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Development Cooperation Review

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Editorial

evelopment Cooperation Review (DCR) engages with South-South Cooperation (SSC) and the global architecture of development cooperation. SSC is an embodiment towards fulfilling the aspirations of Agenda 2030 and the commitment to leave global goals to tackle borderless challenges to ensure inclusive development. This issue of DCR captures key issues related to valuation of SSC, strengthening SSC to address better health outcomes and understanding the role of trade groupings to ensure sustainable peace and development.

Global commentators have constantly enumerated upon a need to enhance the effectiveness of SSC, stressing upon the measurement and quantification of the highly qualitative and dymanic nature of southern cooperation. Efforts towards reporting at a regional level, such as the case of the Secretaría General Iberoamericana, and at the national levels are being made. Myriam Escallón in the article titled, 'Measurement and Valuation of SSC for Development: Quantification Model in Colombia', presents Colombian initiative to develop a value-adding model with tools to determine the scope and impact of SSC and Triangular Cooperation at an aggregate level.

Science and technology can play an important role in ensuring healthy lives and well-being of people. Equitable access to technology in the context of developing vaccines in tackling diseases typical to the Southern countries cannot be over emphasised. Addressing this, *Giuliana Oyola-Lozada* in the article, 'Building a Common Regulatory Agenda for the Development of Candidate Vaccines in Pacific Alliance countries', discusses vaccine development through joint research, development and innovation and underscores the role of SSC to advance a regulatory agenda of the grouping.

Unlocking Africa's economic might, the African countries recently signed the African Continental Free Trade Agreement (AfCFTA) ushering in the potential of creating a common market bringing in 55 member states, 1.2 billion people and a combined GDP of approximately US\$ 3.4 trillion. Needless to say, the continent also accounts for 70 per cent of the world's poor. Used effectively and in an inclusive manner, trade has the potential to reduce poverty in Africa. *Queeneth O. Ekeocha* and *Emeka Charles Iloh* study Africa's intra-regional trade integration in,

'Role of Intra-Regional African Trade in Promoting South-South Cooperation and AfCFTA', highlighting the role of intraregional trade to strengthen Southern cooperation. The paper notes that African economies need to act beyond advocacy to ensure better governance, development, and ensure sustainable peace.

Since its inception RIS has worked towards strengthening cooperation among developing countries and initiated the first of its kind international platform for knowledge creation and exchange, calling for a Conference of Southern Providers under the Delhi Process at New Delhi in 2013. The conference began a dialogue on the nature and contours of SSC, with an aim to enhance knowledge sharing and led to the conceptualisation of platforms such as the Network of Southern Think-Tanks (NeST). Subsequent conferences in 2016, 2017 and 2018 continued to highlight the plurality and diversity in SSC and reflect upon SSC through a theoretical lens in light of empirical realities.

The following section presents a report on the Fifth Conference in the series of the Delhi Process, 'South-South and Triangular Cooperation: Exploring New Opportunities and New Partnerships Post-BAPA+40', held in August, 2019, in New Delhi. The aim of the conference was to take forward the discussion and deliberations of the Second United Nations High-level Conference on South-South Cooperation (BAPA+40), towards identifying the challenges and developing a roadmap in tune with the consensus arrived at Buenos Aires.

The section on SSC in Statistics presents an analysis of the Official Development Assistance (ODA) from 1960-2018. *Sushil Kumar* notes that contrary to the ODA commitments made in 1970, ODA percentage of Gross National Income of donor countries depicts a declining trend.

DCR invites policymakers, officials, researchers, academics and development practitioners to contribute to the forthcoming issues to share their ideas, experiences and concerns vis-à-vis development cooperation.

Measurement and Valuation of SSC for **Development: Quantification Model in** Colombia



Myriam Escallón*

"The main goal of Colombia's valueadding proposal is to increase the benefit that Colombia and the international society can obtain from international cooperation in terms of contribution to sustainable development, protection of global public goods, and the positioning of Colombia as a provider of cooperation."

Why Evaluate the SSC?

This century has caused a reconfiguration of the international cooperation system, wherein the heterogeneity of actors and modalities of cooperation set new forms of interaction in the developing world.

The global agenda defined by the Millennium Development Goals and their evolution into the Sustainable Development Goals put on the table, among other relevant issues, the debate on effectiveness of partnerships for development and poses the challenge of finding means that ensure effective, transparent and more results-oriented impact of development cooperation. The framework for implementation of this agenda has been guided by international summits and declarations that seek to provide clearer methodologies for the administration, quantification, and measurement of international cooperation, raising the need for jointresponsibility among the different actors of society and the international community (Perez and Alañón 2016).

The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, which has been proposed as an inclusive, universal, multi-stakeholder and multi-level plan, opening a space for the participation of various actors such as the civil society, private sector and academia in the achievement of their goals, and likewise, recognise the importance of implementing non-traditional modalities of international cooperation such as the South-South Cooperation (SSC) and Triangular Cooperation (TC) (Pérez-Pineda and Huitrón 2018).

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In this way, SSC is recognised as a complementary modality to Official Development Assistance (ODA), that can provide relevant elements for the fulfillment of the 2030 Agenda reflected in the promotion of horizontal work among partners, the ability to ensure more appropriation of the results of cooperation, the application of the principle of mutual benefit, the enhancement of technical capabilities and the development of a greater sense of joint-responsibility between participants of the exchange.

Although there is no exclusive definition of SSC, the United Nations Office for South-South Cooperation (UNOSSC), describes it as "a broad framework of collaboration among countries of the South in the political, economic, social, cultural, environmental and technical domains. Involving two or more developing countries, it can take place on a bilateral, regional, intraregional, or interregional basis. Developing countries share knowledge, skills, expertise and resources to meet their development goals through concerted efforts." Meanwhile, it also defines TC as the "collaboration in which traditional donor countries and multilateral organisations facilitate South-South initiatives through the provision of funding, training, management and technological systems as well as other forms of support."1 SSC includes knowledge, technology and resource exchange between actors from countries with more or less similar levels of development, which are led by widely recognised principles among countries of the South and endorsed recently in the Second High-level United Nations Conference on South-South and Triangular Cooperation BAPA+40, such as: horizontality, solidarity, mutual benefit, flexibility, consensus, equality, respect for national sovereignty and noninterference in domestic affairs.

Being a dynamic form of cooperation that influences several fields of development, particularly in recent years, different motivations among international actors have led to acknowledgement of the importance of measuring and quantifying SSC. In the case of Colombia, for example, this need stems mainly from two areas: a political one, determined by need for more informed decision-making, and a technical one aimed at identifying the effects of SSC in terms of generating knowledge that might lead to more positive ways of guiding the actions and resources for cooperation.

As noted by Huitrón (2016), the debate on the SSC measurement processes has been framed by two general factors, the first one related to fewer international resources available for the promotion of development and the fight against poverty, exacerbated by the so-called "donor fatigue" of traditional donors, and the second factor related to the growing significance of SSC in the international cooperation system. In such a context, the expectation of a greater involvement and participation of developing countries (especially those classified as middle or upper-middle-income countries by the World Bank, such as Colombia) that provide financial and technical resources for cooperation, has increased considerably in the last few years, raising a new demand for the redefinition of the role of these countries and the scope of their cooperation flows (Pérez and Alañón 2016).

At an Ibero-American level, several spaces for discussion about the subject promoted by the Secretaría General Iberoamericana (SEGIB) have concluded that SSC measurement must validate the political discourse that proposes this method as a low-cost, direct-impact, effective, efficient and beneficial way for cooperation. In that sense, the quantification and valuation processes carried out within the framework of this mechanism should reveal that SSC has a value that exceeds the relative cost, generating an easily identifiable high impact (PIFCSS 2016a).

The surveys carried out among Iberoamerican countries show that the efforts and the need to push forward processes to quantify and assign measurable values to SSC originate mainly from the desire to measure the technical contribution offered by SSC. That is to say, bring greater visibility to their cooperation efforts, promote accountability processes for the use of their resources and verify the effects of theses exchanges in terms of development for the participant countries.

In this regard, it is worth mentioning that several countries of the South have openly called for an effort not to fall into mechanisms and methodologies established for traditional North-South Cooperation without further critical analysis, copying models that may not be appropriate or sufficient to account for the heterogeneity of SSC in the desire to determine the effects of cooperation in these countries. The challenge then arises for the countries of the South to develop a response that includes methodologies tailored to the reality of the SSC and reflects the different activities carried out under this form of exchange as well as the diversity of partners involved.

Challenges in the Valuation of SSC in Latin America

Regarding the challenges that the process of valuation of SSC currently faces, it is possible to point out firstly the many restrictions on the availability of information and reliable data on the evolution of cooperation initiatives. Such data would not only guarantee greater transparency in the decisionmaking process, but would also allow to define more precisely the amount of its contribution to development processes. SEGIB studies indicate that, among the surveyed countries, restrictions on the availability of information have one of the highest scores (56 per cent) in the opportunities to improve the management of international cooperation institutions, second only to the lack of clear methodologies for valuation and quantification (63 per cent) (PIFCSS 2016a).

In many cases the issue of information availability refers to the fact that there is no regulatory clarity about which entity should be in charge of measuring and evaluating cooperation, therefore a tool that allows capturing data and information reliably and systematically has not been designed and, on the other hand, it also implies that sectoral entities or other institutions that enforce cooperation are not obliged to report that information (when sectoral entities enforce cooperation, there is a difficulty in that the organisation coordinating cooperation may not receive complete reports on the costs borne by these entities).

