

# 외교정책과 ODA

## Foreign Policy and ODA

제6차 KOICA-세종 콜로키엄 / The Sixth KOICA-Sejong Colloquium

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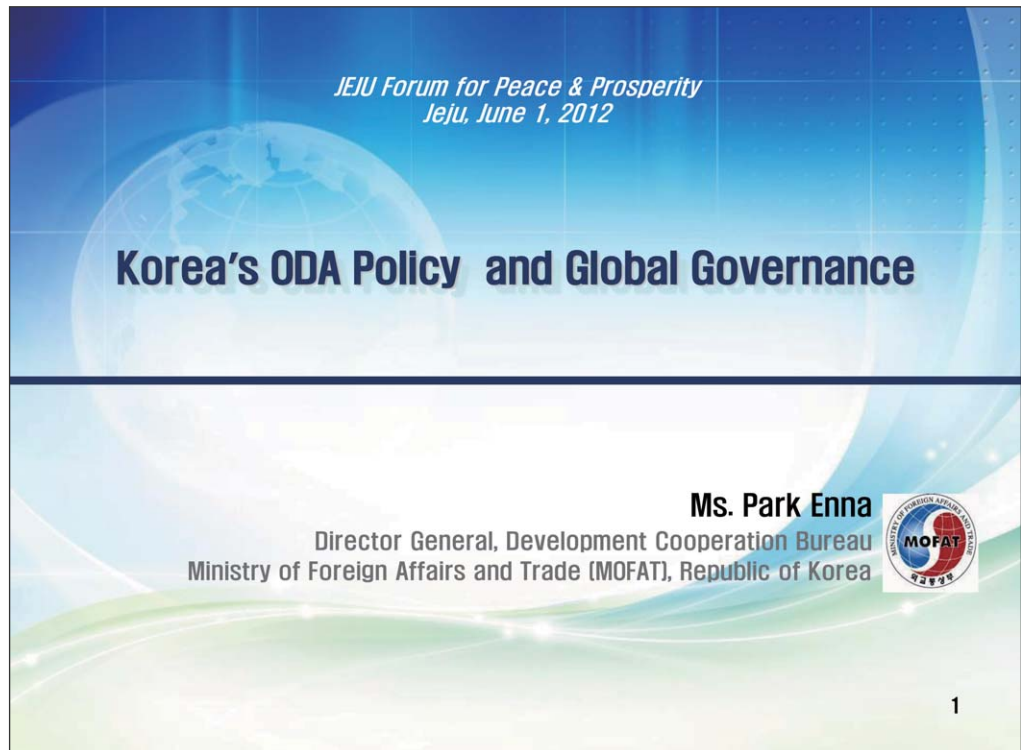
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## Presentation I



# I The Changing Global Development Landscape

## I. The Changing Global Development Landscape [1/5]

### 1 Changing Development Landscape

#### ➤ New actors, new challenges

- Emerging economies, private corporations, global funds, CSOs, etc.
- Climate change, food security, pandemics, etc

#### ➤ Promoting greater policy coherence

*Development issues are intertwined with other policy issues, such as trade, environment, security, etc.*

#### ➤ Evolving global aid architecture

*Embrace the benefits and diversity brought by new players*



## Presentation I

## I. The Changing Global Development Landscape [2/5]

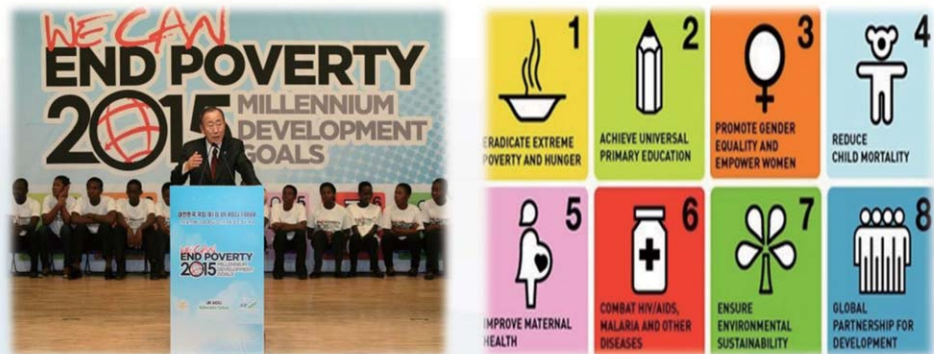
## 2 Diversified actors and development financing



## I. The Changing Global Development Landscape [3/5]

## 3-1 Evolving Global Development Architecture : UN – MDGs

Call for collective and coherent actions for achieving the MDGs



## ➤ Post-MDGs Framework?

1) Expansion of the current goals, 2) Modifications, 3) Replacement

## I. The Changing Global Development Landscape [4/5]

### 3-2 Evolving Global Development Architecture : OECD – Quality of Aid

Enhancing the effectiveness of aid and development cooperation



#### ➤ Post-Busan Partnership?

- 1) Beyond aid; 'aid' to 'development'
- 2) enlarging global partnership

## I. The Changing Global Development Landscape [5/5]

### 3-3 Evolving Global Development Architecture : G20 – Development Agenda

Growth-focused Approach



#### ➤ G20 development agenda?

- 1) Included 'development' issue as a key agenda,
- 2) Partnership with developing countries

## Presentation I

### II Korea's Contribution to global governance

#### II. Korea's Contribution to Global Governance [1/3]

##### 1 Korea's Contributions to the Global Public Goods



Global Economy (G20 Seoul Summit, 2010)



Development (Busan HLF-4, 2011)



Peace and Security  
(Nuclear Security Summit, 2012)



Green Growth  
(Rio+20 Summit, 2012)

## II. Korea's Contribution to Global Governance [2/3]

### 2 Korea's Initiative: G20 Development Agenda

- Introducing Development as a Key G20 Agenda
- Focus on Addressing Bottlenecks of Growth
- Developing countries as Vital Partners for Sustainable Development

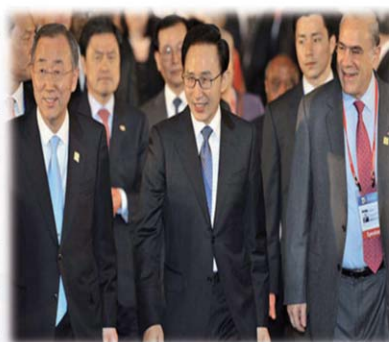


## II. Korea's Contribution to Global Governance [3/3]

### 3 Korea's Initiative: Busan Partnership

*"Busan Partnership for Effective Development Cooperation"*

- New Global Partnership for Development  
- Will launch in June, 2012
- From Aid to Development Effectiveness  
- Focus on sustainable development impact
- From OECD-led to OECD-UN Partnership



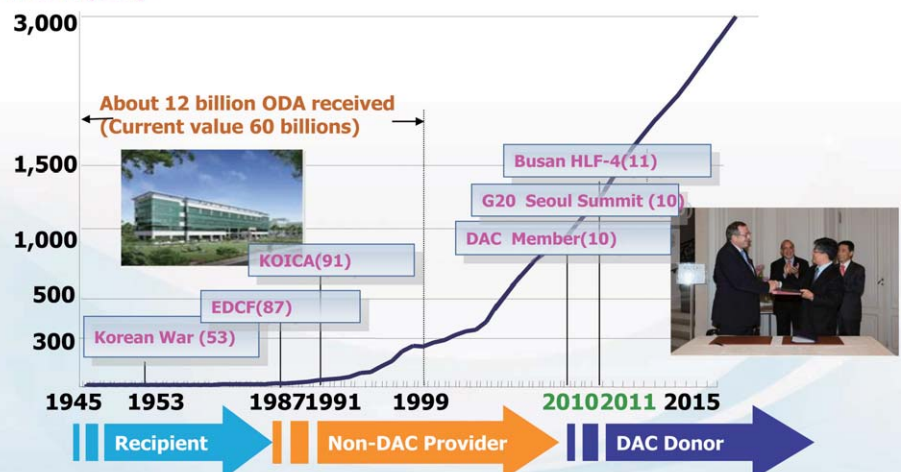
## Presentation I

### III Korea's ODA Policy

### III. Korea's ODA Policy [1/7]

#### 1 Recipient-turned-Donor Country

ODA, million (US\$)



### III. Korea's ODA Policy [2/7]

#### 2 Korea's Unique Stance and Strengths in Development Cooperation

✓ *Development experience : We know hunger and poverty*



### III. Korea's ODA Policy [3/7]

#### 3 Year of 2010, A Turning Point

- **Joined OECD/DAC as a Member in Jan. 2010**
- **Established an overarching legal basis**
  - Framework Act on Int'l Development Cooperation (enacted in Jan. 2010)
- **Formed a comprehensive policy framework**
  - Strategic Plan for Int'l Development Cooperation (adopted in Oct. 2010)
  - 2011-15 Mid-term Policy (adopted in Dec. 2010)

➡ *Made a clear commitment to more effective and partner-oriented aid program*

## Presentation I

## III. Korea's ODA Policy [4/7]

## 4-1 Korea's Aid at Glance

➤ **How much? Total \$1.4 billion in 2011 (estimated)**

- Total \$ 0.8 billion, 0.1% of GNI in 2009
- Total \$ 1.2 billion, 0.12% of GNI in 2010
- Total \$ 1.4 billion, 0.13-14% of GNI in 2011

➤ **Who? Over 30 government organizations**

- MOFAT (KOICA), MOSF (EDCF) : 90%

➤ **To Whom? Asia and African partners (over 70%)**➤ **Which Sector? Economic and social infrastructure**➤ **How? A Mix of aid delivery instrument**

- Grants (technical cooperation, projects, World Friends Korea etc.)
- Soft Loans

