Editorial

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The Sino-African Cooperation: A Critical Perspective
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Ambassador’s Perspective

India’s Development Cooperation with Bangladesh
Harsh Vardhan Shringla

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Development Cooperation Review

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Development Cooperation Review (DCR) in the eighth edition brings forth an assortment of articles that call attention to the variety of country experiences in the evolving development cooperation architecture.

The pool of articles highlight the diversity in country perspectives ranging from Poland to Ecuador. The articles take up case studies, showcase good practices, and explicate challenges that serve as a guide for Southern countries to take on their own development trajectory.

In the first special article, Grzegorz Mazur delves into the legal and institutional challenges faced by Poland towards articulating a development cooperation policy. The article by Shereen Anwar Sherif shifts the focus southwards giving the readers a kaleidoscopic view of Egypt’s engagements with its peers in South-South Cooperation (SSC) and presents the case of the Cairo-Cape Town Highway as a good practice. In the third special article, Ousmane D. Mahamane Anouar critically reflects upon the areas of cooperation between China and African countries. Anouar draws upon the nuances and critiques of Sino-African relations pushing for African countries to take ownership in their own development, which Anouar asserts can be complimented by external partnerships. In the fourth special article, DCR takes cooperation to the southern cities in a contribution by Maria Cristina Molina Galarza, which draws upon the role of local governments towards achieving the goals of Agenda 2030. The focus here is on the Ecuadorian city of Cuenca and its aspirations to meet the target of SDG 11 through increased South-South and Triangular Cooperation efforts. Galarza presents the readers with a pilot development initiative of Cuenca which resulted in the creation of a framework, serving as a guide for Southern cities in meeting their development goals.

Bangladesh-India partnership has evolved and grown multi-fold over the years. DCR this time bring out a brief account of the bilateral partnership by Ambassador Harsh Vardhan Shringla during his appointment as High Commissioner to Bangladesh. Ambassador Shringla is now appointed as Ambassador of India to the United States of America. He sheds light on India’s cooperation with Bangladesh focusing on three modalities under the Development Compact, namely, capacity building, grants and lines of credit.
In the ongoing section of Lexicon and Syntax of Development Cooperation, Milindo Chakrbarti in ‘Sustainable Development Goals – an Access Perspective’, delves into the multi-dimensional nature of poverty between the national and international levels determined by the lack of access to basic resources. Wherein, deprivation in access to resources at the individual and household level needs to be taken into account for an inclusive approach towards the establishment of a database of indicators for the SDGs, this augments the proverb, ‘a chain is as strong as its weakest link.’


The report section presents a brief on the first edition of the Paris Peace Forum held from 11 to 13 November, 2018 in Paris. Amika Bawa and Kartikeya Dwivedi detail the event, bringing out nuances from the flagship session called Dialogue of International Organisations on Global Governance, along with the selection of the Network of Southern Think Tanks (NeST) as a good governance project that uniquely contributes towards capacity building and knowledge exchange in SSC. The Forum reflects the simultaneous interactions between peace-creating prosperity and prosperity inducing peace, taking a multi-stakeholder approach towards peace-building and good governance.

SSC in statistics underlines the growth in resource flows to the South primarily due to an increase in South-South investment flows, followed by a surge in remittances since 2000.

DCR provides a glimpse into RIS/ITEC course on Learning South-South Cooperation, held from November 12 to 23, 2018, aimed towards providing the participants with a nuanced understanding of the various facets of SSC.

Development Cooperation Review solicits comments and feedback from its readers and invites policymakers, officials, researchers, academics and practitioners to contribute to the forthcoming issues.
Introduction

At the beginning of the 1990s Poland entered a multidimensional process of transformation from a communist system to a free market economy and democracy. Initiated at that time, the economic and political reforms aimed at liberalisation of the economy, privatisation of state-owned enterprises and gradual liberalisation of trade flows along with building fundamental rules of democratic system. The transformation of the Polish economy and political system had been strongly supported by the European Community (EC) and correlated with the gradual economic integration with the EC. Since the beginning of the 1990s, Poland had become one of the biggest beneficiaries of European funds addressed to Central and East European (CEE) countries willing to join the EC in future (mainly Phare\(^1\); since the end of 1990s also SAPARD\(^2\) and ISPA\(^3\)). These programmes aimed to facilitate transformation and assist the candidate countries in the preparation for accession. Transformation efforts were finally crowned on the May 1, 2004 when Poland and nine\(^4\) other countries joined the European Community. The membership of those countries in the European Community (EC)/European Union (EU) has induced full and active participation in all EU policies, including EU’s assistance to less developed countries. This was also a moment when acceding countries from Central and Eastern Europe became active donors and participants of the EU’s Development Cooperation Policy.

\(^{1}\)Assistant Professor, Department of European Studies, Faculty of International Business and Economics Poznań University of Economics and Business (Poznań, Poland). Views expressed are personal.
The general aim of the paper is to define the main challenges faced by Poland in the process of building the framework of a development cooperation policy and evolving from a country being one of the most important beneficiaries of structural funds to an active and growing donor in development support.

Constructing Poland’s Development Cooperation Policy – the Main Challenges

Although Poland, together with other countries of the CEE region, had some experience in delivering development assistance to other countries before the 1990s, this cooperation had rather ideological character and was addressed to those developing countries that shared and supported a communist ideology (Yemen, Mongolia, Vietnam and Cambodia). In this regard Poland’s historical pre-1990s experience may not be utilised as fundamentals for modern development cooperation policy for the twenty-first century. The collapse of communist political and economic system had led to a drastic reduction of the assistance addressed by Poland to other countries. Moreover, the country – being in difficult social and economic situation in the late 1980s or early 1990s - became to an extent a ‘competitor’ with other developing countries in applying for development assistance from developed world, including specially, European Community and its member states.

The success of transformation and dynamic growth of the Polish economy in mid-1990s started to deliver – at the beginning on a limited scale – development assistance to other developing countries. However, more integrated actions in creating coherent and comprehensive frameworks for development cooperation had been initiated at the end of the 1990s and were strongly related to Poland’s preparations for membership in the European Union. The process of integration with the EU required from the country many new commitments in the area of development cooperation, including legal, organisational and financial aspects.

The first fundamental challenge was to set-up a legal framework for actions undertaken in the area of development cooperation, including foremost a coherent national strategy describing priorities, rules and actions of development cooperation. Although all actions and documents had to be fully coherent with a strategy and documents adopted at the EU that were a valuable benchmark for other countries, newly created strategies in CEE countries raised some doubts. Those mostly referred to insufficiently expressed references to poverty eradication as a strategic aim of development assistance. It was interpreted as a result of lower (than in West European countries) engagement in development cooperation in the least developed countries (LDC). CEE countries addressed their development assistance more to South and East European countries that needed support in areas such as strengthening democracy, human rights or regional security. Among other doubts raised in reference to the strategic documents of CEE countries was insufficient transparency of rules determining priority partners for development cooperation. Decisions on that were mostly results of political strategies rather than clear economic and social criteria. Another critical aspect applied to slow implementation of new legislation in other areas related to development cooperation (e.g. public finances, tax regulations).
In case of Poland, the *Strategy for Poland’s Development Cooperation* was adopted by the Council of Ministers on October 21, 2003. The vision and priorities of Poland’s development cooperation are based on principles of democracy, good governance, respect for human rights and solidarity. Moreover, the country considers its own experience in economic, social and political transformation as a comparative advantage in its development cooperation. In reference to a legal framework in 2011 the Polish Parliament adopted the *Development Cooperation Act* being a fundamental guide and tool for the Ministry of Foreign Affairs in building cross-government ownership of the aid programme.

In the aftermath of adopted Act of 2011, Poland prepared for the first time the *Multiannual Development Cooperation Programme (MDCP) 2012-2015* that included stronger geographic and thematic focus of Poland’s development cooperation. The second MDCP was adopted for 2016-2020. The current multiannual programme 2016-2020 defined six following thematic priorities reflecting Polish expertise and comparative advantage: good governance, democracy and human rights, human capital, entrepreneurship and private sector, sustainable agriculture and rural development as well as environmental protection. In addition, the MDCP also indicated on the basis of five criterias (development needs, implementation of development cooperation, bilateral cooperation, cohesion with EU measures and security) the priority partners. Those are four countries of Eastern Partnership (Belarus, Georgia, Moldova and Ukraine) and eight countries from Africa, Asia, and the Middle East (Ethiopia, Kenya, Lebanon, Myanmar, Palestine, Senegal, Tanzania and Uganda).

The second fundamental challenge in building Poland’s development cooperation policy was to develop an institutional framework, which was necessary for effective implementation of undertaken commitments and adopted priorities. Problems that had to be addressed in the initial phase of creating policy were the dispersion of competences among different institutions and the shortage (both in number and skills) of human resources/experts in designing and implementing effective development cooperation. However, the Polish Government did not decide, unlike what other countries of the region did (Czech Republic, Slovakia), to create a special executive development agency. As a consequence, the country created a special department within the Ministry of Foreign Affairs (MFA). This has been confirmed by the Development Cooperation Act of 2011 that gave the MFA and its Department of Development Cooperation a leading role in defining strategic priorities and coordinating the system of Polish development cooperation. However, as it was stressed in the OECD Peer Reviews (2017), Poland is still in the early stages of developing a whole-of-government approach in providing assistance to partner countries. Moreover, achieving the optimal organisational set-up, systems, procedures and key capabilities for delivering aid remain an issue for Poland. Although since 2011 human resource management has been evolving at the MFA (specialisation and more experienced staff), the Ministry has limited resources to recruit expertise. As recommended in the OECD Reviews, Poland should also make a greater effort...
to bring different parts of the aid system together and draw on technical capacity throughout the system.

Beside legal and institutional aspects of development cooperation, Poland had to undertake relevant financial commitments. In 2016, Poland provided USD 663 million in net official development assistance (ODA), which means an increase of more than 50 per cent compared to that provided in 2015 (USD 441 million). ODA as a share of gross national income (GNI) also grew from 0.10 per cent in 2014 to 0.15 per cent in 2016 (Graph 1). Although the growth in relative terms seems to be very high, Poland did not fulfil its commitments of spending 0.33 per cent ODA/GNI in 2015. As in May 2015 EU countries reaffirmed its commitment to increase collective ODA to 0.7 per cent of EU GNI before 2030, the specific target of 0.33 per cent ODA/GNI for Poland (and other CEE countries that joined the EU in 2004 and 2007) was also re-confirmed. Poland has also committed to increase ODA for least developing countries to reach 50 per cent of its total ODA, but meeting this commitment will be a challenge. That would require expanding ODA for bilateral aid and reallocation of Polish aid to its geographical priorities. Nowadays priority partners are still not the most important recipients of the Polish ODA.