The lack of consensual methods for the valuation of SSC is related to an absence of clear conceptual and technical elements accompanied by indicators that allow the follow-up of cooperation programmes

or projects and subsequent evaluation of results in a systematic and orderly manner (PIFCSS 2016b). As stated by Pérez and Huitrón (2018), it would be advisable to have a joint vision in the region, first about what SSC is considered to be and second, about the intended scope for this process, to adopt standard criteria to analyse the processes and results of the different cooperation initiatives.

This would imply having institutions willing to create a system to monitor and evaluate SSC, in the full knowledge that this is a long-term task. When defining a model or models it should take into account, the quantification of economic and technical resources, with a certain degree of consensus among countries that have initiated measurement processes along with sharing of experiences that address fundamental aspects such as entity in-charge of measuring; what should be measured (grants, contributions to international organisations, humanitarian assistance, etc.); in which currency is the measurement to be made; how is this measurement related to the one carried out in the framework of the 2030 Agenda; and how to introduce a factor that decreases exchange rate distortions and the gap in purchasing power between countries carrying out this measurement (Pérez & Huitrón 2018).

Furthermore, there is the difficulty of requiring significant internal interinstitutional coordination, since these models must allow to convey the amount of contribution made by SSC at national accounts level, which clearly implies involving not only technical entities but also national statistics institutions for the generation of data and information that can reflect the dynamics of SSC at an aggregate level and, at the same time, develop and

increase the technical capabilities to create reliable and comparable statistics.

Concerning the question of what to measure, we face no less arduous task of carrying out a qualitative assessment of the actions of SSC. In the framework of the SEGIB, the question of how to measure the added value of SSC was raised, and only its definition was agreed upon; "a concept broader than the cost, in which the most relevant aspect is the technical contribution of the human capital" (PIFCSS 2016a). For the generation of its Cooperation Reports, SEGIB uses two different concepts, the first one, the cost of intervention, understood as the direct expenses incurred to execute the cooperation (such as air tickets, travel allowance, and materials), and the second one, the economic value, equivalent to the value assigned to the technical and professional resources mobilised to execute the cooperation, adding to the "technical hour" value (PIFCSS 2016a).

Lastly, although the technical entities and actors related to the academy play a significant role in the identification of a methodology for the quantification of SSC that is able to strengthen the statistical systems of the countries involved in this task, it must be clear that the decision to find collective agreements regarding methods and tools for collecting information is mainly political, and the countries of the South are called upon to lead the dialogue to reach that consensus (UNCTAD 2019).

APC-Colombia Experience: **Quantification and Value Adding** Model (MCAV)

SSC is vital to the work of the Colombian Presidential Agency of International Cooperation, APC-Colombia, an organisation that guides the international

cooperation of the country. One of the goals of the Agency is to promote the exchange of high-value knowledge, in line with the SDGs, hence the need to assess the level of contribution that Colombia makes through SSC, not only from a monetary standpoint, but also from a qualitative standpoint, identifying the impact that this form of cooperation has on the cooperation partners and how the knowledge and technical expertise exchange are helping to generate sustainable models of development in partner countries.

The main goal of Colombia's valueadding proposal is to increase the benefit that Colombia and the international society can obtain from international cooperation in terms of contribution to sustainable development, protection of global public goods, and the positioning of Colombia as a provider of cooperation. As the organisation that coordinates the international cooperation provided and received by Colombia, APC-Colombia has been designing and implementing a Quantification and Value Adding Model (MCAV, Spanish acronym) to measure the results of both SSC and TC since 2015.

To develop this model, first, the question was raised as to what was to be measured or evaluated. After a technical analysis carried out within the organisation, it was decided that in addition to quantifying the direct costs of SSC and TC activities, namely the financial costs of the cooperation, the model should determine the value of knowledge generated from the exchange, considered as an indirect cost. It was also deemed necessary to take into account the cost of the actors providing knowledge (knowledge ambassadors, reflected in the man-hours value) and the value produced by the results of the exchange in terms of

knowledge, ultimately considered to be the added value of SSC and TC.

For this purpose, the so-called "valueadding categories" were identified, which include the generation of new knowledge, the strengthening or creation of alliances, the visibility of agents of change in the project, the contribution to the SDGs and the involvement of specific groups such as women and ethnic groups (APC-Colombia 2017). Thus, there are two components considered for the calculation of the results of SSC: a Quantification component, associated with the direct and indirect costs of SSC and TC, and a Valuation component, referred to the previously identified value-adding categories.

Regarding the Quantification component, the MCAV includes air ticket costs, travel and logistics expenses, and also the indirect costs associated with the human resource participating in the activities, estimating the working time that people who are offering their knowledge invest in the preparation and execution of the exchange.

The following formula is applied to the quantification process:

Quantification SSC and TC = (Ba+Gv+Lg)+(n*Sd*d+2)

Direct costs include air tickets (Ba), per diem or daily subsistence allowances (Gv) and logistics (Lg); indirect costs are calculated based on the number of professionals involved in the exchange (n), daily wage of these professionals (Sd= monthly salary/20), and days of activity including two days of preparation (d+2) (APC-Colombia 2017). On the other hand, the Valuation component of SSC and TC recognises that the potential of SSC lies in the strength of the alliances it generates (Relations), in its ability to promote the

exchange of knowledge and learning (Knowledge), and to make visible the progress achieved to scale, strengthen and multiply its impact (Visibility), making these three dimensions the backbone of the MCAV.

Similarly, the international cooperation managed by APC-Colombia seeks to promote initiatives that lead efforts to achieve the SDGs by generating concrete and practical products for development, being this the fourth dimension of the Model (Alignment with the SDGs). Finally, the need to define the degree of implementation of an inclusive approach to these actions (Differential Approach) represents the fifth dimension of the MCAV.

The value-adding categories are identified from the moment SSC and TC projects are formulated, and specific indicators are established for each of the results of the project, categorised according to the following criteria:

- Knowledge: Identifies whether the implementation of the project generates new knowledge applicable in some areas of development and whether it favours the production or improvement of methodologies and knowledge products.
- Relations: Assesses whether the implementation of the project builds or strengthens relationships and synergies, which may become work networks and collaborative models, between actors.
- Visibility: Establishes whether the implementation of the project ensures the identification and visibility of knowledge change agents, who play a crucial role in development processes.

- Differential Approach: Identifies whether the implementation of the project favours the participation of women and ethnic groups.
- Alignment with the SDGs: Recognises whether the implementation of the project contributes in a specific way to increase visibility and improve practices associated with the achievement of the SDGs.

Based on these criteria, the progress of the indicators is evaluated at an intermediate moment of the execution of the project, and its completion, following evidence to verify the achievement of results. Afterward, this component is plotted in a scatter plot, displaying the degree to which the execution of the project impacted each of the assessed categories, as shown in Figure 1.

With this model, Colombia includes elements of qualitative analysis of cooperation, with the goal of identifying the potential of this tool through the creation of alliances (Relations), the ability to promote the exchange of knowledge and learning (Knowledge), and to make visible the labour of new change agents (Visibility and Differential Approach), and its contribution to global development goals and agendas (Alignment with the SDGs). (APC-Colombia 2017)

Although the MCAV has been implemented since 2017, its results begin to be verified in 2019, when the first projects that utilised this tool to determine the results of SSC more clearly have finalised. With these data, an analysis of the contributions of the SSC offered by Colombia in the sense of quality contribution in planning, coordination, verification, and dissemination of knowledge can be carried out.

Although there is no doubt that this methodology is a significant step in the aspiration to account for the contributions made by SSC to the development processes, and that it provides novel elements in regard to the quantification of SSC, this model is still being analysed and tested by the partners that have implemented it during exchange projects with Colombia. Thus, to achieve the expected results in terms of information, the MCAV must be analysed and adjusted to deliver substantial results of the SSC offered and received by the country, more in line with national statistical requirements. The generated information, and the results obtained through the implementation of the model, must be aligned with the reporting options of the national statistical authorities, which would imply a reassessment of the indicators that are part of the categories of the model, with the aim of producing data to generate

reports on international cooperation, not only at a south-south level, but at the aggregate level as a country.

This model is an effort to provide cooperation with a tool to improve the quality of the exchanges Colombia participates in, and allow its measurement and monitoring. From the point of view of APC-Colombia, the exchange of knowledge adds value at various levels in terms of the effectiveness of public policies, sustainability of service provision, improvement in processes and overall international recognition of the participating entities. Therefore, it is a fundamental task to define and improve the tools to determine the scope and impact of South-South and triangular cooperation initiatives at an aggregate level. Similarly, the MCAV allows for more precise identification of the results of project alignment with the sustainable development objectives and their goals,

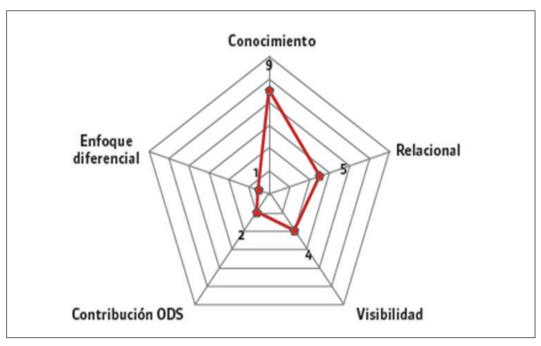


Figure 1: Example of a Scatter Plot

Source: APC-Colombia (2017).

to monitor to what extent both SSC and TC impact the implementation of the 2030 Agenda.