## III. Korea's ODA Policy [5/7]

## 4-2 Korea's Aid at Glance : Statistics(09-10)

## KOREA

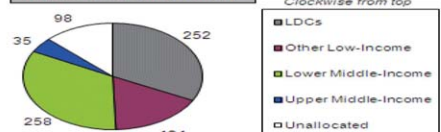
| Net ODA               | 2009  | 2010  | Change 2009/10 |
|-----------------------|-------|-------|----------------|
| Current (USD m)       | 816   | 1 174 | 43.8%          |
| Constant (2009 USD m) | 816   | 1 031 | 26.4%          |
| In Won (billion)      | 1 040 | 1 356 | 30.5%          |
| ODA/GNI               | 0.10% | 0.12% |                |
| Bilateral share       | 71%   | 77%   |                |

| Top Ten Recipients of Gross ODA (USD million) |    |
|-----------------------------------------------|----|
| 1 Vietnam                                     | 82 |
| 2 Afghanistan                                 | 59 |
| 3 Mongolia                                    | 36 |
| 4 Bangladesh                                  | 36 |
| 5 Sri Lanka                                   | 34 |
| 6 Indonesia                                   | 30 |
| 7 Cambodia                                    | 27 |
| 8 Philippines                                 | 27 |
| 9 Laos                                        | 26 |
| 10 Angola                                     | 24 |

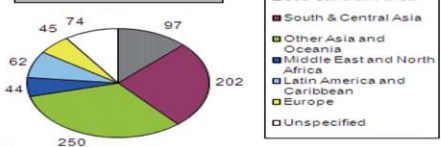
| Memo: Share of gross bilateral ODA |     |
|------------------------------------|-----|
| Top 5 recipients                   | 32% |
| Top 10 recipients                  | 49% |
| Top 20 recipients                  | 68% |

Gross Bilateral ODA, 2009-10 average, unless otherwise shown

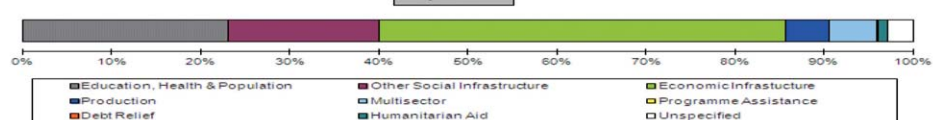
By Income Group (USD m)



By Region (USD m)



By Sector



Source: OECD - DAC ; www.oecd.org/dac/stats

### III. Korea's ODA Policy [6/7]

#### 5 Korea's Aid at Glance : Statistics(09-10)

**Committee of International Development Cooperation**  
(chair : Prime Minister)

Prime Minister's Office



#### ➤ Legal and Institutional Basis

- Framework Act on Int'l Development Cooperation(effective since July 2010)
- Strategic Plan and Midterm Policy (2010-2015)

### III. Korea's ODA Policy [7/7]

#### 6 Key Policy Objectives

✓ **two main concerns**  
**the volume of ODA & the quality of ODA**



## Presentation I

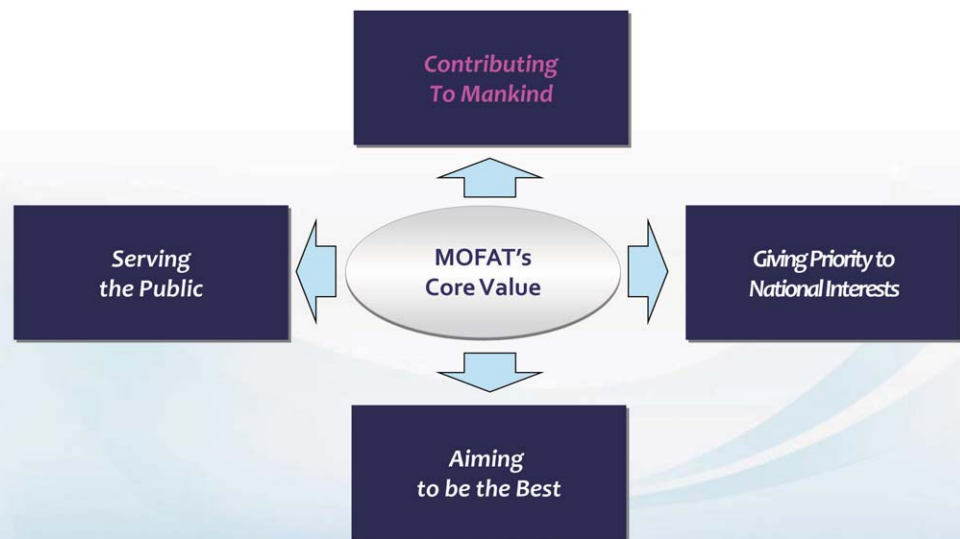
### IV

## Korea's Foreign Policy and ODA

### IV. Korea's Foreign Policy and ODA [1/8]

#### 1

#### Core Values of Korea's Foreign Policy



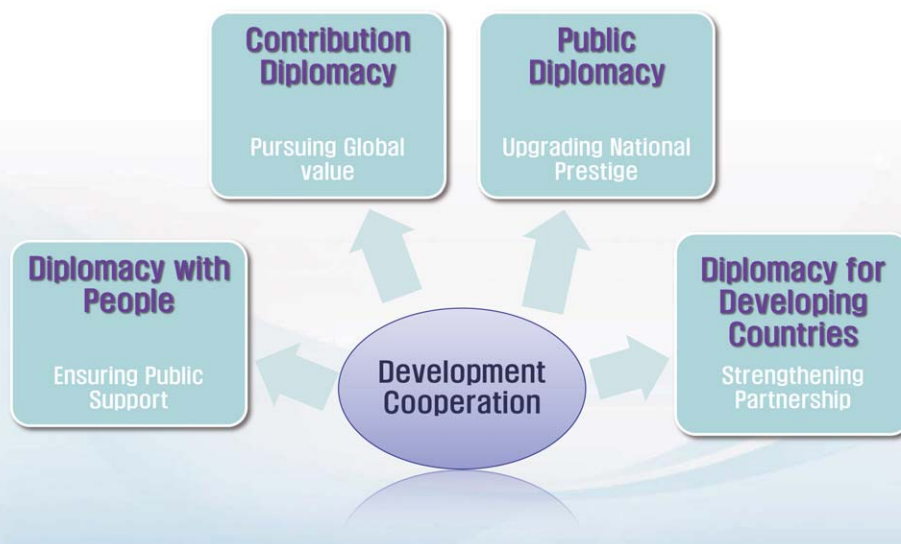
## IV. Korea's Foreign Policy and ODA [2/8]

### 2 ODA represents core value of Korea's Foreign Policy



## IV. Korea's Foreign Policy and ODA [3/8]

### 3 Diplomacy for Development Cooperation



## Presentation I

## IV. Korea's Foreign Policy and ODA [4/8]

## 4 Major Strategy to Consolidate ODA in Foreign Policy Framework

## [Domestic]

Playing a leading role in ODA policy making and coordination within government

## [Field]

Embassies, serving as a hub and unified channel of Korea's ODA to ensure quality on the ground

## [Int'l Community]

Working together : expanding its partnership with various actors

Integrating ODA more firmly into Korea's foreign policy agenda and its framework

## IV. Korea's Foreign Policy and ODA [5/8]

## 4-1 Major Strategy to Consolidate ODA in Foreign Policy Framework

## Strategy 1

## DOMESTIC

Playing a leading role in ODA policy making and coordination within government

- Policy Coherence for development
- Medium and long term ODA Strategy, and Annual Plan
- Country Partnership Strategy
- Linkage between grants and concessional loans
- Untied aid, transparency, predictability

To provide a more unified & strategic policy platform across government

## IV. Korea's Foreign Policy and ODA [6/8]

### 4-2 Major Strategy to Consolidate ODA in Foreign Policy Framework

#### Strategy 2

##### FIELD

Embassies,  
serving as a  
hub and  
unified channel  
of Korea's ODA  
to ensure  
quality on the  
ground

- Consultation with local gov't
- Cooperation with other aid agencies in local
- Operation of ODA council chaired by Ambassador
- Coordination ODA implementation by various Korean agencies

To ensure  
effectiveness &  
accountability  
of ROK's ODA  
on the ground

## IV. Korea's Foreign Policy and ODA [7/8]

### 4-3 Major Strategy to Consolidate ODA in Foreign Policy Framework

#### Strategy 3

##### INT'L COMMUNITY

Working  
together :  
Expanding  
its  
partnership  
with various  
aid actors

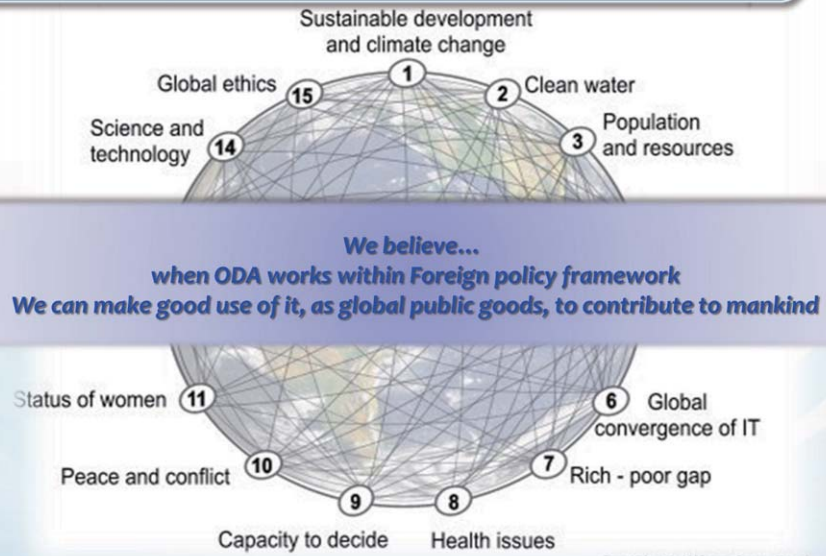
- Participation of building Aid Architecture and global development governance
- Aid harmonization among donor countries
- Cooperation with UN and MDB development agencies

To play a  
proactive role,  
**contributing  
to building  
global  
development  
partnership**