Further increase in Poland’s ODA and fulfilment of adopted targets will be strongly determined by public and political support, giving the government legitimacy to allocate more resources to development cooperation, and growing awareness of global problems affecting Poland such as migration and climate changes. It should be also mentioned that three-fourth of Poland’s ODA has been distributed via multilateral channels (mostly contributions to the EU actions) and only one-fourth through bilateral projects. This is a characteristic feature of many CEE countries that the share of multilateral aid channels is relevantly higher than bilateral ones (in some of the region’s countries even close to 100 per cent). This is to some extent a result of relatively short experience of those countries in providing ODA (and therefore

Graph 1: Poland’s net ODA value (million USD) and ODA/GNI (%) in 2004-2016

Source: DAC OECD.
building their own independent bilateral channels of development cooperation) as well as the lack of historical/colonial links with developing countries, as in the case of many other EU countries.

**Conclusion**

Although Poland has made a big progress in creating its development cooperation policy and in 2013 joined the OECD Development Assistance Committee, confirming its role as an aid donor, some challenges still should be addressed in making the policy more effective and coherent. Further efforts should be especially concentrated on: integrating development cooperation and other international commitments on sustainable development, clarifying institutional roles and ensuring appropriate resources and institutional capacity for conducting development cooperation, improving institutional efficiency as well as defining a strategic approach meeting the needs of different partners. A challenge of great importance is also to increase funding for ODA to meet re-confirmed obligations in ODA/GNI by 2030.

**Endnotes**

1. Poland and Hungary: Assistance for Restructuring their Economies
2. Special Accession Programme for Agriculture and Rural Development
3. Instrument for Structural Policies for Pre-Accesion
4. The “Eastern Enlargement” (2004) included 8 countries from Central and Eastern Europe (Czech Republic, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Hungary, Poland, Slovakia, Slovenia) as well as Cyprus and Malta.
5. In 2016 five biggest beneficiaries of Polish ODA were: Ethiopia (USD 42 million), Ukraine (USD 21 million), Tanzania (USD 22 million), Belarus (USD 19 million) and Turkey (USD 18 million).
6. A survey conducted in 2015 found that 65 per cent of Polish people support development cooperation for least developed countries

**References**


Egypt’s Role in South-South Cooperation

Introduction

It is widely agreed nowadays that a restructure in the global regime has to take place. Developing countries, as such called by the developed ones, play a more active role in the global arena. Today, China, India and other emerging economies, ‘have sufficient strength and potential to pool their resources together and spearhead science and technology development in all regions and countries of the South’ (Branislav Gosovic, 2016, p138). Initiatives such as the G-77, the non-alignment movement and the G-20 emerged in order to resolve global imbalances bringing together Brazil, Indonesia, South Africa, Saudi Arabia and other countries into the field (Nouriel Roubini & Stephen Mihm, 2011).

The unique position of Egypt as an African country with a significant geographical part on the Asian continent has always put on its shoulders the obligation to defend the interests of developing countries both in Africa and Asia. This is elaborated clearly in the Egyptian chairing of the G-77 in September 2018. Egypt took this opportunity to highlight the vision of the developing countries. The focus of the Chair was to assert the need for a renewed global economic system, pointing to the absence of justice in distribution of income and resources at the international level, a considerable problem for developing countries.

This paper aims to bring to light the various issues that not only concern Egypt but other sister developing countries. A case study of the Cairo- Cape Town highway is presented to highlight Egypt’s role and commitment towards development and South-South Cooperation.

*Head of the Department of Asian Countries, Agreements and Foreign Trade Policies Sector, Ministry of Trade and Industry, Egypt. Views expressed are personal.
Egyptian President Abdel Fattah El Sisi, in his presidential address at the opening ceremony of the 42nd Annual Meeting of Ministers for Foreign Affairs of the Group of 77, New York, highlighted that the important global issues for developing countries are climate change, unemployment, technology transfer, capacity-building, trade and investment, poverty and terrorism. President Sisi pointed out the dire need to bridge the gap between the North and South, asserting the importance of uniting efforts of Southern countries especially in sectors such as health, education, nutrition, water and sanitation.

Concerning the issue of climate change, Egypt has explicitly called upon the developed countries to meet their financial commitments made at the Paris Convention. Egypt asserted that no developing country shall bear additional financial burden. At the regional level, Egyptian researchers conducted many studies focusing on the detrimental effects of climate change on Egypt and the African continent, pushing for the use of clean energy. Egypt has also provided technical assistance to African neighbours for the establishment of hydropower plants and other power supply projects. Moreover, Egypt is one of the founding members of the International Solar Alliance, an initiative of India and France, with the prime objective of tapping into solar energy and decreasing dependency on fossil fuels.

At the global level, Egypt adopts initiatives to increase awareness on climate change and related issues. Egypt hosted the 14th United Nations Biodiversity Conference, November 2018, with an aim towards protecting ecosystems, providing food and water security, and protecting the health of populations. In line with this vision, Egypt hosted the African Ministerial Summit on Biodiversity in November 2018.

With respect to unemployment, it is imperative to make sure that modern technological applications such as Artificial Intelligence do not interfere with the employment market, reducing the number of jobs as the nature of work changes in developing countries. A considerable percentage of financial assistance provided to developing countries should be directed towards building human capacity along with the enhancement of existing work environment especially in small and medium enterprises. As Pong-Sul (2007) pointed out that ‘despite positive developments in many fields, the trends of globalisation have resulted in the downgrading of living and working standards of workers especially in the informal sector, generating low quality jobs, and jeopardising livelihoods’.

Given the need for effective technology transfer towards development, President Abdel Fattah el Sisi called for exchange of knowledge and experience through facilitating cooperation among South-South research centres. The importance of achieving a balance between technology transfer and IPR rules is critical, and needs to be expedited to continue the process of development in developing countries. Similarly, on the capacity-building front, efforts take place through the provision of technical training courses in African countries and support to the African Development Fund (ADF). In addition, the ADF is used to provide free medicine and health services to many African countries.
and carry out joint projects such as “joint farms” and “power supply projects”.

Trade and investment are central to Egypt given its geographical position amid trade and supply routes. Egypt has concluded a number of free trade agreements with neighbouring Asian and African countries, establishing a duty free and quota free trade system. The Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa (COMESA) agreement binds almost twenty-two countries of Africa in a trade relationship. Egypt also has a pan-Arab Free Trade Agreement (FTA) with sixteen Arab countries from North Africa and Asia. Complementing these, Egypt also has FTAs with the Latin American MERCOSUR grouping with an aim to liberalise trade covering the African and South American continents. Egypt has also honoured its commitments by signing the Pan Africa Continental Free Trade Area “CFTA”, which is expected to bring together African countries to enhance trade and market access. These Agreements beside having a positive impact on trade in the region, stipulate on social development and poverty eradication. They allow for the opening of space for the sharing of experiences as trade acts as the first step towards enhanced cooperation. In line with the principles of South-South Cooperation, Egypt respects the sovereignty of its partners and adheres to the principles of demand-driven Cooperation and mutual gains.

In political and diplomatic cooperation, Egypt has been supporting its fellow developing countries in a manner that embodies the vision of solidarity. Under this view, Egypt made a call to review the issue of voting quotas in United Nations institutions to better reflect the needs and demands of developing countries. Egypt also holds peace building conferences and hosts youth from around the world to enhance exchange of views and build capacity towards combating terrorism and poverty.

**The Cairo-Cape Town Highway: A Practical Case Study**

Due to high transport cost in Africa the idea of establishing a highway linking Cairo to Cape Town, running through the African continent, was first introduced at the end of the 19th century. However, no practical steps were taken until the 20th century. This was primarily due to the increasing importance of trade for development and employment generation in the region. Egypt took the lead to re-initiate the idea through supporting an infrastructure project aimed to connect the northern and southern part of the African continent with hopes to cover the journey in a matter of days. This resulted in the push for the Cairo-Cape Town Highway, a 10,228 km long road that passes from Egypt to South-Africa, through Botswana, Zimbabwe, Zambia, Tanzania, Kenya, Ethiopia, and Sudan.

The Cairo-Cape Town highway is being developed with the collaboration between the African Union, United Nations Economic Commission for Africa and the African Development Bank. Egypt has built new ports and new infrastructure costing nearly USD 11 million to enhance pan African cooperation. The new road will increase access of Southern African countries to the European markets and access of Northern countries to Brazil, India and China, stimulating new trade and economic opportunities. In other
words, this road and its untapped potential would ensure a wide range of activities to boost inter-regional and intra-regional cooperation.

The initiative is a practical embodiment of South-South Cooperation, wherein connectivity acts as the first link towards enhanced partnership. Developing countries in Africa are expected to benefit from an enhanced trade environment, allowing for increase in job opportunities, technology transfer and exchange of knowledge. All these benefits are likely to contribute towards capacity building, resulting in reduction of poverty and political and economic stability.

According to Thabane Nhlengethwa (2018) in Role of Benevolent Political Ideologies in Enhancing Development Compact, ‘The value proposition of the infrastructure project, amongst many other benefits, includes the improved feasibility of the Continental Free Trade Agreement (CFTA), increased intra-regional trade, potential GDP contribution to the tune of USD 16.1 billion annually and in excess of 500 million jobs that could be created by 2035’.

To conclude, South-South Cooperation is a means for developing countries to play a more active role in the global arena. At the same time, the developed countries

Cairo-Cape Town Highway Map
have to meet their commitments and open the way for developing countries to participate more effectively in decision-making processes. Egypt has taken several efforts towards South-South Cooperation and particularly taking the lead in climate change, unemployment, the need for technology transfer, capacity building trade for development, and combat terrorism. The Cairo-Cape Town road is introduced as a practical example of Egypt’s role for South-South Cooperation. Egypt, as always, will continue to play an instrumental role in advocating for development issues in interests of developing countries.

