by law. In the Government, one third of the issues are regulated by law, another third by code and the rest are not regulated.

From all laws, the criminal law applies to all institutions in Cyprus. It prohibits people employed in the public service to disclose any confidential information or documents. In addition to this law, there is a law providing for the declaration of financial assets of officials of the Republic of Cyprus. The Central Bank has its specific law: The Central Bank of Cyprus Law.

It is interesting to note that in Cyprus, the following issues are not regulated:
- Outside activities (“Outside activities […], rules on accepting gifts, missions, travels […] are not formally regulated. They are part of ethical standards.”);
- HPOs’ spouses’ activities;
- No regulation of missions and travel.

Most conflicts of interest in Cyprus are regulated by law, and, in some cases, by codes. Usually, the laws are all fairly recent- most of them were adopted after 2001.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>Form of regulation</th>
<th>Ethics committee</th>
<th>Public register</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Government</td>
<td>8 out of 15 regulated</td>
<td>Law (SIL 1+ GL 1)</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(53.33%) – 7 unregulated (46.67%)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parliament</td>
<td>9 out of 15 regulated</td>
<td>Law (GL 2+ SIL 1+ GC 1)</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(60%) – 6 unregulated (40%)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supreme Court</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Court of Auditors</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Regulating Conflicts of Interest for Holders of Public Office

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institution</th>
<th>Issues regulated</th>
<th>Form of regulation</th>
<th>Ethics committee</th>
<th>Public register</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Central Bank</td>
<td>10 out of 15 regulated (66.67%) – 5 unregulated (33.33%)</td>
<td>Law (SL 1+ GIL 1+ GL 1)</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Members of Government

In general:
In the Government, most issues are regulated. One third of them by law, another third by code and the rest are not regulated.

Relevant laws:
- Declaration of the Control of Assets of the President, the Ministers and the Members of the Parliament: a register is kept at the office of the President of the House of Representatives, Law 49(I) 2004;
- Criminal Code.

More specific:

A – Professional activities
In Cyprus, specific rules on the incompatibility of posts and professional activities before or during the term of office, outside political activities, honorary positions, conferences and publications are not regulated currently.

B – Declaration of income
The Declaration of financial interests and assets and the Provisions relating to the Declaration of interests are regulated by Law 49(I) 2004 (2) on Declaration of the Control of Assets of the President, the Ministers and the Members of the Parliament. The activities of the spouses of HPOs are not regulated.

C – Gifts, missions and travel
Accepting gifts, decorations, and distinctions is regulated by Article 102 of the Criminal Code. Law on participation in missions and travels as well as receptions and representation is currently pending before the Parliament in Cyprus.

D – Post-employment
Post-employment in Cyprus is not yet regulated. Government is due to adopt a bill, pending before the relevant Special Parliamentary Committee.
E – Other conflicts of interest
Professional confidentiality is regulated by Article 135 of the Criminal code. When it comes to General rules on impartiality, conflicts of interest and professional loyalty, no strict regulation exists. However, all Members of the Government take an oath on the Constitution and declare their respect for its provisions.

Instruments
There are no training programmes concerning ethics for HPOs or ethics committees. But there is a register on declarations of financial interests, based upon Law 49(I)/2004 on declaration of assets of the President, Ministers and Members of the Parliament.

Members of Parliament

In general:
In Cyprus, half of the issues in the Parliament are regulated. For most of them, this is done by law. The other half of the issues are not regulated.

Relevant code:
There is no code of conduct regulating issues in the Parliament.

Relevant laws:
• The Constitution of the Republic of Cyprus (Article 70) – “The office of a Representative shall be incompatible with that of a Minister or of a member of a Communal Chamber or of a member of any municipal council including a Mayor or of a member of the armed or security forces of the Republic or with a public or municipal office or, in the case of a Representative elected by the Turkish Community, of a religious functionary. For the purposes of this Article ‘public office’ means any office of profit in the service of the Republic or of a Communal Chamber the emoluments of which are under the control either of the Republic or of a Communal Chamber, and includes any office in any public corporation or public utility body.”
• The Rules of Procedure of the House of Representatives (Article 44) – “In the event that a Member of a Committee has a direct personal interest in relation to the matter under consideration by a Committee, he should accordingly inform the Chairman and the Members of the Committee at the opening of the meeting or as soon as the existence of such an interest becomes evident in the course of the discussion.”
• Law 49(I) of 2004 on the Declaration and Control of the Assets of the President, the Ministers and the Members of the Parliament of the Republic of Cyprus.
• Criminal law- According to Section 135(1) of the Criminal Law, a person
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employed in the public service is prohibited from publishing or disclosing any confidential information.

More specific:

A – Professional activities
Outside activities such as conferences and publications are not regulated, while outside political activities, honorary positions and specific rules on the incompatibility of posts and professional activities before or during the term of office are regulated by the Constitution of Cyprus.

B – Declaration of income
In Cyprus, the declaration of financial interests and assets as well as the provisions relating to the declaration of interests are regulated by Law 49(I) 2004 (2) on Declaration of the Control of Assets of the President, the Ministers and the Members of the Parliament. However, the activities of the spouses of HPOs are not regulated.

C – Gifts, missions and travel
Accepting gifts or participation in missions and travel is not explicitly regulated, but it is included in provisions of the Criminal Code, Article 102: “Any person who, being employed in the public service, receives any property or benefit of any kind for himself, on the understanding, express or implied, that he shall favour the person giving the property or conferring the benefit, or anyone in whom that person is interested, in any transaction then pending, or likely to take place, between the person giving the property or conferring the benefit, or any [other] whom he is interested [in], and any person employed in the public service, is guilty of misdemeanor and liable to imprisonment for two years and to a fine. [sic]”

D – Post-employment
Restrictions on professional commitments or holding posts after leaving office are regulated by law.

E – Other Conflicts of Interest
All issues that fall within this category (general rules on impartiality and conflicts of interest, professional confidentiality, professional loyalty, other rules and standards) are regulated by law. General rules on impartiality and conflicts of interest are contained in Article 44 of the Rules of Procedure of the House of Parliament. Professional confidentiality is regulated by Article 135 of Criminal Law: “A person employed in the public service that publishes or discloses any confidential information or event or document is guilty of misdemeanor [...]”

Instruments
There are no training programmes concerning ethics for HPOs. However, there is a register on the declaration of financial interests, based upon Constitutional provision and Law 49(I)/2004 on the declarations of assets of the President, the Minis-
The register is kept within the office of the speaker of the Parliament and a Special Parliamentary Committee is established in order to ensure the compliance with the law.

Members or Directors of the Central Bank

In general:
Issues are either regulated by law (the majority of them) or they are not regulated at all.

Relevant laws:
• Law providing for the declaration of financial assets of certain officials of the Republic of Cyprus and for the control of their assets – Law 50(I)/2004;
• The Central Bank of Cyprus Law – Law 138(I)/2002;
• Criminal Law – Cap. 154;

More specific:

A – Professional activities
Outside political activities, participation in conferences and the specific rules on the incompatibility of posts and professional activities before or during the term of office are regulated by Law of 2002 on the Central Bank of Cyprus, No. 138(I) 2002, Article 14: “A person shall not be qualified to be a director if he holds any position which may create a conflict of interest between his duties as director and that position; and in particular if he: (a) is a Minister, or Member of the House of Representatives; (b) is a member of a Municipal Council, including a Mayor; (c) is a member of the armed or security forces of the Republic; (d) is the holder of a public office in a municipal authority or [...] acting as a deputy in such post.” Honorary positions and publications are not regulated.

B – Declaration of income
The declaration of financial interests and assets as well as the provisions relating to the declaration of interests are regulated by Law 50(I) 2004, which provides for the declaration of financial assets of certain officials of the Republic of Cyprus (applicable to the governor and directors of the CBC): every official has the duty to provide a declaration of his or her financial interests to the Board established for the purposes of this law (5). This declaration is made within a period of 3 months after the appointment and is renewed once every 3 years after the appointment. In addition, there is a duty to provide the same declaration within a period of 3 months after the termination or expiration of the mandate. However, the activities of the spouses of HPOs are not regulated at all.
C – Gifts, missions and travel
Accepting gifts, decorations and distinctions is regulated by the Penal Code, Article 102: “Any person who, being employed in the public service, receives any property or benefit of any kind for himself [...] is guilty of misdemeanour and liable to imprisonment for two years and a to a fine.” But no regulation in relation to missions or travel or rules on receptions and representation exists.

D – Post-employment
Restrictions on professional commitments or on holding posts after leaving office is regulated by Law on the Central Bank of Cyprus Article 19: “The Governor and Deputy Governor [...] shall not take in the Republic any office or accept interest in any banking or financial institution or their subsidiary operating in the Republic or controlled by an organisation operating in the Republic and which is supervised by the bank or receive there from remuneration whatsoever for a period of two years after the termination of their appointment.”

E – Other conflicts of interest
All issues are regulated by the Law on the Central Bank of Cyprus.

Instruments
There are no training programmes or ethics committees, but a register on the declarations of financial interests, based upon Law 50(I)/2004, exists.
General profile

The Czech Republic is a new Member State of the EU: it joined the EU on 1 May 2004.

Both within the Supreme Court and the Court of Auditors there is a strong tendency to regulate possible conflicts of interest by specific law; there are no codes. This Conflict of Interest Act seems to be applicable to all five institutions.

Both institutions do not have ethics committees; the Court of Auditors has a register on the declarations of financial interests.

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<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parliament</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supreme Court</td>
<td>9 out of 15 items regulated (60%) – 6 items not regulated (40%)</td>
<td>Law (SIL, GIL, GL)</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Court of Auditors</td>
<td>9 out of 15 items regulated (75%) – 3 items not regulated (25%) – 3 items N/A</td>
<td>Law (SIL, GIL)</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central Bank</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Members of Government

N/A
Regulating Conflicts of Interest for Holders of Public Office

Members of Parliament

N/A

Judges of the Supreme Court

In general:
More than half of the issues (9 out of 16) are regulated. These are all regulated by law. Seven issues are not regulated.

Relevant laws:
- Act on conflict of interests (SIL);
- Act on penal proceedings (GL);
- Act on administrative rules of Court (GIL).

More specific:

A – Professional activities
Of the outside activities, honorary positions and publications are regulated, while political activities and conferences are unregulated. There are, however, specific rules on the incompatibility of posts and professional activities before or during the term of office.

B – Declaration of income
The Declaration of financial interests and assets, and provisions relating to the declaration of interests are regulated. The activities of spouses are unregulated.

C – Gifts, missions and travel
Accepting gifts, decorations, distinctions and issues is regulated. Missions and travel, and the rules on receptions and representation are unregulated.

D – Post-employment
Regulated.

E – Other Conflicts of Interest
There are general rules on impartiality and conflicts of interest, and professional confidentiality is regulated. Professional loyalty and others rules and standards are not regulated.
Christoph Demmke et al.

**Instruments**
The Slovenian Supreme Court does not provide any training programmes, there is no ethics committee and there is no register.

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**Members or Directors of the Supreme Audit Office**

**In general:**
The Supreme Audit Office (SAO) has regulated 9 out of 19 issues, all of them regulated by law. Three issues are not regulated and for four no information was disclosed.
The SAO did not adopt its own code of ethics; it uses the INTOSAI Code of Ethics in professional education.

Relevant laws:
- Supreme Audit Office Act (GIL);
- Conflict of Interest Act (SIL).

**More specific:**

**A – Professional activities**
Almost all professional activities are regulated by law (honorary positions, conferences and publications). The outside activities regarding political activities are regulated by code. Specific rules on the incompatibility of posts and professional activities before or during the term of office are regulated by both code and law.

**B – Declaration of income**
One of the issues is regulated by law, one is regulated by code and one is regulated by both code and law.

**C – Gifts, missions and travel**
All issues concerning gifts, missions and travel are regulated by law.

**D – Post-employment**
Restrictions on professional commitments or holding posts after leaving office are regulated by law.

**E – Other Conflicts of Interest**
General rules on impartiality and conflicts of interest and professional confidentiality are regulated by both code and law. Professional loyalty is regulated by code.

**Instruments**
There are no training programmes, and there is no register. The Court of Audit
does have an ethics committee. This committee is composed of the President of the Supreme Audit Court and two Members of the Supreme Court.

Members or Directors of the Central or National Banks

N/A
General profile

Denmark has been a member of the EU since 1973.

In Denmark, most rules and standards in the field of conflicts of interest are regulated in the form of codes of conduct.

Outside activities are not regulated in the Supreme Court and in the Court of Auditors. Most issues are strictly regulated in the Central Bank by a code of conduct.

The Government and the Parliament have registers of declarations of financial interests. The other institutions do not have registers.

The Supreme Court is the only institution that does not have regulation on accepting gifts, missions or travel.

None of these institutions have restrictions on professional commitments or on holding posts after leaving office.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institution</th>
<th>Issues regulated</th>
<th>Form of regulation</th>
<th>Ethics committee</th>
<th>Public register</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Government</td>
<td>11 items out of 15 regulated (73.33%) – 4 unregulated (26.67%)</td>
<td>Law (GL 3+ SL 1)+ Code (GC 1)</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parliament</td>
<td>9 items out of 15 regulated (60%) – 6 unregulated (40%)</td>
<td>Code (SC 1)</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supreme Court</td>
<td>6 items out of 15 regulated (40%) – 9 unregulated (60%)</td>
<td>Law (SL 2+ GL 1)</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Court of Auditors</td>
<td>7 items out of 15 regulated (46.67%) – 8 unregulated (53.33%)</td>
<td>Law (GIL 1) + Code (GC 1)</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central Bank</td>
<td>11 items out of 15 regulated (73.33%) – 4 unregulated (26.67%)</td>
<td>Law (GL 1+ GIL 1) + Code (GC 1)</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Members of Government

In general:
Practically all issues are regulated by law or by laws and codes of conduct.

Compared to Finland and Sweden, Denmark regulates more issues by laws and codes.

Relevant codes:
- Questionnaire concerning personal and economic interests of Members of Government.

Relevant laws:
- Constitutional Act of Denmark of June 5, 1953;
- Consolidating Act no 273 of 20th April 2004 on Ministers’ fees and pensions, etc., with later amendments;
- Danish Public Administration Act;
- Penal Code.

More specific:

A – Professional activities
Members of Government must disclose information concerning their political activities or honorary positions if they are becoming members of certain associations. There is no regulation concerning conferences.

B – Declaration of income
When HPOs accept a new office, they must withdraw from previous positions in associations, institutions and private companies, etc.

C – Gifts, missions and travel
There are no general provisions concerning the acceptance of gifts by ministers. Ministers are subject to the same rules concerning the acceptance of gifts as civil servants, members of the municipal councils, Members of Parliament, etc. If a civil servant accepts gifts, this can be made subject to sanctions according to Section 144 of the Penal Code. There are no regulations or codes of conduct concerning decorations and distinctions.

There is no legislation as to travels and missions concerning the Members of Government. Existing rules and standards are based upon ethical principles. As a general rule, no payment or sponsorship must be received to cover the travel expenses of ministers or their spouses.
D – Post-employment
There is no regulation in this section.

E – Other Conflicts of Interest
According to the Public Administration Act, no relative is allowed to decide, to take part in deciding, or otherwise to assist in the consideration of the matter in question. Professional loyalty is not regulated.

Instruments
There are no training programmes or ethics committees in Government.

Members of Parliament

In general:
Half of the issues are not regulated. The declaration of income, gifts, missions and travel are all regulated by codes of conduct.

Most of the remaining conflicts of interest are unregulated.

Relevant codes:
• Members of Parliament cannot hold positions within the judiciary or in specific boards or councils related to the judiciary during the term of office.

Relevant laws:
• No data available.

More specific:

A – Professional activities
Honorary positions and conferences are regulated by codes of conduct. The register on declarations of financial interests is regulated both by law and by codes of conduct. The other issues are not regulated.

B – Declaration of income
Generally, all issues in this section are regulated by codes of conduct. The only exception is the activities of the spouses of HPOs, which are not regulated.

C – Gifts, missions and travel
All of these matters are regulated by codes of conduct.
Regulating Conflicts of Interest for Holders of Public Office

D – Post-employment
There is no regulation in this section.

E – Other Conflicts of Interest
Professional confidentiality has been regulated by codes of conduct. The other issues are not regulated.

Instruments
The Danish Parliament has an ethics committee called “Committee of the Standing Order in the Parliament (CSOP).” There is no training programme in the Parliament.

The register on the declaration of financial interests states that all Members of the Parliament are recommended by CSOP to make a statement of all of their incomes, etc.

Judges of the Supreme Court

In general:
Most of the issues are unregulated. In Denmark’s Supreme Court, many issues are strictly regulated. However, there are no regulations in the field of gifts, missions and travel.

The activities of spouses are not regulated.

Relevant codes:
• No specific information concerning relevant codes of conduct.

Relevant laws:
• Administration of Justice Act;
• Penal Code;
• Provisions for officials.

More specific:

A – Professional activities
Specific rules on the incompatibility of posts are the only matter in this section, which is regulated by law. Other issues have no regulations.

B – Declaration of income
There are no rules or standards with regard to the activities of spouses.
C – Gifts, missions and travel
There are no regulations at all in this section.

D – Post-employment
There are no regulations at all in this section.

E – Other Conflicts of Interest
All matters are regulated by law.

Instruments
There are no training programmes or ethics committees.

Members or Directors of the Court of Audit

In general:
Half of the issues are not regulated. The other half are either regulated by codes of conduct or by law.

Declarations of income are not regulated. Gifts, missions and travel are regulated by codes of conduct.

Relevant codes:
• There are no specific codes of conduct, but there are guidelines for professional confidentiality, missions and travel, receptions and representation, and for accepting gifts.

Relevant laws:
• The Auditors General Act, especially Section 1: Instruction for the Auditor General.

More specific:

A – Professional activities
In outside activities, none of the matters is regulated by law, but, in political activities, civil servant must observe that being a member of a political party must not be in conflict with the function of an Auditor General.

Specific rules on the incompatibility of posts are regulated by law.

B – Declaration of income
There is no regulation regarding income declaration.
Regulating Conflicts of Interest for Holders of Public Office

C – Gifts, missions and travel
All issues are bound to codes of conduct.

D – Post-employment
No regulation at all.

E – Other Conflicts of Interest
General rules on impartiality and conflicts of interest are regulated by law. Professional confidentiality is bound to law and codes of conduct, but there is no regulation on professional loyalty.

Instruments
The Court of Auditors does not have training programmes or ethics committees.

Members or Directors of the Central or National Bank

In general:
Most of the issues are, in general, regulated by codes of conduct. Some issues are not regulated and few issues are regulated by law.

Relevant codes:
• Rules on other activities and travel rules

Relevant laws:
• Penal Code § 152 and Act on Denmark’s National Bank §6, available on www.nationalbanken.dk

More specific:

A – Professional activities
All matters in outside activities are regulated by code. Specific rules on the incompatibility of posts are regulated by both law and codes of conduct.

The Central Bank does not have any register on declarations of financial interests, but they do have a system with random checks.

B – Declaration of income
Provisions relating to the declaration of interests are regulated by codes of conduct. The rest of the issues are not regulated.

C – Gifts, missions and travel
All matters are regulated by codes of conduct.
Christoph Demmke et al.

**D – Post-employment**
There is no regulation concerning these issues.

**E – Other Conflicts of Interest**
Professional loyalty is not regulated. General rules on impartiality and conflicts of interest are regulated by a code of conduct. Professional confidentiality is regulated by law.

**Instruments**
The Central Bank does not have any training programmes or ethics committees.
Regulating Conflicts of Interest for Holders of Public Office

Summary: Conflicts of Interest Policy in Estonia

General profile

Estonia has been a member of the EU since 2004.

In Estonia, there are ethical committees in the Government and the Supreme Court. Gifts, missions and travel, and declarations of income are strictly regulated.

Also, most of the other conflicts of interest are strictly regulated.

Out of the unregulated issues, the following issues are worth noting:

a) Professional activities within the Government and the Parliament are not regulated. However, all other institutions have very strict regulations in this area.

b) There is very little focus on training. In addition, Estonia has no ethics committee. This is in contrast to the existing rules and standards which are very strict.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institution</th>
<th>Issues regulated</th>
<th>Form of regulation</th>
<th>Ethics committee</th>
<th>Public register</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Government</td>
<td>8 out of 15 items regulated (53.33%) – 7 unregulated (46.67%)</td>
<td>Law (GL 1 + SL 2+ SIL 1) + Code (SC 1)</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parliament</td>
<td>8 out of 15 items regulated (53.33%) – 7 unregulated (46.67%)</td>
<td>Law (GL 2 + SIL 2+ SL 1)</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supreme Court</td>
<td>12 out of 15 items regulated (85.71%) – 2 unregulated (14.29%) – 1 N/A</td>
<td>Law (GL 1 + GIL 1) + Code (SC 1)</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Court of Auditors</td>
<td>11 out of 15 items regulated (73.33%) – 4 unregulated (26.67%)</td>
<td>Law (GIL 1 + SL 2 + SIL 1) + Code (SC 1)</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central Bank</td>
<td>10 out of 15 items regulated (66.67%) – 5 unregulated (33.33%)</td>
<td>No reply</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Members of Government

In general:
There is practically no regulation regarding professional activities. However, the issue of declarations of income, gifts, missions and travel, and other conflicts of interest are all regulated by law.

Relevant codes:
• The Public Service Code of Ethics is an annex to the Public Service Act. However, the code only partially applies to ministers.

Relevant laws:
• Constitution;
• Government of the Republic Act;
• Anti-Corruption Act;
• Public Service Act.

More specific:

A – Professional activities
No regulations concerning outside activities. Specific rules on incompatibility of posts are regulated by law. The register on declaration of financial interests is regulated by the Anti-Corruption Act, Chapter 2.

B – Declaration of income
The activities of the spouses of HPOs are unregulated, but there are some rules: for example, joint property or joint ownership have to be declared.

C – Gifts, missions and travel
Accepting gifts, missions and travels is regulated by law.

D – Post-employment
There are no regulations concerning these matters.

E – Other Conflicts of Interest
All issues are regulated by law. Professional loyalty is also “covered” by the oath.

Instruments
There is no training programme within Government. However, Estonia has an ethics committee: “The select Committee on the Application of Anti-Corruption Act”.

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Members of Parliament

In general:
Parliament is regulated similarly to the Government. However, the Parliament has no ethics committee.

There is practical no regulation in professional activities. However, declarations of income, gifts, missions and travel, and other conflicts of interest are regulated by law.

All other issues are regulated by law.

Relevant codes:
• There is no code of conduct for a Member of the Riigikogu.

Relevant laws:
• The Constitution of the Republic of Estonia;
• Riigikogu (Parliament) Internal Rules Act;
• Anti-Corruption Act;
• Public Service Act; and
• Riigikogu rules of Procedure Act.

More specific:

A – Professional activities
No regulations in outside activities. Specific rules on the incompatibility of posts are regulated by law.

The Register on declarations of financial interests is regulated within the Anti-Corruption Act, Chapter 2.

B – Declaration of income
The activities of the spouses of HPOs activities are unregulated, but there are some rules: common property, ownership, etc., have to be declared in the declaration of economic interests.

C – Gifts, missions and travel
Accepting gifts, missions and travel are regulated by law.

Participation in missions and travel is regulated by law. These issues are decided by the Board of the Riigikogu (Parliament) according to the general guidelines concerning official travel abroad of Members of Riigikogu.
D – Post-employment
There is no regulation concerning these matters.

E – Other conflicts of interest
All issues are regulated by law. Professional loyalty must be declared in the Oath of Minister.

Instruments
There are no training programmes or ethics committees.

Judges of the Supreme Court

In general:
Most of the issues are regulated and most of them are regulated by code of conduct. Professional activities are strictly regulated.

Issues such as gifts, missions and travel are regulated by codes of conduct.

Relevant codes:
- Judge’s Code of Ethics

Relevant laws:
- The Constitution
- The Courts Act

More specific:

A – Professional activities
These issues are strictly regulated. Outside activities, honorary positions and publications are regulated by codes of conduct. The rest of the issues are regulated by codes of conduct and by law.

Concerning the register on declaration of financial interests: all judges are obliged to present annual declarations of interests. The declaration must be presented to the relevant commission at the Parliament.

B – Declaration of income
The activities of the spouses of HPOs are not regulated. However, the declaration of financial interests and assets is regulated by law.
C – Gifts, missions and travel
Accepting gifts is strictly regulated by law and codes of conduct, but missions, travel and the rules on receptions and representation are regulated by codes of conduct.

D – Post-employment
There was no reply to this issue.

E – Other Conflicts of Interest
Professional loyalty is unregulated.

The rest of the issues in this section are strictly regulated by law and codes of conduct.

Instruments
The Supreme Court has no training programmes. However, there is an ethics committee (the Judges’ disciplinary committee) which discusses disciplinary matters concerning misconduct.

Members or Directors of the Court of Audit

In general:
Most of the issues are regulated by law.

There is some regulation on professional activities. Gifts, missions, travel and other conflicts of interest are strictly regulated.

Relevant codes:
• The Auditors Code of Ethics of the National Audit Office of Estonia (NAOE)

Relevant laws:
• State Audit Office Act;
• Public Information Act;
• Public Service Act; and
• Anti-Corruption Act.

More specific:

A – Professional activities
In outside activities: conferences and publications are unregulated as part of professional activities.
The other issues are regulated by law or codes of conduct or by both instruments. The Court of Audit has a register on declarations of financial interests.

**B – Declaration of income**

Declarations of financial interests and assets and the activities of the spouses of HPOs are regulated by law. The provisions relating to the declaration of interests are regulated by a code of conduct.

**C – Gifts, missions and travel**

Missions and travel are unregulated, but the other issues are strictly regulated by law and codes of conduct.

**D – Post-employment**

Regulated by law.

**E – Other conflicts of interest**

All parts of these matters are strictly regulated by law and codes of conduct.