## Presentation I

### IV. Korea's Foreign Policy and ODA [8/8]

#### 5 Contribution to Mankind with more consolidated Foreign Policy



Thank you

# China's Foreign Aid: Historical Evolution, Architecture and Challenges

## Presentation II

Li Xiaoyun<sup>1)</sup>  
Wang Yihuan<sup>2)</sup>  
Wu Jin<sup>3)</sup>

### I. Introduction

China's foreign aid program has gained a great deal of international attention over recent years along with an increasing role China has played in the global economy. In fact, China almost started its foreign aid to other developing countries at the same time with the West. In 1950, China began to provide aid in kind to Vietnam and North Korea. In 1956, China began to provide aid to Africa. During the 1950s, China's aid to other countries had aimed to help newly independent countries to build their economy despite the fact that the aid had been loaded with the core task of ideological-exportation. In this context, it should be noted that, although while the international aid led by the West, has promoted 'was under the agenda of promoting the modernization,' model, it has also been bounded with strong ideological conditions against communist expansion. In 1964, China formally developed its foreign aid policy with eight principles characterized in equal and mutual benefit and non-conditionality (China's Foreign Aid White Paper, 2011). In 1971, after China entered into the UN, China's foreign aid began to be expanded to a large number of developing countries in the developing world, including non-socialist countries, in order to gain wide

international support. After the 1980s, China started to receive foreign aid from the West and at the same time adjusted its own policy on overseas aid by strengthening the aid to least developed countries, changing the aid scale and structure and introducing business management models to existing aid projects in order to sustain the aid program. During the 1990s, China continued to reform its foreign aid policy. In 1993, China set up a foreign aid cooperation fund by using the interest-free loans and non-interest load paid back and began to use the China Export and Import Bank to provide middle and long term concessional loans. Since year 2000, China has increased significantly its foreign aid volume. Average increase rate reached to 29.4% annually from between 2004 and 2009 (China's Foreign Aid White Paper, 2011). China has subsequently expanded the modalities of its aid program from merely bilateral to mixed bilateral and multilateral cooperation models. This paper highlights the historical evolution of China's foreign aid in the second section and introduces China's foreign aid architecture in the third section, and finally articulates challenges that China faces in improving its aid effectiveness.

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## Presentation II

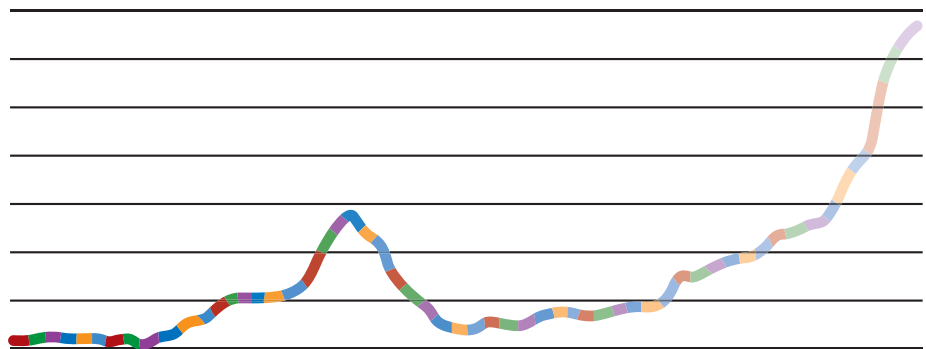
## II. Historical Evolution of China's Foreign Aid Policy

China's foreign aid program has been gradually developed through different stages over time in both the domestic and international context. According to different criteria, some researchers have divided the historical evolvement of China's foreign aid into three periods (Zhang Haibing, 2007; Xiao Zongzhi, Zhang Derong 2002), simply based on the changes in modality of aid. For instance, from 1950-1978, the main form of aid was grants and non-interest loans, from 1979-1994, the main form of the aid was complete projects and technical assistance while from 1995, aid was gradually shifted to subsidized loans and joint ventures. Other researchers further

proposed the history of China's aid into five phases (Zhang Yuhui, 2006) based on the scope and volume change of the aid program. In fact, China's foreign policy has been largely subject to China's entire development agenda with different visions. The changes of the modality, scope and volume are result of political and economic contingency as well as due to the changing development agenda. Therefore, this paper intends to divide China's foreign aid into the following three phases based on the change of China's domestic and international development agenda.

**Initial stage of China's foreign aid (1950-1978):** China was dominated by the planned economy and "left-wing" development paradigm during this stage.

〈Figure 1〉 Variations on the scope of China's foreign aid (100 million RMB)



Data resource: data on the period of 1950–1992 is cited from the PHD research by Fu Daopeng, "The Research on the Official Development Aid", p.80; Data on the period of 1993–2009 is cited from the China's Financial Annals.

〈Table 1〉 China's Foreign Aid in 1950–2009 (100 million RMB)

| Phase | Year      | Total Amount on Foreign Aid | Financial Expenditure | FA's Percentage in FE | Total GNP  | FA's Percentage in GNP |
|-------|-----------|-----------------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|------------|------------------------|
| I     | 1950–1978 | 483.04                      | 14307.06              | 3.38                  | 48463.72   | 1.00                   |
| II    | 1979–2000 | 440.13                      | 104290.39             | 0.42                  | 723828.92  | 0.06                   |
| III   | 2001–2009 | 737.22                      | 723828.92             | 0.21                  | 1852713.04 | 0.04                   |

Data Resource: same to Figure 1.

The initial stage of China's foreign aid program was from 1950 to the end of 1970s, which is characterized as a political and social gift to expand the socialist ideology, focusing on political and social reciprocity. The founding of the new China marked the success on the fight against imperialism and feudalism in China. China has since then gotten rid of the features of semi-colonialism and semi-feudalism society. During this period, the land reform in China also gained its success, private ownership was eliminated, women were emancipated from the previous lower social status, and therefore a series of social reform have made a good demonstration to those former colonies on decolonization. Meanwhile, the revolution in Latin America and the left-wing movement in Europe all reinforced the international atmosphere to apotheosize the deed of China. China's foreign aid on the one hand served the purpose to gain the international support so as to solidify its own independence, and also engaged in the ideological exportation of China's experience on the construction of socialism construction, and to practice the obligation of proletariat internationalism, expand the communist camp and soon afterwards compete with the then-Soviet Union for international support. On the other hand, China's foreign aid also aimed to help those countries to develop their economy to strengthen their political independence.

As Figure 1 and Table 1 indicate, from 1950 to 1978, China's foreign aid kept rising both in terms of the total amount and its proportion in GNP and the financial expenditure in the corresponding period.

Aid expenditure to total financial expenditure reached from 0.63 percent in 1950-1952 to 1.53 percent in 1978, percentage and share to GNP increased from 0.36 percent to 0.66 percent respectively during the time period. The total amount of foreign aid increased to 229 million RMB in 1950-1952 to 5.584 billion RMB in 1973 and further to 1.721 billion RMB in 1978 (China Statistics Year Book 2009). In the 1960s and the most of the 1970s, China spent its highest level of the budget to support African and Asian countries, to achieve independence and build their economies. Foreign aid to GNP remained over 1 percent from 1964 to 1976. Box 1 shows some of the projects China supported during this time period.

#### Box 1.

In November 1956, the Chinese government gave a financial grant with an amount of 20 million Swiss Francs in cash to the Egyptian government to support their fight on the right over of the Suez Canal. In 1960, the Chinese government agreed to assist Guinea to build a match plant and a cigarette plant, which was the first development project from China in the SSA area. In the latter part of 1961 until early 1962, China sent seven agricultural specialists to Mali to help their experiments on sugarcane and tea, which was also successful. In August 1965, China sent an investigation team to Africa to assess the feasibility of building the Tanzania-Zambia railway which was completed in the 1970s; in the late 1960s, China successively sent medical teams to Tanzania, Somali, Congo, Mali and Guinea etc.

## Presentation II

Until the early 1970s, the recipient of China's foreign aid came up to 32 countries, which expanded from Asia, East Europe and Africa to Latin America. Furthermore the type of aid changed from mainly in kind and in cash aid to the lending of whole set equipment assistance and technical assistance. During this period, China helped 20 countries to build up 313 whole set projects. Particularly in the early 1970s in the Vietnam War, China provided more than 9 billion RMB aid to the Communist Party of Vietnam from 1970 to 1973 (Fu Daopeng, 2003). This made the total amount of China's foreign aid go up to 5.584 billion in 1973 and renewed the record on the annual scale of China's foreign aid since the founding of new China. The decline of the aid volume after 1973 was mainly due to China's domestic economic troubles and did not reflect major policy changes.

Until the 1970s, China had not really formed its own aid industry, if strictly following the definition set in the West, nor had it established its own concept and framework to provide the kind of modern aid with the objective to assist the recipient countries to reform its own social and economic institutions. We should acknowledge that although China's foreign aid had in itself the characteristic of ideological exportation ever since the very beginning, and with the overt prerequisite of "oppose imperialism and colonialism", yet it did not set any clear conditions with its aid, nor did it have any demands on the economic gains. Therefore, its aid had not caused serious conflicts economically or politically in the recipient countries but

helped to gain great international political capital and good reputations. Furthermore even in 1989, when the relationship between China and the West was somehow disturbed, China's foreign aid to Africa was not weakened (Weiqun Wei, 1995). This provided very good social psychological foundations in the Sino-African relation. Based on such a good historical record, the African people today also tend to take China's experience in development in a very positive manner, which is obviously a good foundation for mutual sharing and learning.