References


INDIA-BRAZIL-SOUTH AFRICA (IBSA) FUND TURNS 15: SSC IN ACTION

Representing three continents, three democracies and three emerging economies, the IBSA fund turns fifteen. The Fund has a cumulative contribution of USD 35 million and partners with 19 developing countries. The Fund has implemented 26 projects and two-third of the IBSA funding has been allocated to assist Least Developed Countries.

The initiative was launched fifteen years ago to emerge with innovative solutions to address common challenges. India’s Permanent Representative to the UN Ambassador Syed Akbaruddin noted that 37 per cent of the funding has been allocated to partners in Africa, 25 per cent in Latin America and 21 per cent in Asia and Pacific. 15 per cent of the Fund has also been allocated towards projects in Palestine. The Fund underlines the demand driven principle of South-South Cooperation as the project proposals originate from the partner countries themselves based on their own needs and priorities. The IBSA Fund reflects the common desire of the countries to achieve Agenda 2030 and incorporates the spirit of SDG 17 towards building partnerships for mutual development.

Introduction

In the contemporary global context, emergence of new powers exacerbates global demand for natural resources and forms the foundations for Africa’s development. This development trajectory owes itself to China, which has achieved a remarkable breakthrough on the African continent. As an economic superpower, China provides development assistance, foreign investment and trade opportunities to many developing countries. It has become a key partner for African countries, rivaling former colonial powers and the United States. In fact, the relationship among the countries of the South does not start from today. The Chinese, Indian, African and Latin American people have lived in a nearly identical history of that is to say, ‘colonisation’, a mechanism through which the Western States were able to form settlements in foreign land. Colonisation allowed these powers to establish their global position to attain economic and political dominance over geographical regions beyond their national borders. It is in this perspective that China and Africa have shown a kind of solidarity in misfortune, and have had the will to fight against imperialism. This solidarity was formally expressed at the Bandung Conference of April 1955 in Indonesia; and marked the first platform wherein China made efforts to restore its relations with Africa. It was indeed the way dreamed by Beijing to support countries in their struggles against colonial rule and at the same time to establish its nascent diplomacy.

For an emerging power without a distinct colonial past, China in Africa is sealing reunion around founding principles which have derived their legitimacy from history. Since 1953, China...
has based its external relations on five principles of peaceful coexistence which are: respect for sovereignty and territorial integrity; mutual non-aggression, mutual non-interference in internal affairs; equality and reciprocity of benefits and peaceful coexistence; effectiveness of an all-out presence; and low costs of its services and products. Further, the lack of conditionality attracts a Chinese model to the African continent. The areas of Sino-African cooperation, after a period of relative decline between the beginning of 1980s and mid-1990s, are today witnessing intensification in the socio-economic fields, energy, and in science, military and cultural policy.

Therefore, the question arises regarding the selected areas, the legal-institutional framework and the criticisms of the Sino-African cooperation. To this end, this paper will first study areas of Sino-African cooperation before highlighting in its second part the legal-institutional framework. Furthermore, as commentators have asserted that Sino-African cooperation is a bag of mixed blessings, the final section provides a critical reflection and analysis of the Sino-African cooperation. The article conclusively asserts that African countries need to take ownership of their own development trajectories based on their own needs. This approach can then be complemented by external assistance, provided it is based on the demands of Africa.

Cooperation in Socio-economic, Energy and Scientific Fields

Economic engagement between China and the African Continent got a boost with the first conference for Sino-African economic exchanges organised in 2003 at Addis Ababa, with the initiative of the China Council for the Promotion of Foreign Trade. Subsequently, first Sino-African Chamber of Commerce was opened in Cameroon. China now has trade delegations in fourty-nine African countries. Sino-African trade is based on a traditional model that sees Africa export energy and raw materials including ores, precious stones, wood, cotton and import consumer products, machine tools and textile products as well as capital goods, vehicles, food products, and clothing.

In 2013, trade reached USD 210 billion. By 2014, the volume of bilateral trade exceeded USD 220 billion, and Chinese investment in Africa exceeded USD 100 billion. Strengthened mutual political trust has provided a good basis for deepening economic and trade cooperation between the two parties in all areas. On 29 July 2016, the meeting of coordinators for the implementation of the follow-up actions of the Johannesburg Summit of the Forum on China-Africa Cooperation was held in Beijing. This led to the signing of 63 cooperation agreements for an amount of USD 18.3 billion. Statistics show that since the Johannesburg Summit, the two sides have signed at least 245 agreements worth USD 50.8 billion.

China cooperates with Africa for humanitarian and social development purposes. Along with sending emergency food aid to Africa, since 2008, China has built 68 hospitals, 30 malaria prevention centres and has trained 65,000 people in Africa. Being a two-way cooperation, in 2008 after an earthquake that had hit the district of Weich Yuan in China, the African people through the African Union collectively donated ten million US dollars to the Chinese people. In 2015, Equatorial Guinea helped build a China-Equatorial Guinea Friendship Primary School in...
Jinping with a donation of 4.9 million Yuan.

The development of China and recurring tensions in the Middle East, which push up the price of oil, have pushed Chinese leaders in search of new sources of energy supply. They turned to Africa and its resources, which remained largely untapped due to lack of proper infrastructure.

Related to energy, the first item of Chinese imports from Africa (over 25 per cent) is oil. Since 2004, China has been the second largest importer of African oil after the United States. China’s presence is prominent in Sudan, Angola and Niger through the China National Petroleum Corporation (CNPC). In Nigeria, China has invested USD 4 billion for the modernisation of the Kaduna refinery and built 68 power plants. China has also built the largest wind farm in East Africa in Ethiopia. Beijing is also interested in uranium in Niger and increased cooperation through the China National Nuclear Corporation (CNNC).

Scientific and capacity building engagements have been in respect of over 200 schools in Africa, which have been built and funded by China. Since 2000, the Chinese government has funded 55,000 African scholars. Currently, more than 40,000 Africans study in China. By 2016, China had trained approximately 135,000 Africans. Further, to enhance technical and scientific cooperation, in February 2015, the Governmnet of China through a loan via the Inspur Group of China installed a 36-teraflop supercomputer in Zimbabwe, making it the fifth African country to possess a super computers enhancing its ability to compute raw data (Munzwa, 2015). China has also built three communication satellites for Nigeria, to support technical and scientific development cooperation.

Cooperation in Political, Military and Cultural Fields

China always expressed its need for political support from the African continent in multiple international fora, primarily regarding the demands of the G4 countries towards the reforms of the United Nations Security Council. China is also alleged to use all her external relations to maintain her national interest to confirm the Chinese position as the Asian flagship. Until 1971 China was represented by Taiwan at the United Nations (UN). It was in 1971 following a vote held on October 5, 1971 as part of the 26th General Assembly of the UN, that Beijing reversed the trend. This is primarily due to the vote of 26 African countries that supported Beijing’s claims. It is in this sense that President Mao Zedong said, “It was our African brothers who took us to our rightful seat.”

China also cooperates with African countries in the geostrategic field on the following issues, such as, terrorism, information exchange, organised crime, drug trafficking and small arms. Africa is becoming a new field of action for China’s participation in United Nations peacekeeping operations. Today, 2,700 Chinese soldiers are deployed in Africa as a part of UN peacekeeping operations in seven areas of Africa. The Chinese President announced at the 70th General Assembly of the United Nations that China would send a peacekeeping force composed of 8,000 Chinese soldiers and give the African Union a grant of USD 100,000,000 to support the construction of the African Permanent Force and the
African Union Rapid Response Force.

China and Africa are two continents geographically at a long distance, but are close in terms of cultural exchanges for over half a century. Cultural exchanges and cooperation between China and African countries began in mid-1950s. In May 1955, the first Sino-African cultural agreement was signed in Beijing with Egypt. In the transition to the year 2000, China signed bilateral cultural cooperation agreements and annual plans with all African countries that already had diplomatic relations with China.

The Framework of Cooperation

It should be noted that Sino-African cooperation was materialised through a legal-institutional framework. As part of this cooperation, several agreements have been concluded in the framework of bilateral cooperation between China and African countries individually and having diplomatic relations with China and between the African Union and China in the context of multilateral cooperation.

As an example, two economic and technical cooperation agreements concerning a non-repayable aid of 13.5 billion FCFA² and an interest-free loan of 9 billion FCFA were signed in 2015 between China and Niger.

Regarding multilateral cooperation between China and the African Union, several agreements have emerged. Memorandum of Understanding was signed between the African Union and China to cooperate on large infrastructure networks and in the process of industrialisation in Africa on the sidelines of the 24th African Union summit in Addis Ababa. As far as the institutional framework is concerned, it is made up of all the diplomatic missions that African countries and China exchange among themselves.

Several fora of cooperation have been established to maintain a lasting partnership with Africa, and to promote South-South Cooperation, under the model of the Franco-African summits or regular meetings of the Commonwealth. But it should be noted that notwithstanding the intensity of Sino-African relations, we have noted several criticisms over this cooperation.

Analysis of the Sino-African Cooperation

The implications of Sino-African cooperation, are, however not considered an unmixed blessing. While Africa has experienced a long history of colonisation, many analysts see China-Africa cooperation as a trend of neocolonialism. In terms of cooperation, China’s unconditional and preferential loans to African countries underscores the adage that the hand that gives is above that which receives. This allows the African continent to continue on its effective strategy towards development while continue to manage its relations with the emerging Asian economic giant, China. However, there are grave concerns about China’s commercial competition with low-cost but short-lived manufacturers in Africa, which has led to bankruptcy for many local companies because of cost of producing their products and import of Chinese labour.

Africa’s relations with China are based on cooperation, but at the same time need to bear in mind that in cooperation, each of the parties aims at their own interest owing to a relationship of mutual interest towards mutual development. It would...
then be illusory to expect that China’s main goal for cooperation in Africa is purely altruistic.

China’s respect for the principle of non-interference in the internal affairs of countries and their sovereignty holds ground. However, under the pretext of a win-win cooperation factors on the low side of trade and business, ethics, human rights and self-determination of the African people by themselves should not be alienated. At a time when the Western powers seem to be moving away from the African continent or maintaining only a minimal threshold of presence, China has demonstrated its ability to assume its role as an emerging power. Showing an impressive dynamism, China has implemented a global strategy to find new frontiers for the Chinese people and economy.