**Instruments**

There are no training programmes or ethics committees in the Court of Audit.

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**Members or Directors of the Central or National Bank**

**In general:**

Half of issues in the Central Bank are regulated. There are no codes of conduct for the Central Bank’s activities. The strictest regulation concerns the declaration of income. Most of other conflicts of interest are regulated by law.

Relevant codes:
- No particular specifications available in response.

Relevant laws:
- No particular specifications available in response.

**More specific:**

**A – Professional activities**

Half of these matters are regulated by the law. Outside activities are not regulated.

There is no register on declarations of financial interests.

**B – Declaration of income**

All matters are regulated by law.
C – Gifts, missions and travel
Accepting gifts is the only part of these matters which is regulated by law. The other issues are not regulated.

D – Post-employment
No regulation concerning these issues.

E – Other Conflicts of Interest
All matters are regulated by law.

Instruments
There are no training programmes, registers on declaration of financial interests or ethics committees.
## General profile

Finland is a Member State of the EU since 1995.

As to Finland the received information concerns Government, Parliament and Supreme Court. Almost all issues are regulated in Government and in the Supreme Court. On the other hand, the Parliament is mainly regulated by codes of conduct or not regulated at all.

Out of the unregulated issues the following are worth noting:

a) There are no regulations on accepting gifts, missions and travels;

b) There are no regulations on Parliament and Government as to the restriction of professional commitments or holding posts after leaving office.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institution</th>
<th>Issues regulated</th>
<th>Form of regulation</th>
<th>Ethics committee</th>
<th>Public register</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Government</td>
<td>14 items out of 15 regulated (93%) – 1 unregulated (7%)</td>
<td>Law (GL 2+SL 1+GIL 1) + Code (SC 1+GC 1)</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parliament</td>
<td>6 items out of 15 regulated (40%) – 9 unregulated (60%)</td>
<td>Law (GL 2) + Code</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supreme Court</td>
<td>All of the 15 items are regulated</td>
<td>Law (GIL 1+GL 3+SL 1)</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Court of Auditors</td>
<td>No reply</td>
<td>No reply</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>No reply</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central Bank</td>
<td>No reply</td>
<td>No reply</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>No reply</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Members of Government

**In general:**
Practically all issues are regulated by law, and there are only few issues that are regulated by codes of conduct.

Strict regulations exist in the field of gifts, missions and travel. All of these are regulated both by law and by code of conduct.
Regulating Conflicts of Interest for Holders of Public Office

Relevant laws:
- The Constitution of Finland, § 60 and 63. The Constitution (731/1999) can be found in the Finlex or on the website of The Ministry of Justice (also in English). The Constitution provides that ministers have to announce any liabilities they have which might harm their status in the Council of the State.
- The Act on Good Governance (434/2003), and The Act on the Openness of Government Activities (621/1999) cover also all the activities of ministers.

Relevant codes:
- Values in the daily job -civil servant’s ethics 2005

More specific:

A – Professional activities
All issues are regulated by law. In the field of outside Activities, conferences and publications are regulated by law and codes of conduct.

B – Declaration of income
Declarations of financial interests and assets as well as provisions relating to the declaration of interests are regulated by law. The activities of the spouses of HPOs are regulated only by code of conduct (issued by the Prime Ministers Office).

C – Gifts, missions and travel
All issues are regulated by both law and codes of conduct. When travel bills are accepted by the Office of the Council of State, the Office also separates private expenses from public expenses. In some cases (for example, in the case of holding a lecture), the host is allowed to pay the travel expenses.

D – Post-employment
Restrictions on professional commitments are unregulated.

E – Other Conflicts of Interest
General rules of impartiality and conflict of interest are regulated by law and codes of conduct. Professional loyalty and confidentiality are regulated only by law. All ministers have to have continuing in-house control of payments and a yearly auditing of accounts which also aims to secure the correct use of public money.

Instruments
Finland’s Government does have a training programme. The Government does not have an ethics committee.
Members of Parliament

In general:
In Parliament, half of the issues are not regulated and the other half are regulated by law.

One third of the issues are regulated by codes of conduct. It is important to note that Parliament does not have any regulations on gifts, missions, travel or post-employment activities.

Relevant laws:
- The conduct of a Representative is mentioned in the section 31 of the Constitution (“Freedom of speech and conduct of Representatives”)
- The Penal Code of Finland Chapter 40 (Offences in Office) and Section 4 (Acceptance of a bribe as a member of Parliament)
- The Constitution, sections 29 “Independence of Representatives” and 32 “Conflict of Interest”

Relevant codes:
- The Speakers Council has made a decision on the declaration of financial interests. Each Representative may fill in declarations on a voluntary basis (as to private, professional and business activities, offices, debts, ownerships, investment activities, etc.).

More specific:

A – Professional activities
Half of these issues are not regulated and the other half are regulated by codes of conduct. Outside Activities such as conferences and publications are not regulated.

B – Declaration of income
There is no regulation for the activities of the spouses of HPOs but the items Declaration of Financial Interests and Assets, and Provisions relating to the Declaration of Interests are regulated by codes of conduct.

C – Gifts, missions and travel
No reply

D – Post-employment
No reply

E – Other conflicts of interest
Regulating Conflicts of Interest for Holders of Public Office

General rules on impartiality and conflicts of interest are strictly regulated in specific parts of the Constitution

*Instruments*
Finland’s Parliament does not have any training programmes or ethics committees.

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**Judges of the Supreme Court**

**In general:**
All issues are regulated by law. There are no codes of conduct in the Supreme Court’s activities.

Relevant laws:
- The Constitution of Finland, the Code of Judicial Procedure, the Penal Code, the Act on Openness of Government Activities, the State Official Act and the Act on Judicial Appointments.

Relevant codes:
- There are no codes of conduct in Supreme Court’s activities.

**More specific:**
The Supreme Court’s reply to our study did not contain any precise explanations. Consequently, it is difficult to come to more concrete conclusions.

*A – Professional activities*
All are regulated by law

*B – Declaration of income*
All are regulated by law

*C – Gifts, missions and travel*
All regulated by law

*D – Post-employment*
All are regulated by law

*E – Other conflicts of interest*
All are regulated by law
Instruments
There are no training programmes or ethics committee in the Supreme Court. A register on declarations of financial interests does exist, and the declarations are managed in the Ministry of Justice.

Members or Directors of the Court of Audit/ Members or Directors of the Central or National Bank
No answer received
Regulating Conflicts of Interest for Holders of Public Office

**Summary: Conflicts of Interest Policy in France**

**General profile**

France is one of the founding members of the EU.

In France, there is a tendency to strong regulation. All institutions have regulated approximately half of the issues: 47% in Government, 53% in Parliament, and 53% in the Supreme Court.

Two institutions have regulated an exceptional amount of issues. The Court of Auditors has regulated 73% of the issues (most of the issues are regulated by both code and law). The bank regulates 60% of the issues, all by law.

All institutions regulate issues by law (varying from 2 out of 15 issues in Government, 6 out 15 issues in Parliament, 7 out 15 issues in the Court of Auditors, 8 out 15 issues in the Supreme Court, to 9 out 15 in the French Central Bank).

The Supreme Court and the Central Bank share the fact that all regulated issues are covered exclusively by laws. The other institutions use a combination of both code and laws to regulate. The French Government is the only institution where most issues are regulated by code – out of the 7 regulated issues, 5 are regulated by code (and 2 by law).

The Court of Auditors is the only French institution that uses both law and code to regulate issues (47%).

Out of the unregulated issues, the following are worth noting:

a) rules on receptions and representation (all institutions);

b) the activities of the spouses of HPOs (all institutions);

c) accepting gifts, decorations or distinctions (Government, Supreme Court, Central Banks);

d) outside activities; honorary positions (Government, Supreme Court, Central Banks);

e) all three issues regarding declarations of income are unregulated in the Supreme Court and the Court of Auditors.

The type of law that is used by the French institutions is general (constitution and penal code). The Parliament, the Supreme Court and the Central Bank are subject to specific law.
Furthermore, the Government, the Supreme Court and the Court of Auditors do not have registers for declarations of financial interests; only the Central Bank and the Parliament do. The only institution with an ethics committee is the Court of Auditors.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institution</th>
<th>Issues regulated</th>
<th>Form of regulation</th>
<th>Ethics Committee</th>
<th>Public register</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Government</td>
<td>7 out of 15 items are regulated (46.67%) – 8 unregulated (53.33%)</td>
<td>2 issues (13%) are regulated by general law (GL), 5 issues (13%) are regulated by Code (GIC)</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>NO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parliament</td>
<td>8 out of 15 items are regulated (57.14%) – 6 unregulated (42.86%) – 1 N/A</td>
<td>6 issues (40%) are regulated by general law (GL), 2 issues (13%) are regulated by code (GIC)</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>YES</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supreme Court</td>
<td>8 out of 15 items are regulated (53.33%) - 7 out of 15 are unregulated (46.67%)</td>
<td>8 issues (53%) are regulated by both general law and specific law (GL and SIL)</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>NO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Court of Auditors</td>
<td>10 out 15 issues is regulated (66.67%) – 5 unregulated (33.33%)</td>
<td>7 issues are regulated by both law and code (47%), 3 are regulated by code (20%), 1 issue is regulated by law (7%)</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>NO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central Bank</td>
<td>9 out of 15 issues are regulated by law (64.29%), 5 out of 15 unregulated (35.71%)</td>
<td>9 out of 15 issues (60%) are regulated by general institution law (GIL 9)</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>YES</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N.B. France interpreted the concept of Code of Conduct as “règles non-écrites”, unwritten rules.
Members of the Government

**In general:**
Half of the issues (7 out of 15) are regulated by the French Government. Five of the regulated issues are regulated by code. Two of the regulated issues are regulated by law.

Relevant laws:
The laws that apply are both general laws:
- Constitution (GL);
- Penal code (GL).

The issues regulated by law are general rules on impartiality, and restrictions on professionals’ commitment or posts, and professionals’ activities during the term of office.

**More specific:**

*A – Professional activities*
Three out of the 4 professional activities are unregulated (political activities, honorary positions and conferences). For publications, there is a code. Specific rules on the incompatibility of posts and professional activities before or during the term of office are regulated by law.

*B – Declaration of income*
Declarations of financial interests and assets and provisions relating to the declaration of interests are regulated by law. The activities of the spouses of HPOs are unregulated.

*C – Gifts, missions and travel*
The French Government has no rules at all on issues regarding gifts, missions, or travel. All issues are unregulated (accepting gifts, decorations, and distinctions; missions and travel; rules on receptions and representation).

*D – Post-employment*
Professional commitments or holding posts after leaving office is unregulated.

*E – Other Conflicts of Interest*
All issues regarding other conflicts of interest are regulated. General rules on impartiality and conflicts of interest are regulated by law. Professional confidentiality and professional loyalty are regulated by code.
**Instruments**
The Government does not make use of registers or committees.

**Members of Parliament**

**In general:**
The French Parliament regulates half of the issues (8 out of 15 – 53%). 2 of the regulated issues are regulated by code (General Institution Code), 6 of the regulated issues are regulated by law.

Relevant laws:
The laws that apply to the Parliament are both general laws:
- Constitution (GL);
- Penal code (GL).

Relevant codes:
- Code electoral (GIL).

**More specific:**

**A – Professional activities**
Outside activities: honorary positions and conferences are regulated by code. Publications and political activities are regulated by law.

**B – Declaration of income**
Declarations of financial interests and assets, and provisions relating to the declarations of interests are regulated by code. The activities of the spouses of HPOs are unregulated.

**C – Gifts, missions and travel**
The acceptance of gifts, decorations, and distinctions is regulated by law. Missions and travel, as well as rules on receptions and representation are unregulated.

**D – Post-employment**
Professional commitments and the holding posts after leaving office are unregulated.

**E – Other Conflicts of Interest**
General rules on impartiality and conflicts of interest are regulated by law. Professional confidentiality and professional loyalty are unregulated.
Regulating Conflicts of Interest for Holders of Public Office

Instruments
The Parliament does not have a committee, but they do have a register.

Judges of the Supreme Court

In general:
Eight out of 15 items are regulated (53%), 7 out of 15 are unregulated (47%). All these issues are regulated by law.

Relevant law:
- Constitution (article 57), (GL);
- Ordonnance n° 58-1067 portant loi organique sur le conseil constitutionnel (SIL).

More specific:

A – Professional activities
Except for “honorary positions”, all issues regarding professional activities are regulated by law (political activities; the incompatibility of posts and professional activities before or during the term of office apply; conferences and publications). Honorary positions are unregulated.

B – Declaration of income
The French Supreme Court has no rules at all on issues regarding declarations of income (declaration of financial interests and assets, the activities of the spouses of HPOs, or provisions relating to the declarations of interests).

C – Gifts, missions and travel
The French Supreme Court has no rules at all on issues regarding gifts, missions, or travel.

D – Post-employment
Professional commitments or the holding of posts after leaving office is regulated by law.

E – Other Conflicts of Interest
All issues regarding other conflicts of interest (general rules on impartiality and conflicts of interest, professional confidentiality, professional loyalty) are regulated by law.

Instruments
The Supreme Court does not make use of a register or a committee.
Members of the Court of Auditors

In general:
Out of all the institutions, the Court of Auditors is the most regulated. Eleven out 15 issues are regulated. The Court uses both law and codes. Seven out of 11 issues are regulated by both law and code. Three out of 11 issues are regulated by code. One issue is regulated by law.

All issues regarding declarations of income are unregulated (3). The issues regarding honorary positions and rules on reception and representation are also unregulated (2)

Relevant codes:
• Code: “Charte de déontologie commune à la cour et aux Chambres régionales et territoriales des comptes”.

Relevant law:
• Code des juridictions financières;
• Le Code pénal;
• La loi n° 83-634 du 13 juillet 1983 portant droits et obligations des fonctionnaires;
• La loi n° 93-122 du 29 janvier 1993 relative à la prévention de la corruption et à la transparence de la vie économique et des procédures publique.

More specific:

A – Professional activities
Except honorary positions (unregulated), all issues regarding professional activities are regulated. Publications and political activities are regulated by code. Conferences and professional activities before or during the term of office are regulated by both code and law.

B – Declaration of income
The French Supreme Court has no rules at all on issues regarding declaration of income (declaration of financial interests and assets, HPO spouses’ activities, provisions relating to the declaration of interests).

C – Gifts, missions and travel
Missions and travel are regulated by law, while accepting gifts, decorations and distinctions is regulated by code and law. Rules on receptions and representation is the only unregulated issue in this section.
Regulating Conflicts of Interest for Holders of Public Office

**D – Post-employment**
Restrictions on professional commitments or the holding of posts after leaving office are regulated by code and law.

**E – Other Conflicts of Interest**
All issues regarding other conflicts of interest are regulated by both code and law (general rules on impartiality and conflicts of interest, professional confidentiality and loyalty).

**Instruments**
The Court of Auditors does not have a register, but they do have a committee. This committee is called: the “college of deontology” and consists of three magistrates, whose role is to examine questions regarding the prevention of conflicts of interest, integrity, neutrality, discretion, secrecy and impartiality. They reflect on these questions and propose modifications to the principles in the charter.

**Directors of the Central Bank**

**In general:**
The majority of issues within the Central Bank are regulated (9 out of 16 issues, 60%).

Relevant law:
- Code monétaire et financier (articles L 142-7 et L 142-9)

The bank does not have or use a code.

**More specific:**

**A – Professional activities**
All professional activities are regulated by law. (There is/was no answer for honorary positions).

**B – Declaration of income**
Declarations of financial interests and assets, and provisions relating to the declaration of interests are regulated by law. The activities of the spouses of HPOs are unregulated.

**C – Gifts, missions and travel**
The Central Bank has no rules at all on issues regarding gifts, missions, or travel.


Christoph Demmke et al.

D – Post-employment
Restrictions on professional commitments or the holding of posts after leaving office are regulated by law.

E – Other Conflicts of Interest
General rules on impartiality and conflicts of interest and professional confidentiality are regulated by law. Professional loyalty is unregulated.

Instruments
The bank does not have a committee, but they do have a register.
General profile

Germany is a founding member of the EU.

None of the German institutions has most or all issues regulated. The Government and the Court of Auditors share the fact that, for the issues regulated, most are covered by laws or a combination of laws and codes. With regard to the Supreme Court, if regulated, most issues are settled by laws. In the Central Bank, there is a tendency to regulate by codes and the Parliament uses a combination of all possibilities for these issues, namely, code, laws and the combination of both.

Out of the unregulated issues, the following are worth noting:

a) there are no declarations of financial interests and assets for the Government, the Supreme Court, or the Court of Auditors;
b) there are no restrictions on professional commitments or the holding of other posts after leaving office for the members of the Government, Parliament, and Supreme Court;
c) there are no general rules on impartiality and conflicts of interest for the Government;
d) there is no specification of rules regarding the activities of the spouses of HPOs: Government, Parliament, Supreme Court, Court of Auditors, and Central Bank

Furthermore, the Government, the Supreme Court, the Court of Auditors and the Central Bank do not have registers for declarations of financial interests. The Parliament, having introduced such a register, has temporarily suspended its register pending a ruling of the Supreme Court on the issue after six MPs filed a lawsuit against it.

In summary, Germany shows a heterogenic picture of different means used to counter conflicts of interest. The country shows a slight preference for laws, followed closely by law-code combinations and then solutions which rely solely on codes. No specific law applicable to all institutions exists on conflicts of interest.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institution</th>
<th>Issues regulated</th>
<th>Form of regulation</th>
<th>Ethics committee</th>
<th>Public register</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Government</td>
<td>7 out of 15 items are regulated (46.67%) – 8 unregulated (53.33%)</td>
<td>Law (GIL 5) Code (GC 3)</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Members of Government

**In general:**
Less than half of the issues are regulated. If regulated, most issues are either covered by law or by a combination of a law and a code.

**Relevant laws:**
- Gesetz über die Rechtsverhältnisse der Mitglieder der Bundesregierung (Bundesministergesetz – Law on the legal relationships of Members of the federal Government).

**General laws applicable also to Members of Government:**
- Grundgesetz (Basic Act);
- Strafgesetzbuch (penal law).

**More specific:**

A – **Professional activities**
Most professional activities are regulated by law. Specific rules on outside political activities, honorary positions and on the incompatibility of posts and professional activities before or during the term of office apply. Outside activities such as publications and participation in conferences are unregulated.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institution</th>
<th>Issues regulated</th>
<th>Form of regulation</th>
<th>Ethics committee</th>
<th>Public register</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Parliament</td>
<td>10 out of 15 items regulated (66.67%) – 5 unregulated (33.33%)</td>
<td>Law (GIL 8) Code (GC 8)</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes (pending a decision)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supreme Court</td>
<td>8 out of 15 items are regulated (57.14%) – 6 unregulated (42.86%) – 1 N/A</td>
<td>Law (GIL 9) Code (SC 1)</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Court of Auditors</td>
<td>12 out of 15 items are regulated (80%) – 3 unregulated (20%)</td>
<td>Law (GIL 13) Code (GC 5)</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central Bank</td>
<td>14 out of 15 items are regulated (93.34%) – 1 unregulated (6.67%)</td>
<td>Law (GIL 4) Code (GC 13)</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Regulating Conflicts of Interest for Holders of Public Office

B – Declaration of income
The German Government has no rules at all on issues regarding declarations of income (declarations of financial interests and assets, the activities of the spouses of HPOs, or provisions relating to the declaration of interests).

C – Gifts, missions and travel
Accepting gifts, decorations, and distinctions is regulated by law and a code. Missions and travels are regulated by a code. Rules on receptions and representation do not exist.

D – Post-employment
There are no restrictions on professional commitments or the holding of posts after leaving office.

E – Other Conflicts of Interest
General rules on impartiality and conflicts of interest do not exist. For confidentiality and other rules and standards, there is a law. Professional loyalty is regulated in a code.

Instruments
The German Government does not provide training for HPOs and has not established an ethics committee. A register on declarations of financial interests does not exist, either.

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Members of Parliament

In general:
Most of the issues are regulated either by law, by a combination of a law and a code, or solely by a code.

Relevant laws:

Relevant codes:
- Verhaltensregeln für Mitglieder des Deutschen Bundestages (code of conduct for Members of the German Parliament).

General laws applicable also to Members of Parliament:
- Grundgesetz (Basic Act);
- Strafgesetzbuch (penal law).
More specific:

A – Professional activities
All professional activities are regulated by law, or a combination of laws and codes. Specific rules on outside political activities, honorary positions, on the incompatibility of posts and professional activities before or during the term of office as well as on publications and the participation in conferences apply.

B – Declaration of income
The German Parliament has no rules on the activities of the spouses of HPOs. Issues regarding the declaration of income (declaration of financial interests and assets, provisions relating to the declaration of interests) are regulated by both laws and codes.

C – Gifts, missions and travel
Accepting gifts, decorations, and distinctions is regulated by both law and a code. Neither missions and travel nor receptions and representation are regulated.

D – Post-employment
There are no restrictions on professional commitments or the holding of posts after leaving office.

E – Other Conflicts of Interest
General rules on impartiality and conflicts of interest and on confidentiality are regulated in a code. For other rules and standards, there was no answer available from Germany. Professional loyalty is not regulated.

Instruments
The German Parliament does not offer training for HPOs and has not established an ethics committee. A register on declarations of financial interests has been established, but is currently suspended due to a pending lawsuit brought by six MPs before the Supreme Court.

Judges of the Supreme Court

In general:
Slightly more than 50% of the issues are regulated for Judges of the Supreme Court. At the Court, issues tend to be regulated by laws, even though in one case (accepting gifts, decorations, and distinctions) a law is in force in combination with a code.
Regulating Conflicts of Interest for Holders of Public Office

Relevant codes:
• Verhaltensregel über die Annahme von Geschenken an Richter und Richterinnen des Bundesverfassungsgerichts (Code of conduct for Judges of the German Supreme Court on accepting gifts) of 17 December 2003;
• Geschäftsordnung des Bundesverfassungsgerichtes (GOBVerfG – Rules of procedure of the German Supreme Court);

Relevant laws:
• Gesetz über das Bundesverfassungsgericht (BVerfGG – Law on the Federal Supreme Court).

More specific:

A – Professional activities
Specific rules on outside political activities and participation in conferences are regulated by law. The same applies to specific rules on the incompatibility of posts and professional activities before or during the term of office. Neither honorary positions nor publications have been specifically addressed.

B – Declaration of income
There are no laws or codes on declarations of income (the activities of the spouses of HPOs, declarations of financial interests and assets, and provisions relating to the declaration of interests).

C – Gifts, missions and travel
While there is no information available on rules pertaining to receptions and representation, there is a law on missions and travel as well as a combined law-code regulation for accepting gifts, decorations, and distinctions.

D – Post-employment
There are no restrictions on professional commitments or on the holding of posts after leaving office.

E – Other Conflicts of Interest
General rules on impartiality and conflicts of interest, on loyalty and on confidentiality are regulated in a law. Further rules and standards do not exist.

Instruments
The Supreme Court has an ethics committee, but a register for declarations of financial interests is not in place. An answer on training programmes was not available.
Members or Directors of the Court of Audit

In general:
Most of the issues are regulated for Members or Directors of the Court of Audit. At the Court, issues tend to be regulated by laws or laws in combination with codes.

Relevant laws:
• Bundesrechnungshofgesetz (BRHG – Federal law for the Court of Auditors).

Relevant codes:
• Geschäftsordnung des Bundesrechnungshofes vom 19.11.1997 (GO-BRH – Rules of procedure of the German Court of Auditors of 19 November 1997);
• Prüfungsordnung des Bundesrechnungshofes vom 11.07.1985 (PO-BRH – Rules on Auditing of the German Court of Auditors).

More specific:

A – Professional activities
All professional activities are regulated either by law or by a law and a code together. This includes political and honorary activities, participation in conferences and publications and any other job incompatible with the office of an HPO.

B – Declaration of income
There is a law and a code on general provisions for declaration of interests, but there is no such regulation with regard to specific public declarations of financial interests or assets. The activities of spouses are not regulated, either.

C – Gifts, missions and travel
Accepting gifts, decorations and distinctions is regulated by means of law and code. Missions and travel are covered by a law. No specific regulation exists on receptions and representation.

D – Post-employment
Professional commitments or the holding of posts after leaving office are regulated by law.

E – Other Conflicts of Interest
General rules on impartiality and conflicts of interest, as well as on loyalty, are regulated by law. Confidentiality is regulated in a law and a code. Further rules and standards do exist in the form of a law.
Instruments
The Court of Auditors offers training programmes on ethical questions for HPOs. It does not have an ethics committee or a register on the declarations of financial interests.

Members or Directors of the Central Bank

In general:
Most of the issues are regulated for Members or Directors of the Central Bank in Germany. At the bank, more than 50% of all issues are regulated with codes.

Relevant codes:
• Verhaltenskodex für die Mitglieder des Vorstands der Deutschen Bundesbank (Code of Conduct for the Directors of the Central Bank);
• Additionally, there are internal unpublished guidelines on the problem of insider trading.

Relevant laws:
• Bundesbank Gesetz (BundesbankG – Central Bank Law).

More specific:

A – Professional activities
All professional activities are regulated by a code (honorary activities, publications, conferences and specific rules of incompatibility with other posts), with the exception of political activities, which are covered by law.

B – Declaration of income
There is a code on the general provisions for the declaration of interests and a code as regards specific public declarations of financial interests or assets. The activities of spouses are not regulated.

C – Gifts, missions and travel
Accepting gifts, decorations and distinctions is regulated by means of law and code. Missions and travel are covered by a code. A code also exists on receptions and representation.

D – Post-employment
Professional commitments or holding posts after leaving office are regulated by code.
E – Other Conflicts of Interest
General rules on impartiality and conflicts of interest and on confidentiality are regulated by law and code. Loyalty is regulated in a code. For further rules and standards, no answer was given.