### **Adjustment stage of China's foreign aid (1978-2000):**

From 1978, China began its domestic reforms and its economic structure greatly reduced its ideological persuasions in the international arena. China thus began to adjust its foreign aid policy towards better serving its domestic economic development. Both the total amount of the foreign aid, its proportions in GNP and the financial expenditures were lower than previous years and also fluctuated yearly due to uncertain foreign aid policies and domestic economic situations. The decline of the aid volume from 1978 to 1984 was mainly due to the policy that concentrated on domestic economic reforms, while the decline of the aid volume after 1978 was mainly due to a clear policy to focus on domestic economic reforms; while regaining the increase of foreign aid after 1994 represented the commencement of the new foreign aid policies towards sustainability and mutual benefits. Three major changes were made to implement the policies. Chinese business

companies and partner countries business groups were encouraged to take over China's foreign aid projects as joint venture businesses. Secondly, a special fund using returned loans was set up to support the joint venture in 1993; thirdly a middle and long term Quasi-ODA loan program was launched by China Import and Export Bank in 1995. During this period, China developed a clear foreign aid policy focusing more on economic reciprocity and using a practical management model with less political persuasion. The introduction of the business management model marked a major reform of China's foreign aid policy. The Mali Sugar Factory project is a typical example (Box 2).

#### Box 2. Mali Sugar Cooperation Limited

In 1964, China helped Mali to develop its sugar factory and sugar cane farm located in the Segou region of Mali. China granted all equipment, financed infrastructure development for the factory and farm and provided technical support. Once the factory was running it was managed by the Malians. Both the factory and the farm almost went bankrupt by 1980. In 1981, both China and Mali agreed to joint management of the factory and farm. From 1996, both governments agreed to form a joint venture. China Light Industry Cooperation shared 60 percent and the Mali government shared 40 percent. This transformation made the factory the largest agro-business cooperation in Mali, and third largest tax payer in the country. The company contributed to 1/50 of the total government revenue. The company employed more than 200 fulltime workers and 1000 seasonal workers.

#### New stage of China's foreign aid (since 2000) toward multiple development goals:

After entering the new century, China's foreign aid volume rapidly increased. The total amount of foreign aid was regained to 4.588 billion RMB, close to the highest level in 1974 and continued to 13.296 billion RMB in 2009, with annual average increase of 29.4 percent, despite the lower level of the share to total fiscal expenditure and GNP. This rapid increase of foreign aid was largely due to the clearly adjusted aid policy during the 1980s and 1990s, as well as due to the rise of China in the global system. Firstly, the rapid economic growth in China has made an increasing practical demand on raw materials and the associated enhanced attention on economic benefits. Under the trend of globalization, the amount of international trade increased which also requested that China's foreign aid can also play a positive role to assist China's "opening up"; Secondly, on the political aspect, China needed to gain support from developing countries, particularly from African countries, leveraging fear from developed nations regarding China's increasing power in the global system. The role of African countries was of particular significance to China, in terms of gaining votes in international organizations, which usually follow the "one country, one vote" procedure (Scarlett Cornelissen, 2000). Thirdly along with the increase of China's national strength, China should also bear the obligations of foreign aid as a "big country", fulfilling expectations set by the international community. Lastly, China has

## Presentation II

made remarkable achievements in its opening reform and economic adjustment. Developing countries have shown extensive interest in China's experiences through technical assistance of China's foreign aid. Therefore, China's foreign aid program has been much expanded into multiple modalities and to a wider scope of areas. China participated in all major high-level international and regional consultations on international development cooperation such as the UN High-Level Meeting on Financing for Development, UN High-Level Meeting on the Millennium Development Goals, Forum on China-Africa Cooperation, Shanghai Cooperation Organization, China-ASEAN Leaders Meeting, China-Caribbean Economic & Trade Cooperation Forum, China-Pacific Island Countries Economic Development & Cooperation Forum, and the Forum on Economic and Trade Cooperation between China and Portuguese-Speaking Countries. Its foreign aid program has expanded to the fields of agriculture, infrastructure, education, health care, human resources, and clean energy. Technical assistance through China-FAO Trust Fund is a typical example of China's new form of foreign aid program as illustrated in Box 3. In August 2010, the Chinese government held the National Conference on Foreign Aid to summarize its experience of foreign aid work, and defined the major tasks for strengthening and improving foreign aid in new circumstances. China's foreign aid thus entered a new stage (China Foreign Aid White Paper 2011).

### Box 3. China's new form of technical assistance program

On March 26, 2007, China-Sierra Leone "South-South Cooperation," as part of FAO's "Special Program for Food Security" was officially launched. China sent 18 agricultural experts and technicians to Sierra Leone's four project districts, i.e. MOYAMBA, MAKALI, KABALA, and KONO, for technical assistance work. Chinese experts and technicians overcame many difficulties and launched a series of productive activities during the two years in Sierra Leone.

First, China engaged in agricultural technical guidance at the grass-root level. Chinese experts and technicians conducted in-depth on site research to learn about the local agricultural resources, climate, soil, the current agricultural production, and thereby informed local farmers about agricultural production in rural areas. This was conducted more than 800 times and 58 practical skills were taught.

Second, the Project demonstrated methods of financing and actively demonstrated China's agricultural production technology. For the two years, to fully demonstrate and teach advanced agricultural production technologies of China, Chinese experts and technicians raised 198 million Leone through various channels and built 32 small-scale agriculture demonstration sites in all work stations. Furthermore, Chinese experts shared 20-odd practical agricultural production technologies including knowledge on rice cultivation, fish breeding, vegetable production, use and maintenance of farm machinery, small-scale livestock farming, beekeeping, agriculture plant protection, etc.

Third, the Project provided extensive agriculture technical training based on local conditions.

Chinese experts and technicians conducted 57 pertinent technical guides, taught 38 practical skills, and trained 1200 people.

Fourth, China demonstrated a full model effect in development of local agricultural resources. Agricultural experts and technicians in the MOYAMBA area constructed 10 acres of fertile farmland and 2.5 acres of intensive fishing pond, which was originally a swamp (FALABA). Moreover, China's hybrid rice of 431kg per mu was produced, which was 308% higher than the local rice yield. Furthermore, 500,000 high quality tilapia seeds was harvested every year in the fish pond.

Fifth, the Project also focused on promoting the recipient's technological innovation level. MAKALI project area shouldered the GX-9 new rice variety breeding project covering 30 acres, and reaped 12,000kg of rice seeds; the KONO project area demonstrated planting 1 acre watermelons and produced 8200 kilograms of watermelons; KABALA undertook GX-9 rice new variety breeding and spreading, beekeeping technological transformation, production demonstration and hay storage technology demonstration projects, which were highly appreciated by the government and FAO.

Source: Ministry of Agriculture, China

managed by the National Planning Commission. After the Bandung Conference (1955), China started to give aid to Africa and significantly increased the number of the countries it supported, thus the National Planning Commission was not able to manage the workload. In 1956, the Chinese government set up the Administration of Foreign Economic Cooperation to be in charge of the foreign aid affairs. In 1964, the Foreign Economic Commission was established, which was developed into the Ministry of Foreign Economy. In 1982, under the organizational restructuring program, the Ministry of Foreign Economy, Ministry of Foreign Trade and Import and Export Management Committee merged into the Ministry of Foreign Trade and Economic Cooperation (MOFTEC), under which it set up the Foreign Aid Department and the Executive Bureau of China's Foreign Aid (China Whole Set Equipment Export Company), to implement China's foreign aid program. After the establishment of the Ministry of Commerce (MOFCOM), the International Economic Cooperation Affairs Bureau was created to assist in the management of China's foreign aid. Since then, foreign aid in China has been managed by the Foreign Aid Department and implemented by the International Economic Cooperation Affairs Bureau in the Ministry of Commerce.

China's foreign aid policy and decision-making is in the hands of the central government. The State Council oversights the coordination mechanism among the Ministry of Commerce, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Ministry of Finance and other ministries which implement special sector

### III. China's Aid Architecture and Modalities

#### China's Aid Architecture

China's foreign aid architecture has also gone through numerous changes over the last 60 years. During the 1950s, like all other economic activities, foreign aid was

## Presentation II

programs. The Ministry of Commerce works on behalf the State Council, and proposes foreign aid policies, regulations, overall plans and annual plans, as well as reviewing aid projects and managing project implementation through the Foreign Aid Department, the International Economic Cooperation Affairs Bureau, China International Center for Economic and Technical Cooperation, Training College of MOFCOM and China Import and Export Bank. The Foreign Aid Department is responsible for the foreign aid policies, planning and programming. The International Economic Cooperation Affairs Bureau is responsible for whole set projects and technical cooperation. China International Center for Economic and Technical Cooperation is responsible for material procurements. The Training College of MOFCOM is responsible for training and the China Import and Export Bank is responsible for concessional loan programs.

### China's Aid Modalities

China's foreign aid is operated through bilateral and multilateral channels. Its bilateral aid programs are developed by the request of recipient countries, while multilateral programs are mainly contribute to multilateral institutions such as UN organizations. China's foreign aid is provided in three main forms, which differs China's foreign aid with Western aid. The first kind is where the complete program is financed by grant and favorable loans. The International Economic Cooperation Affairs Bureau manages domestic open bids and

the contracted companies are responsible for the complete process of the project. This component takes up 40% of China's foreign aid budget (China's Foreign Aid White Paper 2011). The second method of China's foreign aid program involves providing equipments and materials. This includes the provision of machinery, medical equipments, means of transportation, inventories, food and medical products. The third form of China's foreign aid is the technical assistance program, which includes provision of experts in the areas of industrial development, agriculture, education, sports, medical services, water and sanitation etc. Furthermore, human resource development, overseas medical teams, human and natural disaster relief, overseas volunteers and debt relief are also components of China's foreign aid programs.

### IV. Lessons and Challenges of China's Foreign Aid

Over the last 60 years, China's foreign aid has expanded from a small number of countries in the 1950s to almost 161 countries. Meanwhile, China also provided support to more than 30 international and regional organizations. Its aid projects cover a wide variety of issues, including agriculture, industry, infrastructure, public facilities, education and medical services. Although China rejects the donor-recipient model, it indeed plays a significant role in international development cooperation. Firstly, China's foreign aid concentrates on the poor and low income countries. Its aid distribution to those countries covers two

thirds of China's total aid allocation and 80 percent of the aid goes to Africa and Asia. Secondly, its aid program largely concentrates on areas which associate with economic development and livelihood of the recipient countries. Lastly, China also actively works with the international development community to cope with global challenges such as poverty and climate change.