As a full-fledged actor in a globalised world, Beijing understood the benefits it could derive from Africa by using one of the most formidable weapons of the post-cold war era, i.e. economic power. China does not hesitate to assiduously make her case by constantly recalling their common past of externally dominated entities and their historical solidarity with a militant third world, characterised by mutual support in the struggles against oppression. Both China and Africa were underdeveloped yesterday; today China has come a long way, making its economy one of the most dynamic.

Africa needs to posit herself proactively in order to assert a demand-driven approach to development partnerships along with embracing the role of her Chinese partner. As it is through the strength of Africa’s political, economic, social and security proposals that it would be able to gauge the usefulness of the ‘win-win’ partnership proposed by China. According to Edem Kodjo, Africa needs to empower itself making its people believe in their own assets and abilities to take ownership of the development process, with or without external cooperation. The focus is to make the most of the African resources and wealth for the development of Africa, with tailor-made initiatives according to its own needs.

By way of conclusion, we may argue that the future of Sino-African relations depends partly on how Africa will manage these clashes between emerging and traditional powers which have actively participated in the development process of the continent. But the true question is how would Africa be able to meet the double challenge of internal change and development along with adaptation to a new global economic order.

Endnotes
1 Brazil, India, Japan and Germany
2 Franc Communauté Financière Africaine

References
The City of Cuenca, Ecuador: Enhancing Capacity Building for Southern Cities

Introduction

“Without the leadership of cities it is impossible to reduce poverty levels, reduce inequalities or achieve effective, responsible and inclusive institutions” (Faieta, 2016). In 2015 the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) were adopted to face world challenges and improve the life of people around the globe. The goals seek to tackle issues of poverty, inequality, climate change, environment degradation and ensure prosperity, peace and justice at every level—global, regional and local.

Under this agenda, cities play an important role. It is expected that by the year 2030 due to urbanisation, the number of people living in cities would rise to five billion creating challenges in terms of urban planning, management of solid waste, generation of jobs, donation of basic services, congestion, lack of infrastructure, and amongst others (United Nations, 2016). In Latin America and the Caribbean, 80 per cent of the population lives in cities making it one of the most urbanised region in the world (Faieta, 2016). The time for cities to take actions is now, and the best way for doing so is by empowering local governments to enable them to provide for citizen welfare, provide urban planning and along with dealing with a growing population. Additionally, Agenda 2030 through development and South-South cooperation provides the basis for mutural learning and capacity building. Allowing cities to strengthen and develop capacities among each other, to guarantee that no country or city will be left behind.
The purpose of this paper is to provide a bird’s eye view of the role of the city of Cuenca, Ecuador, in terms of South-South Cooperation. A case study is presented to reflect on the aims of Cuenca to fulfil SDG 11 for inclusive, safe, resilient and sustainable cities, as well as highlight the scope of South-South and Triangular Cooperation.

Managing International Cooperation

The Constitution of the Republic of Ecuador in its article 14 mentions: “Municipalities or local governments have the responsibility and the exclusive competence for managing international cooperation” (Asamblea Constituyente, 2008). Additionally, the National Council of Competences of Ecuador in its resolution CNC-009-2011 reinforces that the management of non-refundable funds and technical assistance for international cooperation will be held by municipalities and local governments in a decentralised way (Registro Nacional de Competencias CNC, 2011).

Since 2015, the local government of Cuenca has been trying to link its projects and objectives not only to the SDGs but also with local and regional policies. The local government of Cuenca through its Department of International Relations (DIR) manages international cooperation strategies and activities for the city. Nevertheless the focus of DIR has been North-South Cooperation and cooperation with non-states actors such as international agencies.

Since its creation in 2010, DIR has held projects with different international agencies such as Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA), German Technician International Cooperation Agency (GIZ), Korean International Cooperation Agency (KOICA), Latin American Development Bank (CAF), Korean Trade Investment Agency (KOTRA), and United Nations agencies such as PNUD, UN HABITAT, UN VOLUNTEERS, and UNHCR amongst others. These institutions have provided the local government with technical assistance, non-refundable funds, financial credits, capacity building, grants, and technology transfer. Nonetheless, these agencies have managed and traced the way in which they would prefer to cooperate with the city.

In terms of knowledge and actions about South-South Cooperation Cuenca is still learning. The city has made efforts to engage with a few international networks such as the Latin American EUinion of Municipalities (UIM), United Cities and Local Governments (UCLG), Federation of Latin American cities, Municipalities and Local Governments Associations (FLACMA), Mercociudades, Inter-American Association of Sanitary and Environmental Engineering (AIDIS). These networks draw together many southern cities mainly from Latin and Central America. As a result of the commitments of these networks along with a union of cities, steps have been taken further to set up international congresses with the purpose of sharing experiences and good practices. For example, in 2017 the city of Cuenca with the support of AIDIS organised an international congress for knowledge sharing on good practices in solid-waste management for intermediate-cities. The event brought together more than 500 participants from Latin and Central America, Europe, and Asia, emerging...
as a Southern platform for development cooperation and capacity building.

Additionally Cuenca has signed some agreements with southern cities such as Córdoba (Argentina), Puebla (Mexico), Bandung (Indonesia), Medellin (Colombia), Suzhou (China), Concepcion (Chile), amongst others. These agreements have fostered relationships that allow for successful exchange of best practices, challenges and experiences amongst cities. For instance, Cuenca’s agreement with the Colombian city of Medellin, has resulted in a mutually beneficial partnership.

In 2013, Cuenca started the civil engineering works for building its first electric tram system with no prior experiences either within the city or in the country. This lack of experience pushed the Municipality of Cuenca to seek guidance from the city of Medellin in Colombia. Medellin is one of the few cities in Latin America that has an electric tram system along with the knowledge to build, operate, and administer the metro operations. Further, given the proximity between Ecuador and Colombia, officials of the local government of Cuenca visited Medellin for the creation of a legal framework for operations, function manual for the tram system, and capacity-building for security measures to avoid accidents. At the same time, this exchange of knowledge and capacity building efforts became a source of ‘feedback’ for Medellin to further improve its own operations, assess and analyse new challenges that may emerge in its own tram system and update its working simultaneously. This exchange has opened up a line of communication among the Southern cities, where Medellin and Cuenca are complementing each other through the sharing of experiences and capacity building to ensure effective mobility outcomes. (Municipality of Cuenca, 2018).

**Electric Tram in Municipality of Cuenca**
Experiential Learnings that Cuenca Can Share with Partner Cities

Cuenca has developed and implemented multiple technical-projects to ensure the development of the city facilitating its citizen’s access to resources. Due to their linkage to the Agenda 2030, SGD 11 and its objectives, these projects have won eleven international prizes and recognitions worldwide since 2014. These projects focus on climate action, reducing inequality, generating gender equality, and generating sustainable cities and communities. Some of these projects are the Green belt of Cuenca, solid waste management through the Bio Gas Plant for the generation of electricity in rural areas, the Integral Improvement Plan for Peripheral Neighbourhoods, amongst others. The Integral Improvement Plan for Peripheral Neighbourhoods has become a successful project and it could develop and become a model for triangular cooperation. The project is supported by UN Habitat and the methodology and the learnings from its practice have been shared to other southern cities (EMAC EP-Municipality of Cuenca, 2017).

The Integral Improvement Plan for Peripheral Neighbourhoods

The city of Cuenca for achieving its own targets in meeting SDG 11 sets a framework for furthering south-south cooperation with its project, namely, the Integral Improvement Plan for Peripheral Neighbourhoods.

Over the last decades, the city of Cuenca has experienced an accelerated demographic growth generating difficulties in identifying urban and rural areas due to their close proximity. Progressively the sectors that once were recognised as rural areas now have been absorbed within the boundaries of urbanisation. This demographic growth in rural areas has happened without the conditions of consolidated core as witnessed in urban areas, and is reflected in the lack of access and to a large extent the non-existent nature of basic services in these areas. In these rural areas the infrastructure is deficient and houses predominantly are not well conserved, given the lack of planned architecture and the failure to use environmentally adequate materials.

With the aim of reducing a gap between the rural and urban areas, the Municipality of Cuenca, through its Barranco Municipal Foundation and the technical support of UN Habitat implemented the Integral Improvement Plan for Peripheral Neighbourhoods. The plan establishes mechanisms of analysis, detection, and specific actions with the purpose of improving the lives of the vulnerable population. These actions guide the Municipality of Cuenca at the moment in managing the investment in every area and sector related to development. All efforts are focused on drafting and formulating an immediate action plans to improve the situation in the 10 poorest neighbourhoods of the city (Fundación el Barranco-Municipality of Cuenca in Ecuador, 2017).

For this purpose, the project conceptualised the terms of periphery and vulnerability to the city and their statistical characterisation through twenty five indicators divided in socio-demographic, socio-economic, physical-environment, residence/infrastructure, and land-use
areas. These indicators included a gender component that helped to identify the ten most vulnerable neighbourhoods, establishing a set of priorities (Fundación el Barranco-Municipality of Cuenca in Ecuador, 2017). Improvement in the habitat of ten vulnerable neighbourhoods is to be done through a population-participatory-process based on the New Urban Agenda. The process is expected to be replicated in other environments after being adapted to each reality. The process is briefly described as follows:

- The establishment of mechanisms and tools of action, which will guide the Municipality of Cuenca and can be applied in other cities.
- The training of public officials, and capacity building to learn and guarantee effective mechanisms and tools for taking action in respective territories.
- The training and socialisation with the beneficiary population in the selected rural areas about the project, its planning and organisation mechanisms, their own current situation related to the project, and engage in decision making processes.
- The strengthening of communities in: risk and resilience; citizen security and coexistence; urban agriculture-permaculture; productive-ventures; human rights and gender; environmental-conservation; risk-and-resilience; youth participation, and leadership-development.
- The Establishment of regional-planning-instruments for building organised cities that are inclusive and less unequal.

Cuenca’s pilot project experience adapted to the New Urban Agenda has generated a step by step manual that could be used as a guide or as a reference document for other Southern cities that face similar challenges due to the growth of their population without the proper infrastructure in their cities. This methodology and geographic information system (GIS) developed by Cuenca and supported by the census data of every city could help Southern cities to identify through the indicators the most vulnerable neighbourhoods that need intervention. Even in the same city not every neighbourhood require the same services, so the system and participatory process guide municipalities in the identification of those requirements.