Instruments
The Central Bank has a corporate governance officer who acts in an ethics advisory capacity. There is no special training and a register on the disclosure of financial interests does not exist.
General profile

Greece joined the European Union in 1981. The country has a republican structure with a single-chamber Parliament, founded on the constitutions of 1975.

Information on conflict of interest policies in the Greek institutions was only available with regard to the Supreme Court and Court of Audit. Most conflict of interest issues are strictly regulated for both of these institutions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>Form of regulation</th>
<th>Ethics committee</th>
<th>Public register</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Government</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parliament</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supreme Court</td>
<td>13 out of 15 items are regulated (100%) – 2 unregulated</td>
<td>Law (GL+ GIL 11) Code (SIC 12)</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Court of Auditors</td>
<td>All 15 items are regulated (100%)</td>
<td>Law (GL+ GIL 13)</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central Bank</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Judges of the Supreme Court

In general:
Thirteen out of the 15 conflict of interest issues are regulated for the Judges of the Supreme Court, most of them (9 out of the 15) by a combination of laws and codes. According to the Greek Constitution (Article 89) and the Code of Conduct for Judges (Article 41), the following restrictions concerning incompatibility for all Greek Judges are in force:
1) Judicial functionaries are prohibited from performing any other salaried service or practising any other profession. Exceptionally, judicial functionaries may be elected members of the Academy or professors of Universities. They may also sit on councils or committees with disciplinary or jurisdictional duties and they may participate in drafting law or audit committees, when specifically provided by law.
2) The assignment of administrative duties to judicial functionaries is prohibited. One exception is that senior Judges can undertake commitments related to the
education of other Judges, since these duties are considered judicial.

3) Judicial functionaries participate in arbitration courts, only within the limits of their judicial duties.

4) The participation of judicial functionaries in the Government is prohibited.

Furthermore, the provisions of Article 91 of the Code of Conduct introduce certain restrictions on Judges for specific social activities. Particularly, behaviour indicating lack of loyalty to the country, to the democratic form of Government or behaviour which undermines the democratic legitimacy is prohibited to Judges. Similarly, judicial functionaries are prohibited from participating in actions which may lead to the abolition of the democratic legitimacy or in organisations which either have secret goals or impose secrecy on their members. Subsequent to their retirement, Judges do not have any restrictions on professional activities.

Relevant codes:
• Code of conduct for Judges of Areios Pagos (the Greek Supreme Court).

Relevant laws:

More specific:

A – Professional activities
Specific rules on outside political activities and participation in conferences are regulated by law. The same applies to specific rules on the incompatibility of posts and professional activities before or during the term of office. Honorary positions as well as publications have not been specifically addressed.

B – Declaration of income
All issues relating to the declaration of income (the activities of spouses and close relatives, the declarations of financial interests and assets, and provisions relating to the declaration of interests) are regulated by a combination of law and code.

C – Gifts, missions and travel
While the issue of accepting gifts, decorations and distinctions is regulated by law and code, missions and travel are regulated by law alone. Rules on receptions and representation do not exist.

D – Post-employment
There are no restrictions on professional commitments or the holding of posts after leaving office.
E – Other Conflicts of Interest
General rules on impartiality and conflicts of interest, on loyalty and on confidentiality are regulated by law and code of conduct.

Instruments
Judges act as trainers in the education programmes for judicial functionaries, but there is no training on ethics for Judges themselves. The Supreme Court has an ethics committee by intermediary of the Inspectors of Judicial Functionaries, as well as a register for declarations of financial interests. The “Photen Esxes” (Register on declarations of financial interests of judicial functionaries, their spouses and close relatives) is kept by the Office of the Attorney General.

Members or Directors of the Court of Audit

In general:
All issues for Members or Directors of the Court of Audit are regulated by law.

Relevant code:
• A draft code of conduct, the “Internal Regulation on the official duties of the judiciary in the Elegktiko Syndedrio (Hellenic Court of Audit)” is expected to be adopted by the Court’s plenum in autumn.

Relevant laws:
• Articles 46, 87 and 100A of the Constitution of Greece;
• Law 1756/1988 “Code of the Courts’ organisation and the status of the judiciary” (esp. Part I, section 2, Arts. 33 subsequent);
• Law 3213/2003 “Declaration and control of the financial assets of the deputies, public servants and employees”.

More specific:

A – Professional activities
All professional activities are regulated by law. This includes political and honorary activities, participation in conferences and publications and any other job incompatible with the office of an HPO.

B – Declaration of income
There is a law on general provisions for declaration of interests, as well as on public declarations of financial interests or assets and the activities of spouses.
C – Gifts, missions and travel
Accepting gifts, decorations and distinctions, as well as missions and travel and receptions and representation are regulated by means of law.

D – Post-employment
Professional commitments or holding posts after leaving office are regulated by law.

E – Other Conflicts of Interest
General rules on impartiality and conflicts of interest and on loyalty are regulated by law. Confidentiality is regulated in both a law and a code. Further rules and standards exist in form of a law.

Instruments
The Court of Auditors does not offer training programmes on ethical questions, nor does it have an ethics committee or a register on declarations of financial interests.
Regulating Conflicts of Interest for Holders of Public Office

General profile

Hungary, along with a group of other countries including Estonia, Lithuania and Slovenia, joined the European Union on the 1st of May 2004.

The predominant mode of regulating the conflicts of interest situations is through the use of legal instruments. Government and Parliament rely solely on legal rules, but the Court of Justice, the Court of Auditors and the Central Bank have also adopted a code of conduct. However, these codes cover only some issues and the main instrument in these cases is legislation. Generally speaking, the professional activities of HPOs, declarations of income, as well as other conflicts of interest, are all regulated by law. Gifts, missions and travel are typically/usually regulated by internal regulations, which are determined by the leader of the organisation. In most cases, there are no restrictions on the post-employment of HPOs, and the activities of spouses are not regulated.

Conflicts of interest are regulated by institutional laws. However, the general principles of property declarations for all institutions are defined in the Act on the Legal Status of Members of Parliament.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institution</th>
<th>Issues regulated</th>
<th>Form of regulation</th>
<th>Ethics Committee</th>
<th>Public register</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Government</td>
<td>13 out of 15 items regulated (86.67%) – 2 unregulated (13.33%)</td>
<td>Law (GL 2, SIL 1)</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parliament</td>
<td>7 out of 15 items regulated (46.67%) – 8 unregulated (53.33%)</td>
<td>Law (GL 1, SIL 1)</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supreme Court</td>
<td>13 out of 15 items regulated (86.67%) – 2 unregulated (13.33%)</td>
<td>Law (GL 1, SIL 1) + Code (GC 1)</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Court of Auditors</td>
<td>13 out of 15 items regulated (86.67%) – 2 unregulated (13.33%)</td>
<td>Law (GL 2, SIL 1) + Code (GC 1)</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central Bank</td>
<td>15 out of 15 items regulated (100%)</td>
<td>Law (GL 2, SIL 1) + Code (SC 1)</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Members of Government

In general:
Thirteen out of 15 items are regulated. Most of them are regulated by law (11). Two items – rules on receptions and representation, and accepting gifts, decorations or distinctions, are controlled by internal regulations. These regulations are introduced by the leader of the organisation and are obligatory only in the frame of the particular organisation. Internal regulations cannot run contrary to the act or decree, but they can regulate some matters or activities in a more detailed manner. In the present study, these kinds of internal regulations were categorised as a “code”. Two issues, the activities of spouses of HPOs, and restrictions on professional commitments or the holding of other posts after leaving office, are not regulated.

It should be noted that the Government’s mandate does not end upon the establishment of a conflict of interest on the part of the prime minister (Constitution, Article 33/A), but a minister’s term must cease upon the declaration of a conflict of interest (Constitution, Article 33/B).

Relevant laws:
• 1949: XX Act on the Constitution of the Republic of Hungary;
• 2006: LVII Act on Central Public Administration Organisations and the Legal Status of the Members of the Government and the State Secretaries;

Relevant codes:
There are some internal regulations, but no proper code of conduct.

More specific:

A – Professional Activities
All professional activities are regulated by law.

B – Declaration of Income
A minister who is a Member of the Parliament has to declare his or her wealth in accordance with the regulations related to the Members of Parliament (see the section on Members of the Parliament for more details). A minister who is not a Member of the Parliament shall declare his or her wealth within 30 days on his or her appointment, and must subsequently do so every year, as well as within 30 days after the termination of his or her mandate, along with the data contents in the Annex of the Act relating to the legal status of the Members of Parliament. Declarations are registered by the prime minister’s office and are published on the webpage of the Government. The activities of a minister’s spouse are not included.
Regulating Conflicts of Interest for Holders of Public Office

C – Gifts, missions and travel
Regulations on missions and travel are regulated by law. Regulations on accepting gifts, decorations and distinctions as well as rules on reception and representation are regulated by internal regulations.

D – Post-employment
Post-employment is regulated by law (the Act on the Legal Status of Members of Parliament, Section 14b). According to the law, an MP may not be a leading official or a member of the supervisory board of a concessionaire company; nor shall he or she have the right to act as leader (chief executive officer) either in an employment relationship or other work-related legal relationship with the company carrying on economic activity, while his or her mandate is in effect or within two years following the termination of his mandate.

E – Other Conflicts of Interest
There are general rules on impartiality and conflicts of interest, and regulations on professional confidentiality and loyalty.

Instrument
At present, the Hungarian Government does not hold training programmes concerning ethical issues for ministers, and there is no committee on ethics. There is a register on declarations of financial interests, which operates according to the provisions in the Act LV of 1990 on the Legal Status of Members of Parliament (Chapter III, Sections 9-23). The declarations are registered by the prime minister’s office and are published on the webpage of the Government.

Members of Parliament

In general:
Seven out of 15 items are regulated by law, all other items are unregulated. Parliament has begun the preparations to create a code of conduct.

Relevant laws:
• 1949: XX Act on the Constitution of the Republic of Hungary;

More specific:

A – Professional Activities
The Act on the Legal Status of Members of Parliament contains detailed rules regarding the incompatibility of posts and the issues of economic incompatibility
during the term of office of an MP. However, political activities and honorary positions are not regulated, and there are no regulations related to conferences or publications.

**B – Declaration of Income**
The Act on the Legal Status of Members of Parliament contains detailed rules concerning the declaration of income. Members of Parliament are obliged to make statements to the speaker of Parliament about their property, income and economic interests. With his or her own statement, the MP has to enclose the statements of his or her spouse or partner in life and his or her children, living in the same household. The procedure concerning the property statement can be initiated by the speaker of Parliament. In the event of initiation, the speaker hands over the case to the Immunity, Incompatibility and Mandate Examination Committee of the Parliament. The procedure pursued by the committee is governed by the Standing Orders of the Parliament.

**C – Gifts, missions and travel**
Members of Parliament may not receive presents or free grants in excess of two months’ amount of the current basic salary of MPs in each individual case. On presents and gratis grants which do not reach such value, a record shall be kept by MPs as part of their statement of property. Travel as such is not regulated, and there are no detailed rules on receptions and representation.

**D – Post-employment**
Post-employment is regulated by law.

**E – Other Conflicts of Interest**
Parliament Members must not unlawfully obtain or use confidential information. There are no regulations relating to professional loyalty or general rules on impartiality and conflicts of interest.

**Instruments**
The Hungarian Parliament does not arrange training programmes concerning ethical issues for Members of Parliament. The Parliament has a committee that is responsible for certain ethical issues, among other tasks. The chairman of the Immunity, Incompatibility and Mandate Examination Committee analyses whether there are any grounds of incompatibility. In the event of a procedure of incompatibility being instituted, the Committee of Immunity, Incompatibility and Mandate Examination must inquire into the case within 30 days. The detailed rules of the procedure of the examination board has to be established by the Standing Orders of the Parliament. According to the Constitution, a majority of two-thirds of the votes of the Members of Parliament present is required for the Parliament to establish that there is a conflict of interest (Article 20/A).
Records on the statements of property and the other activities which have to be declared along with any other records in connection with incompatibility are kept by the Committee of Immunity, Incompatibility and Mandate Examination. The statement of property will be made public by the speaker of Parliament. The statements of property of the relatives will be kept with the committee. The statement of the spouse or partner in life and child(ren) living together with the MP may be inspected only by the Members of the Immunity, Incompatibility and Mandate Examination Committee, in the course of the procedure relating to the statement of property of the Member in question.

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**Judges of the Supreme Court**

**In general:**
Thirteen out of 15 items are regulated. Seven of them are regulated by law, three by code of conduct, and three items by both law and code of conduct. The category of gifts, missions and travel is regulated by internal regulations. Two issues, activities of spouses HPOs, and restrictions on professional commitments or the holding of other posts after leaving office, are not regulated.

**Relevant laws:**

**Relevant codes:**
- Code of Conduct of the Hungarian Judicial Association (February 2005)

**More specific:**

**A – Professional Activities**
All professional activities are regulated by law. Judges may not be members of political parties and may not engage in political activities (Constitution, Article 50). Political activities are also regulated in the code of conduct.

**B – Declaration of Income**
Judges of the Supreme Court are subject to financial disclosure. According to the Act on the Legal Status and Remuneration of the Judges (Section 10/A-10/F), Judges shall declare their wealth in 30 days on their appointment and subsequently in every three years. The person obliged to make this declaration has to enclose the declaration of his or her spouse or partner in life living in the same household, as well that of his or her children. The Office of the National Court of Justice takes care of the managing of the declarations of wealth. The President of the Supreme Court has to declare his or her wealth within 30 days of their appointment and sub-
sequently every three years, and consign it to the speaker of the Parliament. The Parliamentary Committee on Immunity, Conflicts and Mandate Inspection takes care of the managing of the declarations of wealth. The declarations of wealth – with the exception of the relatives – is public. The declaration of wealth brought to public shall not contain any identification data.

C – Gifts, missions and travel
Gifts, missions and travel are regulated by internal regulations.

D – Post-employment
The Judges of the Supreme Court are not subject to post-employment restrictions.

E – Other Conflicts of Interest
Standards on professional loyalty are set in law. General rules on impartiality and conflicts of interest as well as standards concerning professional confidentiality are established both in legislation and in the code of conduct.

Instruments
The Supreme Court provides training relating to the ethical behaviour. A publication titled “The Judicial Ethics and Honourable Proceedings” was published in 2007. It contains the basic questions pertaining to issues including the judicial ethics, legal culture and the code of conduct in the annex. The Supreme Court does not have an ethics committee, although the Judges of the Supreme Court are members of the Judicial Association and are under the authority of its Ethics Committee. There is a register for the declarations of financial interests. The Judges have to declare their wealth within 30 days of the day of their appointment and subsequently every three years. The person obliged to make this declaration has to enclose the declaration of his or her spouse or partner in life living in the same household, as well that of his or her children. The Office of the National Court of Justice presides over the managing of the declarations of wealth. The President of the Supreme Court has to declare his or her wealth within 30 days of the day of his or her appointment, and subsequently every three years, and consign the statement to the speaker of the Parliament. The Parliamentary Committee on Immunity, Conflicts and Mandate Inspection presides over the managing of the declarations of wealth, which, with the exception of relatives – is public. The declarations of wealth published cannot contain any data by which identification can be made.

Members or Directors of the Court of Audit

In general:
Thirteen out of 15 items are regulated. The majority of them are regulated by law (6), two by the INTOSAI Code of Ethics, and three by both law and code of ethics.
Regulating Conflicts of Interest for Holders of Public Office

The code of ethics is a model code for the Supreme Audit Institutions, issued by the International Organisation of Supreme Audit Institutions (INTOSAI). The INTO-SAIA Code of Ethics is intended to be seen as a foundation for national codes of ethics to be developed by each supreme audit institution. However, the code is not adjusted for the Hungarian State Audit Office. The category of gifts, missions and travel is regulated by internal regulations. Two issues, the activities of the spouses of HPOs, and restrictions on professional commitments or the holding of other posts after leaving office, are not regulated.

Relevant codes:
• INTOSAI – Code of Ethics and Auditing Standards. Issued by the Auditing Standards Committee at the XVIIth Congress of INTOSAI in 1998.

Relevant laws:
• 1949:XX Act on the Constitution of the Republic of Hungary;
• 1992:XXIII Act on the Legal Status of Civil Servants;
• 1989:XXXVIII Act on the State Audit Office.

More specific:

A – Professional Activities
All professional activities are regulated by law, and specific rules on the incompatibility of posts and professional activities before or during the term of office are also regulated by the INTOSAI Code of Ethics. The code emphasises the importance of political neutrality: auditors should maintain their independence from political influence in order to discharge their audit responsibilities in an impartial way. Auditors should also avoid all relationships with managers and staff in the audited entity and other parties that may influence, compromise or threaten the ability of auditors to act and be seen to be acting independently.

B – Declaration of Income
Members of the State Audit Office are subject to financial disclosure regulated by law. Their activities of their spouses are not regulated.

C – Gifts, missions and travel
Gifts, missions and travel are regulated by internal regulations. The INTOSAI Code of Ethics states that auditors should protect their independence and avoid any possible conflict of interest by refusing gifts or gratuities which could influence or be perceived as influencing their independence and integrity (Article 23).

D – Post-employment
There are no restrictions on professional commitments or the holding of posts after leaving office.
E – Other conflicts of interest

General rules on impartiality and conflicts of interest are established in legislation and in the code of ethics. According to the code, auditors should not use their official position for private purposes and should avoid relationships which involve the risk of corruption or which may raise doubts about their objectivity and independence (Article 25). Standards on professional confidentiality and loyalty are also set in the code of ethics.

Instruments

The State Audit Office provides training relating to the ethical behaviour. Training is based upon the Annual Training Plan regulated in the Act on Civil Servants. The Annual Plan contains training on ethical standards and anti-corruption measures. The State Audit Office does not have an ethics committee or an advisory group on ethics.

The president and the vice-presidents of the State Audit Office have to make property declarations at the time of their election and then annually, while the senior officials and auditors of the State Audit Office have to make them at the time of their appointment and then biannually. The property declarations of the president and the vice-presidents are registered and verified by the Parliamentary Committee on Immunity, Conflicts and Mandate Inspection. The property declarations of the senior officials and auditors are registered and verified by the president of the State Audit Office. The property declarations of senior officials and auditors are not made public.

Members or Directors of the Central or National Bank

In general:

All items are regulated, most of them by law (12). The three items in the category of gifts, missions and travel are regulated by internal regulations. The Hungarian National Bank has a code of conduct, but it does not cover the area of conflicts of interest.

Relevant laws:

- 2001:LVIII Act on Hungarian National Bank;
- Code of Labour.

Relevant codes:

More specific:

A – Professional Activities
All professional activities are regulated by law. For example, the employees of the National Bank may not establish and may not maintain a membership relationship, employment relationship or other legal relationship as an executive officer or member of the supervisory board at a financial institution or investment enterprise. They may not hold ownership interests in a financial institution or investment enterprise (Act on Hungarian National Bank, Article 57). The Members of the Monetary Council of the Hungarian National Bank may only carry out other activities which are compatible with their Central Bank decision-making duties. Members may not hold office in political parties and may not carry out public activities on behalf of or in the interest of political parties (Article 58).

B – Declaration of Income
According to the Act on Hungarian National Bank (Article 58/A), the Governor and the deputy Governors of the Hungarian National Bank have to declare their wealth within 30 days of their appointment, and subsequently every year, with the data contents in Annex 6 of Act XXIII of 1992 on the Legal Status of Civil Servants. The person obliged to make this declaration has to enclose the declaration of his or her spouse or partner in life living in the same household, as well as that of his or her children. Employees of the National Bank has to declare their wealth at the time of taking up their positions at the Bank, and subsequently, every two years, in accordance with the rules relating to civil servants. These declarations are registered and inspected by the Governor of the National Bank. These declarations of wealth are not made public.

C – Gifts, missions and travel
Gifts, missions and travel are regulated by internal regulations.

D – Post-employment
Post-employment is regulated by law.

E – Other conflicts of interest
General rules on impartiality and conflicts of interest are set in the Act on Hungarian National Bank. Rules on professional confidentiality and loyalty are also set in the same Act. Regarding the professional secrecy, the Act argues that the employees of the National Bank and the members of its Supervisory Board are required not to disclose any state secrets, bank secrets, securities secrets and business secrets of which they gain knowledge in the course of discharging their duties at the Bank. Such an obligation to maintain secrecy must remain even after their duties have ceased (Article 54).
Instruments

The Hungarian National Bank provides continuous internal training on how to perform work in an ethical way. At the time when the Bank’s Ethical Code came into force, the Ethics Committee was formed. The Committee consists of five members. The chairman of the Committee is the Managing Director who guides the HR Department. The members consist of the representatives of the trade unions, HR Department, Department of Law, and the representative of the Bank elected directly by the employees of the bank. The committee should pay attention to the enforcement of the rules set out in the code, and take initiatives to amend the internal regulations in the frame of this code. It should also provide interpretation of the rules of the Code of Conduct and give guidance on moral standards. Committee prepares annual reports for the Governor of the National Bank.

The declaration of wealth – with the exception of that relatives – is public, and an exact copy of it is made public by the Speaker of Parliament on the website of the Parliament. These declarations of wealth have to be registered by the Parliamentary Committee on Immunity, Conflicts and Mandate Inspection (Act on Hungarian National Bank, Article 58/A).
Regulating Conflicts of Interest for Holders of Public Office

Summary: Conflicts of Interest Policy in Ireland

General profile

The Republic of Ireland joined the EU in 1973.

For 3 out of 4 institutions, almost all issues are regulated. The Supreme Court is an exception: none of the issues is regulated, but are, instead, “governed by tradition and convention”. The same is true for the register on declarations of financial interests: 3 out of 4 have such a register; the Supreme Court is the exception.

For the Government and the Central Bank, most issues are, in the main, regulated by a code of conduct; in the case of the Parliament, most issues are regulated by law.

There is specific law on possible conflicts of interest that is applicable for 3 out of 4 institutions:

- The Ethics in Public Office Act 1995;

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institution</th>
<th>Issues regulated</th>
<th>Form of regulation</th>
<th>Ethics Committee</th>
<th>Public register</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Government</td>
<td>12 out of 15 issues regulated (100%) – 3 issues N/A</td>
<td>Law (SL 2) + Code (SC)</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parliament</td>
<td>10 out of 15 issues regulated (66.67%) – 5 issues not regulated (33.33%)</td>
<td>Law (SL 2) + Code (SC)</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supreme Court</td>
<td>All issues unregulated (100%)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Court of Auditors</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central Bank</td>
<td>13 out of 15 issues regulated (86.67%) – 2 issues not regulated (13.33%)</td>
<td>Law (GIL + SL 2) + Code (SC 3)</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Members of Government

In general:
Almost all issues are regulated by code, 6 out of 16 issues are regulated by law and code. Only one out of four outside activities is regulated: conferences.

Relevant codes:
• Code of Conduct for Office Holders (SC).

Relevant laws:
• Ethics in Public Office Act 1995 (SL);
• Standards in Public Office Act 2001 (SL).

More specific:

A – Professional activities
Of the outside activities, only conferences are regulated (law + code). Specific rules are regulated by code.

B – Declaration of income
All regulated by law and code.

C – Gifts, missions and travel
All regulated by law and code.

D – Post-employment
Regulated by code.

E – Other Conflicts of Interest
General rules, professional confidentiality, and other rules and standards are regulated by code; professional loyalty is regulated by law and code.

Instruments
There is no training, but there is an ethics committee: advice is provided to Members of the Government by the Standards in Public Office Commission. There is also a register: Each year, Members of the Oireachtas are required to make a statement of such registrable interests that they have to the Standards in Public Office Commission. The statements are forwarded by the Standards Commission to the Clerk of the Dáil or the Seanad, as appropriate. Each Clerk establishes a Register of Members’ Interests, which is available to the public.
Members of Parliament

In general:
More than half of the issues are regulated, most of them by law. The unregulated issues are: professional loyalty, rules on receptions and representation, specific rules on the incompatibility of posts and professional activities before or during the term of office, and restrictions on professional commitments or the holding of posts after leaving office. All instruments are in place.

Relevant codes:
- The Guidelines and code of conduct for Members of Seanad Éireann (SC).

Relevant laws:
- Ethics in Public Office Act 1995 (SL);

More specific:

A – Professional activities
All outside activities are regulated by law: political activities, honorary positions, conferences, and publications. Specific rules are unregulated.

B – Declaration of income
Regulated by law.

C – Gifts, missions and travel
Missions and travel are regulated by law, accepting gifts by law and code, while rules on receptions and representation are unregulated.

D – Post-employment
Unregulated.

E – Other Conflicts of Interest
General rules and professional confidentiality are regulated by code; professional loyalty and other rules and standards are unregulated.

Instruments
Induction seminars are held at the start of every new Dáil. Not all members attend. Information is also included in induction information packs given to all Members, and formal published guidelines [attached] are issued every January to assist Members in completing their registration of interests. Each of the two Houses [the Dáil and the Seanad] has their respective Committees on Members’ Interests, which
have the broad functions of advising, investigating and deciding upon sanctions for Members. Completed declarations of financial interests are sent by the Members of Parliament to the Standards in Public Office Commission, or, in the case of a “nil return”, to the Clerk of the House concerned [either the Dáil or the Seanad]. In either case, all of the actual completed declarations are sent to the Clerk of the House concerned, where they are tabulated and published on the Houses of the Oireachtas website. Amendments to registers are also published.