Given its long time engagement with other developing countries, China's foreign aid has also gained a great deal of experiences and lessons. Firstly, its aid program insists equal partnership. Support is provided only when there is demand from recipient countries. Secondly, its aid program strongly focuses on development effectiveness. Most of its aid programs are linked with growth perspectives, for instance, large numbers of economic infrastructure development. Thirdly, its unconditional aid principle provides a non-interference environment for other developing countries to develop the home made development agenda. Table 2 shows the overall positive reaction of recipient countries who receive China's foreign aid.

Despite its unique characteristics, China's foreign aid also faces many challenges. In

the past 60 years, China's foreign aid, especially the aid to Africa has accumulated rich experience that demonstrates a possible alternative or at least complementary to the current international aid architecture. Its growth and development oriented aid strategy, low cost management scheme and transferring its development experiences are well captured by international development community. However, China's foreign aid is still confined by many aspects.

Firstly, China's no-interference foreign aid policy confronts with the good governance centered Western aid policy. It affects China's bilateral relations with its major economic and trade partners. There appears to be a need for China as well as the west donors to develop an inclusive framework to enable China and other Western donors to cooperate in a harmonious manner.

Secondly, China's foreign aid is managed by the Foreign Aid Department and other agencies. With an increasing workload and limited as well as fragmented organizational structure, its efficiency and effectiveness are significantly constrained by insufficient capacity. The Ministry of Commerce is in charge of the aid program and its

(Table 1) Evaluation of the Effectiveness of China's Aid

| Effectiveness                        | 5-most useful |       | Total Amount on Foreign Aid |       |      |         |
|--------------------------------------|---------------|-------|-----------------------------|-------|------|---------|
|                                      | 5             | 4     | 3                           | 2     | 1    | Average |
| Infrastructure construction          | 39.6%         | 45.9% | 17.6%                       | 11.3% | 0    | 4.6     |
| Agriculture development aid projects | 29.1%         | 35.4% | 19.8%                       | 14.8% | 0.8% | 3.8     |
| Private investments                  | 32.7%         | 23.3% | 24.5%                       | 18.6% | 0.9% | 3.7     |
| Capacity building                    | 32.8%         | 16.5% | 27.4%                       | 15.0% | 8.4% | 3.5     |
| Health and medical services          | 18.5%         | 31.5% | 27.5%                       | 21.7% | 0.8% | 3.5     |

Note: The data is collected from 85 quick appraisal questionnaires. The evaluated are people from Nigeria, Tanzania and some other African countries; some are development officials.

## Presentation II

Economic and Commercial Counselor's Offices stationed abroad are not capable of handling the aid projects efficiently. In addition, there lacks an effective evaluation system to have a clear understanding on how these assistance projects perform, and there is even no evaluation institution to undertake integrated monitoring and evaluations, which directly recede the combined social economic impact of the assistance itself. Furthermore, owing to historical reasons, China's foreign aid is still in a state of mistiness with poor transparency, which easily makes the international community suspicious of China's foreign aid programs, and even makes it hard to get support and understanding by the domestic public. Since there lacks the availability of timely information, the international community and local people in Africa might have little information of China's foreign aid projects, which would easily provoke international public opinion of the China Threat. Moreover, no systematic study on China's foreign aid has been conducted. The identification of assistance projects and the determination of project contents at present are generally based on the demand of recipient countries. The assistance projects to some extent meet the aspiration of recipient countries, especially to that of government officials, who make the project selection of China's aid passive and temporary in nature, unfavorable for the standardization and sustainable development of China's foreign aid programs.

Thirdly, both the non-reimbursable assistance and economic and technical

cooperation are faced with the issue of effective integration with poverty reduction targets in African countries.

As for the non-reimbursable assistance, there needs to strong effort making sure that the poor benefit from the aid programs; furthermore joint venture cooperation projects could take the role of pro-poor industries for economic growth. These are new problems faced by China's aid to Africa. China in this aspect has rich experience; however, it needs further explore how to apply these experiences into China's aid to Africa. Obviously, the simple principle of setting projects based on the demand of recipient countries cannot reach the goal.

Fourthly, China's aid mainly focuses on equipment and infrastructure construction, of which the West has long-term experience and lessons in. The biggest problem in the assistance of equipment and infrastructure construction is the maintenance and operation mechanism. Therefore, criticisms to China by the West have some rationality. China's aid to Africa should pay attention to this issue.

Lastly, China is faced with environmental concerns as economic assistance and joint venture cooperation increases, of which China has tremendous experience in, during its development of the past three decades. China should avoid negative impact on the environment which might be caused by its large-scale investment and assistance in Africa. Rigid environmental assessment should be embarked for China's various aid to Africa.

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Presentation III

## “Japanese ODA Policies for Climate Change”

June 2 ,2012  
Jeju Korea

**Takehiro Kano**  
**Director for Climate Change Division,**  
**International Cooperation Bureau**  
**Ministry of Foreign Affairs, JAPAN**

1

### Introduction

Japan's ODA and its contributions to Global Public Goods  
-personal experiences-

#### **Global/Regional financial stability**

- Support countries affected by Asian financial crisis in 1990s.
- Support countries affected by global financial crisis in 2008.

#### **Peace and stability (eg. fighting against terrorism)**

- Iraq
- Afghanistan
- Pakistan

#### **Global development agenda**

- UN Millenium Development Goals: eg. global health, education
- Africa: TICAD IV in 2008
- G8 process: Okinawa in 2000, Hokkaido-Toyako in 2008

#### Global environment agenda

**-Climate Change**

2

## Japan's ODA in climate change: Brief history

### Purposes

**Help advance climate change negotiations**

**Support developing countries in both mitigation and adaptation**

|      |                                                                                                                     |                           |
|------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------|
| 1997 | "Kyoto Initiative"<br>Human resource development<br>Concessional loans<br>Diffusion of technologies                 | COP3 (Kyoto Protocol)     |
| 2007 |                                                                                                                     | COP7 (Bali Action Plan)   |
| 2008 | "Cool Earth Partnership(CEP)"<br>US\$ 10 billion pledge 2008-2012                                                   |                           |
| 2009 | "Hatoyama Initiative"<br>Revise CEP and US\$15 billion pledge 2010-2012<br>Consists of Japan's Fast Start Financing | COP15 (Copenhagen Accord) |
|      |                                                                                                                     | COP16 (Cancun Agreements) |
| 2011 | "Japan's vision and actions toward<br>low carbon growth and climate resilient world"                                | COP17 (Durban Agreements) |

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## Japan's Vision and Actions toward Low-Carbon Growth and Climate-Resilient World (November 29<sup>th</sup>, 2011)

URL:[http://www.mofa.go.jp/policy/environment/warm/cop/lowcarbongrowth\\_vision\\_1111.html](http://www.mofa.go.jp/policy/environment/warm/cop/lowcarbongrowth_vision_1111.html)

In order to effectively address the issue of climate change, it is necessary for both developed and developing countries to achieve low-carbon growth all over the world by fully mobilizing technology, markets and finance through public-private cooperation, in addition to establishing an international framework to fight against climate change.

### 1. Cooperation among developed countries: efforts on technological innovation towards further emissions reductions

- Developing innovative low-carbon technologies such as cost and efficiency improvements in the field of solar cells
- Making use of the existing international frameworks such as "International Energy Agency (IEA)" as well as the "International Partnership for Energy Efficiency Cooperation (IPEEC)" and the "International Renewable Energy Agency (IRENA)".
- Establishing system of observation system by earth environment observation satellites such as "Ibuki"

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## Presentation III

## 2. Cooperation with developing countries: dissemination and promotion of technologies and the establishment of a new market mechanism

- Sharing Japan's technologies and experiences or promoting policy dialogue and cooperation toward establishing a low-carbon growth model
  - Japan-China-ROK Trilateral Summit Meeting
  - regional cooperation with the Mekong countries
  - bilateral cooperation with Indonesia
  - cooperation with the "Global Growth Green Institute" established in Korea
  - "East Asia Low-Carbon Growth Partnership" under the framework of the East Asia Summit (EAS)
- Cooperating for low-carbon growth in the field of science, such as the establishment of the networks among research institutions in East Asia
- Further improving the Clean Development Mechanism (CDM) and cooperating for the design and implementation of the Bilateral Offset Credit Mechanism

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## 3. Support for developing countries: special consideration for vulnerable countries

### (1) Japan's Commitment

- Implementing steadily Fast-Start Finance up to 2012
- Continuing to implement seamlessly our support beyond 2012, together with the international community, especially as regards vulnerable countries
  - contributing to the discussion on the design of the Green Climate Fund

### (2) Priority for Japan's assistance

- Sufficient consideration for adaptation
  - supporting adaptation in important fields for developing countries such as disaster prevention, water and food security
  - sharing information and knowledge regarding adaptation through the Asia-Pacific Climate Change Adaptation Forum (APAN)
- Reinforcement of public-private partnerships
  - promoting collaborative finance and cooperation with the private sector by utilizing resources such as JICA, JBIC, NEXI and NEDO
- Assistance for growth and policy dialogues with vulnerable countries
  - formulating a strategy regarding low-carbon growth in Africa under the framework of Tokyo International Conference on African Development (TICAD)
- Emphasis on capacity building

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## Japan's Fast-Start Finance for Developing Countries up to 2012

### Objective

**Assist developing countries, especially those making efforts to reduce emission and/or being particularly vulnerable to climate change.**

taking into account the developments in the negotiations and revival situations in internal economy

### Type of Assistance

**Official Development Assistance (ODA)**  
(Approx. **7.2 billion dollars**)

- Grant Aid, Technical Cooperation
- ODA Loan (Concessional loan)
- Contribution to Multilateral Funds

**Other Official Flow etc**

(Approx. **7.8 billion dollars**)

- Other Official Financing in collaboration with private sector  
eg. Japan Bank of International Cooperation (JBIC) financing

**TOTAL: 15 billion dollars**

**13.2 billion dollars**

of assistance already being implemented to date (As of 29 February, 2012 )

**Note 1: Public financing 10.1 billion + private financing 3.1 billion**

**Note 2: 783 projects have been implemented in as many as 107 countries at February in 2012.**

**Note 3: Based on the needs of vulnerable countries. The Grant Aid is allocated to Adaptation (37%), Mitigation/Adaptation (35%), Mitigation(other than REDD+) (19%), REDD+ (10%).**

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## Good practice of Japan's Fast-Start Financing

### Adaptation

#### Disaster Prevention

Strengthening capabilities to cope with natural disasters caused by climate change, by providing necessary equipment and capacity building.