This model developed by Cuenca facilitates the process of tackling inequality by providing resilient infrastructure and access to basic services to the marginalised population. The project is an example of a capacity building modality of South-South Cooperation and its methodology, given its flexibility, can be replicated in different southern cities to build capacities and joint action for policy changes in urban planning (Partners in Population and Development, 2012). This methodology acts as a guide of detection, analysis, and elaboration of different plans for local governments to tackle neighbourhood’s issues. Therefore, Cuenca aims to enhance South-South technical cooperation by providing highly adaptive and relevant solutions to other Southern cities. Indeed, it could develop and become a model for triangular cooperation. Cuenca provides other Southern cities with the methodology by the transfer of this practical experiences and the guidance.
in the process of replicability, while the Development Bank of Latin America, UN HABITAT, or Germany through the Regional Fund for Triangular Cooperation in Latin America and the Caribbean could be the financial contributor to replicate this project in other southern cities. This cooperation can have a positive impact on cities in knowledge sharing, the development of joint strategies, policies, and solutions to improve not only the cities and the life of their citizens, but also to strengthen the relationship among countries and the empowerment of the south.

Conclusion

In conclusion, for many cities it is still a challenge to deal with becoming inclusive, resilient and sustainable. This is where South-South and Triangular Cooperation come in. Regionally, there is a knowledge deficit regarding the various modes of engagement under South-South Cooperation and given historical engagements there is a dependency on North-South Cooperation. While North-South and South-South Cooperation complement each other, North-South mode of engagement often results in northern countries guiding southern steps. On the other hand, South-South Cooperation relies on a demand-driven approach. This too results in the failure of cities in making the most of South-South Cooperation, given the lack of clarity in setting of priorities and recognising one’s own needs.

As presented above, the city of Cuenca focused on its strengths towards development through projects like the Integral Improvement Plan for Peripheral Neighbourhoods. This allowed for a complementarity between demand-driven and the technical support from the UN institutions through a mode of technical engagement. As a successful experience, it can be shared with neighbouring Southern cities that aim to implement this project. Indeed, Cuenca has received several international delegations from Southern cities which look for having a better understanding of the applicability of the project. Cuenca seeks to contribute towards capacity building for Southern cities, in addition to the internationalisation of its experience and recognition of its leadership in the region. Particularly, towards the adoption of the New Urban Agenda.

References


The African Development Bank (AfDB) launched a flagship report titled, ‘Building a new Zimbabwe: Target policies for growth and job creation’. The report aims to revitalise Zimbabwe by presenting an economic analysis with policy recommendations to place the country on a positive development trajectory.

The report results from a one-year extensive research work of country, sector and thematic studies to offer economic analyses and policy recommendations that can help spark Zimbabwe’s transformation. It provides the current government, the development community, and the private sector with a detailed assessment of investment opportunities in Zimbabwe. As an analytical work, it also provides with alternative scenarios for infrastructure investment to the year 2030 and identifies sectors for potential investment to achieve sustainable and inclusive growth.

Zimbabwe is endowed with natural resources, public infrastructure, as well as a comparatively skilled labour force, all cumulatively becoming an asset for the Country and providing it a comparative advantage when joining in the Continental FTA.

The report brings to light the measures needed to increase the productivity of public investment, strengthen investor confidence, attract patient capital and, develop special economic zones towards further improving the business climate, while continuing to safeguard macroeconomic stability.

The Government of Zimbabwe acknowledged the role of the report towards the implementation of the Transitional Stabilisation Programme and the preparation of the Medium Term Plan for 2021 – 2025.

Introduction

Development cooperation is an important aspect of India-Bangladesh relations. From modest beginnings in the years after Bangladesh’s liberation, India’s development cooperation with Bangladesh has grown in size and coverage. With the extension of a third Line of Credit of USD 5 billion during the visit of the Hon’ble Prime Minister of Bangladesh to India in April 2017, Bangladesh became the largest development partner of India. The total amount extended by India under Lines of Credit to Bangladesh stands at USD 8 billion. India remains committed to continue development cooperation with Bangladesh and would fully support Bangladesh’s vision of becoming a middle-income country by 2021, and a developed country by 2041.

Development partnership between India and Bangladesh consists of three main elements: loans extended to Bangladesh in the form of the Lines of Credit (LoCs); cooperation extended through grants; and capacity-building in Bangladesh.

Lines of Credit

The projects covered by the LoCs focus on infrastructure development in Bangladesh and improving connectivity within Bangladesh and also between the two countries. Indian credit lines are amongst the most concessional credits provided to Bangladesh by its development partners.

First Line of Credit

The first LoC to Bangladesh of USD 1 billion covered fifteen projects; of which eleven were in the railways.
sector and three were in supply projects. The present Government in Bangladesh has given special attention to the development of Bangladesh Railways (BR) which had suffered years of neglect. The LoC projects were in line with this objective of the Government and concentrated on enhancing line capacity of BR to facilitate easier movement of goods and people. The supply projects were aimed at improving the capacity of Bangladesh Road Transport Corporation, the Bangladesh Standards and Testing Institution and BR. Details of important projects undertaken under the first LoC are as follows:

- Construction of the second Bhairab and Titas railway bridges which were inaugurated in November 2017 by the two Prime Ministers through video conferencing; would ease movement on the BR network;
- Construction of Khulna-Mongla rail line which, once completed, would connect Mongla Port – second biggest in Bangladesh – to the rest of the country by rail;
- Supply of coaches and the engines to BR has helped enhance BR’s capacity to run more trains both in the freight and the passenger section; and
- The Kulaura-Shahbazpur rail line, which once completed, is expected to revive the erstwhile rail link from Sylhet to Assam.

**Second Line of Credit**

The second LoC of USD 2 billion, extended in June 2015 during the visit of Prime Minister Shri Narendra Modi to Bangladesh, focuses on various social and infrastructure developmental projects in power, railways, road transport, information and communication technology, ports, health and technical education sectors.

**Third Line of Credit**

Under the third LoC of USD 5 billion, as many as 17 major infrastructure projects have been identified by both the sides to ensure faster implementation. The projects included under the third LoC cover a wide range of sectors — ports, airports, roads and highways, and railways. This is also the largest credit line that India has extended to Bangladesh or to any other country.

**Grant Projects**

The Government of India is also undertaking various development projects under the Ministry of External Affairs’ Aid to Bangladesh’ budget. These projects are chosen keeping in mind geographical spread, socio-economic benefits and priorities of the Government of Bangladesh. Development projects funded through grants of the Government of India have been implemented in education, IT, health, water, disaster management, etc. In the last five years, the Government of India has completed a total of 24 grant projects worth Bangladesh Taka (BDT) 110 crore. Currently, there are 63 running projects and programmes which are at various stages of implementation. The estimated cost of these projects is approximately BDT 1400 crore. Hon’ble External Affairs Minister of India, Smt. Sushma Swaraj inaugurated 15 new grant projects during her visit to Bangladesh on 22-23 October 2017 in healthcare, education, water supply and social welfare. Most of these projects would be completed in 2018.
**Capacity-Building**

India offers training slots to Bangladesh under the Indian Technical and Economic Cooperation (ITEC) Programme scholarships for meritorious students through the Indian Council for Cultural Relation. Capacity-building support to Bangladesh is also being extended in different areas—police, administration, customs, narcotics, railways and judiciary.

A number of capacity building projects have been implemented or are under implementation in Bangladesh under ‘Aid to Bangladesh’. A few major ones are listed as follows.

- Construction of India-Bangladesh Friendship Building and an IT Center at the Bangladesh Police Academy, Sardah
- Setting up of Vocational Training Centre at Khulna
- Construction of 36 community clinics in remote areas of Bangladesh

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**THE TENTH ANNUAL GSSD EXPO FOCUSES ON BAPA+40**

The United Nations Office for South-South Cooperation (UNOSSC) hosted the Global South-South Development Expo (GSSD Expo) from 28-30 November, 2018 at UN Headquarters, New York. UNOSSC leverages South-South and Triangular collaboration to strengthen knowledge sharing, capacity building and technical assistance. UNOSSC in partnership with 20 UN Agencies and 100 partners, showcased ‘Institutions Supporting South-South and Triangular Cooperation in Preparation for the Second High-level United Nations Conference on South-South Cooperation.’

UN Secretary-General Antonio Guterres and UNGA President, María Fernanda Espinosa Garces, noted the increasing role of intra-South trade and the potential of the South towards international development, wherein South-South Cooperation will complement traditional cooperation.

2018 also marks the 40th anniversary of the Buenos Aires Plan of Action (BAPA) in lead up to the Second High-Level Conference to be held from 20-22 March, 2019. The Buenos Aires Plan of Action emerged from the adoption by consensus a Plan of Action for Promoting and Implementing Technical Cooperation among Developing Countries on 12 September 1978 in Buenos Aires, Argentina. In December 1978, the United Nations General Assembly resolved to endorse the Plan and urged all Governments and elements of the United Nations system to implement its recommendations. The General Assembly, recognising the need to strengthen and further invigorate South-South cooperation, decided by resolution 71/244, to convene a high-level United Nations conference on South-South cooperation on the occasion of the fortieth anniversary of the adoption of the Plan.

Development, or lack of it, is intimately linked to access to resources or otherwise. This is true in case of an individual, a household, a community or even a nation. A typical analysis of poverty using head count ratio, identifies a certain income level and considers anyone earning below that threshold limit to be poor – having failed to achieve a minimum level of development. Extension of the idea to multi-dimensional poverty has added access to resources beyond income as determinants of the status of development. They include access to proper health care services and education besides that to factors like access to hygienic toilets, cooking fuel, safe drinking water, electricity, flooring materials other than dirt, sand or dung and assets like radio, television sets, telephone, bike, etc. as important determinants of the quality of living of an individual or a household. Deprivation in terms of lack of access to these resources is an indicator of failure in terms of development. A nation, on the other hand, is considered least developed, if it does not have access to resources to ensure quality livelihood to a large section of its population. Such incapacity may result from lack of access to investible funds that can help increase the level of production of goods and services. Lack of access to relevant technology may make them vulnerable to external competition and lack of access to developed country market may not help them realise the potential benefits from global trade.