Judges of the Supreme Court

In general:
Ten out of 15 issues are marked as unregulated; the remaining issues are unmarked, and thus we assume that these issues are unregulated as well. There are no instruments.
However, the Supreme Court of Ireland communicated the following statement:

“In Ireland, the conduct of Judges is not currently the subject of formal regulation or a formal code of conduct. The conduct of Judges is governed by tradition and convention which require that they observe high standards of probity in their personal and public conduct. These conventions and principles are all-embracing, the minimum standard of which is that a Judge should not conduct him or herself in private or public in a manner which would call in question his or her personal probity or bring the Judiciary into disrepute. If a Member of the Court has any doubts on the ethics of any matter he may raise it with the President of the Court for guidance or ruling and the President may in turn, if he or she considers it appropriate to do so, consult with other Members of the Court. The one matter which is expressly governed by a norm, is the constitutional provision which prohibits a Judge from holding any position of emolument other than his or her judicial office. The Constitution also provides for the removal of a Judge from office, pursuant to a resolution of both Houses of the Oireachtas (Parliament) for ‘stated misbehaviour’ or ‘incapacity’. While that is the traditional and current position, statutory provisions which will provide for the drawing up of a formal code of conduct for Judges generally, including those of the Supreme/Constitutional Court, is in the course of preparation in consultation with the Judiciary.”

Relevant laws:
–

Relevant codes:
–
Regulating Conflicts of Interest for Holders of Public Office

More specific:

A – Professional activities
Unregulated.

B – Declaration of income
Blank.

C – Gifts, missions and travel
Missions and travel, and rules on receptions and representation are unregulated; accepting gifts, decorations and distinctions is blank.

D – Post-employment
Unregulated.

E – Other Conflicts of Interest
Unregulated.

Instruments
None.

Court of Auditors
N/A

Members or Directors of the Central or National Bank

In general:
Some issues are regulated by code, some by law and code. All three issues relating to declarations of income are regulated by law and code.

Relevant laws:
• Central Bank Act 1942 (GIL);
• Ethics in Public Office Act 1995 (SL);
• Standards in Public Office Act 2001 (SL).

Relevant codes:
• Code of Conduct for Board Members (SC);
• Code of Conduct for Disclosure of Interests by Board Members (SC);
• Code of Ethics and Behaviour (strictly confidential) (SC).
More specific:

A – Professional activities
Four out of five issues are regulated by law; out of the outside activities, only honorary positions are unregulated.

B – Declaration of income
All three activities are regulated by law and code.

C – Gifts, missions and travel
Missions and travel, and accepting gifts, decorations and distinctions are regulated by law and code; rules on receptions and representation are regulated by code.

D – Post-employment
Unregulated.

E – Other Conflicts of Interest
General rules and professional confidentiality are regulated by law and code, professional loyalty is regulated by code, while other rules and standards are unregulated.

Instruments
There is no training and the Central Bank and Financial Services Authority does not have an ethics committee, although it does have an Ethics Advisor. The Central Bank has a register, although it is not stored in “register” format: the Secretary of the CBFSAI holds the disclosure of interest forms submitted under the Code of Conduct for the Disclosure of Interest in a safe place. In addition, the forms submitted by Directors, as required by the Ethics in Public Office Acts, are sent, via the Secretary, to the CBFSAI, which then submits them to the Standards in Public Office Commission but also keeps a copy for the CBFSAI.
Regulating Conflicts of Interest for Holders of Public Office

General profile

Conflict of interest issues have quite rightly attracted considerable attention from the Italian public during the past few years.

The centre-left was strongly criticised by its own supporters for failing to pass conflict-of-interest legislation when it was in power from 1996 to 2001. A law was subsequently passed by Berlusconi’s centre-right coalition in July 2004, which allowed the then premier to retain ownership of his companies providing he did not manage them himself.

Under this law, Government officials are barred from holding management or operative roles in major private companies, but not from owning them. It affects all politicians involved in the Government, from the prime minister to under-secretaries. Italy’s Antitrust Authority has the task of monitoring the work of ministers to see that their acts do not benefit their own companies.


The Central Bank’s conflicts of interest policy is regulated by a combination of code and law.

No specific law on conflicts of interest applicable to all institutions exists.

<table>
<thead>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Government</td>
<td>6 out of 15 items are regulated (60%) – 4 unregulated (40%) – 5 N/A</td>
<td>Law (2SIL) (4SL)</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parliament</td>
<td>8 out of 15 items regulated (53.33%) – 7 unregulated (46.67%)</td>
<td>Law (2 SIL) (5 SL) Code (1)(SIC)</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supreme Court</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Court of Auditors</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Members of Government

In general:
Less than half of the issues are regulated. If regulated, most issues are regulated by law.

Relevant laws:
• law n.215. 20 July 2004, Provisions concerning the resolution of conflicts of interest;

General laws applicable also to Members of Government:
• law n.41.5 July 1982, Disposizioni per la pubblicità della situazione patrimoniale di titolari di cariche elettive e di cariche direttive di alcuni enti. (Declaration on financial interests and assets).

More specific:

A – Professional activities
Most professional activities are unregulated, except for specific rules on outside political activities, honorary positions and on the incompatibility of posts and professional activities before or during the term of office, which are regulated by law n. 215.

B – Declaration of income
The issues regarding declaration of income are regulated by law n.441.5 July 1982 on the declaration of financial interests and assets.

C – Gifts, missions and travel
Accepting decorations and distinctions is unregulated. Rules on receptions and representation do not exist. The government of Romano Prodi regulated the receipt of gifts of value superior to € 300; they cannot be kept and are given to a state institution.

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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Central Bank</td>
<td>14 out of the 15 items (93.33%) are regulated – 1 is unregulated (6.67%)</td>
<td>Law (SL)(3) Code (SIC) (8)</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Central Bank 14 out of the 15 items (93.33%) are regulated – 1 is unregulated (6.67%)

Law (SL)(3) Code (SIC) (8) Law and code (3)
Yes
No
Regulating Conflicts of Interest for Holders of Public Office

D – Post-employment
Professional commitments or the holding of posts after leaving office are regulated by the law.

E – Other Conflicts of Interest
General rules on impartiality and conflicts of interest do not exist.

Instruments
The Italian Government does not provide training to HPOs and has not established an ethics committee. A register on declarations of financial interests does not exist.

Members of Parliament

In general:
Most of the issues are regulated by law. Only the issues in relation to missions and travel are regulated by code.

Relevant laws:
• law n.215. 20 July 2004, Provisions concerning the resolution of conflicts of interest.

Relevant codes:
• A code of conduct is included in the Parliament regulation.

General laws also applicable to Members of Parliament:
• law n.441.5 July 1982, Disposizioni per la pubblicitá della situazione patrimoniale di titolari di cariche elettive e di cariche direttive di alcuni enti. (Declaration on financial interests and assets).

More specific:

A – Professional activities
Most professional activities are regulated by law. There is no regulation on the subject of outside political activities, conferences and publications.

B – Declaration of income
The declaration of income is regulated by law n.441.

C – Gifts, missions and travel
Accepting gifts, decorations, and distinctions is unregulated. Missions and travel are regulated by code.
D – Post-employment
Professional commitments or the holding of posts after leaving office are regulated by law.

E – Other Conflicts of Interest
General rules on impartiality and conflicts of interest are regulated by law. Professional confidentiality and loyalty are unregulated. There is no regulation on other rules and standards.

Instruments
The Italian Parliament does not offer training to HPOs and has not established an ethics committee. There is no register on the declaration of financial interests.

Judges of the Supreme Court
No answer

Members or Directors of the Court of Audit
No answer

Members or Directors of the Central or National Bank

In general:
Most of the issues are regulated for Members or Directors of the Central Bank. At the Bank, more than 50% of all issues are regulated by codes.

Relevant laws:
• Law n.215. 20 July 2004, Provisions concerning the resolution of conflicts of interest;

Relevant codes:
• Code of conduct for the Central Bank.
More specific:

A – Professional activities
All professional activities are regulated by code except for political activities, which are regulated by law. The specific rules on the incompatibility of posts and professional activities are regulated by the combination of code and law.

B – Declaration of income
Most of the issues relating to declarations of income are regulated by law except for the HPO spouses’ activities which are regulated by the code.

C – Gifts, missions and travel
Accepting gifts, decorations and distinctions is regulated by code. Receptions and representation are regulated by law.

D – Post-employment
Professional commitments or holding posts after leaving office are regulated by code.

E – Other Conflicts of Interest
General rules on impartiality and conflicts of interest and on confidentiality are regulated by law and code. Loyalty is regulated in a code. For further rules and standards, there is no regulation.

Instruments
The Central Bank has an ethics committee. There is no special training and a register on declaration of financial interests does not exist.
General profile

Latvia, along with a group of other countries, including Estonia, Lithuania and Slovenia, joined the European Union on the 1 of May 2004.

In Latvia, conflicts of interest are regulated by the Law on the Prevention of Conflicts of Interest in Activities of Public Officials. It is one of the most comprehensive laws in Europe: only two HPO outside activities, publications and conferences, are not within its scope. The law came into force in 2002, and repealed the previous law on the Prevention of Corruption. It is the role of the Corruption Prevention and Combating Bureau (KNAB) to control the implementation of the law. KNAB is also responsible for verifying the financial declarations, as well as overseeing that political parties obey the party financing rules. The Parliament, the Court of Justice, the Court of Auditors and the Central Bank have also adopted a code of conduct.

<table>
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<th>Ethics Committee</th>
<th>Public register</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Government</td>
<td>13 out of 15 items regulated (86.67%) – 2 unregulated (13.33%)</td>
<td>Law (GL 3, SL 1, SIL 1)</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parliament</td>
<td>13 our of 15 itemsregulated (86.67%) – 2 unregulated (13.33%)</td>
<td>Law (GL 2, SL 1, SIL 1) + Code (SC 1)</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supreme Court</td>
<td>15 out of 15 items regulated (100%)</td>
<td>Law (GL 4, SL 1) + Code (GC 1)</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Court of Auditors</td>
<td>13 our of 15 items regulated (86.67%) – 2 unregulated (13.33%)</td>
<td>Law (GL 3, GIL 1, SL 1) + Code (SC 1)</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central Bank</td>
<td>13 our of 15 items regulated (86.67%) – 2 unregulated (13.33%)</td>
<td>Law (GL 2, GIL 1, SL 1) + Code (SC 1)</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Members of Government

In general:
Thirteen out of 15 items are regulated by law. As already stated, two forms of outside activities, conferences and publications, are not regulated.

Relevant laws:
• Constitution of the Republic of Latvia (1922);
• Law on Prevention of Conflicts of Interest in Activities of Public Officials (2002);
• Law on Prevention of Corruption (2002);
• Law on Openness of Information (1998);
• Law on Structure of the Cabinet of Ministers (1993);
• Law on Structure of Public Administration (2002).

More specific:

A – Professional Activities
Professional activities are regulated by the law on Prevention of Conflicts of Interest in Activities of Public Officials, with the exception of conferences and publications.

B – Declaration of Income
Declarations of financial interests are regulated by the Law on conflicts of interest in the Actions of Public Officials (Chapter IV: Declarations of Public Officials). Public officials have to submit their declarations to the Prevention and Combating of Corruption Bureau. The declaration must specify, among other things, information on whatever other offices that the public official holds in addition to the office as a public official, as well as on the work-performance contracts or authorisations which he or she performs, or in which he or she performs specified obligations, as well as information on all types of income obtained during the reporting period. The cabinet has to determine the reporting period for which the declaration shall be submitted, as well as the procedures for completion, submission, registration and keeping thereof.

C – Gifts, missions and travel
Regulations in this category are regulated by the aforementioned law (Section 13). Ministers, like other public officials, are prohibited from accepting gifts directly or indirectly. A gift is any financial or other kind of benefit including services, transfer of rights, release from obligations, refusal from any rights in favour of a public official or his or her relatives, as well as other activities by which any benefit is granted to such persons. A public official in relation to his or her activities in the
office of the public official is permitted to accept only diplomatic gifts. Diplomatic gifts are gifts that official representatives of foreign states present to the President, Chairperson of the Parliament, Prime Minister, Minister for Foreign Affairs and officials of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs during official or work visits in accordance with protocol. Gifts are the property of the state or the relevant local government. Diplomatic gifts have to be registered in the Unified State Protocol Register of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, and the Minister for Foreign Affairs decides on their utilisation.

Public officials are permitted to accept gifts from their relatives outside the performance of the duties of office of the public official. Gifts from other natural or legal persons outside the performance of the duties of office of the public official are permitted only if the value of the gift received from one person within a time period of one year does not exceed the amount of a minimum monthly salary and the public official has not issued an administrative act or performed supervision, control, inquiry or punitive functions in relation to the donor within a time period of two years before the receipt of the gift. If a public official has accepted gifts from natural or legal persons outside the performance of the duties of office of the public official, he or she is not entitled to issue administrative acts or perform supervision, control, enquiry and punitive functions in relation to the donor for the time period of two years after the acceptance of the gift.

The law also has detailed regulations on the prohibition of being a representative as well as restrictions on advertising.

D – Post-employment
Post-employment restrictions are defined in the Law on Prevention of Conflicts of Interest in Activities of Public Officials. Generally speaking, restrictions are applicable to a two-year period after the HPO has ceased to perform his or her office duties. During that time, the HPO is prohibited from obtaining the property of such enterprises – as well as from becoming a shareholder, stockholder, partner, or of holding an office in commercial companies – in relation to which, while performing his or her duties, the public official has taken decisions on procurement for the state or local Government needs, the allocation of state or local government resources and state or local Government privatisation fund resources or has performed supervision, control or punitive functions (Section 10).

E – Other Conflicts of Interest
Public officials are prohibited from preparing or issuing administrative acts, supervising, controlling, performing inquiries or punitive functions, and from entering into contracts or from performing other activities in which such public officials, their relatives or counterparties are personally or financially interested (Section 11). Issues of professional confidentiality and loyalty are also regulated by law.
Instruments
The Corruption Prevention and Combating Bureau (KNAB) has organised a seminar on conflicts of interest for Members of Government. In addition, the KNAB has published a brochure on ethics of public officials. There is no committee on ethics, however.
Financial declarations are available to public. To ensure the protection of personal data, the declarations contain a part that is publicly accessible and a part that is not publicly accessible. The part of the declaration that is not publicly accessible is the place of residence and personal identification number of the public official, his or her relatives and other persons specified in the declaration, as well as counter-parties, including debtors and creditors specified in the declaration. The public part of the information on the assets, incomes and financial liabilities of public officials is available on the homepage of State Revenue Service. The declarations of the Ministers are also published in the official Gazette of the Government of Latvia.

Members of Parliament

In general:
Eleven out of 15 items are regulated by law, two are regulated by law and Code of Ethics, and two items are unregulated. The Code of Ethics for Members of the Parliament came into force in 2006. This Code is quite abstract and does not provide concrete, detailed rules. The central instrument for the regulation of conflicts of interest situations is the Law on the Prevention of Conflicts of Interest in Activities of Public Officials.

Relevant codes:

Relevant laws:
• Constitution of the Republic of Latvia (1922);
• Law on Prevention of Conflicts of Interest in Activities of Public Officials (2002);
• Law on Openness of Information (1998);

More specific:

A – Professional Activities
Professional activities are regulated by law, with the exception of publications, which are not regulated.
B – Declaration of Income
Declarations of financial interests are regulated by the Law on conflicts of interest in the Actions of Public Officials. A description of these regulations is given in the previous section regarding the Members of Government.

C – Gifts, missions and travel
Gifts, missions and travel are regulated in detail in the Law on conflicts of interest in the Actions of Public Officials. A description of these regulations is given in the previous section on the Members of Government. Some items in the Code discuss the rules on receptions and representation, thus complementing the legal regulations.

D – Post-employment
Post-employment is regulated by law.

E – Other Conflicts of Interest
Other conflicts of interest are regulated by law. The Code of Ethics contains some general rules on conflicts of interest. For example, Article 9 states that conflicts of personal or national interest are not allowed and Members of Parliament have to avoid situations that may create the impression that such a conflict exists.

Instruments
The Corruption Prevention and Combating Bureau has published and distributed a brochure on ethics of public officials. Training on ethics was provided when the Code of Ethics was developed. The Mandate, Ethics and Submissions Committee within the Parliament, supervises the observance of the Code of Ethics and reviews cases concerning violations of the Code of Ethics. The Committee has to examine cases of violations of the Code of Ethics in a public meeting not later than two weeks after the initiation of the case. A two-thirds majority is required in order to obtain a closed meeting, instead of a public meeting. The holding of a closed meeting can be proposed by any member of the Committee. The Committee consists of one Member elected from each Parliamentary group. Members of the Committee must refrain from activities which can be deemed as an unjustified maligning of their political opponents or as an unjustified defence of the behaviour of another Member of Parliament on the basis of his or her political affiliation. Once the Committee has determined that a violation of the Code of Ethics has occurred, it can give an oral warning or issue a written warning that is announced in a Parliamentary sitting, and publishes its decision in the official Gazette of the Government of Latvia (Rules of Procedure of the Parliament, Article 179).

The public part of the information on the assets, incomes and financial liabilities of public officials is available on the homepage of the State Revenue Service.
Judges of the Supreme Court

In general:
Nine out of 15 items are regulated by law and the Code of Ethics, four are regulated solely by law, and two by the Code of Ethics. The ethics of Supreme Court Judges are defined in the Code of Ethics of Latvian Judiciary, which was adopted by the Latvian Judicial Conference in 1995. The Code contains detailed rules which are grouped into five “canons” that are further divided into sub-paragraphs.\textsuperscript{149}

Relevant codes:

Relevant laws:
- Constitution of the Republic of Latvia (1922);
- Law on Prevention of Conflicts of Interest in Activities of Public Officials (2002);
- Law on Openness of Information (1998);
- Law on Judicial Power (1992);

More specific:

A – Professional Activities
All professional activities are regulated by law and/or code. For example, a Judge cannot be a member of any political organisation or party, give speeches for a political organisation, solicit funds or make contributions to support a political organisation or its candidate (Code of Ethics, canon 5). In his or her free time, a Judge may deliver lectures and speeches, write for the mass media and participate in any other extra-judicial events which do not bring the into contradiction with the ethics code (canon 4).

B – Declaration of Income
Declarations of financial interests are regulated by the Law on conflicts of interest in the Actions of Public Officials. A description of these regulations is given in the previous section in relation to the Members of Government.

\textsuperscript{149} However, according to some critical views, the Code has not been applied in practice. The principle that a Judge may be subject to liability for dishonourable actions is interpreted narrowly, and violations of the Code of Ethics do not constitute grounds for disciplinary liability. Judicial Independence in Latvia. Open Society Institute 2001.
C – Gifts, missions and travel
Gifts, missions and travel are regulated in detail in the Law on conflicts of interest in the Actions of Public Officials. The Code of Ethics also discusses the rules on receptions and representation, thus complementing the legal norms. Judges should regulate their extra-judicial activities in a manner that is not in conflict with their judicial duties. According to the Code, a Judge cannot accept nor prompt the members of the family residing permanently in the Judge’s family to accept gifts, services or loans from any persons, with the exception of gifts from friends or relatives on specific occasions (birthdays, wedding anniversaries, weddings, etc.) and loans from ordinary credit institutions, which are available to all other persons who are not Judges. A Judge cannot act as a personal representative, trustee, fiduciary or other person of trust, except in the cases of the settlement of a legacy or a deposit for a member of his or her family, on the condition that such activities do not prevent the Judge from an unbiased performance of his or her office duties (canon 4).

D – Post-employment
Post-employment is regulated by law and code.

E – Other Conflicts of Interest
Other conflicts of interest are regulated by law and code. The Code of Ethics contains some general rules on conflicts of interest. For example, it states that a Judge must perform the duties of his or her office impartially and diligently, so that he or she is not swayed by the interests of separate persons, public protests, or fear of criticism. A Judge must disqualify himself or herself in any proceedings in which the Judge personally, his or her spouse or other relatives or family members have financial interests in the subject matter or are party to the proceedings. A Judge must not disclose confidential information which he or she has obtained through his or her post in office (canon 3).

Instruments
The Corruption Prevention and Combating Bureau has published and distributed a brochure on ethics of public officials. Apart from this, there is no specific training available on ethics for the Judges of the Supreme Court.

The Judicial Disciplinary Committee is a body of judicial self-governance that was created by the Judicial Conference. It has the authority to decide on disciplinary and administrative violations by Judges of the district and regional courts and by Supreme Court Justices. Disciplinary proceedings may be initiated against a Judge or a Justice for an intentional violation of the law committed while conducting court proceedings, for failure to carry out the responsibilities of his or her office, for activities incompatible with a judicial position, for a flagrant violation of the judicial code of ethics, for an administrative offence, for refusal to discontinue his or her membership in a political party or a political organisation, and for failure to follow the restrictions and prohibitions set forth in the Law on the Prevention of
Conflicts of Interest in the Activities of Government Officials. Disciplinary proceedings may be initiated by the Minister of Justice, the Chief Justice of the Supreme Court or the chairpersons of lower and regional courts. The authority and the procedures of the Judicial Disciplinary Committee are regulated by the Judicial Disciplinary Liability Law and by the Regulations on the Judicial Disciplinary Committee. The organisational and the financial aspect of the Judicial Disciplinary Committee are provided by the Supreme Court. The chair of the Committee is the Chief Justice of the Supreme Court.

Members or Directors of the Court of Audit

In general:
Eight out of 15 items are regulated by law, five are regulated by law and Code of Ethics, and two items are unregulated. The central instrument to regulate the conflicts of interest situations is the Law on the Prevention of Conflicts of Interest in Activities of Public Officials.

Relevant codes:

Relevant laws:
• Constitution of the Republic of Latvia (1922);
• Law on Prevention of Conflicts of Interest in Activities of Public Officials (2002);
• Law on Openness of Information (1998);
• Law on Structure of Public Administration (2002);
• Law on State Audit Office (2002).

More specific:

A – Professional Activities
Professional activities are regulated by law. There are no regulations relating to conferences or publications. State Audit Office Law also requires that the Auditor General, the Members of the Council of the State Audit Office, and the heads of the sectors of the audit departments discontinue, for their term of office, all activities in political parties (Section 31).

B – Declaration of Income
Declarations of financial interests are regulated by the Law on conflicts of interest in the Actions of Public Officials. A description of these regulations is given in the previous section regarding the Members of Government.
C – Gifts, missions and travel
Gifts, missions and travel are regulated in detail in the Law on conflicts of interest in the Actions of Public Officials. They are also addressed in the Code of Ethics of the State Audit Office.

D – Post-employment
Post-employment is regulated by law.

E – Other Conflicts of Interest
Other conflicts of interest are regulated in detail in the Law on conflicts of interest in the Actions of Public Officials. They are also addressed in the Code of Ethics of the State Audit Office.

Instruments
A seminar on public administration ethics for senior officials was organised by the Latvian School of Public Administration on January 2007. In addition, the Corruption Prevention and Combating Bureau has published and distributes a brochure on the ethics of public officials. The Commission of Ethics of the State Audit Office was established on 21 August 2006.

The public part of the information on the assets, incomes and financial liabilities of public officials is available on the homepage of State Revenue Service.

Members or Directors of the Central or National Bank

In general:
Thirteen out of 15 items are regulated by law. Three of these are also regulated by the Code of Conduct of the Bank of Latvia. The Code comprises the principles and conventional standards that relate to the responsibilities and duties entrusted to the employees, inter-personal relationships and dealings with both other institutions and the community. The Code draws upon the set of applicable legislation of the Bank of Latvia and enforces it. The Code has a separate chapter on conflicts of interest and personal dealings. Interestingly, it is not limited only to official actions, but also expects employees to ensure accuracy in their private financial matters and timely meeting of their financial obligations (Section 3.8).

Relevant codes:

Relevant laws:
• Constitution of the Republic of Latvia (1922);
• Law on Prevention of Conflicts of Interest in Activities of Public Officials
Regulating Conflicts of Interest for Holders of Public Office

(2002);
• Law on Openness of Information (1998);

More specific:

A – Professional Activities
Professional activities are regulated by law. Restrictions on holding more than one position by the Members of the Council of the Bank of Latvia and the Board are laid down by the Law on the Prevention of the Conflicts of Interest in Activities of Public Officials. Employees must refrain from holding additional jobs, liable to give rise to potential conflicts of interest and to discredit the Bank of Latvia. Members of the Board are prohibited from engaging, directly or indirectly, in any commercial activity (Law on Bank of Latvia, Article 32). There are no regulations dealing with conferences or publications.

B – Declaration of Income
Declarations of financial interests are regulated by the Law on conflicts of interest in the Actions of Public Officials. A description of these regulations is given in the previous section in relation to the Members of Government.

C – Gifts, missions and travel
Gifts, missions and travels are regulated in detail in the Law on conflicts of interest in the Actions of Public Officials. According to the Code of Conduct, employees must not accept gifts, which are in any way connected with contracts/work/accords relating to the operation of the Bank of Latvia, and must refuse any invitation to participate in undertakings liable to give rise to suspicion of a potential conflict of interest or may discredit the Bank of Latvia. Gifts, other than souvenirs presented by co-operation partners, are deemed to be the property of the Bank of Latvia (sections 3.4-3.5).

D – Post-employment
Post-employment is regulated by law.

E – Other Conflicts of Interest
Other conflicts of interest are regulated by law and the Code of Conduct. Professional loyalty is the first of the five basic principles stated in the Code of Conduct, according to which, employees must conduct themselves in a manner that maintains and boosts the public trust in the Bank of Latvia. Loyalty means more than just the diligent implementation of the duties entrusted and the following of the instructions given by the management; it implies creative support, participation and contribution in relationships with the Bank of Latvia’s management and colleagues (Section 1.1). According to the Law on the Bank of Latvia, HPOs have no right to disclose confidential information that has become known to them as a consequence
of their service or function. This confidentiality obligation remains in effect even after the expiry of the term of office or the termination of employment relationship (Article 33).

**Instruments**

The Corruption Prevention and Combating Bureau has published and distributed a brochure on ethics for public officials. However, special training on ethics for the Directors of the Bank of Latvia does not seem to exist. Adherence to the Code is supervised by the Ethics Committee of the Bank of Latvia, approved by the President of the Bank of Latvia (Code of Conduct, Article 5.2). The public part of the information on the assets, incomes and financial liabilities public officials is available on the homepage of State Revenue Service.
General profile

Lithuania, along with a group of other countries including Estonia, Latvia and Slovenia, became a member the European Union on the 1 of May 2004.