Finally, it should be noted that Colombia, together with other Latin American countries summoned by the Ibero-American General Secretariat (SEGIB), is making serious efforts to identify methodologies for the quantification of SSC that allow to integrate the particularities of this type of cooperation and reflects the reality of its contributions, from the point of view of the countries of the South. Several questions and challenges arise from these initiatives to quantify cooperation, and it will surely take time until a more homogeneous model to quantify SSC can be identified and consolidated, in such a way that the advances achieved at a country level, not only by Colombia but also by other countries such as Brazil, Mexico, Chile, Argentina, and Peru, can be reconciled with methodologies applicable at a regional level.

Endnotes

See: https://www.unsouthsouth.org/ acerca-de/acerca-de-la-cooperacion-sursur-y-triangular/?lang=es

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Building a Common Regulatory Agenda for Development of Candidate Vaccines in Pacific Alliance Countries



Giuliana Oyola-Lozada*

"Due to the significant public health impact of immunisation, and the increasing demand for newer prophylactic vaccines to protect against infectious diseases in low and middle-income markets that share similar medical needs. one possible area of common interest for the bloc might be the advancement of regional regulatory science for the development of this class of biologicallyderived product."

Introduction

accination is regarded as one of the most disruptive health interventions produced in the last century due to their demonstrated capacity in averting millions of deaths and preventing outbreaks that could be devastating for humanity (Koppaka, 2011). Preventive vaccines are developed to be administered to healthy people, and in most of the cases, to vulnerable populations as infants and child-bearing women. This is the reason that drives vaccines to be among the most strictly regulated pharmaceutical products, for which ensuring their quality and safety is vital before any expanded use is authorised. Historically, preventive vaccines have been first introduced into developing countries after an exhaustive regulatory review of stringent regulatory authorities, and often following decades of use (Milstien, et al., 2005). This traditional approach might not apply for novel vaccines to be developed against emerging or neglected diseases1 prevalent in the developing world, because clinical trials (CT) to demonstrate safety and efficacy data will have to commence in those target endemic countries for early human studies. Therefore, National Regulatory Authorities (NRAs) from developing countries may need to be sufficiently prepared for assessing data, authorising CT and monitoring studies with little or no external guidance on the conditions studied, or with limited previous testing of the candidate product (Milstien et al., 2005). The capacity and resources of

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emerging NRAs to efficiently exert their regulatory functions might greatly differ among countries with weak regulatory capacities (Kaddar et al., 2013; Roth et al., 2018). Moreover, many countries have underdeveloped regulatory frameworks to advance vaccines throughout the development process (Wahid et al., 2016). This divergence among emerging NRAs inevitably affects the time frames, costs, or outcomes of new drug candidates under development, and could subsequently hinder access to novel products (Ford et al., 2016; Kochhar, 2013; Rahim et al., 2008).

The Pacific Alliance (PA) is a regional free trade and integration bloc established in 2011 with the Declaración de Lima (Declaration of Lima), and officially launched in 2012. The alliance was initially formed by four countries: Chile, Colombia, México and Peru, all of them bordering on the Pacific Ocean, and often called "The Pacific Pumas". The aim of PA is to improve the growth, development and economic competitiveness of its members; to become a platform for deep integration and cooperation at the political, economic and commercial levels; and to achieve a deep-seated integration in other strategic areas (Alianza del Pacífico, 2017a, 2018). The bloc totals more than 220 million people, and the four economies concentrate 52 per cent of Latin America's trade and 45 per cent of total foreign investment in the region (Alianza del Pacifico, 2019; Alianza del Pacífico, 2017a).

Mechanisms of regulatory cooperation are currently being implemented by health regulatory authorities within the bloc, to increase collaboration in pharmaceutical affairs. One of the most important milestones was the "Interinstitutional Cooperation Agreement of the Health Authorities of the Countries of the Pacific Alliance" signed in 2014 (Alianza del Pacífico, 2013). It is expected that this agreement will pave the way for other multilateral cooperation activities aiming at reinforcing the capabilities of Pacific Alliance NRAs, whereby it has laid the foundations for other convergence initiatives necessary for the advancement of the region. Although ongoing regulatory convergence initiatives are mostly focused on the alignment of procedures related to drug registration and licensing of pharmaceutical products, the PA regulatory cooperation group is working to identify new areas that could impact access to safer, efficacious and higher quality medicines (Alianza del Pacífico, 2017b; Comisión Federal para la Protección contra Riesgos Sanitarios, 2018). Due to the significant public health impact of immunisation, and the increasing demand for newer prophylactic vaccines to protect against infectious diseases in low- and middle-income markets that share similar medical needs (Rey-Jurado et al., 2018; World Health Organisation, 2019), one possible area of common interest for the bloc might be the advancement of regional regulatory science for the development of this class of biologically-derived product.

Apart from the complete eradication of measles, rubella, poliomyelitis and smallpox in the Americas in the last decade (Pan American Health Organisation, 2016), the introduction of other preventive vaccines, such as rotavirus vaccine and human papillomavirus vaccine, has broadly impacted PA healthcare systems. For instance, rotavirus vaccine, introduced via National Immunisation Programmes in Mexico (2007), Colombia (2009) and Peru (2009), substantially reduced the incidence of severe gastroenteritis, hospitalisation and mortality rates due to diarrhoea in

infantile populations (Paternina-Caicedo et al., 2015; Santos, Marques, Martins-Filho, Cuevas, & Gurgel, 2016). Nonetheless, there are still undertreated medical conditions affecting PA populations that can be prevented by immunisation. According to the 2016 Global Burden of Disease Study (GBD) data, more than 2,65,000 deaths in LAC were attributable to transmissible diseases, and approximately 8 per cent of the total burden of disease is still due to neglected tropical diseases (e.g. Chagas disease, dengue, leishmaniosis and hookworm infection), mainly affecting the poor (Global Burden of Disease Study-2016, 2016; Hotez, Bottazzi, Franco-Paredes, Ault, & Periago, 2008). Many serious diseases do not have associated safe and effective vaccines. Moreover, new or improved vaccine candidates that, from their inception, target the specific needs of endemic diseases (i.e., covering specific strains circulating and optimising the number of doses needed), might not only alleviate the burden of preventable infectious diseases, but also contribute to the national economies of PA and other Latin American (LA) countries (Bacon et al., 2013; Lee, Bacon, Bailey, Wiringa, & Smith, 2011; Lee, Bacon, Connor, Willig, & Bailey, 2010; Saul & O'Brien, 2017).

During the last decade, PA countries have intensified the adoption of mechanisms to encourage research and development (R&D) of new or improved drugs and therapies, either individually or collectively. Push mechanisms (e.g., Product Development Partnerships, research grants, innovation consortia) and pull mechanisms (e.g., rewards for R&D outcomes) aimed to promote growth of R&D activities and to foster innovation of biotechnology-derived health products,

have been progressively implemented in PA national programmes in the last ten years (Consejo Nacional de Ciencia, 2016; Consejo Nacional de Política Económica y Social, 2011; Corporación de Fomento de la Producción, 2018). Pending in the PA NRAs' agenda is convergence in the regulation of pre-marketing development activities. A strong and well-coordinated regulatory environment that encourages R&D of advanced therapies, such as new preventive vaccines, may deliver multiple benefits for the bloc. The aim of the present study was to study the main divergences in regulatory documents for new investigational drugs published by PA NRAs. An automated content analysis was conducted to compare the content of PA regulations with reference to three indicators established by the World Health Organisation (WHO) as critical for the evaluation of clinical performance through authorised clinical trials for vaccines: (i) policies of Good Manufacturing Practices (GMP), Good Laboratory Practices (GLP), Good Clinical Practices (GCP), ethical oversight of trials; (ii) written guidelines for the conditions under which clinical trials will be needed: consideration given to the application of clinical data to the local use of vaccines and; (iii) published guidelines on the format for submission of clinical data (World Health Organisation, 2003). By identifying the main differences among regulations, we will be able to evaluate and further propose priority areas for regulatory SSC.

Materials and Methods

Documentation

Documents were selected through a purposive sample of the main regulations issued by PA NRAs pertaining to new

Table 1: Inclusion/Exclusion Criteria for Documents Selection

Document Parameters	Inclusion criteria	Exclusion criteria
Location	Chile, Colombia, Mexico and Peru	Countries other than in the inclusion criteria
Language	Spanish	Document not written in Spanish
Type of documents	Top-tier regulations	National laws, recommendations and guidelines for industry intended to be scientific and advisory in nature
Purpose	Regulations related to the authorization of investigational products, including preventive vaccines for humans	Documents with an approach other than authorization of investigational products, including preventive vaccines for humans
Scope	Enforceable to preventive vaccines for human use	Documents with a scope other than preventive vaccines for human use
Timeframe	Most recent documents from 2000 and ahead	Documents before 2000

Source: Based on Author's analysis.

investigational products, including preventive vaccines. Freely available published versions of national regulations were extracted from the official websites of PA NRAs during February-March 2019. Documents were included according to the criteria established in Table 1 and special care was taken to ensure that only current versions were retrieved. To confirm that only appropriate and relevant documents were included, experts from PA NRAs were asked to verify the dataset of the corresponding country. Only one regulation from Colombia did not fulfil the timeframe inclusion criteria (i.e., Resolution 8430 of 1993); however, due to that under the legislation of Colombia this is still considered a current regulation, the document was included in the final analysis (Table 2).