* Managing Editor, DCR and Visiting Fellow at RIS.
Inability to access skill-enhancing facilities meaningfully contributes to the state of incapacity. All these features contribute to such countries remaining short of achieving the status of developed nations.

Assistance for development as operationalised domestically looks towards the “State” providing necessary support to its citizens and facilitating increased access to the required resources. Free or subsidised access to health care services and/or education to the citizens formed a fundamental basis of “developmental paradigm” initiated by a state to ensure development of those who were lagging behind. Access to employment opportunity is also an important policy measure adopted by the countries to facilitate development. Later the role of civil society organisations, philanthropic efforts and even the corporate sectors – in terms of their Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) initiatives – also came to be recognised as simultaneous ways of ensuring access to those found wanting. Recent experimentations with social enterprises add further to the concerns with access.

The efforts by the developed world to help their Southern counterparts gain access to resources for development were, however, not a bag of unmixed blessings. The conditions, as they emerged to be put forward within a decade of the beginning of the process, turned more stringent over the years. The Bandung Conference in 1955, that was primarily designed as a forum against “colonialism,” called for solidarity among the Southern nations and more say for them in the international institutional structure. A solidarity based model of development cooperation was also pushed through as an alternative to the conditionality centred model of developmental support designed by the club of developed nations.

The same arguments hold squarely good in case of development assistance provided by a country to another. The arguments favouring aid based assistance by the developed ones were ostensibly centred around the idea of providing access to such resources to their developing counterparts as were not accessible so far. However, one must appreciate that most of the developed countries could achieve such status through unhindered access to the resources of their colonies, often expressed as drain on the resources of the colonies. These colonies of yesterday constitute the club of least developed and developing countries today.

The efforts by the developed world to help their Southern counterparts gain access to resources for development were, however, not a bag of unmixed blessings. The conditions, as they emerged to be put forward within a decade of the beginning of the process, turned more stringent over the years. The Bandung Conference in 1955, that was primarily designed as a forum against “colonialism,” called for solidarity among the Southern nations and more say for them in the international institutional structure. A solidarity based model of development cooperation was also pushed through as an alternative to the conditionality centred model of developmental support designed by the club of developed nations.

The differential experiences – both domestic and global – clearly underline the role of institutions in defining the access regime. Institutions are often defined as a set of rules that define the constraints on human behaviour. Thus religion is an institution, marriage is another, so are a family and the state. International organisations like the UN, the World Bank or the International Monetary Fund are also institutions. One should appreciate that the access regime to resources are determined by the institutions – the set of rules – assigned to take care of the specific one. Thereby, a given set of rule followed by a family determines if there would be gender disparity in access to resources available to a family. Such rules would determine whether a male child in the family would be given preference to attend a school, while his female sibling would stay back home to assist in household chores. Similarly, such rules formulated at the level of traditional donors would determine the conditions
to be fulfilled by a recipient country to get some developmental support, “Washington Consensus” being one such set of rules that became quite popular during the last decade of the previous millennium.

Domestic set of rules formulated by the respective governments determines the extent of access to cooking fuel or electricity given to the members of a particular household, in case they cannot afford to procure them out of their purchasing power. While their purchasing power is itself contingent upon their access to resources – labour power, land, skill, credit, technology among others – the state often plays a proactive role in providing access to resources like cooking fuel and/or electricity at a subsidised rate that those marginalised find affordable. It can also set the rules to provide gainful employment to those who volunteer for such opportunities at the going wage rate.

Needless to say, the rules set under an institutional rubric determine the nature of access provided to an individual, a household or a nation. The rules may, by design, in some cases restrict access to resources and thereby contribute to lower level of living or facilitate access and consequent development. For example, non-trade barriers often restrict access of food items from a developing nation to a developed one, in the name of hygiene and health concerns in tune with the rule set devised by the World Trade Organization. President Trump increased tariff on aluminum and steel to provide larger market access to the US producers in the domestic market. Increased restrictions immigration opportunities in the US are aimed at creating access opportunities to American citizens to the local job market.

Whether institutions turn restrictive or facilitate access is dependent on who get the opportunity to set the rules. If those with lesser access to resources are prevented from making the rules related to getting access, development cannot be assured for them. International institutions that determine the access regime are often controlled by those with larger access to resources. Those falling behind are obliged to follow the rules set by those who are already privileged. A clear example is the debate that has been going on regarding the framing of the rules to prevent illicit financial flow from out of the developing countries. Illicit financial flows cost African countries at least $50 billion every year, more than the total sum of development aid the continent receives, according to a new report by the OECD. A project under the auspices of OECD/G20 named Base Erosion and Profit Shifting (BEPS) has recently been introduced. The aim of the project is to mitigate tax code loopholes and country-to-country inconsistencies to prevent shifting of profits by corporations from a country with a high corporate tax rate to countries with a lower one.

A 15-point Action Plan was announced in October 2015 by the OECD and G20 to address BEPS to ensure an inclusive and effective international tax framework. It was deemed necessary that developing countries must be involved. As of May 2018, 116 countries had joined the project. However, to gain membership, non-OECD/G20 countries must commit to the BEPS package, a plan to “equip government with domestic and international instruments to address tax avoidance, ensuring that profits are taxed where economic activities generating the
profits are performed and where value is created.” Such a requirement is indicative of the fact that the developing countries, even though they are a part of this endeavour, are not entitled to frame the rules. They are to commit to the rules made by the big brothers. The recent experiences of the establishment of New Development Bank (NDB) is also an indicator of the frustration of the developing countries not having a commensurate role in framing of the rules that dictate development assistance architecture. The ever growing faith of the Southern nations on the UN system in deference to that on other Breton Woods Institutions also indicates their intent to participate in the process of rule formation.

A detailed list of 8 Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) made headlines in 2000. A very critical argument against the process involved in identifying the MDGs was the realisation that the goals were identified without involving the participation of the countries who were to achieve them. The half-baked success of the MDG process is often attributed to the lack of access of the developing nations in generating the operational plan, indicating their clear absence from the rule making process. The lessons learnt thereof helped articulate the process of generating the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) in a participatory manner that engaged all stakeholders – state and non-state – from both the developed and developing world. The resultant goals, targets and indicators that evolved out of the process clearly call for enhanced access to all types of resources – economic, ecological, political, social and institutional – for all, so that no one is left behind. Such an emphasis on inclusive growth underpins the realisation of the role of “access to resources” in defining development. It also underscores the belief that such a developmental roadmap would be “sustainable”.

A look at the SDGs reveals that all of them are linked to provision of access to some resources, ranging from food, health services, education, peace and justice to natural resources and livelihood options. The targets and indicators also explicitly capture the perspective of access. However, a challenge remains. The SDGs and the targets and indicators identified thereof are hardly linked to the individuals or households suffering from lack of access to resources. Most of the exercises in developing the database of indicators are concentrated at national or at the most at some sub-national levels. Real inclusive development that leaves no one behind cannot afford to ignore the status of an individual or a household in terms of their inclusion in the desired access regime. Sustainable development requires that the last individual in the queue is empowered with the necessary wherewithal that enable him or her in accessing resources as per his/her informed choice. Efforts at localisation of SDGs and their indicators can effectively help achieve the enshrined goals. Participation of each and everyone in identifying/fixing the local level targets and indicators is a sine qua non for the successful achievement of SDGs. An institutional framework that can help such localisation is an urgent need of the day.
Introduction

The discourse and debate around perpetual and continued peace, effective human rights, multilateral trading system and financing originated after the end of the Second World War. These sectors were considered to be important areas to be worked on in order to stop the repeat of war. Understanding of peace and human rights developed as a direct response towards the Holocaust, loss of young men at the battlefield and other associated tragedies. Protectionist trading practices and inward-looking financial structures, on the other hand, were understood to be the causes of the war as 1930s saw the Great Depression in United States and unsustainable economic, financial and trading practices which led to rise in nationalism across Europe.

After ravages of Second World War, the victors were better prepared this time with respect to institution building of Global Governance as compared to after the First World War. Global institutions were differentiated into issue areas concerning peace and human rights; reconstruction, development and macroeconomic stability; and international trade. United Nations (UN) was conceptualised as a global body to work towards peace and human rights which got established in 1945. Bretton Woods Institutions (the World Bank and International Monetary Fund) were established to provide loans to countries of the world for capital projects (to reconstruct Europe and later to the global South) and
infuse in them macroeconomic stability in the countries of the world, respectively. In trade, the idea of having an International Trade Organisation (ITO) was conceived but could not be realised. However, ITO was refurbished as General Agreements on Tariffs and Trade in 1947 and post various negotiations, the World Trade Organisation (WTO) was established in 1994.

As described above, human rights centric UN and trade concerning WTO were set up in this way not by coincidence but, by design (both, normatively and operationally) through independent rounds of negotiations thus, having different value systems from each other. Any issue arising in international relations concerning human rights is directed to be addressed at UN and WTO receives only trade related disputes, apart from framing trade policies. Issues and disputes arising due to intersectional nature of human rights and trade falls through the interstices of these global bodies. Disputes concerning human rights violations originating due to trade agreements cannot be addressed completely in either of these organisations owing to their workings in a separate tight compartment. This problem in redressal mechanism due to differentiation in value system espoused by these international organisations has been referred to by the author as ‘Fragmentation of International Law’. There have been some convergences between the two. For example, WTO now has been seen to be sympathetic towards human rights and environment related issues, but still leaves a lot to be desired.

The author in first chapter provides an introduction to study of linkages by talking about the strands of human rights system which has been differentiated into capitalist block-led International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR) and communist block-led International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR). Despite the end of Cold War rhetoric, these differences in understanding of human rights have not disappeared. There is also a discussion on basic rules of WTO’s legal architecture. They are: maximum permissible tariff or ‘tariff bindings’; two limbs of non-discrimination principle between States (Most Favoured Nation status and National Treatment principle); and elimination of quantitative restriction.