- Program for the improvement of capabilities to cope with natural disasters in Africa (17 countries), LDCs (16 countries) and SIDS (1 country)
- The research on climate simulation in South Africa
- The plan of promoting meteorological observation and measures for natural disasters in Samoa



#### Water Supply

Improving the access to safe water and ensuring sufficient water supply, to cope with drought and desertification caused by climate change.

- Water Supply Project in Ethiopia, Kenya, Sudan, Pakistan and Zambia
- The project for groundwater desalinization in Tunisia
- Research and technical cooperation on Water Supply in a number of countries



### Mitigation

#### Construction of Electric Power Transmission Facilities

Introducing efficient electric transmission facilities, along with promoting renewable energy, in order to improve the energy-access and stabilize energy supply. The projects in Kenya, Tanzania and Zambia are being implemented to encourage mitigation.



#### Introduction of Renewable Energy

Promoting renewable energy, including solar and wind power with advanced technology, to contribute to reducing GHG emissions.

- Solar Energy Projects in Africa (8 countries), LDCs (8 countries) and SIDS (3 countries)
- Wind power plant Project in Egypt
- Geothermal power plant Project in Kenya



### REDD+

#### Forest Conservation

In order to contribute to encouraging REDD+ efforts and reducing GHG emissions in Africa (9 countries), LDCs (9 countries) and SIDS (3 countries), Japan provided technical support to analyze satellite images and financial support for monitoring systems and related equipment in the following actions; making forest distribution map, preventing excessive logging, taking countermeasures against forest fire and ensuring alternative energy to firewood.



### Mitigation/Adaptation

#### Contribution to GEF

Japan has made a contribution to the 5th replenishment of the Global Environment Facility (GEF), which is a multilateral financial mechanism to support developing countries' efforts to preserve and improve global environment.

#### Capacity Building

Enhancing the capacity of policy planning and operation in the area of adaptation and mitigation.

- Workshops and seminars to be organized
- Dispatching experts in developing countries and providing training programs in Japan

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## Presentation III

## East Asia Low Carbon Growth Partnership

The partnership aims to promote low-carbon growth in countries of East Asia Summit (EAS), through enhancing regional cooperation.

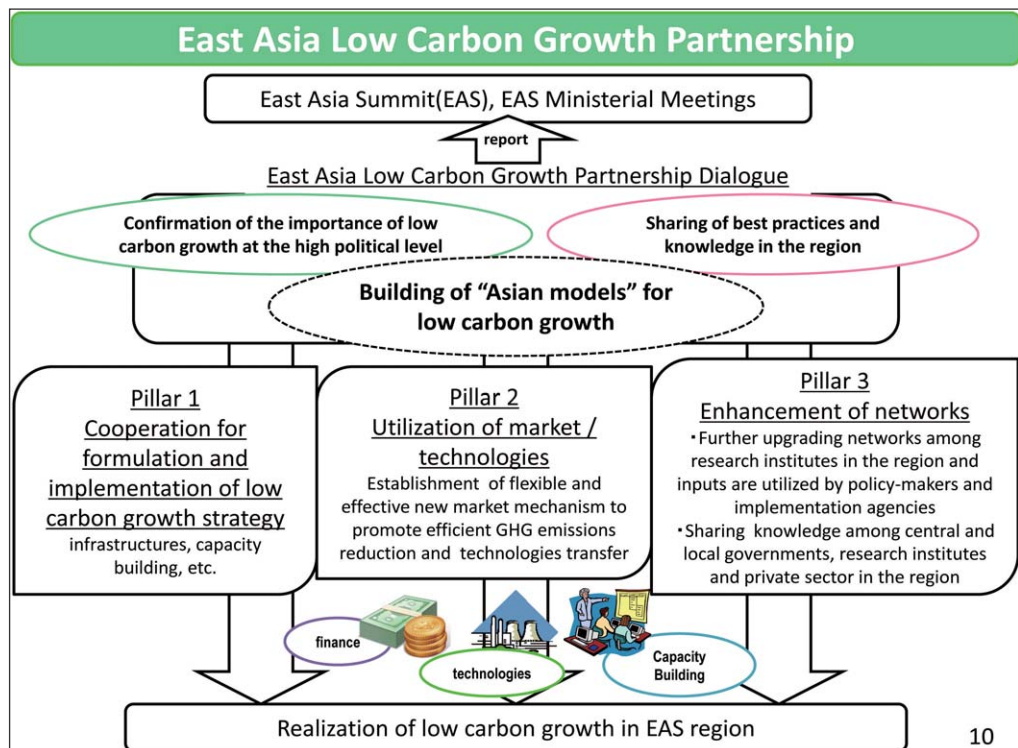
### East Asia Low Carbon Growth Partnership Dialogue

- (1) The Dialogue was held in Tokyo, Japan on April 15<sup>th</sup> 2012.
- (2) The Dialogue was co-chaired by ;
  - H.E. Mr. Koichiro Gemba, Minister for Foreign Affairs of Japan
  - H.E. Mr. Rachmat Witoelar, President's Special Envoy for Climate Change and Executive Chair of the National Council on Climate Change of the Republic of Indonesia
- (3) Representatives from 18 countries of the EAS and 9 observer organizations attended the Dialogue.



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## East Asia Low Carbon Growth Partnership



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## Japan's Initiative to achieve low carbon growth in East Asia

### I Cooperation for Formulation and Implementation of Low Carbon Growth Strategy

#### Overseas expansion of low carbon/environmental city

- Overseas expansion of Japan's low carbon/environmental city into emerging countries such as China, India and Mekong countries

#### Sharing of experiences/ capacity building

- Inviting young researchers in ASEAN, Australia, India, NZ, East Timor and Republic of Korea to share Japan's contribution and experience toward the establishment of the disaster resilient society

[Image: Visit to environment-related facilities]



### II Technology/Market

#### Efforts toward the establishment of new market mechanisms

- Acceleration of bilateral consultation with Indonesia and Mekong countries

#### Promoting efforts to make low carbon technologies widely available

- Supporting to the introduction of renewable energy and improvement of the power network in some regions including East Asia, using high technologies of Japanese companies (10 billion yen in 2012 fiscal year)
- Sharing Japanese advanced low-carbon technologies and systems by inviting the people from the East Asia countries and sending Japanese experts
- Model projects to diffuse low carbon technologies through the visualization of effects to reduce CO2

### III Networks

#### Networks among governments, private sectors and research institutions

- Enhancing relationship between research institutions, governments and development implementing agencies and strengthening the cooperation with local governments and private sectors, based on the exiting network among research institutions
- Developing "East Asia Low Carbon Growth Knowledge Platform" under the Framework of the EAS, to share various stakeholders' knowledge and experience

#### Promotion of the Asia-Pacific Adaptation Network (APAN)

- Promotion of the APAN to strengthen sharing information and knowledge in a wide range of stakeholder and contribute to the climate-resilient social development

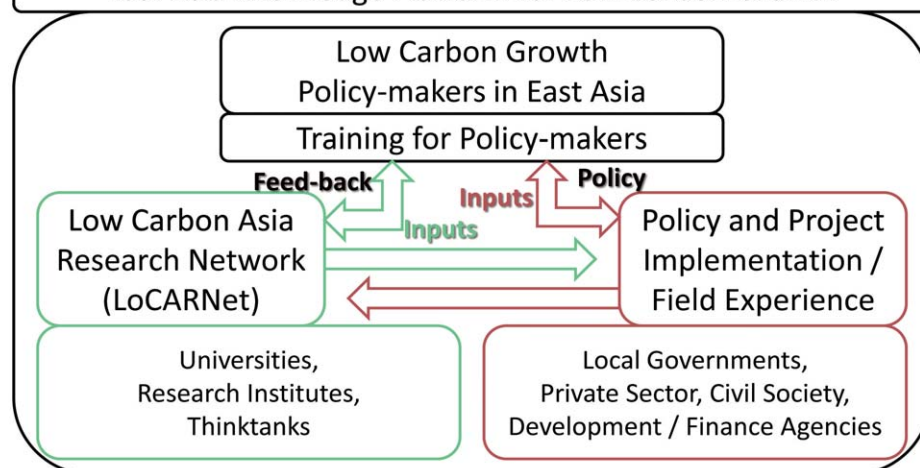
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## East Asia Knowledge Platform for Low Carbon Growth

East Asia Summit (EAS) and Ministerial Partnership Dialogues

↑ Intellectual Inputs ↑

East Asia Knowledge Platform for Low Carbon Growth



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## Presentation III

## [Reference] Japan's contribution – toward realization of low carbon growth in East Asia

Japan continues to make contributions, utilizing various schemes such as ODA loan, grant, technical cooperation, OOF and public finance toward realization of low carbon growth in East Asia.

**Disaster Prevention**

□ Strengthening developing countries' capabilities to address natural disasters such as flood, drought and typhoon caused by climate change

✓ **Projects for the Improvement of capabilities to cope with Natural Disasters** implemented in Cambodia, Laos, Philippine, Vietnam, Indonesia. Japan significantly contributed to the efforts for flood prevention in Mekong countries.