Data Analysis

Content analysis of regulatory documents for determining the presence of words or concepts in regulatory documents involved a quantitative approach using Leximancer (version 4.5), a software package developed by researchers at the University of Queensland. Leximancer is a text analytics software based on Bayesian theory that allows analysing the content within collections of textual documents (Leximancer, 2018). Outputs generated by Leximancer include (a) relational world clouds, (b) rank-ordered concept words list, and (c) a concept map displaying a conceptual overview of the semantic structure of the text (Smith & Humphreys, 2006). Therefore, the programme permits either a conceptual analysis (presence of defined concepts) or

a relational analysis (how concepts relate to each other) of the samples (Leximancer, 2018). Leximancer can assist in extracting the most important concepts in a large and complex body of texts, such as regulatory documents, generating useful information on the content of each dataset that is then displayed visually and statistically. The process of analysis with Leximancer comprises six phases: (1) Text Processing; (2) Automatic Concept Identification; (3) Concept Editing; (4) Concept Thesaurus Learning; (5) Classification; and (6) Mapping. A detailed description of the modified settings is included in Appendix 1 and Appendix 2.

Results

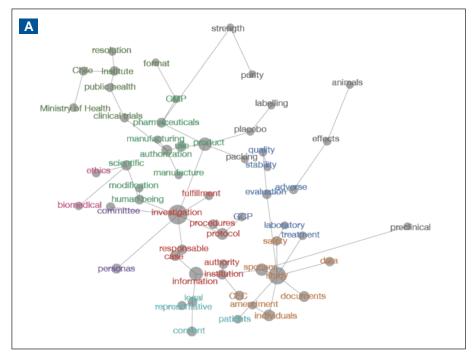
Individual concept clouds for each PA country are displayed in Figure 1, showing the most prominent concepts and their connectedness in each dataset. As showed in Figure 1, concepts are heat-mapped, thus the most prominent concepts appear in hot colours (red, orange), whereas least relevant present cool colours (blue, green). Concept clouds permit to visually identify the connectivity of a concept, which is "the sum of all the text co-occurrence counts of the concepts with every other concept on the map" (Leximancer Manual, p.18). Name-like concepts (e.g., "CEC", "INS", "OGITT") corresponding to each country are also

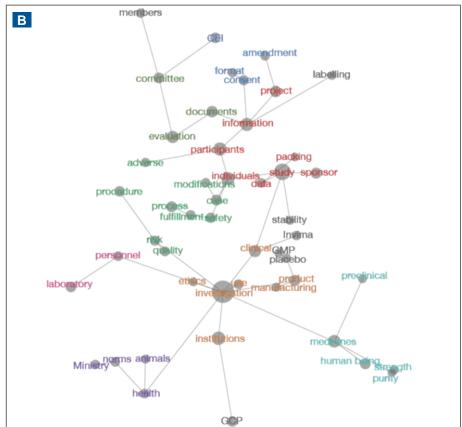
Table 2: Regulations and Guidelines Related to Clinical Research in New **Investigational Products in PA Countries**

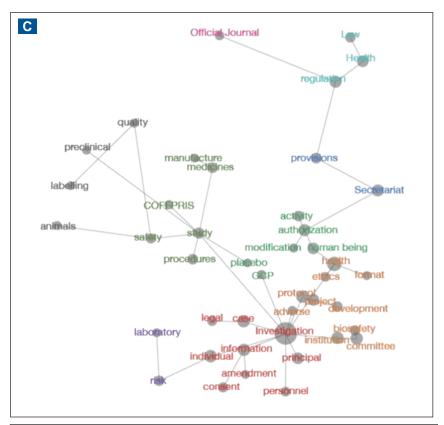
Country	Document title	Year of issue/ revised	Current document?
	Technical Norm Nº57	2001	Yes
Chile	Decree 114, Regulation of the Law 20.120	2011	Yes
	Exempt Resolution Nº460	2015	Yes
	Exempt Resolution 5161	2017	Yes
	Resolution 8430 of 1993	1993	Yes
	Resolution 2378 of 2008	2008	Yes
Colombia	Guideline for the Presentation of Research Protocols	2018	Yes
	Guideline of Medicines and Supplies for Clinical Investigation	2018	Yes
	Research Regulation on General Health Law	2014	Yes
Mexico	NOM-012-SSA3-2012	2013	Yes
	Guidelines for Good Clinical Practice in Health Research	2012	Yes
Peru	Supreme Decree No. 021-2017-SA	2017	Yes
reru	Procedures Manual of Clinical Trials	2017	Yes

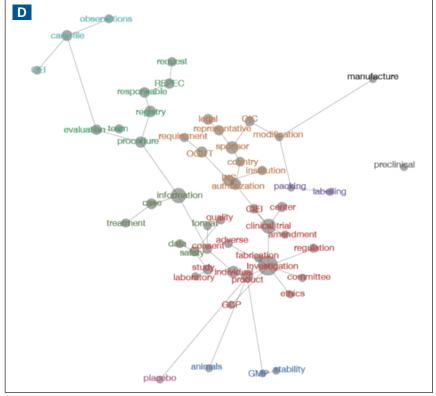
Source: Based on Author's analysis.

Figure 1: Concept Clouds of Regulatory Documents Related to Novel Investigational Vaccines, (A) Chile; (B) Colombia; (C) Mexico; (D) Peru.²









Source: Based on Author's analysis.

Table 3: Concepts Related to Policies for CT in PA Documents

	Chile		Colo	ombia	M	exico	Peru	
_	Count	Relevance	Count	Relevance	Count	Relevance	Count	Relevance
Concept		percent		percent		percent		percent
GMP	8	2	5	1	0	0	3	0
Manufacturing	11	2	10	1	7	2	14	2
Manufacture	3	1	0	0	0	0	1	0
Purity	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
Stability	6	1	5	1	0	0	3	0
Strength	4	1	1	0	0	0	0	0
GLP	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Animals	11	2	22	3	11	2	8	1
Preclinical	1	0	5	1	4	1	1	0
GCP	38	8	106	14	9	2	9	1
Ethics	29	6	6	1	16	4	2	0
Committee	65	13	116	<u>15</u>	90	<u>20</u>	23	3
Consent	79	<u>16</u>	59	8	35	8	80	<u>11</u>
Quality	30	6	53	7	11	2	23	3

Source: Based on Author's analysis.

displayed in Figure 1. Concepts referring to clinical data registration "REPEC" and "registry", which only emerged in Figure 1D (Peru) are further explained

Information that Leximancer produced was a list of concepts ranked by their frequency of occurrence in the text (count) and the relative importance of each concept (relevance percent). These results on the WHO's indicators selected are shown in the following sections.

Policies for GMP, GLP, GCP and ethical oversight of trials in PA countries

Table 3 shows the prominence of concepts related to the existing policies governing the quality of clinical investigation in PA regulations. The highest count scores for each concept appear in bold. Also, the highest relevant per cent value for each country is underlined. The concept "committee" (n=116) had the highest count score; that is, the concept occurred 116 times in Colombian regulations for new investigational products. The relative importance of the concepts is represented by the relevance percent value that shows the frequency of occurrence of a concept relative to the most prominent concept in each dataset. The most prominent concepts were those related to the ethical oversight of investigational products, with scores higher than 10 per cent for concepts such as "committee" and "consent", as detailed in Table 3. The concept "GMP" was not detected in documents belonging to the Mexican dataset, probably because under the laws of this country, the word used for "manufacturing" is a Spanish variation ("fabrication" or "manufacture"). "GCP" appeared in all documents, but relevance percent was higher in documents from Colombia (14 per cent) than in other PA regulations. Leximancer did not detect the concept "GLP" in regulations for investigational products, but concepts referring to non-clinical studies (i.e., "animal", "preclinical") were detected (Table 3).

The concept "quality" was identified in the four datasets. However, by looking at the concept clouds in Figure 1, it is possible to contextualise the term. Only in Figure 1A (Chile) the term "quality" is clustered close to other terms related to the quality of the investigational product (e.g. "stability", "product", "manufacture"), which is further analysed in the discussion section.

Additional conditions for CT

The second parameter of comparison is related to the differences respected to the provisions in PA regulatory documents under which additional CT are needed, as in those cases where changes in the investigational product or manufacturing process are produced (World Health Organisation, 2003b). Table 4 shows results of count and relevance percent for the terms "amendment" and "modification" in PA regulations. "Amendment" was more relevant (4 per cent) in Mexico, and "modification" in Peru's legislation (5 per cent).

Individual search of the three most related terms to concepts "amendment" and "modification" are shown in Table 5, in which likelihood per cent values are presented. Whereas in Chile, Colombia and Mexico datasets, both terms are mainly linked to clinical and ethics-related concepts (i.e., "protocol", "consent"), "modification" was strongly connected to concepts related to other aspects of the investigational product ("packing", "manufacture" and "labelling") in Peru's dataset, showing likelihood scores of 50 per cent or more.