**Governance Space Theory**

The existing literature in the field of linkages between multilateral trading system (MTS) and human rights (HR) lacks a systematic theory to analyse such a linkage. Most of the literature has looked on individual linkages between MTS and HRs, or compilations of different essays dealing with different linkages. The other set of literature have looked at MTS and HRs linkages without a theory and theoretical framework. Studies, therefore, reflect a complete issue-by-issue segregation so that there is no coherent framework for analysing the linkages. The other set collectively deals with all human rights issues affected by trade as if they were a single issue which deserve a common solution. This book, thus, fills an important knowledge gap by constructing a systemic and systematic theoretical framework on linkages, which the author names ‘Governance Space Theory’. The author explains in detail as to why the popular concept of ‘policy space’ is limiting and does not capture the entire gamut of linkages between MTS and HRs.
This ‘governance framework’ develops three ‘linkage categories’:

- Issues where WTO laws and policies limit the governance space of States in fulfilling their HRs obligations. This linkage category has been explained through the General Exception Clauses in Article XX of GATT 1994. It is despite the presence of Art XX that States’ ability to invoke it in order to protect HRs is seriously circumscribed.

- Issues where WTO laws and policies do not limit governance space but creates a permissive environment for States to abuse that space. This linkage category has been explained through the case study of MTS and labour rights at WTO.

- The third linkage category includes issues where MTS inherently creates a limiting environment for States to use the governance space they already have by tapping into their unequal capabilities to benefit from the system. The case study on the inability of various developing and least developed countries to benefit from Aid-for-Trade policy of WTO.

The author prior to getting into the linkage categories and case studies, devotes several pages to conceptualising the ‘governance space’ of states by dealing with topics like ‘governance and the role of the state’; ‘governance and governance space of states’; ‘good governance’; relationship between governance space, governance and good governance (the governance space-human rights vector) and ultimately proposing and explaining the governance space framework.

The author in succinct manner explains that States continue to be under an obligation to ensure their HRs obligations while fulfilling their WTO obligations. This is because States have undertaken both sets of obligations, and since they have equal normative value, both must be fulfilled. However, in order to manage their international obligations, it is a sine qua non, that States must first be able to understand the nature and scope of the linkage-issues, how they arise, and what impacts are on their abilities to fulfil their human rights obligations.

Thus, becomes extremely important that the governance space framework enables policy makers within and beyond States to understand the nature of the diverse linkages and devise appropriate approaches to solutions.

**Right to Development: Sustainable Development and WTO**

The chapters in the book make it clear that adverse impacts of MTS on HRs obligations of State cannot be resolved under the framework of normative hierarchy of HRs norms over trade norms. The book further goes in detail in explaining that proposition of HRs obligation of States supersede WTO obligations by virtue of Article 103 of the UN Charter, as well as the principle of *jus cogens*, operate only in a limited set of circumstances, which in any case, are not likely to occur. Thus, in order to ensure that States do not end up making trade rules and policies which undermine their own HRs obligations, it is necessary to not only provide moral arguments justifying internalisation of HRs considerations in WTO processes, but also legal arguments.

The legal rationale can be found in the Preamble of the Marrakesh Agreement which incorporates ‘sustainable development’ as one of the principal objectives of the WTO. Thus, Free trade is...
not an end in itself. It is the means to an end, the end being achieving sustainable development which is the institutional objective of WTO. The 2030 Agenda and the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) give shape and texture to the institutional objective of the WTO with respect to sustainable development. Right to Development (RtD) as the appropriate pathway for ensuring that States engage in free trade in a manner that they fulfill their institutional objective of sustainable development and do not undermine them.

RtD is Sustainable Development in human rights form. It firmly makes development a human right. RtD insists that a holistic Human Rights Based Approach to Development (HRBA), must not merely link human rights to development objectives, but must consider development itself a human right. RtD places obligations on States both internally to respect, protect, and fulfill human rights, but also externally at international organisations, in order to ensure that economic and other policies promote human rights and do not undermine them. This means that duty of States is to ensure the RtD is not limited to their own jurisdictions, but extends beyond borders and also permeates through international decision-making at International Organisations.

States must create conducive atmosphere within the country towards realisation of RtD and direct it’s Foreign Policy and international relations towards cooperation with other states in order to realise RtD for itself. As a corollary, it can be understood that foreign aid and development cooperation in North-South flow shall not be looked at as a generosity or privilege, but as a duty of States as part of the duty to ensure international cooperation as mentioned in the UN Charter (Art. 55) as well as the Declaration on RtD.

RtD allows States, especially Developing and Least Developed Countries (D-LDCs), to stake a claim as agents of their citizens that ensuring development within the State is their right, and that other States and international organisations have a duty to not undermine the same (coterminous with the first linkage-category, i.e. availability of Governance Space is a right).

All States, including the D-LDCs, have an obligation to respect, protect, and fulfill human rights internally to ensure development, and that they cannot pass off violations of the rights of their citizens under the false label of development (coterminous with the second linkage-category, i.e. not abusing Governance Space is a duty). Acknowledging the lower threshold of infrastructural and technological capabilities which D-LDCs have, RtD also frames international cooperation as a duty of States, particularly the Developed Countries (DCs) (coterminous with the third linkage-category i.e. capability to use Governance Space is a right).

The book has attempted to fill a significant theoretical void in the study of linkages between MTS and human rights, but has also attempted to be policy-oriented in terms of approaches to solutions. The Governance Space framework provides the theoretical framework for appropriately identifying linkage-categories with distinct features wherein linkage-issues between MTS and Human Rights arise. RtD, being coterminous...
with the Governance Space framework, and in light of the institutional objective of sustainable development of WTO, is identified as the appropriate approach to resolving linkage-issues within each linkage-category. However, the author provides the caveat by mentioning that adopting an RtD approach as the way forward to addressing the impacts on governance space does not mean that there is a one-size-fits-all solution. Applying RtD approach to linkages-issues under the three linkages-categories (as briefly discussed above) not only permits, but requires different solutions to be adopted to different problems.

### Development Cooperation & Climate Diplomacy

The India-France initiative of the International Solar Alliance (ISA) is one of the key global efforts towards climate-responsible international development cooperation. Celebrating 3 years of the launch of the initiative on 30th November 2015, ISA shifts the global attention towards renewable and sustainable energy, away from fossil fuels and coal based sources. The joint effort connects solar resource rich countries lying fully or partially between the Tropics of Cancer and Capricorn, with an opportunity to tap into the solar energy. A total of 71 countries have signed the ISA Framework Agreement out of which around 48 countries have ratified the same.

A climate friendly development cooperation aims to integrate the norms of sustainable development with the goals of achieving Agenda 2030. The International Solar Alliance is an effort in this direction through programmes and activities launched to build capacity, share knowledge, research and innovation and provide assistance towards solar financing and technical cooperation.

ISA also collaborates with other multilateral bodies like the International Renewable Energy Agency (IRENA), Renewable Energy and Energy Efficiency Partnership (REEEP), International Energy Agency (IEA), Renewable Energy Policy Network for the 21st Century (REN), United Nations bodies, bilateral organisations, Corporates, industries, and other stakeholders. The purpose to bring all stakeholders on one platform ensures that each can contribute towards the goal of increasing utilisation of solar energy in member countries.


### Endnotes

1. Article 103 of UN Charter: “In the event of a conflict between the obligations of the Members of the United Nations under the present Charter and their obligations under any other international agreement, their obligations under the present Charter shall prevail.”

2. *Jus Cogens:* is a fundamental principle of international law that is accepted by the international community of states as a norm from which no derogation is permitted.

3. UN Commission on Human Rights (UNCHR) in a resolution approved in 1977 first recognised the RtD as a human right.
Peace and economic prosperity, which are both a precursor to and a consequence of good governance, are imperative for a stable global development architecture. These ethos have been captured over time by a number of initiatives such as the South Asia Development and Cooperation Report 2015 in consonance with the 18th SAARC Summit, the Global Forum on Youth, Peace and Security and the Basel Peace Forum. These spaces delved into the themes of simultaneous interactions between peace-creating prosperity and prosperity inducing peace, recently reflected on the stages of the Paris Peace Forum (PPF). PPF continued with the efforts of earlier processes to bring forth the role of multiple stakeholders in peace-building.

The Context

Held from 11 to 13 November, 2018, the PPF brought together global governance actors to discuss issues of transnational importance to achieve durable peace. Hosted by the French Government at La Grande Halle de La Villette, it gathered more than 6,000 visitors, 65 Heads of State and over ten international organisations. The centennial celebrations of the end of World War I and the first Paris Peace Conference preceded the first edition of PPF, a three day forum that initiated discussions on sustainable peace, digital policies, human security and climate change within the overarching ambit of multilateralism. Convened under the idea that when collective cooperation and governance are under threat from rising tensions among countries and populist insurrections, PPF can strengthen and improve time-tested solutions like multilateral institutions, norms and standards. The various stakeholders included states, international organisations, local governments, NGOs and

* Editorial Assistant, DCR
** Intern, RIS
foundations, companies, experts, scholars, journalists, trade unions, religious groups and citizens.

The forum functioned in three spaces where 121 teams representing six geographical areas and including organisations that cut across continents showcased projects that aim to provide concrete solutions to international challenges. The Space for Solutions showcased governance projects in five “Villages”, namely, peace and security, environment, development, new technologies and inclusive economy; a Space for Debates where initiatives from the Villages as well as cross-cutting themes were discussed; and a Space for Innovation which invites developers and programmers to devise digital solutions for identified challenges.

The Space for Solutions and Debates featured specific global governance projects like the Environmental Pact and International Solar Alliance with the objective of assessing their impact and formulating recommendations for development and implementation. The Space for Innovation hosted an event during which computer programmers and professionals could collaborate, assisted by governance experts, on software projects that aim to address a specific challenge of global governance – this year, financial transparency.

Around fifteen projects from Africa, eighteen from Asia, thirty-eight from Europe, nine from Latin America, six from Middle East and twelve from North America were selected. The trans-continental projects included the World Justice Project on Data to Combat Torture, World Benchmarking Alliance by Index Initiative and the Network of Southern Think-Tanks (NeST).

**Presence of NeST**

The Network of Southern Think Tanks (NeST) is based on the premise that good governance of development cooperation is an important and necessary pre-condition to ensure inclusive global peace. As a follow-up to the Conference of Southern Providers held in New Delhi in April 2013, NeST was set up on the side-lines of the first high-level meeting of the Global Partnership for Effective Development Cooperation in Mexico in April 2014. NeST has committed...
itself to ‘generating, systematising, consolidating and sharing knowledge on South-South Cooperation (SSC) approaches to international development’.