✓ **Infrastructure Rehabilitation projects for typhoon damage**

In the region severely damaged by typhoon in Philippines, Japan improved and reinforced infrastructure, such as the flood controlling institutions and the damaged roads and bridges. ✓ Moreover, Japan promoted the climate change measures by using the satellite in Vietnam and constructed drain to control the flood damage in Cambodia.



Source: JICA



Source: JICA

**Renewable Energy**

□ Promoting the introduction of renewable energy, including solar, geothermal and wind power

✓ **Solar Power generation projects** implemented in Cambodia, Laos and Philippines

✓ **Hydro electric power generation projects**

In Vietnam, Japan supported the project of constructing a hydro electric power plant using trade insurance with the cooperation between public and private sectors.

✓ Moreover, Japan contributed to the construction of geothermal power plants in Indonesia and cooperated with Indian Renewable Energy Development Agency (IREDA).

**REDD+ (Forest)**

□ Supporting the research on forest resource, forest management, forestation for the sustainable use and forest preservation

✓ **Forest Conservation projects** implemented in Cambodia, Laos, Vietnam, Thailand and Indonesia  
✓ Moreover, Japan implemented forest management project in Philippines and forestation projects in Vietnam, India and China.

**Energy saving**

□ Promoting technical cooperation as well as the introduction of energy saving facilities

□ Cooperation on the construction of a low carbon city in the urbanized countries

✓ **Technological cooperation related to energy saving**

In Vietnam, Indonesia, India, China and Singapore, Japan supported to introduce energy saving law/standard.

✓ **Super efficient thermal power generation**

In Indonesia, Japan supported the construction of coal thermal power plants, which uses Japan's clean coal technology.

✓ **Cooperation toward Low Carbon City**

In Thailand and India, Japan supported the introduction of metro. Also, Japan strengthened the cooperation on low carbon city, such as energy saving of commercial buildings in Thailand, smart grid in Vietnam and urban transportation in China.

✓ Moreover, Japan utilized the schemes including "Green" (global environmental preservation issue) of JBIC to promote energy saving and environmental cooperation.



Source: JICA

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## A strategy to support African countries under TICAD process — Towards Low-Carbon Growth and Climate Resilient Development

<Goal> Assist African countries to pursue low-carbon growth and climate resilience

<Principle> (1) Combination of adaptation and mitigation

(2) Enhancement of country ownership

(3) Enhancement of partnership between public and private sector

(4) Improvement of coordination among development partners for the future climate finance

➢ Sectoral issues

① Energy (renewable energy, energy access and efficiency), ② Agriculture (including food security),

③ Forest, ④ Disaster reduction, ⑤ Water supply (including sanitation), ⑥ Transportation

➢ Cross-sectoral issues

① promote Human resource development, knowledge sharing and policy dialogue

② promote utilization of a financial mechanism including bilateral offset credit mechanism, and utilization of green technologies

③ increasing private finance catalyzed by public finance and introducing a base of pyramid business,

④ information dissemination and advocacy

➢ The strategy was decided to prepare in May 2011, Tokyo International Conference on African Development (TICAD) Third Ministerial Follow-up Meeting in Dakar

➢ Promote utilization of this strategy as a guideline for African countries and development partners, enhanced utilization of private finance, to achieve low-carbon growth by utilization of Japanese green technologies

➢ Interim progress report was noted at the 4th TICAD Follow-up Ministerial Meeting in Morocco May 2012.

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**Thank you**

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**International Cooperation Bureau**  
**Ministry of Foreign Affairs, JAPAN**

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## 토론

## 6월 1일 토론

## [발표 I]

## 지정토론 : 카라사와 마사유키

본 컨퍼런스 개최를 위해 애쓰신 모든 분께 감사 드립니다. 먼저 정책일관성 주제에 대한 한국 정부의 관심 제고를 높게 평가하고 싶습니다. 최근에는 기후변화, 빈부격차, 노령화 등의 문제가 국제협력의 새로운 의제들로 등장하고 있습니다. 이러한 새로운 도전은 개도국뿐 아니라 선진국도 당면하고 있는 문제입니다. 개별국가, 기업, NGOs, 민간연구소 등 여러 행위자가 새로운 정책과 방법을 찾기 위한 노력을 강화하여야 할 것으로 보입니다. 강력한 구심점을 찾는 것과 플랫폼 개발이 중요한데 한국이 이미 이것의 필요성을 인식하고 있는 것으로 보입니다.

동북아시아 개발협력 네트워크는 중요하나, 지역마다 다른 이슈가 있음을 염두에 두어야 합니다. 즉 일본은 노령화, 기후변화가 중요한 이슈이고, 중국은 환경 문제, 빈부격차 등이 그렇습니다. 이러한 가운데 공동의 의제와 관심사 논의를 위한 동북아 국가간 사전 신뢰성 향상과 이를 기반으로 한 타 분야에서의 협력이 가능할 것으로 보입니다. APEC의 네트워크를 활용하는 것도 좋을 것입니다. 물론 한국, 중국, 일본

의 역할이 중요합니다. 노령화, 기후변화 등의 주제를 삼국이 가장 심각하게 생각하고 있는 것에 비추어 봤을 때 삼국은 동북아 협력을 이끌어 갈 수 있다고 생각합니다. 그러나 양자, 혹은 삼자 협력으로 끝날 것이 아니라 APEC을 포함한 아시아 국가들과의 협력으로 확대되어야 바람직할 것으로 생각됩니다. 이를 위해 동북아 국가들간 정보의 공유, 발전적 협의를 위한 동북아 지역의 협력이 선행되어야 하며, 이것이 국제 협력의 보완적 역할을 해야 할 것입니다.

## 지정토론 : 김기정

금번 KOICA-세종의 컨퍼런스에 참여하게 되어 영광입니다. 박은하 국장님의 발표는 한국 ODA와 외교정책 전반에 관하여 매우 잘 정리된 정보를 제공하고 있다고 생각합니다.

한국 정부의 ODA에 대한 관심이 매우 증가하고 있습니다. 그러나 ODA에 관하여, ODA를 통하여 어떻게 협력할 것인가의 문제 역시 중요합니다. ODA에 대한 관심이 증대 한다는 것 자체가 베스트팔렌 조약 이후 지속된 국제사회의 국가간 경쟁으로부터 공존으로의 선회라고 볼 수 있다는 측면에서 매우 중요하다고 생각합니다. 여기에는 다자적, 협력적 태도가 기본적으로



필요합니다. 경쟁으로는 풀릴 문제가 아니라고 생각합니다. 그러나 아직도 많은 국가들이 ODA를 국가이익의 관점에서만 생각하고 있는 것이 사실입니다. 경쟁이 아닌 협력적 관계로의 새로운 패러다임 변화를 경험하고 있는 세계정치의 상황에서 다양한 의제들의 대두와 공동 노력이 필요한 상황입니다. 즉 ODA가 국제 정치의 새로운 환경과 요소로 등장하였으며 우리는 국익(National Interests)의 추구가 지배적인 현재 상황의 변화 가능성을 목도하고 있는 것입니다.

한국은 수원국에서 공여국으로 성공적으로 변모했습니다. 이와 관련하여 특히 개도국과 선진국 간 '브릿징롤'이라는 역할이 제시되었습니다. 하지만 한국의 양적 ODA 규모가 미미한 것과 더불어 한국형 ODA 정책의 취약점을 세 가지 정도 지적하고 싶습니다.

첫째, 무상원조(grants)의 증가가 필요합니다.

둘째, 원조 분절화 문제에 대한 해결되어야 합니다. KOICA, 기재부, 수출입은행 등 관료적 경쟁 문제는 하루빨리 해결해야 할 과제입니다.

셋째, 국제개발협력 이슈를 한국 외교정책의 핵심 의제화 하여야 합니다. 이것을 위한 관제탑(controlling tower)이 필요하고, 관제탑의 역할을 하는 기관이 가치를 정하고, 정책을 조직적으로 운영할 수 있어야 합니다.

#### 답변 : 박은하

감사합니다. 혁신적 플랫폼과 의제의 발굴이 중요하다는 마사유키씨의 의견에 동감하며 이를 위한 한국정부의 노력이 계속되고 있다고 말씀드리고 싶습니다. 많은 다양한 이해당사자들이 참여할 수 있는 플랫폼의 개발이 부산총회 때부터 논의되었고 올해에 출범할 수 있을 것으로 보입니다. 한국 정부는 국내 원조체계(aid architecture)의 효율화를 위한 노력을 계속하고 있습니다.

DAC 멤버들은 GNI의 0.36%를 ODA에 지출합니다. 우리나라의 경우 2015년 목표인 0.15%를 달성하면 그 후에 더 나은 발전이 가

능할 것이므로 먼저 0.15%를 달성하는 것이 중요합니다.

무상원조의 비중을 높이는 것 또한 중요한 의제 가운데 하나입니다. 외교정책에 국제개발협력의 빈곤감소와 국제사회의 공동 노력에 기여라는 궁극적 목적을 융화할 때 그 목적의 극대화가 가능할 것으로 생각합니다.

#### [발표 II]

##### 지정토론 : 최진우

중국의 해외원조의 역사와 동기, 구조를 잘 요약해준 논문이었습니다. 질문하고 싶은 것이 많은데 몇 가지만 말씀 드리겠습니다. 이 논문이 언급하지 않은 것이 있습니다. 국제사회가 개발 협력에 대해서 말할 때 쓰는 MDG, ODA라는 단어가 나오지 않는데 왜 중국은 특수성을 강조하는 것인지 궁금합니다. 서구적 표현이기 때문에 꺼리고 있는 것이지요.

관련해서 여쭙보고 싶은 것은, 중국의 원조 통계가 국제사회가 얘기하고 있는 통계 방식과 차이가 있다는 점입니다. 예를 들면 부채탕감, 지방정부가 지원하는 공기업이 제공하는 원조 등이 ODA에 포함되지 않고 있는데 이유가 궁금합니다. 국제사회가 사용하는 방식을 따를 경우 중국에 대한 인식이 달라질 수도 있을 것으로 보입니다. 즉 중국의 소프트파워가 증대될 수 있을 것으로 보입니다.