Guidelines for CT

Besides providing a general format for the submission of an application for a CT, the NRA of each country must provide manufacturers with concise instructions on

Table 4: Frequency of Concepts for Additional CT Information

	Chile		Colombia		Mexico		Peru	
	Count	Relevance	Count	Relevance	Count	Relevance	Count	Relevance
Concept		per cent		per cent		per cent		per cent
Amendment	15	3	27	4	1	0	27	4
Modification	19	4	10	1	9	2	34	5

Source: Based on Author's analysis.

Table 5: Relation of concepts in PA documents³

	Chile		Colombia		Mexico		Peru	
Concept	Related	Likeli-	Related	Likeli-	Related	Likeli-	Related	Likeli-
	word	hood	word	hood	word	hood	word	hood
		Per		Per cent		Per		Per
		cent				cent		cent
	Protocol	8	Consent	14	Consent	3	Authorisation	8
Amendment	CEC	4	Format	13	Project	2	Consent	6
	Consent	4	Project	11	Risk	2	Modification	6
3.6. 1.6	Ministry of Health	11	Risk	8	Ethics	6	Packing	100
Modification	Committee	8	INVIMA	3	Protocol	6	Manufacture	100
	Authorisation	6	Clinical	3	Project	6	Labelling	50

Source: Based on Author's analysis.

Table 6: Concepts for Specific Guidelines in CT of Investigational Products

	C	Chile	Colombi		ia	Mexico		Peru	
Concept	Count	Relevance per cent	Count		levance er cent	Count	Relevance per cent	Count	Relevance per cent
Format	3	1	15		2	7	2	32	4
Labelling	8	2	5		1	3	1	2	0
Packaging	4	1	2		0	0	0	2	0
Adverse	59	12	37		5	13	3	50	7

Source: Based on Author's analysis.

the specific formats for presenting the plans for study protocols, for presenting safety data (adverse reactions) and; formats for clinical information on package labelling (World Health Organisation, 2003). The concepts "format", "labelling" and "adverse" appeared in all the regulatory datasets with variable count and relevance per cent scores, as is shown in Table 6. Only the concept "packaging" did not appear in Mexico's documents for new investigational entities.

Discussion

Software content analysis with Leximancer allowed a quantitative and qualitative comparison of country-specific approaches under which PA NRAs oversight new drugs in development, specifically in regard to critical regulatory functions for vaccine candidates.

In the first place, we analysed the content of each dataset on policies to ensure the safety and quality of the investigational products, clinical protocols and ethical oversight of CT. Results showed the presence of concepts for "GMP" in the four datasets (Table 3). Thus, PA countries enforce local and international sponsors to adhere to GMP principles to ensure the quality of investigational medicinal products and placebos studied in drug development programmes. Assurance of GMP is particularly important for biological products, such as vaccines, for which the production process, raw materials and control tests are based on living systems that are variable by nature (Milstien et al., 2009). Other selected concepts linked to the quality of investigational products (e.g., "strength", "purity", "stability") resulted in count scores less than 7 and low relevance per cent (0-1 per cent) (Table 3). Information about quality aspects of the investigational product must be included in the Investigator's Brochure (IB) of PA's CT applications. PA regulations comply with International Conference on Harmonisation of Technical Requirements for the Registration of Pharmaceuticals for Human Use (ICH)-GCP guideline (ICH, 2016), in which a description of the physical, chemical and pharmacological properties must be part of CT applications. Resolución 5161 Exenta 2017 (Chl), from Chile, is the only regulation that requires the inclusion of information on the manufacturing process in CT authorisation dossier for biological products. It states:

In the case of biological products, a summary of the manufacturing process and a report of it related to the safety of the product and that describes how it is ensured that the finished product is free of polluting agents that may affect the patient's health (Resolución 5161 Exenta 2017 (Chl)).

Apart from this, more extensive and documented information corresponding to quality data describing the manufacturing process and resultant product of the investigational drugs is not requested by other PA countries as part of the application dossier for a CT. A significant amount of quality data (i.e., Chemistry, Manufacturing and Controls, CMC) must be part of the Food and Drug Administration's Investigational New Drugs applications (INDs) (U.S. Food and Drug Administration, 1995, 1999, 2003) and European Union Clinical Study Authorisation Applications (CSAs) (European Commission, 2010). In the CMC section, the sponsor should provide sufficient information related to the quality of the investigational product, giving a "description of the methods used to manufacture the investigational drug, as well as the analytical methods and test results employed to control the manufacturing process and the quality of the final products", that will be thoroughly evaluated by regulators (Novak et al, 2009). CMC regulatory requirements for vaccines are stringent and more information is required, particularly for late-phase clinical trials (U.S. Food and Drug Administration, 1999).

Similarly, scanty references to concepts related to pre-clinical studies appeared in the documentary analysis. Only Chile's regulations states that non-clinical studies supporting a CT application must be in accordance with GLP standards: "sponsor's statement that the preclinical tests have been performed according to the guidelines of Good Laboratory Practices" (Resolución 5161 Exenta 2017 (Chl)).

Vaccines are generally complex molecules due to their biologic origin and have a high risk of contamination (Elmgren et al., 2013); thus, an exhaustive assessment of the identity, quality, potency, purity and stability of investigational vaccines preparations is pivotal under a regulatory perspective (World Health Organisation. Expert Committee on Biological Standardisation, 2004); and therefore, more rigorous requirements should be requested by NRAs. Other authors have previously suggested the inclusion of more detailed and documented rules on the monitoring and reporting of the quality of investigational products for use in clinical research (Newton et al., 2015; Ravinetto et al., 2016). PA countries should consider developing convergent and more stringent regulations to ensure the quality of non-clinical studies and investigational medicinal products used in CT. More exhaustive information will have to be part of dossiers for CT authorisation. Furthermore, PA NRAs should strengthen local regulatory capacities to provide guidance and conduct scientific assessment of quality data and non-clinical results, and consequently, guarantee high-level decisions on the adequacy of the investigational product to be used in human subjects.

Concepts that depicted clinical and ethical aspects (e.g.; "GCP", "ethics", "consent") were identified across the four datasets and frequently co-occurred in the four datasets as shown in Table 3 and Figure 1. In terms of clinical practices, as most of the LA nations, PA countries have developed their own national standards for GCP consistent with GCP guidelines and regulation of well-known countries and international organisations (Homedes & Ugalde, 2014), as ICH-GCP guidelines (ICH, 2016) and WHO GCP (World Health Organisation, 1995). Efforts by the Pan American Health Organisation (PAHO) to promote the harmonisation of good clinical practice across the region through the Pan American Network for the Harmonisation of Pharmaceutical regulation (Red PARF in Spanish), led to the issuance of the Good Clinical Practices Document of the Americas for the (GCP-DA) in 2005 (Pan American Health Organisation, 2005). Besides describing GCP, the GCP-DA includes a programme for monitoring GCP compliance by regional NRA's (Pan American Health Organisation, 2005). However, although PA countries have adhered to GCP-DA, in practice the document is not mandatory but rather is considered baseline guidance for regional NRAs. Only Colombia (2008) has incorporated this guideline into its own regulations (Palacios, 2009). Therefore, regulatory and procedural divergences regarding GCP compliance might persist within the bloc, as previously discussed (Pombo et al., 2016).

Variable concepts related to the ethical oversight (e.g., "CEC", "CEI", "CIEI") emerged in the analysis, which might capture the diversity in ethics review policies in PA countries. Challenges in ethical review have been reported in externally sponsored trials conducted in developing settings, including LA countries (McIntosh et al., 2008; Ravinetto et al., 2016). In the case of PA countries, it has been pointed out that time of approval of research protocols by ethics committees ranges from 4 to 10 weeks in PA countries (Homedes & Ugalde, 2014). Also, the request for additional information in ethical reviews largely varies by country: Mexico and Colombia question few protocols (less than 5 per cent); and Peru and Chile request additional information for more than 35 per cent of the protocols (Homedes & Ugalde, 2014). Given the high number of countries involved in large multicentre trials, such as vaccine phase three studies, a single research protocol might be reviewed by multiple ethics committees, which in many cases unnecessarily increases the complexity of the trial (Wahid et al., 2016). Also, multiple ethical review might hinder research conducted during public health emergencies (De Crop et al., 2016). Efforts are needed to advance the harmonisation of the regulatory framework for ethical review in the bloc.

Leximancer identified words "registering" and "REPEC" as relevant concepts in Peru's concept cloud (Figure 1D), which is consistent with the regulatory context for trial registration in PA jurisdictions. Only Peru and Colombia have formal, mandatory clinical trial registration requirements (Lemmens & Vacaflor, 2018; Rodriguez-Feria & Cuervo, 2017). Also, Mexico and Peru have national registries but only Peru's National Registry has been accredited as a Primary Registry by WHO (Registro Peruano de Ensayos Clínicos, 2019). It has been argued that there is a need for the region to streamline the overlapping regulations governing the transparency of clinical data, through coordination and cooperation of regional NRAs and a shared regulatory framework (Lemmens & Vacaflor, 2018; Pan American Health Organisation, 2009). This will ensure public access to clinical information and therefore, further ensure reliable research supportive of healthcare (Lemmens & Vacaflor, 2018; Pan American Health Organisation, 2009).