The predominant mode of regulating conflicts of interest situations is the use of legal instruments. Law on the Code of Conduct for State Politicians applies to both Members of Government and Members of Parliament. Law on the Adjustment of Public and Private Interests in the Public Service applies to all institutions in this study. The Judges of the Supreme Court and the Directors of the National Bank are also subject to a Code of Ethics.

Generally speaking, laws and codes of conduct regulate the conflicts of interest relatively well. Only the Court of Auditors (State Control) was found to be less regulated.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institution</th>
<th>Issues regulated</th>
<th>Form of regulation</th>
<th>Ethics Committee</th>
<th>Public register</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Government</td>
<td>14 out of 15 items regulated (100%) – 1 N/A</td>
<td>Law (GL 2, SL 2)</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parliament</td>
<td>11 our of 15 items regulated (73.33%) – 4 unregulated (26.67%)</td>
<td>Law (GL 2, SL 2, SIL 1)</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supreme Court</td>
<td>15 out of 15 items regulated (100%)</td>
<td>Law (GL 4, SL 2, GIL 1) + Code (GC 1)</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Court of Auditors</td>
<td>8 out of 15 items regulated (53.33%) – 7 unregulated (46.67%)</td>
<td>Law (GL 3, GIL 1, SL 1)</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central Bank</td>
<td>13 out of 15 items regulated (86.67%) – 2 unregulated (13.33%)</td>
<td>Law (GL 5, GIL 1, SL 1) + Code (SC 2)</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Members of Government

In general:
Fourteen out of 15 items are regulated by law. Regulations on honorary positions are not known. As stated above, Law on the Code of Conduct for State Politicians applies to both the Members of the Government and the Members of the Parliament.

Relevant laws:
• Constitution of the Republic of Lithuania (1992);
• Law on the Code of Conduct for State Politicians (2006);
• Law on the Adjustment of Public and Private Interests in the Public Service (1997);
• Law on Declaration of the Property and Income of Residents (1996).

More specific:

A – Professional Activities
All professional activities are regulated by law. According to the Constitution, Ministers may not hold any other office subject to nomination or election, may not be employed in business, commercial or other private institutions or companies, and may not receive any remuneration other than the salary established for their respective Government offices and any compensation they receive for creative activities (Article 99).

B – Declaration of Income
The Law on the Declaration of the Property and the Income of Residents requires that Ministers declare their properties, all types of income and any gifts or other sums of money on an annual basis. It is the role of the State Tax Inspectorate to verify the accuracy of the data and send the declarations to be published in the official gazette. These requirements apply also to the spouses of HPOs. Private interests are registered in the Register of Private Interests of Politicians (The Law on the Code of Conduct for State Politicians, Article 5).

C – Gifts, missions and travel
Regulations on gifts, missions and travel are regulated by the Law on the Adjustment of Public and Private Interests in the Public Service (Article 14). A person employed in the public service may neither accept gifts or services nor grant them if this may cause an adversarial conflict of public and private interests. However, this does not apply to persons who received gifts or services pursuant to the international protocol or traditions usually relating to the official duties of the person employed in the public service. If the value of the gifts exceeds 1 minimum life
standard (MLS) and the value of services exceeds 5 MLS, the person employed in the public service must declare that within the calendar month. The declaration is to be appended to the annual declaration and becomes its appendix. If the value of the gift exceeds 5 MSL, the gift is considered the property of the state or municipality. Such a gift shall be evaluated and kept in the manner laid down by the Chief Official Ethics Commission.

D – Post-employment
Post-employment is regulated by law.

E – Other Conflicts of Interest
There are general rules on impartiality and conflicts of interest, and regulations on professional confidentiality and loyalty. One of the principles of conduct discussed in the Law on the Code of Conduct for State Politicians is impartiality. Ministers should not have contractual or any other relations which could hinder them from the proper fulfilment of their duties as state politicians by restricting their freedom to make decisions, in an objective manner free of prejudice or bias (Article 4).

Instruments
Lithuania’s government has had courses and seminars on ethical issues. If a Member of the Government violates the Code of Conduct for State Politicians, it is the role of the Parliament’s Ethics and Procedures Commission to investigate Minister’s conduct (Law on the Code of Conduct for State Politicians, Article 6). The law contains detailed rules of procedure on how to conduct these investigations. As an outcome of the investigations, the Commission can state that a politician has violated the principles of the conduct. It can also give substantial recommendations, and it can recommend making a public apology. If there are reasons to suspect that there are elements of a criminal act, the Commission submits the material to pre-trial investigation institutions or to the prosecutor’s office. The Commission’s decisions are public and they are published in the official gazette and on the responsible institution’s webpage. Property declarations are published in the official gazette.

Members of Parliament

In general:
Eleven out of 15 items are regulated by law, all other items are unregulated. The specific law on the Code of Conduct for State Politicians and the specific institution law, namely, the Statute of the Parliament of the Republic of Lithuania, are the two main laws that regulate the conflicts of interest situations.
Relevant laws:
• Constitution of the Republic of Lithuania (1992);
• Law on the Code of Conduct for State Politicians (2006);
• Statute of the Parliament of the Republic of Lithuania (1994);
• Law on the Adjustment of Public and Private Interests in the Public Service (1997);
• Law on Declaration of the Property and Income of Residents (1996).

More specific:

A – Professional Activities
All professional activities are regulated by law with the exception of publications, which are not regulated

B – Declaration of Income
The general requirements for the declaration of financial and other interests are laid down in the Law on the Code of Conduct for State Politicians (Article 5). The specific regulations are set in the Law on Declaration of the Property and Income of Residents. For more details, see the previous section on Members of Government.

C – Gifts, missions and travel
Regulations on gifts, missions and travel are regulated by law. However, there are no specific regulations on receptions and representation.

D – Post-employment
Post-employment is not regulated by law.

E – Other Conflicts of Interest
General rules on impartiality and conflicts of interest are set in the Statute of the Parliament, which has a separate article on the obligation to avoid conflicts of interest (Article 18). Parliament Members should submit an annual private declaration of interests, as well as a new declaration if new circumstances emerge, to the Commission on Ethics and Procedures. The requirement to deliver a private-interest declaration is based upon the Law on the Adjustment of Public and Private Interests in Civil Service.

Instruments
There have been training courses for Parliamentarians on Government ethics. The Parliament’s Ethics and Procedures Commission began to function in 1995. The Commission is responsible for supervising the conduct of MPs. All parliamentary groups have to be represented in the Commission in proportion to their presence in parliament. The Commission oversees that the Parliament works according to the ethical standards, and it has the authority to examine violations of ethics and legal acts. Parliament may temporarily remove a Member from the chamber until the end of the sitting of that day if he or she does not carry out the recommendations of the
Commission (Statute of the Parliament, Article 21). More details of the Commission’s actions are given in the previous section on Members of Government. Property declarations are published in the official gazette.

Judges of the Supreme Court

In general:
All 15 items are regulated. All of them are covered by law, and five issues are also covered by the Code of Ethics for Judges. The legislative framework is extensive, and the Code of Ethics is also quite detailed. The Code is applicable to all Judges without reservations. The Code was prepared according to the Constitution of the Republic of Lithuania, the Law on Courts, the basic principles of judicial impartiality of the United Nations, the recommendations of the Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe, the Universal Charter of the Judge, as well as the European Charter on the statute for Judges, and other national and international acts which regulate the activities of the Courts and Judges (Article 4).

Relevant codes:

Relevant laws:
• Constitution of the Republic of Lithuania (1992);
• Law on Courts (1994, reformed in 2002);
• Law on the Declaration of Assets by Residents (2003);
• Law on the Adjustment of Public and Private Interests in the Public Service (1997);
• Statute of the Supreme Court of Lithuania (1995);
• Code of Civil Procedure (2002);

More specific:

A – Professional Activities
All professional activities are regulated by law. According to the Constitution, Judges may not hold any other elected or appointed office, and they are not allowed to work in any business, commercial, or other private establishments or enterprises. They may not receive any remuneration other than the remuneration established for the Judge and payment for educational or creative activities. Judges may not participate in the activities of political parties and other political organisations (Article 113). Moreover, the Code of Ethics emphasises that Judges should behave in a politically neutral way (Article 7).
B – Declaration of Income
According to the Law on the Adjustment of Public and Private Interests in the Public Service, 15 days before an appointment, a candidate who wishes to become a judge has an obligation to declare his or her private interests and to deliver the declaration directly to the Chief Commission on Official Ethics. The Commission monitors the ethical behaviour of public servants and has the power to penalise those who violate the provisions of the law. If the data of the declaration has changed, the judge is expected to amend the declaration immediately. Each year, judges also have to declare their personal income and property for the State Tax Inspectorate.

C – Gifts, missions and travel
Gifts, missions and travel are regulated by legal measures and Code of Ethics.

D – Post-employment
The judges of the Supreme Court are subject to post-employment restrictions.

E – Other Conflicts of Interest
General rules on impartiality and conflicts of interest as well as standards concerning professional confidentiality and professional loyalty are set both in the legislation and in the Code of Ethics. For example, a Judge must notify the Chairman of the Court in writing about the judicial proceedings to which the Judge himself or herself is a party\textsuperscript{150} (Law on Courts, Article 43).

Instruments
The Supreme Court does not provide training relating to ethical behaviour. The Supreme Court does not have an internal ethics committee or an advisory group. However, the Judicial Council and the Chairman of the Court concerned may initiate disciplinary action against the Judge. A proposal must be brought before the Commission of the Judicial Ethics and Discipline. A disciplinary action may be brought against a Judge, \textit{inter alia}, for an action demeaning the judicial office. An act demeaning the judicial office is an act which is incompatible with the judge’s honour and in conflict with the requirements of the Code of Ethics for Judges, discrediting the office of the judge and undermining the authority of the Court. Any misconduct in office – negligent performance of any specific on the part of a judge or omission to act without a good cause – must also be regarded as an act demeaning the office of a judge.

\textsuperscript{150} This applies also to judicial proceedings to which the Judge’s spouse, children/adopted children, parents/adoptive parents, brothers, sisters/adoptive brothers, sisters also the children/adopted children, parents/adoptive parents, brothers, sister/adoptive brother, sisters of his spouse are a party if the case where the Judge works falls within the jurisdiction of the court where the Judge works.
Disciplinary action instituted by the Commission of the Judicial Ethics and Discipline has to be brought before the Court of Honour of Judges. The Court of Honour of Judges may, upon hearing and determining disciplinary action, apply disciplinary sanctions. The Judicial Court of Honour may, by its decision, advise the President of the Republic or the Parliament to apply the following procedure provided by the law: to appoint the judge to a judicial office in a Court of a lower level, to dismiss the judge, or to institute impeachment proceedings against the judge.

Members or Directors of the Court of Audit

In general:
Eight out of 15 items are regulated, all of them by law. The State Control (Court of Audit) does not have a Code of Conduct.

Relevant laws:
- Constitution of the Republic of Lithuania (1992);
- Law on the State Control of the Republic of Lithuania (1995);
- Law on Lobbying Activities of the Republic of Lithuania (2000);
- Law on the Adjustment of Public and Private Interests in the Public Service (1997);
- Law on Declaration of the Property and Income of Residents (1996).

More specific:

A – Professional Activities
The professional activities are not regulated.

B – Declaration of Income
Members of the State Control have to submit declarations of their income and property declarations for themselves and for the members of their families, as well as declarations on private interests (Law on State Control, Article 31).

C – Gifts, missions and travel
Gifts, receptions and representations are regulated by legal measures. A description of these regulations is given in the previous section in relation to the Members of Government. Missions and travel are not regulated.

D – Post-employment
Post-employment is regulated by law.
E – Other conflicts of interest
General rules on impartiality and conflicts of interest are set in the Law on the Adjustment of Public and Private Interests in the Public Service. There seems to be no regulations on professional confidentiality.

Instruments
The State Controller has no provided training programmes. There is no ethics committee. The tax administrator has to verify the accuracy of the data included in the property declarations, and collect and safeguard the declarations filed as well as any/all other data on the property owned by residents obtained from other sources. The data of the declarations of the Auditor General, the Auditor general deputies, and the public servants of the State Control, who held office on 31 of December of the calendar year for which the property is declared, are made public without the written consent of the residents in question.

Members or Directors of the Central or National Bank

In general:
Thirteen out of 15 items are regulated. Six items are regulated solely by Code of Ethics, four by law, three by law and Code, and two issues are unregulated. The Board of Directors has its own Code of Ethics. The Code has been developed having regard to the Constitution of the Republic of Lithuania, the Law on Public Administration, the Labour Code of Republic of Lithuania, the Law on Reconciling Public and Private Interests in Public Service, the Code of Conduct of the European Central Bank, other legal acts, and practices of foreign Central Banks (Article 3). The employees of the Bank are regulated by a separate Code of Ethics.

Relevant codes:
• Code of Ethics of the Board of Bank of Lithuania. Board Resolution No. 175, 11.11.2004;

Relevant laws:
• Constitution of the Republic of Lithuania (1992);
• Law on Bank of Lithuania (1994);
• Law on Public Administration (1999);
• Labour Code (2002);
• Penal Code;
• Law on the Adjustment of Public and Private Interests in the Public Service (1997);
• Law on Declaration of the Property of Residents (1996).
Regulating Conflicts of Interest for Holders of Public Office

More specific:

A – Professional Activities
There are no specific provisions in the law or in the Code of Ethics to prevent the political participation of HPOs. The Law on the Bank of Lithuania has a general clause that states that the Members of the Board may only be employed at the Bank of Lithuania and that they may not engage in any other activities that would cause a conflict of private and public interests (Article 16). There is a tradition on the principle of independence that the Members of the Board do not belong to any political association and are not involved in political activities. A Board Member may not accept a royalty for the delivery of lectures and speeches, except in cases when they are attributed to scientific or pedagogical work approved by the Board. If national and international practices forbid the accepting royalties, they are transferred to the Bank of Lithuania.

B – Declaration of Income
Board Members are subject to declarations of income.

C – Gifts, missions and travel
Board Members may accept invitations to receptions and cultural events, including parties, provided they are related with the office. The Board Member may participate in the reception or event with his or her spouse, if invited. Gifts, too, are regulated in the Code of Ethics. These regulations are identical to the practices described previously in chapter regarding the Members of Government. Missions and travels are not regulated.

D – Post-employment
Post-employment is regulated by the Law on the Bank of Lithuania. Members of the Board must, during the first year after their duties have ceased, avoid any conflict of private and public interests that could be caused by their new activities. When intending to engage in any activities which the HPO considers might cause a conflict of private and public interests, they must inform the Board of the Bank of Lithuania in writing and must seek its opinion before committing themselves (Article 16).

E – Other Conflicts of Interest
Board Members have an obligation to protect professional and bank secrets. This obligation continues to exist after the end of the employment relationship with the Bank of Lithuania or after the end of any other service or function relating to the Bank of Lithuania (Law on the Bank of Lithuania, Article 19). Standards regarding professional loyalty are set in the Code of Ethics. General rules on impartiality and conflicts of interest are regulated by both law and Code.
Instruments
The Lithuanian National Bank does not provide training programmes concerning ethics for the holders of public office. It also does not have a specific committee on ethics. However, the Codes of Ethics has established that Members of the Board must consult each other and the employees must also consult each other or any Member of the Board. There is a common register for the declarations of financial interests for all who have to declare their interests under the Law on the Declaration of Property of Residents of Republic of Lithuania. There is no separate register on the Board’s declarations of financial interests.
General profile

Luxembourg is a founding Member State of the EU.

For the Supreme Court, the Central Bank and the Court of Auditors, most issues on conflicts of interest policy are regulated by law. For the Supreme Court, a few issues are regulated by the Constitution and one issue is regulated by the code on civil procedure.

So far, Luxembourg has introduced a code in none of the three institutions.

From the laws concerning possible conflicts of interest, le “statut général des fonctionnaires de l’Etat” is central; it is applicable to 3 institutions. The conflicts of interest policy of the Parliament is regulated by different texts.

Among the unregulated issues, the following are worth noting:
- there are no declarations of financial interests and assets;
- there are no restrictions on professional commitments or on the holding of posts after leaving office.

There is a strong tendency in Luxembourg to regulate the possible conflicts of interest of HPOs by law. The regulation of conflicts of interest topics by code is currently under discussion.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institution</th>
<th>Issues regulated</th>
<th>Form of regulation</th>
<th>Public register</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Government</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parliament</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supreme Court</td>
<td>10 out of 15 items regulated (66.67%) – 5 issues unregulated (33.33%)</td>
<td>Law and Constitution</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Court of Auditors</td>
<td>7 out of 15 items regulated (50%) – 7 items unregulated (50%) – 1 N/A</td>
<td>Law</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central Bank</td>
<td>7 out of 15 items regulated (50%) – 7 items unregulated (50%) – 1 N/A</td>
<td>Law</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Judges of the Supreme Court

In general:
More than half of the issues are regulated. Most of the issues are regulated by law. A few issues are arranged by the Constitution.

Constitution:
• Article 54, Article 110.

Relevant laws:
• Law of 7 March 1980 on the judicial organisation, Article 99, Article 100, Article 101, Article 104, & Articles 105-109;
• Penal code, Article 250, Article 458;
• Law of 22 June 1963 concerning the remunerations of civil servants;
• Code of Civic Procedure, Article 378.

More specific:

A – Professional activities
Most professional activities are regulated by law, although outside activities such as honorary positions, publications and conferences are unregulated.

B – Declaration of income
The declaration of financial interests and assets is not regulated, while the activities of the spouses of HPOs are regulated by law.

C – Gifts, missions and travel
All three issues are regulated.

D – Post-employment
Restrictions on professional commitments or the holding of posts after leaving office are not foreseen by law.

E – Other Conflicts of Interest
All other issues are regulated.

Instruments
Training on professional ethics is delivered in the framework of the introductory courses and the traineeship of the “attachés de justice”.
Members or Directors of the Court of Audit

In general:
The rules on conflicts of interest are regulated by law.

Relevant laws:
• Statut général des fonctionnaires de l’Etat.

More specific:

A – Professional activities
Specific rules on outside activities in the field of political activities exist. The issues that are not regulated are outside activities concerning honorary positions and conferences.

B – Declaration of income
The declaration of financial interests and asset and the activities of the spouses of HPOs are not regulated by law.

C – Gifts, missions and travel
The accepting of gifts, decorations and distinctions is regulated by law. There are no rules on missions, travel, receptions and representations.

D – Post-employment
Restrictions on professional commitments or on the holding of posts after leaving office are not foreseen by law.

E – Other Conflicts of Interest
General rules on impartiality and professional confidentiality are regulated by the statute.

Instruments
Not foreseen by the statute of civil servants.

Members or Directors of the Central or National Banks

Idem as for Members or Directors of the Court of Audit.
General profile

The Netherlands shows a heterogenic picture with regard to regulation. For all institutions, 31% is not regulated, 28% is regulated by law, and 28% is regulated by code. Only 7% of the Dutch institutions have a combination of both code and law. The laws and codes that apply have, in many cases, a specific nature (GIL, SIL and SC).

A fair number of issues are not regulated for the institutions in the Netherlands. For example, none of the institutions have developed legal restrictions on professional commitments or on the holding of posts after leaving office, with the exception of the Central Bank.

Another typical Dutch variation of regulation is the development of Standing Orders. Both the Parliament and the cabinet have their own Standing Orders which regulate for example honorary positions (both), missions, travel, the accepting of gifts (Parliament), and general rules on impartiality and conflicts of interest and the declaration of financial interests (Government).

All institutions have regulated the issue of professional confidentiality by law. In the case of the Government, professional confidentiality is the only issue regulated by law, in the case of the Central Bank, it is the only issue regulated by code and law.

The Dutch institutions use few instruments. Training, an ethics committee and a register on declarations of financial interests are only used by the Dutch Parliament and the Court of Justice.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institution</th>
<th>Issues regulated</th>
<th>Form of regulation</th>
<th>Public register</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Government</td>
<td>7 out of 15 issues (46.67%) regulated – 8 unregulated (53.33%)</td>
<td>law 7% (GL and SIL) Code 40% (SC)</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parliament</td>
<td>8 out 15 issues (53.33%) regulated – 7 (47.67%) unregulated</td>
<td>53% Law (GL and GIL), no code</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Regulating Conflicts of Interest for Holders of Public Office

Members of Government

**In general:**
Approximately half of the issues are regulated for the Dutch Government. All these issues are regulated by code, which is described in a letter from the Prime Minister to the Parliament (22 December 2002). The code prescribes that candidate ministers end all (additional) functions; both paid jobs as well as honorary jobs. Candidates are obligated to send the prime minister a letter to inform him or her on all possible financial interests and additional jobs. The PM informs the Parliament. The code aims to avoid any appearance of conflicts of interest in relation to financial and commercial interests.
The only issue that is regulated by law is “professional confidentiality” (penal code).

**Code:**
- Code procedure on possible conflicts of interest of new ministers during the formation of a new cabinet.

**Relevant laws:**
- Standing Orders of Cabinet (reglement van orde);
- Penal code; Wetboek van strafrecht: Article 272, Article 98a.

**More specific:**

*A – Professional activities*
Most of the professional activities are not regulated. Only two issues are regulated, namely, outside activities: honorary positions, and specific rules on the incompatibility of posts and professional activities before or during the term of office. Both are regulated by the above mentioned code.
B – Declaration of income
Declaration of financial interests and assets, and provisions relating to the declara-
tion of interests are also regulated by the above-mentioned code. The activities the
spouses of HPOs are not regulated.

C – Gifts, missions and travel
Missions and travel are regulated by code. The other two issues are unregulated.

D – Post-employment
There is no regulation regarding “Restrictions on professional commitments or the
holding of posts after leaving office”.

E – Other Conflicts of Interest
General rules on impartiality and conflicts of interest are determined by code, but
professional loyalty is unregulated. Rules on professional confidentiality are pre-
scribed by law (Penal Code, Articles 44 and 98) and by the Standing Orders of
Cabinet. There is also a pledge of secrecy concerning anything said or done during
the meetings of the Council of Ministers. The issue of confidentiality is thereby
double-regulated.

Instruments
There is no training, ethics committee or register.

Members of Parliament

In general:
Half of the issues are regulated. These issues are regulated by law. Several issues
are regulated in the constitution, in special laws, and in the Standing Orders of the
Parliament. The Dutch Parliament does not have a code of conduct, but it does
have a public register on additional positions, gifts and travel.

Relevant laws:
• Constitution;
• Standing Orders of the Parliament (in Dutch: Reglement van Orde);
• Act on Incompatibility;
• Act on side-income of political functionaries.
More specific:

A – Professional activities
Specific rules on the incompatibility of posts and professional activities before or during the term of office and outside activities, “honorary positions” and “conferences” are regulated by law. Political activities and publications are unregulated.

B – Declaration of income
Declarations of financial interests and assets and Provisions relating to the declaration of interests are also regulated by law. The activities of the spouses of HPOs are not regulated.

C – Gifts, missions and travel
Both missions and travel as well as accepting gifts, decorations, and distinctions are regulated by law. There are no rules regarding receptions and representation.

D – Post-employment
There is no regulation regarding restrictions on professional commitments or holding posts after leaving office.

E – Other conflicts of interest
General rules on impartiality and conflicts of interest, and professional loyalty are unregulated. Rules on professional confidentiality are prescribed by law.

Instruments
The Dutch Parliament does not provide training. Nor does it have an ethics committee.

According to our respondents, the Dutch Members of Parliament are “obliged” to enter all other positions they have (paid and unpaid) in a public register as well as the remuneration that they receive. This register (as the travel and gifts register) is held in the Clerks office.

Supreme Court

In general:
The majority of issues are regulated (9 out of 16). All these issues are regulated by law. Only one issue is regulated by code: missions and travels. This general code for Judges also applies to Judges of the Supreme Court.
Relevant codes:

Relevant laws:
- Constitution
- Wet op de rechterlijke organisatie: Reglement van Inwendige Dienst;
- Wet organisatie en bestuur gerechten (Wet OBG);
- Wet rechtspositie rechterlijke ambtenaren.

More specific:

A – Professional activities
Most professional activities are regulated by law: political activities, honorary positions and the incompatibility of posts and professional activities before or during the term of office. The two items not regulated are conferences and publications.

B – Declaration of income
The declaration of financial interests and assets and the activities of the spouses of the HPOs are regulated by law. There are no provisions relating to the declaration of interests.

C – Gifts, missions and travel
Two out of three issues are regulated – one by code (missions and travel), and one by law (accepting gifts, decorations and distinctions).

D – Post-employment
There is no regulation regarding restrictions on professional commitments or holding posts after leaving office.

E – Other Conflicts of Interest
All issues concerning other conflicts of interest are regulated. Professional confidentiality and professional loyalty are regulated by code. General rules on impartiality and conflicts of interest are regulated by law.

Instruments
There is neither training, nor an ethics committee. According to respondents, there is a general (public) register of honorary positions for all types of judicial positions that also applies to Supreme Court Judges. The register gives insight into positions such as memberships of academies, academic fora, advisory boards of conferences, the editing of journals etc. However, this does not give insight into financial interests.
Court of Audit

In general:
Compared to the other institutions, the Court of Audit is severely regulated. Almost all issues are covered by law (11), and some of them both by law and code (7).

Relevant codes:
• Code of conduct (Gedragscode Algemene Rekenkamer);
• IntoSAI code.

Relevant laws:
• General Administrative Law Act, Section 2, sub-section 5

More specific:

A – Professional activities
Except for conferences and publications all issues regarding professional activities are regulated. Specific rules on incompatibly by law, publications by code and political activities, honorary positions and conferences all three by both code and law.

B – Declaration of income
Only the activities of the spouses of HPOs are regulated by law. The declaration of financial interests and assets (publication of declarations), and provisions relating to the declaration of interests are not regulated.