한가지 더 여쭙보면, 다자간 원조의 비중이 어느 정도인지, 증가추세인지 아니면 그 반대인지, 국제추세는 증가인데 중국은 어떤 상황인지 질문 드립니다.

##### 지정토론 : 유웅조

중국의 원조정책에 대해 배울 수 있는 유익한 시간이었으나 발표자도 말씀하셨지만 자료를 찾기가 어려운 관계로 체계적 분석이 부재합니다. 즉 일반적인 원조정책 분석틀을 사용하지 않고

## 토론

있다는 점을 문제로 지적할 수 있을 것입니다.

앞에서도 말씀하셨지만 Foreign Aid와 ODA는 다른 개념입니다. 그러나 발표자께서는 중국의 Foreign Aid를 모호한 개념으로 사용하고 있습니다. ODA의 개념으로 쓰는 것인지? 차이가 있어서인지 아니면 맥락이 있는 것인지? 개념에 있어 국제사회와의 차이는 무엇인가? 등을 질문 드립니다.

또한 수원국의 요구가 있을 때 지원을 한다는 것과 관련하여, 수원국의 필요를 중국정부가 사전에 판단한다는 것인지, 아니면 수원국이 원한다고 밝히면 그때 하는 것인지 궁금합니다.

마지막으로 중국도 포함될 수 있는 국제적 규범을 찾는다면, 예를 들어 G20라든지, APEC 이라든지 이미 존재하는 제도를 중국이 먼저 국제협력의 틀로서 국제사회에 제시하는 것이 바람직할 것으로 보입니다.

**답변 : 왕이환**

많은 질문과 코멘트에 감사 드립니다. 시간관계상 두분 토론자께서 공통적으로 질문해 주신

것에 관하여 짧게 답변 드리겠습니다. 먼저 MDG, ODA는 서구적 개념으로 중국정부는 서구적 개념에 중국의 정책을 맞춰야 한다고 생각하지 않습니다. 하지만 실질적으로 MDG 목표와 관련된 많은 분야에서 중국이 기여하고 있습니다. 단지 언어의 차이가 있을 뿐 내용은 같다고 보여집니다. 중국의 원조정책은 다양한 형태로 운영됩니다. 의료지원, 빈곤지역 지원, 자원봉사단 파견, 산업지원 등의 형태로 다양한 이슈에 대처하여 각각 운영되고 있습니다.

**자유토론 : 카라사와 마사유키**

현재의 원조 방식, 즉 무상 원조 확대, 원조의 다양화, 원조의 장기화 등에 대해 비판적으로 접근해야 할 필요가 있다고 봅니다, 이는 개도국의 원조에의 의존도를 높여 부정적 결과를 야기할 수 있으므로 이에 대한 적절한 정책이 필요합니다.

## 6월 2일 토론

**[발표 III]**

**지정토론 : 서창록**

왜 원조를 하는가? 이 질문에 대해 다음과 같이 답할 수 있을 것입니다. 국익(national interest), 조직적 압력(institutional pressure from UN agencies), 글로벌 및 국내 시민사회로부터의 압력이 공여국으로 하여금 원조를 하게 만드는 동인입니다. 그런데 일본 정부의 원조가 국익에만 기반한 이기주의적 요소가 강하다는 비판을 받고 있습니다. 왜 그런 것인지 궁금합니다.

인권은 중요한 가치로 국제사회가 국제개발 정책에 내재화하려는 노력을 경주하고 있으나,

일본의 원조정책에 이러한 가치가 부재해 보입니다. 특별한 이유가 있는 것입니까?

인권은 한국의 ODA 정책에도 의미를 가진다고 생각합니다. 권위주의적 개발정책을 통해 자금의 경제적 발전을 이룬 국가가 지금은 ODA 정책에 있어서 인권을 가장 중요한 가치로 내세우고 있으나, 사실 한국 정부가 국제개발정책의 일환으로 추진하고 있는 새마을 운동은 가장 권위주의적인 정치 프로파간다 확산 사업이었음을 고려할 때 신중하게 접근하여야 합니다.

**지정토론 : 정상화**

기후 변화 이슈에 관한 비정부행위자(CSOs) 혹은 기업이 하고 있는 역할은 무엇인지 궁금합니다.

니다. 기후 변화 이슈를 포함한 다양한 ODA 정책에서 정부와 기타 행위자간 협력과 조정은 어떻게 이루어지고 있는지에 대하여 질문하고 싶습니다.

또한 정부의 실무자로서 발표자께서 생각하는 기후변화정책 집행의 난제는 무엇인지요?

**답변 : 카노 다케히로**

소중한 의견과 질문에 감사합니다. 먼저 일본만 이기적 목적에 기반한 원조를 한다는 비판을 받는다고 생각하지 않습니다. 대부분의 나라가 이런 비판에서 자유롭지 못합니다. 일본은 97년 원조 최대규모를 기록한 이후 현재 당시 수준의 절반 수준만을 지원하고 있습니다. 그러나 문제는 국익을 어떻게 글로벌 아젠다의 달성과 조화를 이루게 할 것인가에 있다고 봅니다.

네트워크 거버넌스(network governance)의 실질적 운영방안에 대해 질문해 주셨는데, 문제의 복잡성, 전문가의 부족 등으로 인해 NGO, 시민사회 등의 관련 행위자가 모두 참여하기 어렵다는 문제가 있습니다. 일본은 이를 해결하기 위해 많은 종류의 NGOs와 협력했고, 보건 등의 분야에서 분명한 협력의 목표를 정하고 실제로 많은 성과를 거두었습니다. 차근차근 단계를 밟는 것이 중요하다고 생각합니다. 기후변화 이슈에도 기복이 있습니다. 때때로 성과가 없어서 실망할 때도 있었지만, 지난 15년 동안 성과가 있었고 COP-17는 특히 그렇습니다. 탈냉전 시기 국제 커뮤니티의 성격의 변화로 인해 무역, 기후 변화 등의 이슈에 대해서 신흥국가의 역할이 커졌습니다. 이러한 관점에서 한국이 개도국인지 선진국인지 어디에 속하는지에 대해서 한국이 생각해 봐야 할 문제라고 생각합니다. 중국 역시 마찬가지입니다. 어제 왕교수의 발표에 따르면 중국은 긴 개발협력 공여의 역사를 가지고 있습니다. 그렇다면 중국은 일본보다 개발협력 분야에서 앞선 것이라고 볼 수 있을까요? 요약하자면, 다양한 레벨에서의 협력과 조화가 효과적 ODA 발전을 위한 선결 과제라고 생각합니다.



기후 변화 아젠다 달성을 위해 일본 내 다양한 기관의 참여가 이루어지고 있다는 질문에 대해서는 다양한 기관이 아젠다를 공유하는 것이 핵심이라고 말씀드릴 수 있습니다. 이를 위해 예를 들어 아베정부에서는 수상실이 ODA의 관제탑 역할을 하도록 하였습니다. 그러나 수상실이 너무 많은 타 이슈도 담당하고 있었기 때문에 개발이슈를 효과적으로 다루는데 한계가 있었습니다.

### [전체토론]

**발언 : 박은하**

서창록 교수님의 국익과 조직의 압력, 시민사회가 원조를 추동하는 요소라는 분석에 공감합니다. 국익에 대한 새로운 정의가 필요하다고 생각합니다. 즉 단순히 전통적인 정치, 경제적 이익이 아니라 앞서 언급한 바와 같이 국익의 의미를 인권과 환경, 글로벌 리더십으로 확대할 때 이기적인 ODA정책이라는 비판에서 벗어날 수 있을 것입니다.

한중일 ODA 지역 협력과 관련하여, 메콩강

## 토론

개발 협력에 일본이 관여하고 있는데, 한국 정부도 협력적 관계 속에서 협력방안을 논의할 수 있다고 보여집니다.

#### 발언 : 마사유키 카라사와

사업별 협력에서부터 변화의 시작이 가능합니다. 메콩강 개발 사업에 한중일이 함께 협력하며 서로의 기여 방안을 논의함으로써 신뢰를 쌓아갈 수 있을 것입니다.

#### 발언 : 서창록

새로운 국익 개념의 정의가 중요하다는 언급에 공감합니다. 인권과 관련하여 개발협력에 이러한 가치를 적용하는 것이 중요하지만 쉽지만은 않을 것입니다. 우리의 원조 정책이 개도국에 적용될 때에 인권침해적이지 않도록 조심해야 합니다. 인권침해 요소를 담보한 정책으로는 궁극적인 개발의 목적을 달성하기 어렵다는 점을 인식하여야 합니다.

#### 발언 : 왕이환

중국 역시 개발협력의 경험을 다양한 국가와 공유하는 것의 중요성을 인식하고 있습니다.

#### 발언 : 정상화

한국은 원조의 의무와 책임을 가지고 있습니다. 이번 제주 회의는 KOICA와 세종연구소가 ODA와 외교정책이라는 주제로 개최하는 여섯 번째 회의로 외교정책 안에서의 ODA의 의미를 찾고 그 가운데 한국의 ODA정책의 방향을 모색하고자 하는 것이 목적입니다.

일본은 가장 큰 규모의 원조를 제공하는 공여국이었으나 ODA정책에 대한 긍정적인 평가와 부정적인 평가를 함께 받고 있습니다. 중국도 같은 상황이며, 한국도 그러한 면에서는 비슷합니다. 즉 한중일 삼국은 국제개발협력의 무대에서 의무와 책임을 다하고 있는 데에 반해 제대로 된 평가를 받지 못하고 있습니다. 이를 극복하기 위해 한중일 서로의 정책 목적과 내용을 공유하기 위한 추가적인 노력이 지속되어야 할 것입니다.

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