The second WHO indicator evaluated whether PA regulations define when complementary trials or small repeat trials are requested, such as those intended to establish equivalence with a modified investigational product or a new combination vaccine, to name a few examples. Selected concepts "modification" and "amendment" were identified in the guidelines reviewed (Table 4); however, they mostly pertain to changes to the research protocol or informed consent, as shown in Table 5. A more detailed analysis of other national regulations, especially those for the licensing of biological products, is suggested. For instance, s. D of Resolución Exenta Nº4115 2013 (Chl) on the specifications to request sanitary registration of vaccines in Chile, clearly lists eleven situations under which additional clinical trials are indicated. We also recommend a detailed review of PA NRAs' policies of meetings with manufacturers to discuss specific issues around modification of the investigational products (World Health Organisation, 2003).

Finally, the third WHO indicator assessed existing written guidelines for several aspects of CT applications, including formats for clinical protocols, safety reporting and monitoring; and formats for clinical information on packaging/labelling. We observed a similar relevance per cent for the terms "format", "labelling" and "packaging" among countries (Table 6). The word "adverse" had a higher relevance percent (12 per cent) in Chile than in other regulatory documents. Generally, PA NRAs accept the formats for submission of clinical data of well-recognised NRAs, and each country provides thorough instructions for the information required to be submitted in a CT application. Similarly, nationally specified regulations on formats for safety reporting and the content of information leaflets are available for sponsors. Given that rules and procedures for the aforementioned regulatory provisions are country-specific, significant differences in the review practices and approval times for CT are likely to occur within the bloc. The regulatory burden due to asymmetrical regulatory frameworks undermines developing programmes aiming to test an investigational vaccine in multi-country CTs (Grenham & Villafana, 2017; Kochhar, 2013). In such a context, a CT sponsor might have to deal with several local procedures, timelines and even with dissonant decisions across involved NRAs on the same regulatory matter (Storm & Richmond, 2015). Figure 1 displays the diversity of agencies governing CT authorisation in each jurisdiction, and even within the same country. For instance, Peru's concept cloud displays the concepts "INS", "OGTII", "Ministry of Health", which shows the complexity existing in this country. In Peru CT authorisation of investigational products is governed by the OGTTI office of the National Health Institute (INS), an agency of the Ministry of Health, and not by the local NRA, as in the rest of PA members. The Peruvian NRA only participates in the technical assessment of the quality and safety of the investigational product (Direccion General de Medicamentos, 2017). Therefore, we expect to see more variable procedures and protocols within this country. Over the last decade, while some agreements have been reached on regulatory harmonisation in LA countries following the PAHO initiatives, there is still a long road to follow, since pharma regulation is widely affected by politics and political will (Brennan,

2018; Cochetti, 2012). An alternative approach to regulatory harmonisation is regulatory convergence, in which, instead of a full alignment of laws across participant authorities, the regulatory requirements across countries or regions become more similar or "aligned" over time as a result of the gradual adoption of internationally recognised technical guidance documents, standards and scientific principles, common or similar practices and procedures, or adoption of regulatory mechanisms that might be specific to a local legal context but that align with shared principle (U.S. Food and Drug Administration, 2018).

Along these lines, the PA initiative opens a window of opportunity for pharmaceutical regulatory convergence among NRAs in preparing aligned documents and implementing unified procedures to streamline the development of safe, high quality and efficacious medicines, including novel vaccines to fight emerging diseases affecting the region.

Conclusion and Way Forward

Regulatory convergence is one of the main keys to unlock the potential of PA markets for the streamlined development of innovative drugs, and ultimately increase the access to modern medicinal products. Since the first regulatory cooperation endeavours were established on the "Interinstitutional Cooperation Agreement of the Health Authorities of the Countries of the PA", NRAs (i.e., ISP, INVIMA, COFEPRIS) have consistently undertaken initiatives to foster the harmonisation of the region, especially concerning the requirements for drug registration and GMP certification. However, little efforts have been directed towards the regulatory harmonisation of provisions regarding pre-market activities in the region. The aim of this study was to analyse national regulations in order to identify potential areas for future regulatory cooperation actions for investigational products, such as preventive vaccines.

Automated content analysis using Leximancer allowed us to identify the divergence in PA regulatory frameworks for new investigational products. Moreover, results were helpful in discovering gaps in local regulations that should be prioritised for a common regulatory agenda. The following directions for future SSC initiatives are recommended: Firstly, reinforced quality assessment of non-clinical studies and investigational products, ensuring appropriate regulatory review and monitoring of investigational products to guarantee the quality and safety of medicines developed in/for the region. Secondly, joint development and implementation of standards. Current regulations and guidelines are general in nature compared with current industry standards. Initiatives to develop and adopt consensus standards in cross-cutting issues need to move forward at a faster rate. Lastly, coordinated governing of authorisation and oversight of CT, using mechanisms of international cooperation to expeditiously approve the implementation of the trials.

Endnotes

- Such as e.g. Chagas disease, Leishmaniases, Human African trypanosomiasis. For further details please see: https://www. who.int/neglected_diseases/diseases/ summary/en/
- Abbreviations: CEC, "Comité Ético Científico" (Ethic Scientific Committee); CEI, "Comité de Ética en Investigación" (Ethics in Investigation Committee);

CIEI, "Comité Institucional de Ética en Investigación" (Institutional Committee of Ethics in Investigation); COFEPRIS, "Comisión Federal para la Protección contra Riesgos Sanitarios" (Federal Commission for the Protection against Sanitary Risks); INS,"Instituto Nacional de Salud"(National Health Institute); Invima, "Instituto Nacional de Vigilancia de Medicamentos y Alimentos" (National Institute of Surveillance of Medicines and Food); OEI, "Oficina Ejecutiva de Investigación" (Executive Office of Investigation); OGITT, "Oficina General de Investigación y Transferencia Tecnológica" (General Office of Investigation and Technology Transfer); OIC, "Organización de Investigación por Contrato" (Contract Research Organisation); REPEC, "Registro Peruano de Ensayos Clínicos" (The Peruvian Clinical Trial Registry).

Likelihood score refers to the per cent of the text segments that contains a concept

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Role of Intra-Regional African Trade in Promoting South-South Cooperation and AfCFTA



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Emeka Charles Iloh**

"One of the key prerequisites for regional integration of landlocked economies is crossborder infrastructure. Building road and rail, and establishing linkages into Africa's interior, in particular, is necessary to facilitate trade and build regional development corridors."

Introduction

frica is one of the regions with the highest number of intra-regional integration schemes.1 Despite this, the region's trade volumes are low compared to other regions. However, the East African Community (EAC) bloc has made tremendous efforts using the vehicle known as the Northern Corridor Infrastructure Project (NCIP) which made the region to record breakthroughs and successes in trade levels and investments, revenue growth with the promotion of production and consumption in locally manufactured goods. Between 2010 and 2015, the region recorded over a 100 per cent growth in intratrade precisely from US\$1.6 billion to US\$3.8 billion with a 73 per cent export growth from US\$6.4 billion in 2006 to US\$11.1 billion in 2010 (Bichachi, 2016).

In West Africa, the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) (formed in May 1975 with Mali, Niger, Burkina Faso, Benin, Cote d'Ivoire, Senegal, Togo, Guinea Bissau, Liberia, Nigeria, Ghana, Sierra Leone, Guinea, Gambia, Cape Verde as current member states) has made some regional integration efforts through the regional agricultural policy (ECOWAP) which aimed at encouraging the competitiveness of farmers in intra-regional and international markets among others. In 1979, the ECOWAS Trade Liberalisation System (ETLS) was approved to create a West African free trade zone. Meanwhile, the USAID/WA is providing support to push member states to fully implement the protocol. In the East and Southern Africa, there is the

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Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa (COMESA). COMESA was formed in December 1994 with the following countries as member states: Zambia, Swaziland, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Malawi, Madagascar, Mauritius, Seychelles, Zimbabwe, Egypt, Sudan, Libya, Ethiopia, Eritrea, Comoros, Djibouti, Uganda, Kenya, Rwanda, and Burundi. COMESA adopted a developmental approach to regional integration which covers market, industrialisation and infrastructure development. Some of the sub-regional integration efforts include the small cross-border trade programmes which aim at promoting and implementing pro-poor trade facilitation rules, instruments, and infrastructure to ease formal border crossing at selected border posts. In 2015, COMESA, EAC and the Southern African Development Community (SADC) formed what is known as the Tripartite Free Trade Area (TFTA). It was launched to further deepen

the intra-regional integration efforts in Africa. As by January 2018, 22 countries have ratified the agreement. Table 1 below shows the chronology of regional blocks in Africa.