C – Gifts, missions and travel
All issues are regulated by law. Accepting gifts, decorations and distinctions, and missions and travels are regulated by both law and code.

D – Post-employment
There is no regulation regarding restrictions on professional commitments or the holding of posts after leaving office.

E – Other Conflicts of Interest
All issues are regulated. General rules on impartiality and conflicts of interest are regulated by law. Professional confidentiality and professional loyalty are both regulated by code.

Instruments
There is no training, ethics committee or register.
National Banks

In general:
The National Bank in the Netherlands has regulated all issues (100%). This is usually done by code (85.71%), except for the issue of professional confidentiality. This issue is regulated by both code and law.

Relevant codes:
- Gedragscode DNB, 7 juni 2006;
- Regeling onverenigbare functies, 10 oktober 2005;
- Regeling inzake tegenstrijdige belangen, 11 oktober 2005;
- Statuten van de Nederlandsche Bank N.V, 13 maart 2007;
- Reglement van orde van de Nederlandsche Bank N.V. (o.a. artikel 17).

The Central Bank is currently revising these regulations.

Relevant laws:
- Bankwet 1998.

More specific:

A – Professional activities
We received answers to 4 out of the 5 questions in this section (information on political activities is missing). Specific rules on the incompatibility of posts and on professional activities before or during the term of office and outside activities (conferences, honorary positions and publications) are regulated by code.

B – Declaration of income
Rules on the activities of the spouses of HPOs are regulated by code. Information on provisions relating to the declarations of interests and the declarations of financial interests and assets is missing.

C – Gifts, missions and travel
Rules on accepting gifts, decorations and distinctions are regulated by code. Information on the regulation of rules on receptions and representation, and on missions and travels is missing.

D – Post-employment
Restrictions on professional commitments or on the holding of posts after leaving office are regulated by code.
E – Other Conflicts of Interest
All issues regarding conflicts of interest are regulated. General rules on impartiality and conflicts of interest and professional loyalty are regulated by code. Professional confidentiality is regulated by both code and law.

Instruments
There is no training, ethics committee or register.
General profile

Poland, along with a group of other countries including Estonia, Lithuania and Slovenia, joined the European Union on the 1 of May 2004.

In Poland, conflicts of interest are regulated by a number of laws. For example, Members of the Government are regulated by the Act on the Limitation of Economic Activity by Persons Who Exercise Public Functions and the Council of Ministers’ Resolution on the Rules and Regulations on Work of the Council of Ministers, while Parliamentarians are regulated by the Act on the Exercise of the Mandate of a Deputy or Senator. There is no single law that would contain most of the necessary regulations for all institutions. Besides legal measures, all the institutions included in this study, with the exception of the Government, have adopted Codes of Conduct.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institution</th>
<th>Issues regulated</th>
<th>Form of regulation</th>
<th>Ethics Committee</th>
<th>Public register</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Government</td>
<td>15 out of 15 items regulated (100%)</td>
<td>Law (GL 7, SL 2, SIL 1)</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parliament</td>
<td>12 out of 15 items regulated (80%) – 3 unregulated (20%)</td>
<td>Law (GL 3, GIL 4) + Code (SC 1)</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supreme Court</td>
<td>11 out of 15 items regulated (73.33%) – 4 unregulated (26.67%)</td>
<td>Law (GL 4, SL 1) + Code (GC 1)</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Court of Auditors</td>
<td>10 out of 15 items regulated (66.67%) – 5 unregulated (33.33%)</td>
<td>Law (GL 1, GIL 1, SL 1) + Code (SC 1)</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central Bank</td>
<td>14 out of 15 items regulated (93.33%) – 1 unregulated (6.67%)</td>
<td>Law (GL 3, GIL 1, SL 1) + Code (SC 1)</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Members of Government

In general:
All 15 items are regulated by law. There are two main legal documents that apply to Ministers: the Act on the Limitation of Economic Activity by Persons Who Exercise Public Functions, and the Council of Ministers’ Resolution on the Rules and Regulations on Work of the Council of Ministers. These documents refer directly to ministers and other Members of Government. There are also a number of other relevant laws. However, they are more general in nature and have a wider application.

Relevant laws:
• Constitution of the Republic of Poland (1997);
• Act on the Access to Public Information (2001);
• Penal Code (1997);
• Labour Code (1974);
• Act on Limitation of Economic Activity by Persons Who Exercise Public Functions (1997);
• Act on the State Staffing Pool and High-ranking State Posts (2006);
• Act on Protection of Disclosed Information (1999);
• Act on Remuneration of the Top State Officials (1981);
• Rules and Regulations on Work of the Council of Ministers. Resolution No. 49 of the Council of Ministers, 19.3.2002;
• Detailed Rules for Remuneration of the Top State Officials. Regulation of the President of the Republic of Poland, 25.1.2002.

More specific:
A – Professional Activities
According to the Constitution, a Member of the Council of Ministers may not perform any activity which is inconsistent with their public duties (Article 150). Professional activities are also regulated by the Act on Limitation of Economic Activity by Persons Who Exercise Public Functions, and the Council of Ministers’ Resolution on the Rules and Regulations on Work of the Council of Ministers.

B – Declaration of Income
Members of Government are required to declare their financial interests. This is regulated by the Act on Limitation of Economic Activity by Persons Who Exercise Public Functions.
C – Gifts, missions and travel
Regulations in this category are regulated by the Act on Limitation of Economic Activity by Persons Who Exercise Public Functions.

D – Post-employment
Post-employment is regulated by the aforementioned Act.

E – Other Conflicts of Interest
Issues included in this category are regulated by the Council of Ministers’ Resolution on the Rules and Regulations on Work of the Council of Ministers.

Instruments
There are no training programmes available for the Members of the Government and there is no committee on ethics. The Members of Government are required to declare their financial interests. The Register was established under provisions of the Act on Limitation of Economic Activity by Persons Who Exercise Public Functions (Article 12). It is run by the State Election Commission (SEC) and is open to the public. Once a year, SEC publishes a separate document including all information from the Register.

Members of Parliament

In general:
Poland’s Parliament has a bicameral structure consisting of two chambers: the Sejm (lower chamber) and the Senate (upper chamber). Regarding the regulations on conflicts of interest, both chambers are subject to the same legislation, the most notably law being the Act on the Exercise of the Mandate of a Deputy or Senator. However, the lower chamber has adopted a code of ethics, while the upper chamber has no code. Both chambers have their own committees on ethics. This study analyses only the operations of the lower chamber (Sejm).

Twelve out of the 15 items are regulated. Most of the items (7) are regulated by both law and code of ethics, five items by law, and two items are unregulated. The code of ethics, the Principles of Deputies’ Ethics, came into force in 1998. However, it is quite abstract and short. The key instrument for the regulation of conflicts of interest situations is the Act on the Exercise of the Mandate of a Deputy or Senator.

Relevant codes:
Relevant laws:
• Constitution of the Republic of Poland (1997);
• Act on the Exercise of the Mandate of a Deputy or Senator (1996);

More specific:

A – Professional Activities
Professional activities are regulated by law and code of ethics. Regulations concerning outside activities (political activities, honorary positions, conferences and publications) have a rather general character, both in law and in the code of ethics. There are no specific provisions relating exactly to these areas, except some behavioural principles regarding political activities (Principles of Deputies’ Ethics, Article 1-6).

In the third article on impartiality, the Code of Ethics states that a Deputy should be guided by the public interest. He or she should not exploit his or her office in order to obtain any personal gain or the gain of persons close to him or her, nor should he or she enjoy benefits which might influence his or her activity as a Member of Parliament. According to the Constitution, deputies are not permitted to perform any business activity which involves any benefit derived from the property of the State Treasury or local Government or to acquire such property. If this is violated, the deputy is brought to accountability before the Tribunal of State, which adjudicates upon forfeiture of the mandate (Article 107). Deputies and Senators must not conduct any business activity on their own account or together with other persons which utilises state or communal property, and must not manage such activity or serve as representatives or plenipotentiaries in the conduct of such activity (The Act on the Exercise of the Mandate of a Deputy or Senator, Article 34).

A person cannot be a Deputy and a Senator at the same time (Constitution, Article 102). Moreover, the Constitution states that the mandate of a Deputy may not be held jointly with some other offices such as the office of the President of the National Bank or the President of the Supreme Chamber of Control (Article 103).

B – Declaration of Income
Declarations of financial interests are regulated by the Act on the Exercise of the Mandate of a Deputy or Senator. Deputies and Senators are obliged to lodge a statement relating to their financial status. The financial statement concerns both separate assets and assets held in common with their spouses. However, the regulation of the activities of spouses is rather limited. It relates to the situations when the spouse acquired from the State Treasury (other state legal person, local Government units or their associations, or a communal legal person) any assets which were subject to acquisition by means of tender. Such assets should be described in a financial statement lodged by Deputies and Senators. The Marshal of the Sejm or
the Marshal of the Senate transfers a copy of the financial statement to the appropriate tax office.

Information included in the financial statement is made public, with the exception of the information concerning the home address of a Deputy or Senator and the location of real estate. Data contained in the statements shall be analysed by appropriate committees. The subject performing analysis of the statement shall be entitled to compare the contents of the analysed statement with the contents of previously lodged statements and with the copy of the attached annual tax return (PIT). Any failure to lodge financial statements shall involve responsibility according to regulations and forfeiture, until lodgement of such statement, of the right to salary. False representations or concealment of the truth in the financial statement shall involve responsibility under the Criminal Code (Article 247).

Furthermore, any information concerning the interests of the spouses of Deputies has to be disclosed in the Register of Interests within the scope of the Article 35a of the Act on the Exercise of the Mandate of a Deputy or Senator. Deputies should disclose any relation between their personal interests and the decision-making in which they participate (Article 4 of Principles of Deputies’ ethics).

C – Gifts, missions and travel
Members of Parliament may not receive gifts which may undermine the constituents’ confidence in the exercise of the mandate (the Act on the Exercise of the Mandate of a Deputy or Senator, Article 33). There are no specific rules concerning the missions or travel of MPs, although they are required to maintain a standard of conduct based upon the provision that Members of the Parliament should exercise their parliamentary mandates always bearing the good of the nation in mind.

D – Post-employment
There are no post-employment restrictions.

E – Other Conflicts of Interest
Regarding professional loyalty, the Constitution states that Deputies must be the representatives of the nation, and are not bound by any political instructions from their parties (Article 104). Professional confidentiality does not apply to the Parliamentarians as such, and is not regulated by law or code of ethics.

Instruments
The Chancellery of Parliament organises a seminar for the newly-elected deputies on the most important issues connected with the execution of their mandate. One of the topics discussed during seminars includes the ethical aspects of the mandate.

The Sejm has its own ethics committee called the Deputies’ Ethics Committee. It consists of one member from each Deputy club (Standing Orders of the Sejm,
Regulating Conflicts of Interest for Holders of Public Office

Article 143). The committee is responsible for supervising whether deputies are working according to the ethical standards defined in the Parliament Resolution on Principles of Deputies’ Ethics. The committee may reproach, admonish or reprimand a Deputy. Resolutions adopted by the Committee are made public. The Deputies’ Ethics Committee is regulated by the Standing Orders of the Sejm (Chapter 13, Articles 143-148).

The interests of the Members of Parliament, as well as those of their spouses, are disclosed in the Register of Interests (Act on the Exercise of the Mandate of a Deputy or Senator, Article 35a). All statements of financial status lodged by Parliamentarians are public.

Judges of the Supreme Court

In general:
Eleven out of the 15 items are regulated. Of these, six are regulated by law and code of ethics, and the remaining five solely by law. The ethics of the Supreme Court Judges are defined in the Professional Ethic Rules for Judges, which was adopted by the National Judicature Council in 2003.

Relevant codes:

Relevant laws:
• Constitution of the Republic of Poland (1997);
• Act on the Supreme Court (2003);
• Act on the Common Courts System (2001);
• General Assembly of the Supreme Court Justices. Resolution of 1 December 2003 adopting Supreme Court Bylaws;
• Act on National Judicature Council (2001);
• Regulation of the President of Poland of 22 December 2001 on the Particular Proceeding of the Activity of the National Judicature Council and the Procedure before the Council (2001);
• Penal Code (1997).

More specific:

A – Professional Activities
The specific rules on the incompatibility of posts and professional activities are defined by legislation and Code of Ethics. According to the Constitution, Judges of

151 The upper chamber has a Committee on Rules, Ethics and Senatorial Affairs.
the Supreme Court may not belong to political parties, trade unions or perform public activities that are incompatible with the principles of the independence of the Courts and Judges (Article 178). However, there are no specific regulations regarding other typical outside activities such as honorary positions, conferences and publications.

B – Declaration of Income
Judges of the Supreme Court are required to declare their financial interests. See the paragraph on Instruments below for more details.

C – Gifts, missions and travel
Accepting gifts is regulated by law and Code of Ethics. Rules on travel and missions are set in legislation. There are no specific regulations regarding rules on receptions and representation.

D – Post-employment
Post-employment is regulated by law and code.

E – Other conflicts of interest
Other conflicts of interest are covered by law and Code of Ethics.

Instruments
Supreme Court has not provided specific training on ethics for the Judges. There is a special body that functions as an ethics committee. Its actions are based upon the Constitution and the Act on National Judicature Council. The Council must adopt the Professional Ethic Rules for Judges and ensure the observance of this code. The Council has a permanent commission which deals with ethical issues. In addition, the Board of the Supreme Court may adopt resolutions or express opinions on the conduct of any Justices which has been found to infringe the Code of Ethics (Supreme Court Bylaws, Article 19).

According to the Act on Supreme Court (Article 38), Justices must submit their financial statements to the First President of the Supreme Court. The specific contents of the financial statements are defined in the Common Courts System Act (Article 87). It is the role of the First President to examine the contents of the financial statements. He or she must compare them with statements of previous years and he or she will deposit them at the Secret Information Office of the Supreme Court. The taxation office is informed and it examines the financial statements as well. If it finds any infringements in their contents, it demands corrections and may institute the relevant proceedings.
Members or Directors of the Court of Audit

In general:
The Supreme Chamber of Control is the chief organ of state audit and is subordinate to the Parliament. The Council of the Supreme Chamber of Control consists of the President as its chairman, the Vice-Presidents, the Director General and 14 Members. The Members of the Council are appointed by the Marshal of the Sejm for a term of three years. The persons making up the Council are independent in the fulfilment of their functions and have the right to have their minority opinions included in the minutes.

Ten out of the 15 items are regulated. Most of the items (7) are regulated by law and the Code of Ethics, and three items are regulated by law. The remaining five items are unregulated. The principal instruments to regulate conflict of interest situations are the Act on Limitation of Economic Activity by Persons Who Exercise Public Functions, the Act on the Supreme Chamber of Control, and the Code of Ethics of the Auditor of the Supreme Chamber of Control. It should be noted here that, in developing the Code, the authors have taken into account the principles outlined in the INTOSAI Code of Ethics.152

Relevant codes:
• Code of Ethics of the Auditor of the Supreme Chamber of Control.

Relevant laws:
• Constitution of the Republic of Poland (1997);
• Act on the Supreme Chamber of Control (1994);
• Act on Limitation of Economic Activity by Persons Who Exercise Public Functions (1997).

More specific:

A – Professional Activities
The President of the Supreme Chamber of Control may not hold any other post, with the exception of a professorship in an institute of higher education, nor perform any other professional activities. The President of the Supreme Chamber of Control must not belong to a political party, trade unions or perform public activities incompatible with the dignity of his or her office (Constitution, Article 205). Like the President of the Supreme Chamber of Control, neither the Vice-Presidents

152 The INTOSAI Code of Ethics is directed at the individual auditor, the head of the Supreme Audit Institution, executive officers and all individuals working for or on behalf of the Supreme Audit Institution who are involved in audit work.
nor the Director General may become members of political parties or trade unions or hold other posts, except university professorships.

The Code of Ethics suggests that auditors should maintain full independence, objectivity and impartiality in their work. To oppose outside pressures effectively, auditors should refrain from becoming involved in any activity or relationship that can or could have an impact on their independence and objectivity (Article 2.1). Furthermore, an auditor should openly distance himself or herself from any political influences or pressures that may lead to his or her being partial, and should not engage in activities that might serve political aims (Article 2.7). The Code of Ethics has also detailed rules on how to prevent, detect and avoid conflicts of interest (Article 2.2). There are no specific regulations relating to conferences or publications.

B – Declaration of Income
HPOs must declare all financial interests and assets under the Act on Limitation of Economic Activity by Persons Who Exercise Public Functions. The declaration includes the financial resources and property owned by the HPO together with his or her spouse, but excludes the spouse’s possessions. Each HPO is required to declare only the economic activity of his or her spouse.

C – Gifts, missions and travel
The Code of Ethics addresses the issue of accepting different benefits. According to the Code, auditors are not allowed to accept benefits (for example, gifts, bonuses, discounts) from the audited entity, its representatives or other parties concerned, nor allow the other auditors of the team, for whom he or she is responsible, to accept benefits that might influence their professional judgement. There are no specific regulations relating to missions and travel, or to receptions and representation.

D – Post-employment
Post-employment is not regulated.

E – Other Conflicts of Interest
Other conflicts of interest are regulated by legislation. They are also addressed in the Code of Ethics. Auditors should keep information obtained while performing their professional duties confidential, and may not use or disclose such information except when it is required by a legal or professional obligation. The Code of Ethics sees loyalty as part of professionalism (Article 5.5).

Instruments
An auditor has an obligation to improve his or her skills as well as the professional knowledge required for discharging his or her duties. The Chamber organises the audit training for newly-employed auditors which covers the practical as well as
the ethical issues. Moreover, there are many other courses concerning these matters.

The Supreme Chamber of Control does not have an ethics committee.

The President of the Supreme Chamber of Control must pass on his or her declaration to the President of the Supreme Court. The other HPOs pass on their declarations to the General Director of the Supreme Chamber of Control, who scrutinises them. These declarations are confidential and are not made public.

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**Members or Directors of the Central or National Bank**

**In general:**
Fourteen out of the 15 items are regulated. The majority of them (8) are regulated by legislation and the Code of Ethics. Of the remaining items, five are regulated by law, one by the Code and one is unregulated.

The Management Board directs the activities of the National Bank. A Member of the National Bank of Poland’s (NBP) Management Board authorised by the President of the NBP is entrusted with responsibilities regarding the analysis of the application of the Code of Ethics and the interpretation of the Code of Ethics with regard to breaches of the Code. A Member of the NBP Management Board authorised by the President issues detailed guidelines as required (Article 4.1). A Member of the NBP Management Board, again authorised by the President, submits a summary of the information, including an assessment of the functioning of the Code of Ethics during the previous year, together with any proposals concerning amendments of the Code of Ethics to the Management Board by March 31 each year.

**Relevant codes:**
- Code of Ethics for Employees of the National Bank of Poland, adopted on July 29, 2004 by Regulation No. 13/2004 of the President of the National Bank of Poland.

**Relevant laws:**
- Constitution of the Republic of Poland (1997);
- Act on National Bank of Poland (1997);
- Labour Code (1998);
- Penal Code (1997);
More specific:

A – Professional Activities
Professional activities are regulated by the Code of Ethics and by law. Employees of the NBP have an obligation to refrain from engaging in party activities during the performance of their official duties and on NBP premises (Code of Ethics, Article 10; see also Act on National Bank of Poland, Article 14). Furthermore, the Code emphasises the principle of impartiality. The Code also provides detailed rules on conflicts of interest (Article 4-8).

B – Declaration of Income
Declaration of financial interests and assets is regulated by law.

C – Gifts, missions and travel
Gifts, missions and travels are regulated by law and the Code of Ethics.

D – Post-employment
Post-employment is regulated by law and the Code of Ethics. The Code of Ethics has three statues regarding this issue (Article 8). First, an employee of the PNB may not enter into conversations concerning potential employment in other institutions during the performance of his or her duties. Second, after consulting his or her current immediate superior, an employee must refrain from performing duties that may be in connection with his or her next employer upon entering negotiations concerning future employment or performing professional activity after the termination of his or her employment with the NBP. Third, after the termination of his or her employment with the NBP, an employee must exercise extraordinary caution with regard to undertaking any actions in connection with his or her former employment with the NBP, and in particular must not use or disclose to persons from outside the NBP any information not made public by the NBP that he or she obtained in connection with the performance of his or her duties at the NBP.

E – Other Conflicts of Interest
Other conflicts of interest are regulated by law and the Code of Ethics.

Instruments
Training is provided by external institutions. The National Bank does not have an ethics committee. The property statements procedure is similar to what is used in the Court of Audit (Supreme Chamber of Control). See the respective section for more information.
Regulating Conflicts of Interest for Holders of Public Office

Summary: Conflicts of Interest Policy in Portugal

General profile

Portugal acceded to the European Union on 1 January 1986 as the twelfth Member State.

In Portugal, most issues in the Parliament, Government and the Supreme Court are regulated by law. In the Court of Auditors and the Central Bank, law, code and a combination of the two ways of regulation can be found.

Out of all Portuguese laws, the Constitution is central for CoI issues. It applies to the Parliament, the Government and the Supreme Court. There are specific codes and laws applicable to the Court of Auditors and the Central Bank. The Audit Manual and INTOSAI Code of Ethics have been in force for some years for auditors and audit managers. In addition, an Ethical Chart and Guidelines for an Ethical Conduct are under discussion for future approval. In addition, the Central Bank uses the Code of Conduct of Banco de Portugal.

Out of the unregulated issues the following are worth noting:
1. There are no restrictions on professional commitments or on the holding of posts after leaving office in the Parliament.
2. There are no declarations of financial interests and assets, or of the activities of the spouses of HPOs in the Supreme Court.

In conclusion, there is a strong tendency in Portugal to regulate possible conflicts of interest of HPOs by law. Most laws are not new. Some were adopted during the 1980s, others date from the 1990s, and there are some more recent laws as well.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institution</th>
<th>Issues regulated</th>
<th>Form of regulation</th>
<th>Ethics committee</th>
<th>Public register</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Government</td>
<td>11 out of 15 regulated (100%) – 4 N/A</td>
<td>Law (GL 2)</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parliament</td>
<td>14 out of 15 issues are regulated (93.33%) – 1 unregulated</td>
<td>Law (GL 2)</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supreme Court</td>
<td>8 out of 15 regulated (100%) – 7 N/A</td>
<td>Law (GL 1+ GC 1+ SIL 1)</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Members of Government

In general:
Most issues are regulated by law. There is no code of conduct.

Relevant laws:
- Constitution;
- Law n 64/93, of 26 August;
- Decree-Law n 196/93, of 27 May;

More specific:

A – Professional activities
All professional activities are regulated by law: outside political activities, honorary positions, conferences, publications as well as the specific rules on the incompatibility of posts and professional activities before or during the term of office.

B – Declaration of income
The Portuguese Government has regulated all issues in relation to income declaration by law: the declaration of financial interests and asset, the activities of the spouses of HPOs, and provisions relating to declarations of interests.

C – Gifts, missions and travel
Accepting gifts, decorations and distinctions is regulated by law, while missions and travel, and rules on reception and representation are not regulated.

D – Post-employment
Restrictions on professional commitments and on the holding of posts after leaving office are regulated by law.

E – Other Conflicts of Interest
General rules on impartiality and conflicts of interest, professional confidentiality and professional loyalty are regulated by law. There are no other rules and standards that are regulated in this category.
Instruments
The Government does not provide training for HPOs and has not established an ethics committee. However, there is a register on declarations of financial interests. Holders of political posts must file a declaration of no-disqualification or impediments, stating all offices, duties and professional activities performed by the applicant, as well as any initial shareholding, within sixty days of taking office, with the Constitutional Court, which reviews, monitors and confirms the declarations submitted.

Members of Parliament

In general:
Most issues are regulated by law (no regulation for outside political activities, honorary positions, conferences, publications as well as missions and travel). There is no code of conduct.

Relevant laws:
• Constitution (Article 154);
• Law 64/93 of 26 August.

More specific:

A – Professional activities
From all professional activities, only the incompatibility of posts and professional activities before or during the term of office is regulated by law. Outside political activities, honorary positions, participation in conferences and publications are not regulated.

B – Declaration of income
All issues with regard to declarations of income are regulated by law.

C – Gifts, missions and travel
Accepting gifts, decorations and distinctions, missions and travel and receptions and representation are all regulated by law.

D – Post-employment
Restrictions on professional commitments or on the holding of posts after leaving office are not regulated.

E – Other Conflicts of Interest
General rules on impartiality and conflicts of interest, professional confidentiality and professional loyalty are regulated by law. Other rules and standards in the category are not regulated.
Instruments
Training programmes concerning ethics for HPOs do not exist. However, there is an ethics committee and a register on declarations of financial interests. For parliamentarians, an open list of interests was created in the Assembly of the Republic in 1993. Holders of political posts must file a declaration of no-disqualification or impediments, stating all offices, duties and professional activities performed by the applicant, as well as any initial shareholding, within sixty days of taking office, with the Constitutional Court. Individuals’ lists of interest are available to the public for consultation.

Judges of the Supreme Court

In general:
From all 15 issues, 8 are regulated by law. As for the remaining 7 issues, no information was available.

Relevant code: formally, there is no code of conduct; however, a number of legal provisions governing this matter do exist.

Relevant laws:
• Constitution (Article 216);
• Code of Civil Procedure (Articles 122-126);
• Law 21/85, of 30 July (Statute of Judicial Magistrates – Articles 11, 12 & 13)

More specific:

A – Professional activities
All professional activities (political activities, outside activities, honorary positions, and the incompatibility of posts and professional activities before or during the term of office), with the exception of publications and participation in conferences, are regulated by law.

B – Declaration of income
Neither the declaration of financial interests and assets, nor the activities of the spouses of HPOs nor provisions relating to the declaration of interests are regulated.