A collaborative initiative for the South and by the South, NeST is primarily a forum that provides policy inputs into the arena of SSC. NeST welcomes inputs from a diversity of Southern stakeholders, through the open engagement with governments, civil society organisations, private sector institutions and various Southern practitioners, to contribute towards creating an unified understanding and common framework for debates around SSC.

NeST engages in the theorising of SSC, the identification of operationally successful models of the SSC; and impact assessment and documentation of SSC. Members of NeST are convinced that a prominent space for SSC will go a long way in contributing significantly to the process of global development and in ensuring the achievement of the sustainable development goals (SDGs). Being a platform populated by important think tanks from the South that work very closely in association with civil society organisations and policy makers, NeST is keen to contribute to improving the status of global governance through cutting edge policy research on development cooperation in general and SSC in particular with an aim to develop a governance framework for the same.

The motivation to participate in the PPF emerges from the values of SSC, characterised by solidarity within the Global South, which is a pre-requisite to inclusive development cooperation forming the basis for global governance and sustainable peace. Indeed, the institutionalization of global governance is in itself a form of development cooperation, and globalization has increased the need and urgency of the provision of global goods necessary for the successful response to global problems and for meeting the SDCs. NeST and PPF being an embodiment of these efforts collectively form an appropriate partnership. At PPF, NeST was represented by former Indian ambassador to Paris and currently RIS Chairman, Dr. Mohan Kumar, leading the delegation with Mr. André de Mello e Souza, IPEA, Brazil, and Mr. Pranay Sinha, RIS.

Amb. (Dr.) Mohan Kumar, noted that PPF served as a meeting place for all international institutions sharing views on sustainable development and global governance. He emphasised how PPF was opened by Trisha B Shetty, an Indian lawyer, social activist and founder of the NGO ‘SheSays’ who called for peaceful leadership and international cooperation.

The remarkable potential of PPF, noted Dr. Kumar, was reflected in the meeting called the Dialogue of International Organisations on Global Governance and moderated by former Italian Prime Minister Enrico Letta and comprising of Robert Azevedo, Director-General, World Trade Organization; Audrey Azoulay, Director-General, United Nations Organization for Eductaion, Culture and Science; Angel Gurria, Secretary-General, Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development; Jim Yong Kim, President, World Bank; Christine Lagarde, Managing-Director, International Monetary Fund; and Guy Ryder, Director-General, International Labor Organization. Concluding remarks were given by Antonio Guterres, Secretary-Genral of the United Nations and Emmanuel Macron, President of the
French Republic. The panel came to the conclusion that the central importance of multilateral institutions was under attack due to increasing unilateralism. But, more importantly and optimistically, despite such threats, effective multilateralism will prevail, as global challenges cannot be addressed by states acting alone or in small groups.

**Future Direction**

Looking forward, it is worth revisiting and comparing the context of the Paris peace conferences. The first conference following the end of First World War was to establish the terms of peace set by the victorious Allied Powers for the defeated central powers. The centennial and the PPF, in 2018, was organised at a time when international cooperation is considered to be in danger as challenges are rising on various fronts that require collective action. The conference of 1918 ended with the inaugural General Assembly of the League of Nations. However, the 2nd World War itself was testimony to the fact that these negotiations and the peace process collapsed. Set in this context, PPF demonstrates that there is still a momentum for multilateralism and a better organisation, both among states from North and South, and civil society actors.

PPF questioned the trajectory of multilateralism and push towards effective working of governance institutions, highlighting the need for reforming the international architecture to reflect the contemporary structural realities of international affairs. PPF showcased a diversity of projects from the developing world which can interact with counterparts, creating rich discourses with valuable sharing of knowledge and experiences from the grass roots of change.

The relevance of PPF is that this summit will be known as the inception of the effort to underscore the commitment of the members towards multilateralism, trans-national cooperation and global governance. The intention of the Forum is to become a consistent effort and a vanguard of the world order, which is essentially global in nature. Actors of all kinds can approach this Forum and reflect the importance of the concepts of burden sharing, mutual-benefit and value creation through transparent dialogue.

As noted by President Macron, “peace is achieved through good governance and is not just the absence of war.”

*NeST represented at the Paris Peace Forum*
Resource position in the South is fairly strong in the recent years compared to the past. Along with rising domestic savings and investment, international resource flows to the South have registered phenomenal growth. With surge in South-South investment flows, the South has emerged as the hub of global FDI activities. Most of the countries in South are not only leading recipients of FDI inflows but also act as major origin of FDI flows. FDI outflows from the South have increased significantly even during the global recession, and converging to the volume of FDI outflows from the North. Besides FDI flows, remittances have been a major component of resource flows to the South. The share of remittances flows to the South has grown dramatically since 2000, indicating a strong resource base of the Southern economies.

South-South Cooperation (SSC) has become prominent in dialogues on international development cooperation, given its positive contribution towards the achievement of Sustainable Development Goals and Agenda 2030, as it is perceived to be more receptive and adapted to the needs and priorities of countries. As a result, expectations have increased manifold for capacity building initiatives in developing countries. It was in light of this demand, RIS designed a course on Learning South-South Cooperation (LSSC) under India’s Technical and Economic Cooperation (ITEC) Programme. LSSC aims towards providing participants a nuanced understanding of the facets and modalities of SSC, that can complement the development trajectories of their respective countries. The 2018 LSSC course was held from November 12 to 23, and saw participation of 29 foreign participants from 23 countries.

For details on application for the upcoming 2019 ITEC course on Learning South-South Cooperation, you may contact the Indian Missions in your home countries and follow this link: http://ris.org.in/itec-learning-south-south-cooperation.

Some glimpses from LSSC 2018:
Guidelines for Contributors

1. DCR is a refereed multi-disciplinary international journal. Manuscripts can be sent, as email attachment, in MS-Word to the Managing Editor (milindo.chakrabarti@ris.org.in).

2. Manuscripts should be prepared using double spacing. The text of manuscripts should not ordinarily exceed 1500 words. Manuscripts sent for peer review section may be limited to 5000 words. Such submissions should contain a 200 word abstract, and key words up to six.

3. Use ‘s’ in ‘-ise’ ’-isation’ words; e.g., ‘civilise’, ‘organisation’. Use British spellings rather than American spellings. Thus, ‘labour’ not ‘labor’. (2 per cent, 3 km, 36 years old, etc.). In general descriptions, numbers below 10 should be spelt out in words. Use thousands, millions, billions, not lakh and crore. Use fuller forms for numbers and dates— for example 1980-88, pp. 200-202 and pp. 178-84. for example ‘the eighties’, ‘the twentieth century’, etc.

Reference Style: References should be appended at the end of the paper. References must in double space, and should be same author(s) is cited, then arrange them chronologically by year of publication.

All references should be embedded in the text in the APA style. For details please refer to Course and Subject Guides: https://pitt.libguides.com/c.php?g=12108&p=64730

Invitation to Join our Mailing List

If the reader wishes to be added in our mailing list in order to receive the soft version of Development Cooperation Review, kindly send in details along with organisational affiliations to Mr. Pranay Sinha (Email: pranay.sinha@ris.org.in). Also specify if hard copy is desired.

Call for Contributions

We invite contributions from interested readers on issues related to development cooperation in general and South-South Cooperation in particular. Contributions may also capture theory, practice and associated debates on development cooperation. Reviews of latest publications - books, monographs, reports - are also welcome. Any institutional upcoming events on development cooperation may also be captured in DCR. The contributions should be restricted to not more than 1500 words.

For editorial information, contributions, feedback and comments: mail to milindo.chakrabarti@ris.org.in and dgoffice@ris.org.in

Introduction of a Section on Peer Reviewed Articles/Essays

In keeping with suggestions, feedbacks and accumulated experience, we have decided to introduce a section, containing peer reviewed full length articles/essays. Interested scholars willing to contribute are requested to send in their manuscripts (preferably in not more than 5000 words) to the editorial office.
**About Development Cooperation Review**

Development Cooperation Review (DCR) aspires to capture holistic narrative around global development cooperation and fill an important knowledge gap towards theorisation, empirical verification and documentation of Southern-led development cooperation processes. Despite growing volumes of development partnerships around the Southern world, there remains an absence of detailed information, analysis and its contribution to global development processes. Even though there have been sporadic efforts in documenting some of the activities, a continuous effort in chronicling the diverse experiences in South-South Cooperation (SSC) is still absent. RIS, in joint publication with FIDC and NeST has endeavoured to launch DCR, a monthly periodical, to fill this gap till March 2019 after which DCR would graduate to become a full-fledged Journal.

DCR is designed to bring policy-makers, officials, researchers, academics and the development practitioners onto a global platform to share their ideas, experiences and concerns vis-a-vis development cooperation. The periodical would further allow us to feature special write-ups, analyses, opinion pieces, commentaries and in general the South’s take on the emerging narratives of global architecture of development cooperation, including ODA.

**About Research and Information System for Developing Countries (RIS)**

RIS is a New Delhi–based autonomous policy research institute envisioned as a forum for fostering effective policy dialogue and capacity-building among developing countries on global and regional economic issues. The focus of the work programme of RIS is to promote South-South Cooperation and collaborate with developing countries in multilateral negotiations in various forums.  

[@RIS_NewDelhi](https://twitter.com/RIS_NewDelhi)

**About Network of Southern Think Tanks (NeST)**

NeST was established on the sidelines of the first high-level meeting (HLM) of the Global Partnership for Effective Development Cooperation (GPEDC) in Mexico in April 2014, and as a follow-up to the Conference of Southern Providers held in Delhi in April 2013. The network has committed itself to ‘generating, systematising, consolidating and sharing knowledge on South–South co-operation (SSC) approaches to international development’.

[@NeST_SSC](https://twitter.com/NeST_SSC)

**About Forum for Indian Development Cooperation (FIDC)**

FIDC aims to encourage detailed analysis of broad trends in South-South cooperation and contextualise Indian policies by facilitating discussions across various subject streams and stakeholders based on theoretical and empirical analysis, field work, perception surveys and capacity building needs.  

[@FIDC_NewDelhi](https://twitter.com/FIDC_NewDelhi)
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