Despite these regional integration efforts, Africa is still faced with the challenges of deepening its intra-regional trade. Fragmented regional markets, have constrained Africa's economic growth. The continent has integrated with the rest of the world faster than with itself. This is due to the range of crossborder non-tariff and regulatory barriers which raise transaction costs and limit the movement of goods, services, and capital across borders (Brenton and Isik, 2012). The opportunities for cross-border trade within Africa in food products, basic manufactures and services remain unexploited (Brenton and Isik, 2012). Over 80 per cent of Africa's exports are shipped overseas, mainly to European Union (EU), China and the United States (US) despite

Table 1: Chronology of Regional Integration Schemes in Africa

S/N	Integration Scheme	Year Established	Headquarters
1	SACU	1969	Windhoek, Namibia
2	MRU	1973	Free Town, Sierra Leone
3	ECOWAS	1975	Abuja, Nigeria
4	ECCAS	1983	Libreville, Gabon
5	IOC	1984	Port Louis, Mauritius
6	AMU/UMA	1989	Rabat, Morocco
7	SADC	1992	Gaborone, Botswana
8	COMESA	1993	Lusaka, Zambia
9	WAEMU	1994	Dakar, Senegal
10	CEMAC	1994	Libreville, Gabon
11	IGAD	1996	Djibouti, Djibouti
12	CEN-SAD	1998	Tripoli, Libya
13	EAC	1999	Arusha, Tanzania
14	ICGLR	2000	Bujumbura, Burundi
15	AU	2002	Addis Ababa, Ethiopia

Sources: Iloh and Ojukwu (forthcoming); Iloh and Nwokedi (forthcoming) and Mo Ibrahim Foundation (2014).

conflicting trade rules, cross-border restrictions and poor transport networks (Africa Renewal, 2018). The production networks that have been a salient feature of development in other regions, especially East Asia, have yet to materialise in Africa. The poor level of regional integration in Africa has resulted in inefficient and low volumes of trade. For instance, between 1995 and 2017 (more than two decades), the percentage of intra-trade export could only grow from 10 per cent to 17 per cent. Several factors are responsible for this. First, a large percentage of Africa's export to the rest of the world consists of primary products, especially agricultural products, whose value in the international market is minimal. Second and sequel to the above, it is almost the same commodities that most African countries sell in the international market. Thus, it is difficult to buy from each other. Therefore, they all look towards Europe, North America and Asia for buyers for their commodities. Third, despite the multiple integration schemes, trade within Africa is costly. Exporting to other African countries costs much more than exporting to other parts of the world, especially to Europe and North Africa.

Intra-regional trade takes place when there is exchange of goods and services within a specific economic region of the world. An example is a trade that happens within African regional blocs. African Export-Import Bank (Afreximbank) defines intra-African trade as the trade in goods and services between or among African countries and the flow of goods and services between Africa and Africans in Diaspora. Intra-African trade implies that the regional trading bloc within Africa will trade freely within the continent and will be seen as one regional trade zone like the European Union and others. Intraregional trade is important for resourcedriven diversification. Intra-regional trade integration in Africa has huge implications for the economic growth, structural change and development of the continent. Due to changes in the global landscape and harsh economic times, emerging markets as exemplified in different parts of Africa need to focus their efforts and resources inwards to sustain its economic growth. The African Continental Free Trade Area (AfCFTA), which was signed in March 2018 in Kigali, Rwanda, projected that Africa's intra-regional trade integration will create a single market of over one billion customer base with a GDP of at least US\$ 3.4 trillion (Songwe, 2019). The pact aims to boost intra-African trade as governments commit to removing tariffs on 90 per cent of goods produced within the continent. AfCFTA is peculiar because its scope exceeds that of a traditional free trade area, which generally focuses on trade in goods, to include trade in services, investment, intellectual property rights and competition policy, and possibly e-commerce. The UN Economic Commission for Africa (UNECA) estimates that the implementation of the agreement could increase intra-African trade by 52 per cent by 2022 and double the share of intra-African trade by the start of the next decade (UNECA, 2018).

The AfCFTA has implications for increased volume of trade, political and regulatory reforms, and cooperative initiative within the region amidst other welfare benefits. It shows that trade is the key driver of economic growth in Africa. But as by 2017, the share of intra-African exports as a percentage of total African exports is only 17 per cent which is the lowest compared to levels in Europe which

is 69 per cent, Asia, 59 per cent, and North America, 31 per cent (Songwe, 2019). Also in the regional South, Africa has lagged in intra-regional trade when compared with other developing economies such as Developing Asia, Newly Industrialised Economies (NIEs), China, South East Asia, South Asia, Pacific, Central Asia, and Middle East (UNCTAD, 2015). The World Bank (2015) statistics put intra-African trade at just 11 per cent of the continent's total trade between 2007 and 2011. In 2015, intra-African trade was stated to worth just US\$170 million, according to the same source above. Meanwhile, the potential stands at trillions of dollars. This shows that practical steps need to be taken to scale up intra-regional trade in Africa. This paper, therefore, analyses the role of intra-regional trade in Africa in promoting South-South Cooperation.

The study relied on documentary secondary data from previous studies. These documents were mainly those that contain information on international trade, inter and intra-regional trade, trade liberalisation as well as documents that analysed key statistics and trends in international trade. Other secondary literature was also accessed and analysed. The study made extensive use of internet material which is in the public domain. Using a content analysis mechanism, logical deductions were made which formed the basis of our inferences and conclusion.

Challenges of Intra-Regional Trade in Africa

Extractive Infrastructure

One of the key prerequisites for regional integration of landlocked economies is cross-border infrastructure. Building road

and rail, and establishing linkages into Africa's interior, in particular, is necessary to facilitate trade and build regional development corridors. Africa is stuck with infrastructure that follows a historical trading route which was developed to take raw materials out from the coast to the rest of the world and to bring consumer goods in, rather than to enable trade between African countries (Woolfrey, 2012). For instance, the East African railway linking Kenya to landlocked Uganda has been an issue since 1890 even though the region has the fastest-growing regional economy in Africa with GDP growth estimated at 7.1 per cent by 2014 by the African Development Bank. Rwanda and South Sudan are inland countries waiting to be connected with new railways from Kenya and Ethiopia to reach their borders.

According to Kituyi (2018), Africa has a colonial extractive infrastructure where a rail line will link one African country to a particular western country which aids the easy movement of goods or raw materials to the proposed destination. An example is a rail line from Kasese in Uganda to the Indian Ocean meant to transport copper for export. According to this source, integrative infrastructure is a critical consideration for intra-African trade. For this purpose, the road from Cape Town to Cairo has been tarmacked up to Addis Ababa. There are other efforts and initiatives through the Northern Corridor and the Chinese government which is encouraging investments to build a road from Kampala to the Atlantic Ocean. Others are the transmission of electricity infrastructure which has been launched to Djibouti, Sudan and Kenya from Ethiopia; the agreement on a regional railway network between Kenya, Djibouti, Ethiopia, and Sudan; the agreement

between Ethiopia and Sudan to develop joint industrial parks and economic zones on the border. The Kenyan government authorised the Kenyan port authority to open a clearing office in Kigali (Gahiji, 2013). Despite these efforts, addressing Africa's physical infrastructure gap will require US\$ 93 billion per year worth of public and private investment (Kituyi, 2016). The African Development Bank also estimates that the continent would need to spend an additional US\$ 40 billion a year on infrastructure to turn around its current deficit and keep pace with economic growth.

Bilateral Trade Agreements

Iloh (2018) has also argued that impediments to intra-regional trade in Africa could be traced to the numerous bilateral trade agreements entered into by African countries with other countries outside the continent. According to him, to fulfill these trade obligations, there is trade diversion from the African continent to these other regions. Moreover, according to Iloh (2018), trade agreements entered into by African countries with other countries outside the continent look more attractive than what is obtainable within Africa, thereby giving African countries the impetus to trade more with such countries. A good example of this is the African Growth and Opportunity Act (AGOA) which provides African countries a duty-free access to the United States' markets, after meeting certain conditions. Beyond AGOA, the Economic Partnership Agreements (EPAs) African countries have with the European Union have taken away trade from the continent. Iloh (2018) further argues that in Africa there are no attractions to trading with fellow African countries as there are in trading with other countries outside the continent. For instance, with the Everything-But-Arms (EBA) initiative, Less Developed Countries (LDCs) (which include African countries) have preferential access to EU markets on every other product except arms and ammunition. This preference has enabled many African countries to export their products to the EU markets without much restriction. Such preferences are lacking in Africa, thereby limiting intra-regional or intra-continental trade.

Intra-Africa Non Tariff Barriers

Non-tariff barriers (NTBs) are one of the main challenges of intra-trade in Africa. These barriers such as quantitative import restrictions and government licenses are being used by some African countries to restrict imports. For example, countries such as Burundi, Ethiopia, Madagascar, Sudan, the United Republic of Tanzania, Zambia, Nigeria, Ghana, and Senegal all at one time or the other adopted these barriers mostly against fellow African countries with significant trade restrictions (UNCTAD, 2008). These barriers, in many instances, have made it more expensive to export to fellow African countries than to export to the European Union and North America. Therefore, some countries prefer to export to countries outside Africa than to export to fellow African countries.

Lack of Political Will

According to Kituyi (2016), where there is a deficit of political goodwill, excuses are made to slow down trade. Trudi Hartzenberg, who is the executive director at the Trade Law Centre (TRALAC) for Southern Africa stated that there is a mismatch between the high political ambitions which many African leaders hold and the harsh economic realities

they face. Hartzenberg further stated that these manifests in distinct reluctance to empower institutions due to the fear of loss of sovereignty and policy space.

Intra-Regional Trade and Africa's Export Destinations

In terms of exports, as argued earlier, most of Africa's exports are to the rest of the world, instead of being exported to fellow African countries. For instance, as of 2014, only 18 per cent of exports emanating from Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) had their destinations in fellow SSA countries. Twenty-six per cent went to the European Union, 17 per cent went to China, 8 per cent were exported to India, and 7 per cent to the United States. The remaining 24 per cent were exported to the rest of the world (Schmieg, 2016). This is depicted in Figure 1.