C – Gifts, missions and travel
Accepting gifts, decorations, distinctions as well as the rules on receptions and representation are regulated by law. However, there is no regulation for participation in missions or travel.
Regulating Conflicts of Interest for Holders of Public Office

D – Post-employment
Restrictions on professional commitments or on the holding of posts after leaving office are regulated by law.

E – Other Conflicts of Interest
General rules on impartiality and conflicts of interest, professional confidentiality and professional loyalty are regulated by law.

Instruments
The Portuguese Supreme Court does provide some training concerning ethics for its Judges, but only in their initial phase of training. There is neither an ethics committee, nor a register on declarations of financial interests.

________________________________________________

Members or Directors of the Court of Audit

In general:
All issues in the Court of Audit are regulated. Some of them (3) by law, others by code (4), but the biggest part (9) is regulated by both code and law.

Relevant codes:
• Audit Manual;
• INTOSAI Code of Ethics;
• An Ethical Chart and Guidelines for an Ethical Conduct are under discussion for future approval.

Relevant law:
• Constitution.

More specific:

A – Professional activities
Outside political activities, participation in conferences and publications are regulated by code. Outside activities, honorary positions and rules on incompatibility of posts and professional activities before or during the term of office are regulated by both code and law.

B – Declaration of income
The declaration of financial interests and assets and the activities of the spouses of HPOs are regulated by law. Provisions relating to the declaration of interests are regulated by both law and code.
C – Gifts, missions and travel
All issues concerning gifts, missions and receptions are regulated by both law and code.

D – Post-employment
Restrictions on professional commitments or on the holding of posts after leaving office are regulated by law.

E – Other Conflicts of Interest
General rules on impartiality and conflicts of interest, professional loyalty as well as professional confidentiality are regulated by law. For other rules and standards, there is a code.

Instruments
In the Portuguese Court of Audit, there is no ethics committee. However, courses are delivered on ethical principles and rules, also including questionnaires of self-evaluation and group discussions on case studies, mainly about audit situations (ex. auditing activities in connection with relatives or close friends, accepting (or not) invitations from auditees, expressing opinions, taking care of confidential information). In addition, top managers have to present a declaration of interests, assets, incomes and activities, to the Constitutional Court every year, which maintains a national open register.

Members or Directors of the Central or National Banks

In general:
Eight out of 15 issues in the Central Bank are regulated by both law and code. Three are regulated by code, two by law and two are not regulated.

Relevant code:
• Code of Conduct of Banco de Portugal;
• Code of Administrative Procedure.

Relevant law:
• Organic Law of Banco de Portugal (in particular, Articles 60, 61 and 64);
• Legal Framework of Credit Institutions and Financial Companies (in particular, Article 80);
• Legal Framework of Public Institutes (in particular, Article 48);
• Legal Framework concerning incompatibilities of holders of public office (in particular, Articles 3 and 7)
• General rules on public control of the wealth of public office holders (Articles 4, No. 2; 5)
Regulating Conflicts of Interest for Holders of Public Office

- General rules concerning appointment of holders of management positions in Public Administration (Articles 1, No. 2; 2, 12, 16 and 17)

**More specific:**

**A – Professional activities**
Outside activities: political activities and outside activities: publications are regulated by code, while honorary positions, participation in conferences and the incompatibility of posts and professional activities before or during the term of office are regulated by both law and code.

**B – Declaration of income**
The declarations of financial interests and assets, the activities of spouses of HPOs and the provisions relating to declarations of interests are regulated by law.

**C – Gifts, missions and travel**
Accepting gifts, decorations and distinctions is regulated by both law and code. For the participation of Members of the Bank in missions and travel, there is a code. No rules on receptions and representation exist.

**D – Post-employment**
Restrictions on professional commitments or on the holding of posts after leaving office are strictly regulated by a combination of code and law.

**E – Other Conflicts of Interest**
General rules on impartiality and conflicts of interest, professional confidentiality and professional loyalty are regulated by code and law.

**Instruments**
The Portuguese Central Bank does not provide any training programmes and there is no ethics committee. However, there is a register on declarations of financial interests. For professional activities, including training, conferences and teaching, the Bank’s staff is obliged to declare them and ask for approval, and an internal register in relation to the issue is maintained.
General profile

Romania is a new Member State of the EU: it joined on 1 January 2007.

As for the Romanian Government and Parliament most issues are regulated by law. In the Supreme Court there are both laws and a combination of law and code. Unfortunately, there is lack of information on the Court of Auditors.

Of all laws, the Constitution and the Penal Code apply to all Romanian institutions that have been studied. In addition, there is a special Code of conduct for civil servants, which is regulated at the level of law as well as another law regarding Civil Servants Statute. There is also a special code for the Judges in the Supreme Court.

Out of the unregulated issues the following are worth noting:
• there is no regulation on restrictions on professional commitments or holding posts after leaving office in both the Government and the Parliament;
• there is no declaration of the activities of the spouses of HPOs in the Parliament;
• there is no regulation on accepting gifts or participating in missions and travels for the Members of the Parliament;
• there is no register on declaration of financial interests.

In conclusion, it can be said that some tendencies to regulate possible conflicts of interest exist in Romania, although they are not very strong. In addition, a full picture of the situation cannot be provided since no information on the Court of Auditors and insufficient data for the Central Bank were given.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>Form of regulation</th>
<th>Ethics committee</th>
<th>Public register</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Government</td>
<td>13 out of 15 regulated (100%) – 2 N/A</td>
<td>Law (GL 6 + SL 7)</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parliament</td>
<td>6 out of 15 regulated (42.86%) – 8 unregulated (57.14%) – 1 N/A</td>
<td>Law (GC 1 + SL 1 + SIL 1)</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supreme Court</td>
<td>All issues regulated</td>
<td>Law (SC 1 + GL 3 + SIL 2 + SL 2)</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Members of Government

In general:
Almost all issues are regulated by law. The two exceptions are: restrictions on professional commitments or the holding of posts after leaving office, and participation in missions and travel.

Relevant Code:
- Code of Conduct of civil servants;
- Code of Conduct of contractual personnel.

Relevant laws:
- The Constitution of Romania, amended and completed by the provisions of Law No. 429/2003;
- Law No. 477/2004 regarding the Code of Conduct of Contractual Personnel within the Public Authorities and Institutions;
- Law No. 161/2003 for ensuring transparency in public offices, civil service and within the business environment, preventing and sanctioning corruption;
- Law No. 215/2001 on the Local Public Administration, amended by Law No. 286/2006;
- Law No. 78/2000 on the Prevention, Detection and Penalisation of Corruption;
- Law No. 115/1996 on Statement and Control of Property of Officials, Magistrates, Civil Servants and Other Persons having Leading Positions;
- Romanian Penal Code.

More specific:

A – Professional activities
All professional activities are regulated by law: outside political activities, honorary positions, conferences, publications as well as the specific rules on the incompatibility of posts and professional activities before or during the term of office.
B – Declaration of income
In the Romanian Government, all issues relating to declarations of income are regulated by law: declarations of financial interests and asset, the activities of the spouses of HPOs, and provisions relating to the declarations of interests.

C – Gifts, missions and travel
Accepting gifts, decorations and distinctions as well as the rules on receptions and representation are regulated by law. However, there are no special rules for participation in missions and travel for Members of the Romanian Government.

D – Post-employment
There are no special restrictions on professional commitments or the holding of posts after leaving office.

E – Other Conflicts of Interest
Other conflicts of interest (for examples, General Rules on Impartiality and Conflicts of Interest, Confidentiality, and Professional Loyalty) are regulated by law.

Instruments
The Romanian Government does not provide training for HPOs and has not established an ethics committee. But they do have a register on declarations of financial interests.

Members of Parliament

In general:
Some issues in the Parliament (around 50%) are regulated by law. However, there are a considerable amount of issues that are not regulated at all.

Relevant Code:
• Senate’s Order No. 10/11994 on certain rules of parliamentary polemics sanctions a series of rules regarding conduct during the debates in the Senate.

Relevant laws:
• Law No. 161/2003 on certain measures for providing transparency in exercising public high offices, public offices and business environment offices, prevention and punishment of corruption;
• Law No. 96/2006 on the Statute of the Deputies and Senators.
More specific:

A – Professional activities
Outside activities: political activities and the incompatibility of posts and professional activities before or during the term of office are regulated by law. In contrast, outside activities – honorary positions, conferences and publications – are not regulated.

B – Declaration of income
In the Romanian Parliament, the declarations of financial interests and assets, and the provisions relating to the declaration of interests are regulated by law, but the activities of the spouses of HPOs are not regulated.

C – Gifts, missions and travel
None of the issues in relation to gifts, participation in missions and travel, or receptions and representation is regulated by law.

D – Post-employment
As in the Government, there are no special restrictions on professional commitments or the holding of posts after leaving office.

E – Other Conflicts of Interest
General rules on impartiality and conflicts of interest are regulated by law. Professional loyalty is regulated by both law and code. Confidentiality as well as other rules and standards are not regulated by special provisions.

Instruments
The Romanian Parliament does not provide training for HPOs and it does not have a register on declarations of financial interests, but it has established an ethics committee.

Judges of the Supreme Court

In general:
In the Supreme Court, half of the issues are regulated by law and the other half by a combination of law and code.

Relevant code:
Relevant law:

- Constitution of Romania;
- Decision of the Superior Council of Magistracy No. 328/2005 approving the Deontological Code for the Judges and prosecutors;
- Law No. 303/2004, on the Statute of Judges and prosecutors;
- Law No. 115/1996, on declaring and control of assets the dignitaries, magistrates, civil servants and of certain persons with management positions;
- Emergency Ordinance No. 14/2005, amending the forms for the declaration of assets and the declaration of interests;
- Law No. 161/2003, Title concerning the conflicts of interest and incompatibilities;
- Law No.251/2004 regarding certain measures concerning the gifts received during official protocol actions;
- Code of Civil Procedure;
- Code of Criminal Procedure.

More specific:

A – Professional activities
Outside activities – honorary positions and participation in conferences – are regulated by law. Outside political activities, publications and the incompatibility of posts and professional activities before or during the term of office are regulated by both law and code.

B – Declaration of income
All issues with regard to declarations of income in the Romanian Supreme Court are regulated by law.

C – Gifts, missions and travel
All issues in relation to gifts, participation in missions and travel, and receptions and representation are regulated by law.

D – Post-employment
Restrictions on professional commitments or the holding of posts after leaving office are regulated by law.

E – Other Conflicts of Interest
All other issues regarding conflicts of interest are regulated by a combination of law and code.

Instruments
The Romanian Supreme Court does not provide any training programmes and there is no ethics committee. However, there is a register on declarations of financial interests.
Members or Directors of the Court of Audit

N/A

Members or Directors of the Central or National Banks

In general:
As the data provided by the Romanian Central Bank was insufficient, it is not possible to make an in-depth analysis.

The most relevant issues concerning professional ethics, declarations of financial interests and the regulation of the conflicts of interest with reference to the Governor of the National Bank of Romania are stipulated in Law 312/2004 on the Statute of the National Bank of Romania and in some other legislation with broader coverage.

At present, there is no code of conduct, but there are some internal regulations regarding receptions and representation as well as costs and conditions for business travel.

Relevant laws:
- The Law No.161/2003 on certain steps for assuring transparency in performing high official position and business positions, for prevention and sanctioning the corruption, published in Romania’s Official Monitor Part I, No. 279 / 21 April 2003, with the ulterior amendments.
- The Law No.251/2004 regarding some measures related to the goods received without payment with the occasion of protocol actions in exercising the mandate or function, published in Romania’s Official Monitor Part I, No. 561 / 24 June 2004.
General profile

Slovenia is a new Member State of the EU: it joined the EU on 1 May 2004.

For four of the institutions in Slovenia, most issues (Government) or practically all issues (Parliament, Judges and Auditors) are regulated by law. The Central Bank is an exception: most issues of this institution are regulated by code, and only a few by law. Out of these institutions, only the Parliament does not have a code.

Out of the laws concerning possible conflicts of interest, the Prevention of Corruption Act (2004) is central: it is applicable to all institutions (SL). This act contains regulations on restrictions with regard to profitable activity, the receiving of gifts and operations, and on supervision of the financial situation of functionaries. Besides this law and other general laws, two institutions have specific laws: the Parliament (the Deputies Act, 1992) and the Court of Audit (the Court of Audit Act, 2001).

Out of the unregulated issues the following are worth noting:
- a) there is no declaration of financial interests and assets: Central Bank;
- b) there are no restrictions on professional commitments or the holding of posts after leaving office: Government, Parliament, Supreme Court.

In addition, the Court of Audit and the Central Bank are the only institutions that do not have a public register on declarations of financial interests. The Supreme Court has an internal ethics committee.

In conclusion, there is a strong tendency in Slovenia to regulate the possible conflicts of interest of HPOs by law. Both laws and codes of conduct are recent: most of them were adopted in the 1990s or in the early 2000s.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institution</th>
<th>Issues regulated</th>
<th>Form of regulation</th>
<th>Ethics Committee</th>
<th>Public register</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Government</td>
<td>11 out of 15 items regulated (73.33%) – 4 unregulated (26.67%)</td>
<td>Law (GL 1+SIL 2+SL 1) + Code (GC 1)</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parliament</td>
<td>11 out of 15 regulated (100%) – 4 unregulated</td>
<td>Law (GIL 1+ SL 1+ GC 1)</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Members of Government

In general:
Eleven out of the 16 issues are regulated. Most of these issues are regulated by law (9). Two issues are arranged by code, and 5 issues are unregulated.

Code:
- “Code of Conduct for Public Employees” (Official Gazette of the Republic of Slovenia, No. 8/2001). The Government adopted a resolution to apply the code mutatis mutandis for the ministers and other functionaries.

Relevant laws:
- Penal Code (Official Gazette of the Republic of Slovenia, No. 63/94 and following);
- Reimbursement Amount of Labour Costs Act (Official Gazette of the Republic of Slovenia, No. 87/97, 9/98 and 48/2001);
- Reimbursement of Travel Expenses Abroad Regulation (Official Gazette of the Republic of Slovenia, No. 38/94 and following) and most of all;

More specific:

A – Professional activities
Most professional activities are regulated by law (specific rules regulate on the incompatibility of posts and professional activities before or during the term of
office as well as on outside activities such as conferences and publications), although outside activities such as political activities and honorary positions are unregulated.

**B – Declaration of income**
The Slovenian Government has regulated all issues regarding declarations of income (declarations of financial interests and asset, the activities of the spouses of HPOs, and provisions relating to the declaration of interests) by law.

**C – Gifts, missions and travel**
Accepting gifts, decorations and distinctions, and missions and travel are regulated by law. Rules on receptions and representation are unregulated.

**D – Post-employment**
There are no restrictions on professional commitments or on the holding of posts after leaving office.

**E – Other Conflicts of Interest**
Other conflicts of interest (e.g., for example, General rules on impartiality and conflicts of interest, confidentiality, professional loyalty) are regulated by code. Professional confidentiality is regulated by both law and code.

**Instruments**
The Slovenian Government does not provide training to HPO and did not establish an ethics committee. But they do have a register on declaration of financial interests. This register operates according to the provisions in the Prevention of Corruption act (Article 32-39).

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**Members of Parliament**

**In general:**
Practically all issues are regulated by law (12). The Slovenian Parliament does not make use of a code: some draft Codes of Conduct for deputies were prepared (the last one in 2005), but they were not adopted.

Relevant laws:
- Deputies Act;
- Prevention of Corruption Act;
- Rules of Procedure of the National Assembly.
More specific:

A – Professional activities
The Slovenian Parliament has regulated specific rules on the incompatibility of posts and professional activities before or during the term of office, and rules on publications. The issues that are not regulated are outside activities concerning political activities, honorary positions and conferences.

B – Declaration of income
The Slovenian Parliament has regulated all issues regarding declarations of income (declarations of financial interests and asset, the activities of spouses of HPOs, and provisions relating to the declaration of interests) by law.

C – Gifts, missions and travel
Two out of the three issues are regulated: accepting gifts, decorations, and distinctions, and missions and travel. There are no rules on receptions and representation.

D – Post-employment
There are no restrictions on professional commitments or the holding of posts after leaving office.

E – Other Conflicts of Interest
All issues (general rules on impartiality and conflicts of interest, professional confidentiality, professional loyalty and others rules and standards) are regulated.

Instruments
The Slovenian Parliament does not provide training for HPOs and does not have an ethics committee. However, there is a register on declarations of financial interests: according to the provisions in the Prevention of Corruption Act, Chapter 4, especially Article 36, deputies have to declare their property.

Judges of the Supreme Court

In general:
Twelve issues are regulated: 10 of them by law, and 4 of them by both law and code (professional confidentiality, professional loyalty, general rules on partiality and conflicts of interest, and specific rules on incompatibility of posts and professional activities). Four issues are not regulated: restrictions on professional commitments or the holding of posts after leaving office, honorary positions, rules on receptions and representation, and training programmes).
Relevant code:
• The Slovenian Association of Judges adopted in 2001 the Code of Judicial Ethics. However, this is not the official code of the Supreme Court, it is the code of the Association. Membership of the Association is not obligatory for all Judges, and thus the Code is only binding on the members of the Association.

Relevant laws:
• Courts Act of the Republic of Slovenia;
• Prevention of Corruption Act;
• Penal Code of the Republic of Slovenia;
• Judicial Service Act.

More specific:

A – Professional activities
All outside activities are regulated by law, with the exception of activities relating to honorary positions, which are unregulated. Specific rules on the incompatibility of posts and professional activities before or during the term of office are regulated by both code and law.

B – Declaration of income
All issues with regard to declarations of income are regulated by law.

C – Gifts, missions and travel
Rules on missions and travel, and on accepting gifts, decorations and distinctions are regulated by law. Rules on receptions and representation are unregulated.

D – Post-employment
Restrictions on professional commitments or the holding of posts after leaving office are regulated.

E – Other Conflicts of Interest
All other issues regarding conflicts of interest are regulated by code. Professional confidentiality is regulated by code and law.

Instruments
The Slovenian Supreme Court does not provide any training programmes.

There is an ethics committee. According to the Courts Act of the Republic of Slovenia the Judicial Council hears and decides on the justifiability of an appeal of a Judge who believes that his or her legal rights, his or her independent position or the independence of judiciary have been violated. Furthermore, the Judicial Council gives its opinion on other relevant matters. In practice, the Council was asked by a group of Judges as to whether certain actions by other Judges were in line with
judicial ethics. In replying to this question, the Council referred to the Judicial Service Act as well as to other unregulated rules.

Furthermore, the Supreme Court makes use of a register on declarations of financial interests, which operates according to the provisions in the Prevention of Corruption Act (Article 32-39).

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Members or Directors of the Court of Audit

In general:
The Court of Audit has regulated all issues (15). Most of them are regulated by law (9). Some are regulated by code (3), others are regulated by both code and law (4).

Relevant code:
- Code of Ethics of the State Auditors

Relevant laws:
- Prevention of corruption act;
- Court of Audit Act;
- Rules of procedure of the Court of Audit;
- Decree on accepting and identifying of gifts;
- Decree on reimbursement of costs related to business trips abroad.

More specific:

A – Professional activities
Almost all professional activities are regulated by law (Outside activities: honorary positions, conferences and publications). Outside activities regarding political activities are regulated by code. Specific rules on the incompatibility of posts and professional activities before or during the term of office are regulated by both code and law.

B – Declaration of income
One of the issues is regulated by law, one is regulated by code and one is regulated by both code and law.

C – Gifts, missions and travel
All issues concerning gifts, missions, travels are regulated by law.

D – Post-employment
Restrictions on professional commitments or on the holding of posts after leaving office are regulated by law.
E – Other Conflicts of Interest

General rules on impartiality and conflicts of interest and professional confidentiality are regulated by both code and law. Professional loyalty is regulated by code.

Instruments

The Court of Audit does not have instruments. There is no training, no register and no committee on ethics.

Members or Directors of the Central or National Banks

In general:
Most of the regulated issues are regulated by code (9). Two issues are covered by law, and one issue is regulated by both code and law. Four issues are unregulated. However, according to the Slovenian Central Bank the term unregulated does not necessarily mean that standards are not regulated at all, since they may be defined in different internal acts (for example, travel, albeit not from the aspect of professional ethics) or fulfilled by traditional habits and behaviour as well as by administrative culture.

Relevant code:

• The Code of Conduct for employees of the Bank of Slovenia.

Relevant laws:

• Penal Code or Employment Relationships Act;
• Prevention of corruption act.
  (This law only covers the so-called officials/functionaries, who are – according to this law (taking into account the Bank of Slovenia) – only the Governor and the Members of the Board of the Bank of Slovenia.)

More specific:

A – Professional activities
Most political activities are regulated by code. Rules regarding honorary positions are unregulated. Specific rules on incompatibility of posts and professional activities before or during the term of office are regulated by law.

B – Declaration of income
HPO’ spouses’ activities are regulated by code. The declaration of financial interests and assets and provisions relating to the declaration of interests are unregulated.
Regulating Conflicts of Interest for Holders of Public Office

C – Gifts, missions and travel
There are no rules on missions and travel. The acceptation of gifts, decorations and distinctions, and the rules on receptions and representation are regulated by code.

D – Post-employment
Restrictions on professional commitments and on the holding of posts after leaving office are regulated by law.

E – Other Conflicts of Interest
All other issues on the topic of conflicts of interest are regulated by code, and professional confidentiality is regulated by both code and law.

Instruments
There are no further instruments used. There is no specific training programme for the Directors of Bank of Slovenia concerning professional ethics. However, certain training for the Directors is conducted on a yearly or ad hoc basis, covering some aspects of professional behaviour (including the ethical standards to be applied) in the managing of human resources and the conducting of managerial tasks.

There is no ethics committee or advisory group. However, the General Secretary is entitled to interpret the Code.

There is no specific register for declarations of financial interests. Nevertheless, a declaration of financial interests and assets may be implicitly understood as a prerequisite for the proper implementation of the principle of limited ownership of securities according to the Code of Conduct for the Employees of the Bank of Slovenia, since the employees are not allowed, directly or indirectly, to own stock in Slovenian banks and savings banks. However, evidencing or registering of such declarations (whether in form of a statement or an inventory) is not envisaged.
In Spain, there is a tendency to strong regulation.

The Spanish Government has regulated 100% of the issues. All issues except one (political activities) are regulated by code and law. This is close to the strongest form of regulation that is possible. With regard to other institutions, 60 to 80% of the issues are regulated. While the Government regulates almost all issues by law and code, the Parliament does not make use of a code at all. Spain shows a preference for laws and for law-codes combinations.

Out of the unregulated issues the following are worth noting:

a) Parliament does not have any rules on gifts, missions and travel;

b) Both the Supreme Court and the Court of Auditors do not have any regulation on issues regarding declaration of interests.

Spain shows a heterogenic picture with regard to the instruments. Both the Government and the Parliament have both an ethics committee and a register in place, while the Supreme Court and the Court of Auditors have neither an ethics committee, nor a register.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institution</th>
<th>Issues regulated</th>
<th>Form of regulation</th>
<th>Ethics Committee</th>
<th>Public register</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Government</td>
<td>All items are regulated (100%)</td>
<td>1 issue is regulated by code (7%), 14 by both law and code regulated (93%)</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parliament</td>
<td>9 out of 15 items are regulated (60%) – 6 unregulated (40%)</td>
<td>All issues are regulated by general law (GL en SIL)</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supreme Court</td>
<td>10 out of 15 items are regulated (76.92%) – 3 unregulated (23.08%)</td>
<td>All 10 issues (67%) are regulated by general law and specific law (GL and GIL)</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Regulating Conflicts of Interest for Holders of Public Office

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institution</th>
<th>Issues regulated</th>
<th>Form of regulation</th>
<th>Ethics Committee</th>
<th>Public register</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Court of Auditors</td>
<td>12 out 15 issues is regulated (80%) – 3 unregulated (20%)</td>
<td>9 issues are regulated by law (60%), 3 are regulated by law and code (20%)</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central Bank</td>
<td>12 out 15 issues is regulated (80%) – 3 unregulated (20%)</td>
<td>8 out of 15 issues (53%) are regulated by law, 4 are regulated by law and code (27%)</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Members of Government:

In general:
All HPO offices must respect the obligations laid down by law with regard to avoiding any activity or interest which might compromise the independence and impartiality of HPOs. Their conduct must be inspired and guided by ethical principles and good conduct, which have not yet been expressly stated in the regulations and are therefore regulated by code.

Except for the issue of outside political activities, all issues are covered both by law and code. This issue is regulated by the code.

Relevant law:
• Constitution.

Relevant code:
• Code for Good Government for Members of the Government and those who occupy top posts in the General State Administration (review took place in 2005).

More specific:

A – Professional activities
All professional activities are regulated. Political activities are regulated by code. Specific rules on the incompatibility of posts and professional activities before or during the term of office and the other outside activities (honorary positions, conferences and publications) are regulated by both code and law.

B – Declaration of income
All issues regarding declaration of income are regulated by code and law.
C – Gifts, missions and travel
All issues regarding gifts, missions and travel are regulated by code and law.

D – Post-employment
Professional commitments or holding posts after leaving office is regulated by code and law.

E – Other Conflicts of Interest
All issues regarding other conflicts of interest are regulated by code and law.

Instruments
The Spanish Government has both an ethics committee and a register for the declaration of financial interests.

Members of Parliament

In general:

Relevant law:
• Article 70 of the Spanish Constitution (GL);
• Elections Law (Ley Orgánica del Régimen Electoral General), (GIL);
• Standing Orders (Reglamento del Congreso de los Diputados). (GIL);
• There is also a decision of the bureaus of both chambers on a register of interests (Acuerdo de las Mesas del Congreso de los Diputados y el Senado en materia de Registro de intereses).

Relevant code:
• No code.

More specific:

A – Professional activities
All professional activities are regulated by law.

B – Declaration of income
Declarations of financial interests and assets, and provisions relating to the declaration of interests are regulated by law. The activities of the spouses of HPOs are unregulated.
Regulating Conflicts of Interest for Holders of Public Office

C – Gifts, missions and travel
The Parliament has no rules at all on issues regarding gifts, missions and travel (accepting gifts, decorations and distinctions; missions and travel; and rules on receptions and representation).

D – Post-employment
Restrictions on professional commitments or the holding of posts after leaving office are unregulated.

E – Other Conflicts of Interest
General rules on impartiality and conflicts of interest and professional confidentiality are regulated by law. Professional loyalty is unregulated.

Instruments
The Spanish Parliament has both an ethics committee and a register for the declaration of financial interests.

---

Judges of the Supreme Court

In general:

Relevant law:
• The Spanish Constitution;
• The Judiciary Act (LOPJ: Ley Orgánica del Poder Judicial);
• The Act regulating the holding of multiple posts by Senior Officials (Ley de incompatibilidades);
• The Criminal Code.

More specific:

A – Professional activities
All professional activities are regulated by law.

B – Declaration of income
The Spanish Supreme Court has no rules at all on issues regarding declaration of income (declaration of financial interests and assets, HPOs’ spouses’ activities, provisions relating to the declaration of interests).

C – Gifts, missions and travel
The only data available in this section is on accepting gifts, decorations and distinctions; this is regulated by law. (information on rules on receptions and representation and on missions and travels is missing).
D – Post-employment
Restrictions on professional commitments or the holding of posts after leaving office are regulated by law.

E – Other Conflicts of Interest
Professional loyalty, professional confidentiality and general rules on impartiality and conflicts of interest are all regulated by law.

Instruments
Neither a register for the declaration of financial interests nor an ethics committee do exist.

Member or Directors of the Court of Audit

Relevant code:
• there is no specific Code of Conduct for the Spanish Court of Audit. The existing rules are included in the Institution’s Acts and in the Organic Act of the Judicial Power;
• there are also some prescriptions in the Spanish Court of Audit Internal Audit Rules, which serve to orientate behaviour.

Relevant law:
• Criminal Code;
• National Rule (Real Decreto 462/2002, de 24 de mayo, Sobre Indemnizaciones por razón del servicio);
• Ley Orgánica 2/1982, de 12 de mayo, del Tribunal de Cuentas (Court of Audit Organic Act 2/1982, of 12 May) Sections 30 to 34;
• Ley 7/1988, de 5 de abril, de Funcionamiento del Tribunal de Cuentas (Court of Audit Functioning Act 7/1988, of 5 April). Sections 24 to 26;
• Ley Orgánica 10/1995, de 23 de noviembre, del Código Penal (Criminal Code);
• Ley 5/2006, de 10 de abril, de regulación de los conflictos de intereses de los miembros del Gobierno y de los Altos Cargos de la Administración General del Estado (Regulating Act of the Conflicts of Interest of Members of the Government and Holders of State Office), that could be applicable as a supplementary regulation.
More specific:

A – Professional activities
All professional activities are regulated by law. Honorary positions are allowed if they are not remunerated and do not imply the position of director, manager, administrator, counsellor, partner or any other that involves direct intervention, administrative or economic, in societies or enterprises, be they public or private.

B – Declaration of income
The Spanish Court of Auditors has no rules at all on issues regarding declarations of income (declaration of financial interests and assets, the activities of the spouses of HPOs, or provisions relating to the declaration of interests).

C – Gifts, missions and travel
All issues regarding gifts, and missions and travel are regulated. Rules on accepting gifts, decorations, and distinctions are regulated by law. Rules on receptions, representation and missions are both regulated by code and law.

D – Post-employment
Restrictions on professional commitments or on the holding of posts after leaving office are regulated by law.

E – Other Conflicts of Interest
All issues regarding conflicts of interest are regulated. General rules on impartiality and conflicts of interest are regulated by law. Rules on professional confidentiality and professional loyalty are regulated by code and law.

Instruments
Neither a register for the declaration of financial interests nor an ethics committee do exist.

Members or Directors of the National Bank

In general:
The National Bank of Spain regulates issues of conflicts of interest by the Statute of the Bank, a Code of Conduct and by some issues by general legal provisions.

Relevant code:
• Code of Conduct for the Governing Bodies of the Banco de España.

Relevant law:
• Law 13/1994, of 1 June 1994, on the Autonomy of the Banco de España;
• Law 6/2006, of 10 April 2006, regulating the conflicts of interest of Members
of National Government and senior officers in the National Administration;
• Legislative Royal Decree 1298/1986, of 28 June 1986, on the Adaptation of the Law in Force on Credit Institutions to that of the European Communities;
• Penal Code.

More specific:

A – Professional activities
All issues regarding professional activities are regulated by code. Specific rules on the incompatibility of posts and professional activities before or during the term of office are regulated by code and law.

B – Declaration of income
All issues regarding declaration of income are regulated by code and law.

C – Gifts, missions and travel
Rules on accepting gifts, decorations and distinctions are regulated by code and law. Missions and travel, and rules on receptions and representation are unregulated.

D – Post-employment
Restrictions on professional commitments or on the holding of posts after leaving office are regulated by code and law.

E – Other Conflicts of Interest
General rules on impartiality and conflicts of interest, and rules on professional confidentiality are regulated by code and law. Professional loyalty is unregulated.

Instruments
There is a register, but there is no ethics committee in place.
Regulating Conflicts of Interest for Holders of Public Office

Summary: Conflicts of Interest Policy in Sweden

General profile

Sweden joined the EU in 1995. It has a population of approximately 9 million.

What the Government, the Parliament, the Court of Auditors and the Central Bank have in common is the fact that outside activities of HPO are not regulated.

In contrast with Finland, accepting gifts, and participation in missions and travel in Sweden is more strictly regulated by law and/or codes of conduct. However, post-employment issues are not regulated – with the exception of the Central Bank, which has restrictions on professional commitments by law.

None of the above-mentioned institutions have ethics committees or advisory groups, but most of them have specific training programmes (concerning ethics for HPOs) and registers for declarations of financial interests.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institution</th>
<th>Issues regulated</th>
<th>Form of regulation</th>
<th>Ethics committee</th>
<th>Public register</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Government</td>
<td>9 items out of 15 regulated (60%) – 6 unregulated (40%)</td>
<td>Law (GL 3+GIL 1+SIL 2+SL 1) + Code (GC 1+SC 3)</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parliament</td>
<td>6 items out of 15 regulated (42.86%) – 8 unregulated (57.14%) – 1 N/A</td>
<td>Law (SIL 2+GL 1)</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supreme Court</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Court of Auditors</td>
<td>7 items out of 15 regulated (46.67%) – 8 unregulated (53.33%)</td>
<td>Law (GL 1+SIL 1+GIL 1) + Code (SC 1+ GC 3)</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central Bank</td>
<td>10 items out of 15 regulated (66.67%) – 5 unregulated (33.33%)</td>
<td>Law (GL 2+GIL 1+SL 1) + Code</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Members of Government

In general:
In Sweden’s Government, half of the issues are unregulated and the other half are regulated by law.

Gifts, missions and travel, as well as declarations of financial interests and assets are strictly regulated by law.

Relevant laws:
• The Instrument of Government, Article 9;
• The Penal Code, Ch.20, sec.2;
• The Administrative Procedure Act, Sec. 11 and 12, Law on Official Secrets;
• Government Offices’ Rules on Representation;
• Decree on Official Flights, Government’s Decision 2006-10-26: Register on Ownerships of Financial Instruments for the Members of the Government.

Relevant codes:
• Government Offices’ Ethical Guidelines;
• Guidelines regarding the Official Travels by Council of State’s Cars;
• Informing the Politicians in the Government Offices;
• Government’s Brief 1996/97:56 on the Conflicts of Interest for the Council of the State.

More specific:

A – Professional activities
The Government has practically no regulations regarding professional activities, with the exception of the specific rules on the incompatibility of posts, which are regulated by law.

B – Declaration of income
The declaration of financial interests and assets is regulated by law and codes of conduct. HPO spouses’ activities are not regulated.

C – Gifts, missions and travel
These issues are regulated by law and code of conduct.

D – Post-employment
There is no regulation in this section.
E – Other Conflicts of Interest
Professional loyalty is unregulated, but professional confidentiality is regulated by law. General rules on impartiality and conflicts of interest are regulated by law.

Instruments
The Government provides special training programmes for newly-appointed ministers, including sessions on ethics issues. There is no ethics committee in the Government, but a register on declarations of financial interests does exist.

Members of Parliament

In general:
Half of the issues are unregulated. There are no regulations regarding the professional activities of the spouses of HPOs. Gifts, and missions and travel are strictly legislated. Most of the other conflicts of interest are regulated by law.

Relevant codes:
• According to the received information, there is no code of conduct in the Swedish Parliament.

Relevant laws:
• The Riksdag (Parliament) Act and The Swedish Penal Code;
• Act on the registration of MPs’ commitments and financial interests.

More specific:

A – Professional activities
There is no regulation concerning professional activities in Parliament.

B – Declaration of income
As mentioned earlier, there are no regulations for the spouses of MPs.

C – Gifts, missions and travel
These issues are strictly regulated by law (Penal Code) and by code of conduct.

D – Post-employment
There is no regulation in this section.

E – Other Conflicts of Interest
Professional loyalty is not regulated, but general rules on impartiality, conflicts of interest and professional confidentiality are regulated by specific legal acts.
Instruments
No training programmes or ethics committees are provided for the Swedish Parliament.

Judges of the Supreme Court
N/A

Members or Directors of the Court of Audit

In general:
Generally speaking, half of the issues are regulated by law. The other half are not regulated. The strictest regulated parts concern gifts, missions and travel.

Relevant codes:
• Audit Guide;
• Policy and rules for travels and entertainment;
• Guidelines concerning conflicts of interest;
• Other internal administrative policies with ethical rules and guidelines;
• Code of ethics.

Relevant laws:
• The Constitution;
• The Instrument of Government;
• The Riksdag Act;
• Several other laws and regulations concerning public employment.

More specific:

A – Professional activities
Only parts of professional activities are regulated by law, for example, political activities. The rest of the issues are not regulated, with the exception of the specific rules on the incompatibility of posts, which are regulated by codes of conduct.

B – Declaration of income
Declarations of financial interests and assets are regulated by law.

C – Gifts, missions and travel
Accepting gifts is regulated both by law and by code of conduct. The rest of the issues are regulated by law.
Regulating Conflicts of Interest for Holders of Public Office

D – Post-employment
No regulation.

E – Other Conflicts of Interest
General rules on impartiality and conflicts of interest are regulated by law. Professional confidentiality is regulated in a code of conduct.

Instruments
There are comprehensive professional training programmes for financial audit and performance audit. There is no ethics committee.

Members or Directors of the Central or National Bank

In general:
Most of the issues in the Central Bank are regulated by law. However, the received data are relatively thin.

Relevant codes:
• According to the existing data, there are no codes of conduct in the Central Bank.

Relevant laws:
• Sweden’s Riksbank Act (1988:1385);
• Penal Code;
• Administrative Procedure Act;
• Secrecy Act.

More specific:

A – Professional activities
Only outside activities: conferences and publications are not regulated. The rest of the issues are regulated by law.

B – Declaration of income
The activities of the spouses of HPOs are not regulated. Provisions relating to the declarations of interests are regulated by code of conduct. Declaration of financial interests and assets are regulated by law and code of conduct.

C – Gifts, missions and travel
Mission and travel issues have no regulations, the rest of the cases have regulations. The acceptance of gifts is strictly regulated by law and code of conduct. Receptions and representations are regulated by codes of conduct.
Christoph Demmke et al.

D – Post-employment
Restrictions on professional commitments are regulated by law.

E – Other Conflicts of Interest
These issues are very strictly regulated. Professional confidentiality is regulated by law and codes of conduct. General rules on impartiality and conflicts of interest by law.

Instruments
There are no training programmes or ethics committees.
Regulating Conflicts of Interest for Holders of Public Office

General profile

The United Kingdom has been a member of the European Union since 1973.

There is no specific law on conflicts of interest that is applicable to all institutions; the issues in both the Government and the Parliament are mainly regulated by specific codes.

Both institutions have an ethics committee and public registers on declarations of financial interests.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institution</th>
<th>Issues regulated</th>
<th>Form of regulation</th>
<th>Ethics Committee</th>
<th>Public register</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Government</td>
<td>15 out of 15 issues regulated (100%)</td>
<td>3 issues regulated by law (GL, GIL) and 15 issues regulated by code (SC)</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parliament</td>
<td>10 out of 15 issues regulated (66.67%)</td>
<td>All issues regulated by code (SC)</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supreme Court</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Court of Auditors</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central Bank</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Members of Government

In general:
All issues are regulated by code. This code makes it clear that the Prime Minister is the ultimate judge of the standards of behaviour expected of a Minister. Ministers are expected to observe the Seven Principles of Public Life (selflessness, integrity, objectivity, accountability, openness, honesty and leadership). This regulation does not involve any laws.
There is an external ethics committee and there is a public register on declarations of financial interests.

Relevant codes:

Relevant laws:
- The Ministerial Code says that Ministers should be as open as possible with both the Parliament and the public, and should only refuse to provide information when disclosure would not be in the public interest, which should be decided in accordance with the relevant statues and the Freedom of Information Act 2000 (GL);
- Ministers must also at all times comply with the requirements which Parliament has laid down: for the House of Commons; this concerns the Amendment Ministerial Accountability to Parliament, and, for the House of Lords, the Resolution Ministerial Accountability (GIL).

More specific:

A – Professional activities
All issues are regulated. The code describes the limitations to publications and public positions. Ministers should give up any other public appointment that they may hold. Where it is proposed that such an appointment be retained, the Prime Minister must be consulted.

B – Declaration of income
All issues are regulated. The code explains that, on appointment to each new office, Ministers are advised to provide their Permanent Secretary with a full list of all interests which might be thought to give rise to a conflict in writing. The list should cover not only the Minister’s personal interests, but also those of a spouse, partner or children. The Permanent Secretary will arrange a meeting with the Minister to discuss the list and to consider what advice is necessary and from what source, and what further written information is needed. Where it is proper for a Minister to retain a private interest, it is the rule that he or she should declare that interest to Ministerial colleagues if they have to discuss public business which in any way affects it and that the Minister should remain entirely detached from the consideration of that business.

C – Gifts, missions and travel
All issues are regulated. The code contains rules on accepting gifts. No Minister or public servant should accept gifts over 140, or acceptance hospitality or services from anyone which would, or might appear to, place him or her under an obligation. The same principle applies if gifts are offered to a member of their family. Receipt of gifts has to be reported to the Permanent Secretary.
D – Post-employment
Post-employment is regulated: on leaving office, Ministers should seek advice from the independent Advisory Committee on Business Appointments about any appointments they wish to take up within two years of leaving office. This is not necessary for unpaid appointments in non-commercial organisations or appointments within the gift of the Government, such as Prime Ministerial appointments to international organisations. Although it is in the public interest that former Ministers should be able to move into business or other areas of public life, it is equally important that there should be no cause for any suspicion of impropriety about a particular appointment.

E – Other Conflicts of Interest
All issues (general rules on impartiality and conflicts of interest, professional confidentiality, and professional loyalty) are regulated, except for other rules and standards.

Instruments
The National School for Government has provided formal training events for Ministers for a number of years. These trainings regard among others Induction to working in Government for new Departmental Ministers and Whips, Good practice on financial and risk management in Government Departments, and there are several training sessions on parliamentary and committee procedures.

In addition, there is an ethics committee: The Committee on Standards in Public Life (CSPL). This Committee was established in 1994 and is an Advisory Non-Departmental Public Body. The Committee is not founded in statute and has no legal powers to compel witnesses to provide evidence or to enforce its recommendations. In particular, it has no powers to investigate individual allegations of misconduct. The committee examines concerns on standards of conduct of, inter alia, holders of public office. In addition, in response to a recommendation made by the CSPL, the Prime Minister appoints an Independent Adviser on Ministers’ Interests. This Adviser provides advice to Ministers and Permanent Secretaries on the handling of Ministers’ private interests. Under the Ministerial Code, it is for individual Ministers to decide whether and what action is needed to avoid a conflict of interest or perception of a conflict.

In addition, there is a register on declarations of financial interests: Ministers are required to comply with the Register of Members Interests with regard to their membership of the Houses of Parliament. There are separate copies for the House of Commons and the House of Lords.
Members of Parliament

In general:
Ten issues are regulated, all of them by code. This code regulates the following topics: Public Duties of Members, General principles of Conduct, Rules of Conduct, Registration and Declaration of Interests, and Duties with regard to the Parliamentary Commissioner for Standards and the Committee on Standards and Privileges. The code is accompanied by a guide to the rules relating to the conduct of Members of Parliament.

There is an internal ethics committee and there is a public register on declarations of financial interests.

Relevant codes:
• The Code of Conduct for Members of Parliament (SC).

Relevant laws:
• Standing Orders (GIL).

More specific:

A – Professional activities
Of the outside activities, honorary positions and conferences are regulated; political activities and publications are unregulated. Moreover, there are no specific rules on the incompatibility of posts and professional activities before or during term of office.

B – Declaration of income
All issues are regulated.

C – Gifts, missions and travel
All issues are regulated.

D – Post-employment
Unregulated.

E – Other Conflicts of Interest
There are general rules on impartiality and conflicts of interest. Although professional loyalty is regulated, professional confidentiality is unregulated, and there are no other rules and standards.
Instruments
There are no training programmes concerning professional ethics for Members of Parliament.

There is an ethics committee: according to the Standard Orders Nos. 149 & 150, there is Committee on Standards and Privileges and a Parliamentary Commissioner for Standards. The main task of the committee is to oversee the work of the Parliamentary Commissioner for Standards. One of the duties of the Commissioner is to monitor the operation of the Code of Conduct and the Register of Members’ Interests. When in doubt, Members should seek the advice of the Parliamentary Commissioner for Standards who, if necessary, will seek adjudication from the Committee on Standards and Privileges.

In addition, there is a register on declarations of financial interests: under the Resolution agreed by the House on 22 May 1974, and under the Code of Conduct, Members are required to register their pecuniary interests in a Register of Members’ Interests. The duty of compiling the Register now rests with the Parliamentary Commissioner for Standards, whose functions are set out in Standing Order No. 150. The Register is published soon after the beginning of a new Parliament, under the authority of the Committee on Standards and Privileges, and annually thereafter. Between publications, the Register is regularly updated in a loose leaf form and, in this form, is available for public inspection in the Committee Office of the House of Commons. It is also available on the Internet. At the discretion of the Commissioner, copies of individual entries in the Register may be supplied on request.

Judges of the Supreme Court
N/A

Members or Directors of the Court of Audit
N/A

Members or Directors of the Central or National Bank
N/A
ANNEX 4 – CoI Profiles of EU Institutions

Overview:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Issues regulated</th>
<th>Form of regulation</th>
<th>Ethics Committee</th>
<th>Public register</th>
<th>Regime category*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>All 15 items are regulated: 100% (Average EU-27, Governments: 76%)</td>
<td>67% of issues regulated by code; and 33% by both law and code</td>
<td>Ad-hoc committees in the field of post-employment.</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Model 1 Model 2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* According to the classification scheme presented on pp. 139-143 of the report.

Relevant rules and standards:
- Article 213 (2) ECT, Article 287 ECT;
- Note from the President and Mrs Kroes to the Members of the Commission on the identification of actual or potential conflicts of interest concerning the Commissioner for Competition (SEC (2004) 1541 of 1 December 2004).

Instruments:
1. Committees:
   - Ad hoc ethical committee on activities post-employment (in operation) established by Decision C (2003) 3570 of 21 October.

2. Registers and declarations:
   - On-line permanent publication of the Declarations of Interests of Commissioners and public register of received gifts with a value of more than EUR 150

Contains:
- Any financial interest or asset which might create a conflicts of interest;
- Any form of individual holding in company capital. Shares, and holding – (convertible bonds or investment certificates – units in unit trusts, which do not constitute a direct interest in company capital, do not have to be declared)
• Any property owned either directly or through a real estate company must be declared, with the exception of homes reserved for the exclusive use of the owner or his or her family;

• Other property the possession of which could create a conflict of interest, especially from a tax point of view, must also be declared;

• Outside activities (honorary, unpaid posts in political, cultural, artistic or charitable foundations or similar bodies and in educational institutions;

• A declaration of the professional activities of their spouses (the nature of the activity or the title of the position held, and, if applicable, the name of the employer). The declaration must include any holdings by the Commissioner’s spouse which might entail a conflict of interest.
Regulating Conflicts of Interest for Holders of Public Office

European Parliament

Overview:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Issues regulated</th>
<th>Form of regulation</th>
<th>Ethics Committee</th>
<th>Public register</th>
<th>Regime category*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8 out of 15 items are regulated: 53% (Average EU-27, Parliaments: 58%)</td>
<td>8 out of 15 issues (53%) regulated by code (Rules of Procedure); the rest is unregulated</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Model 3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* According to the classification scheme presented on pp. 139-143 of the report.

Relevant rules and standards:
- Article 9 Rules of Procedure, Annex I Rules of Procedure of January 2007: Parliament may lay down rules (Article 9 RoP);
- No other codes.

Instruments:
(1) Committees:
- No ethics committee (self-regulation by Bureau of EP and Quaestors).

(2) Registers and declarations:
- Register of interest.

Contains:
- MEPs must declare their professional activities and activities or functions which have been remunerated.
Overview:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Issues regulated</th>
<th>Form of regulation</th>
<th>Ethics Committee</th>
<th>Public register</th>
<th>Regime category*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7 out of 15 items are regulated: 47% (Average EU-27, Supreme Courts: 72%)</td>
<td>7 of the 15 issues (47%) regulated by law; the rest is un-regulated; code in preparation</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No (in preparation)</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* According to the classification scheme presented on pp. 139-143 of the report.

Relevant rules and standards:
- Article 222 ECT;
- Statute of the ECJE (January 2007);
- Code of conduct in preparation.

Instruments:
(1) Committees:
- No ethics committee.

(2) Registers and declarations:
- No register on declaration of interests (in preparation).
Regulating Conflicts of Interest for Holders of Public Office

European Court of Auditors

Overview:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Issues regulated</th>
<th>Form of regulation</th>
<th>Ethics Committee</th>
<th>Public register</th>
<th>Regime category*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>14 out of 15 items are regulated (93%)</td>
<td>9 items (60%) are regulated by code, 1 by law (6%) and 4 issues (27%) by both law and code; 1 item is unregulated</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Model 2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* According to the classification scheme presented on pp. 139-143 of the report.

Relevant rules and standards:

**Law**
- Article 246 ECT, 247 ECT, 248 ECT;
- Decision No. 92 – 2004 lays down the rules for implementing the rules of procedure of the Court of Auditors, esp. Article 5 and 6.

**Code**
- Code of Conduct of the Members of the Court.

Instruments:

1. Committees:
   - Article 4 of the Code of Conduct requires A special committee of three Members shall be instructed to examine Members' outside activities.

2. Registers and declarations:
   - Register of Interest (public only if Court agrees).

Contains:

- The financial interests that must be declared include any form of individual financial participation in the capital of an enterprise. They include shareholdings, but also any other form of participation such as, for example, convertible bonds and investment certificates. Declarations must also include the total amount of all other financial interests which do not exceed 50,000 euros;
- Land and property must be declared;
- Other assets which do not exceed 50,000 euros;
• **Outside activities** (honorary, unremunerated offices in foundations or similar organisations in a political, cultural, artistic or charitable sphere or in educational establishments);

• **Spouse’s professional activities** must also be declared
Regulating Conflicts of Interest for Holders of Public Office

European Central Bank

Overview:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Issues regulated</th>
<th>Form of regulation</th>
<th>Ethics Committee</th>
<th>Public register</th>
<th>Regime category*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>14 out of 15 items (93%) are regulated. (Average EU-27, Central Banks: 81%)</td>
<td>3 of issues (20%) regulated by law; and 11 (73%) by both law and code</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Model 2/Model 3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* According to the classification scheme presented on pp. 139-143 of the report.

Relevant rules and standards:
- Statute and Rules of Procedure of the ESCB;
- Three Codes of Conduct applicable to the Executive Board Members of the ECB (OJ 2001/C 76/11; OJ 2002/ C123/06); OJ 2006/C 230/09;
- Rules on Professional Conduct and Professional Secrecy.

Instruments:
(1) Committees:
- Article 7 of the Code of Conduct: The Governing Council shall appoint an Ethics Adviser to provide guidance to the Members of the Governing Council.

(2) Registers and declarations:
- Register of Interest.

Contains:
- Executive Board Members shall submit to the President a written statement about the patrimony, source of wealth and the prospective management of their personal assets during their term of office.
European Investment Bank

Overview:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Issues regulated</th>
<th>Form of regulation</th>
<th>Ethics Committee</th>
<th>Public register</th>
<th>Regime category*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| All 15 items are regulated: 100% | 9 issues (60%) regulated by code; 1 (7%) by law, and 5 issues (33%) regulated by both law and code | Yes | Yes | Model 1
| | | | | Model 2 |

* According to the classification scheme presented on pp. 139-143 of the report.

Relevant rules and standards:
- Articles 266 – 267 ECT;
- Statute and Rules of Procedure of the EIB;
- Statement on Governance at the EIB;
- Code of Conduct of the Members of Board of Directors of the EIB (22 July 2003);
- Code of Conduct of Members of the Audit Committee of the EIB;
- Management Committee Code of Conduct.

Instruments:
(1) Committees:
- Audit Committee;
- An ad hoc ethics committee provided by Article 2.4.10 of the Management Code of Conduct.

(2) Registers and declarations:
- Register of Interest.

Contains:
- Financial interests (stocks and shares, insurance policies and bank deposits);
- Assets (real estate and other property) and loans or liabilities;
- Outside activities (posts in foundations or similar bodies currently held and held over the last 10 years and posts in educational institutions currently held and held over the last 10 years);
- Spouse’s professional activities (other than academic or unpaid).