Also, intra-regional trade in Sub Saharan Africa (SSA) is one of the lowest when compared with the level of intra-trade in other regions. For instance, in 2005, intra-trade in SSA stood at US\$23 billion, which rose to US\$56 billion a decade later in 2015. Meanwhile, intra-regional trade among developed countries was valued at US\$4423 billion in 2005. This increased to US\$5444 billion in 2015. Figure 2 shows this.

The figure above shows that apart from South Asia, intra-regional trade was lowest in Sub-Saharan Africa during the period in question. In East Asia, the value of intra-regional trade was US\$948 billion in 2005 and US\$2067 billion in 2015. The value was also higher in West Asia and North Africa, Latin America and the transition economies in both years more than it was in SSA.

Trade in Agriculture

Even, as regards trade in agricultural products, in particular, Iloh (2018) reports that African intra-trade in this sector is very low. According to him, between 2004 and 2007 only one-fifth of African agricultural exports stayed in Africa, whereas 88 per cent of Africa's total agricultural imports originated from outside the continent. According to the Food and Agriculture Organisation (2012), while some African countries have been importing agricultural products from other African countries, intra-African imports have remained less than 10 per cent of Africa's imports of such agricultural products. However, the rest, which is about 90 per cent, are being imported from other continents, especially from Asia, Europe, and North America.

It is, however, difficult to ascertain the level of intra-regional trade going on in Africa. This is because most crossborder trade takes place in informal value chains outside the legal system. In other words, small traders account for most of the transactions and as such, a large percentage of the trade transactions go on without being recorded. The African Development Bank and the Food and Agriculture Organisation (2015) put official estimates of the volume of all intra-regional trade in the continent at no more than 16 per cent of the total value of commercial trade of the region. In line with the foregoing, the World Bank (2015) has also noted that the majority of trade in the continent goes unreported and undocumented. What accounts for this is the prevalence of informal trade channels which allows for circumvention of official border points through the numerous roads connecting the countries. According to the World Bank (2015), in Benin alone, there

are about 171 informal trade crossing points, compared to about 30 official border posts.

Africa's Intra-Regional Trade **Integration Efforts**

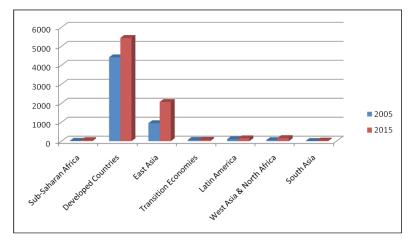
For over a decade, a debate on the benefits of trade has been ongoing in Africa until March 2018 in Kigali, when an agreement was reached that the continent should trade more with itself. The landmark trade agreement known as the African Continental Free Trade Area (AfCFTA) was an outcome of African Union Summit in Rwanda where 44 African nations gathered and signed the treaty that would create the world's largest single market. This agreement commits African countries to remove tariffs on 90 per cent of their goods and progressively liberalise trade in services. Beyond the traditional free trade area, this pact includes trade

Rest of the world EU 24% US 26% 7% Intra-SSA China 18% 17% India 8%

Figure 1: Main Destinations of SSA Exports, 2014

Source: Schmieg (2016, 7).





Source: Computed by the authors with data extracted from UNCTAD (2017, 13).

in services, intellectual property right and competition policy, investment and possibly e-commerce (Songwe, 2019). Africa is expected to improve its economic growth and development with this new trade package. The greatest opportunity for realising Africa's potential growth is her ability to trade and do business with herself through improved trading links and regional trade integration (Negeri, 2018). The AfCFTA pact has potentials to address Africa's youth unemployment and poverty and reinvigorate Africa's development (Gonzalez, 2015; Kituyi, 2016 & Negeri, 2018). Within the African Regional Economic Communities (RECs), the Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa (COMESA) is the largest RTA in terms of the number of member countries (20 countries), accounting for 21 per cent of total African exports in 2017. In value terms, the Southern African Development Community (SADC) ranks first among African RTAs, representing 41 per cent of total African exports in 2017. Fuels and mining products, constitute more than 50 per cent of total exports for the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) and the Central African Economic and Monetary Community (CEMAC) (World Trade Statistics, 2018).

The implementation of AfCFTA will boost intra-African trade without doubt. The UN Economic Commission for Africa (UNECA, 2018) estimates that the implementation of the African Continental Free Trade Area agreement could increase intra-African trade by 52 per cent by 2022 (compared with trade levels in 2010) and double the share of intra-African trade (currently around 13 per cent of Africa's exports) by the start of the next decade. Songwe (2019) stated that through the sole removal of tariffs on goods, the value of intra-African trade will increase between 15 per cent (or US\$50 billion) and 25 per cent (or US\$70 billion) by 2040 depending on liberalisation efforts. In the same vein, an empirical study of Saygili, Peters, and Knebel (2017) show that the CFTA offers many opportunities for sustainable development and economic growth in Africa. However, not all countries will benefit to the same extent, and the gain of welfare benefits also implicates relevant costs and commitments. The findings of the paper show that in the short run, tariff revenue will be lost, local Small and Medium-Scale Enterprises (SMEs), which could not survive the competitive market will be crowded out, and unemployment will occur. For regional blocs which have attained a certain level of integration like EAC, the benefits are likely to be more. For instance, the NCIF mechanism initiated by the leaderships of Uganda, Kenya, and Rwanda resulted in building a road and rail infrastructure that connects the northern transport corridor from Mombasa to Uganda and Rwanda and even beyond.

Role of African Economies in Realising the AfCFTA

There is a need for political and regulatory reforms. Investment in infrastructure is also required, which in the long run would bring about welfare benefits (lower import prices), efficiency and increase in output, higher-value jobs, and technological specialisation (Kituyi, 2016). According to the African Development Bank (2018), Africa requires huge investments to develop, upgrade and maintain its infrastructure. This source estimates that the continent's infrastructure has a financing gap in the range of US\$ 68-108 billion and needs about US\$130-170 billion a year, to address not only current

weakness but also to keep pace with economic growth. Again, harmonisation of policies and regional standards, coordination of trade liberalisation and facilitation will also be made for AfCFTA to be achieved. Africa is associated with the harsh business environment as seen in cumbersome custom procedures, high transport cost and poor infrastructure (Tuomisto, and Saeed, 2018).

For AfCFTA to be achieved, the industrialisation plan of African countries needs to be reviewed. The emphasis on intra-African trade by the African Development Bank and the African Union (AU) provides the opportunity to foster the process of African industrialisation and set the region on an export diversification path (Stiglitz, 2016). According to Stiglitz (2016), the slowdown in growth in the rest of the world puts greater onus on Africa to have its growth policies. In 2014, Africa's manufacturing value-added accounted for only 16 per cent of the global total due to poor industrialisation efforts (Stiglitz, 2016).

African governments should further engage in cooperative initiatives and high-level interactions within themselves. Some efforts have been made in certain regions but they need to be embraced by all the regional blocs. In 2013, the Kenyan government authorised the Kenya Port Authority to open a clearing office in Rwanda's capital, Kigali, saving traders a nearly 3,000 km round trip by road to Mombasa. This move has helped to open up Kenya trade, via Rwanda, with Burundi and the Democratic Republic of Congo. In 2017, the Ethiopia-Djibouti electric railway network line was completed, a project that the regional leaders envisioned will become pan-African railway network stretching from the Red Sea to the Atlantic Ocean (Golubski 2017). In 2018 also, Ethiopia and Sudan agreed to develop joint industrial parks and economic zones on their borders. In the same vein, Egypt and Ethiopia signed an agreement in 2014 to establish an Egyptian farm in Ethiopia. This was implemented in February, 2018 (Egypt Today, 2018).

Implications of Africa's Intra-Regional Trade on South-South Cooperation

South-South Cooperation (SSC) is a broad framework of collaboration among countries of the south in terms of political, economic, social, cultural, environmental and technical domain. It is a manifestation of solidarity between countries and peoples of the South which contributes to their well-being and selfreliance. It is a process whereby two or more developing countries pursue their individual and/or shared national capacity development objectives through exchanges of knowledge, skills, resources and technical know-how, and through regional and interregional collective actions, including partnerships involving governments, regional organisations, civil society, academia and the private sector, for their individual and/or mutual benefit within and across regions (UNDP, n.d).

assumes that developing countries pursue their development objectives through sharing of knowledge, skills and technical know-how, but more importantly, through regional and interregional collective actions. Trade is an important element of regional and interregional collective action. Nothing else integrates countries as much as trade does, and this becomes more evident when sub-regional groups trade more among themselves than they trade with countries outside the group. With the coming into effect of AfCFTA on May 30, 2019, as a binding international legal instrument, there are hopes that the level of intra-African trade would increase. This is exactly the philosophy behind the SSC.

Thus, with AfCFTA, the unification of Africa's market into a single market will bring about economic resilience not only in the region but also within the South-South countries. AfCFTA will contribute to the general welfare of South-South particularly with regards to the sustainable development goals (SDGs). The pack will create opportunities for foreign direct investment and also boost competitiveness in the continent which strengthens its self-reliance. With this, the continent will contribute to the economic resilience of the southern pole in general. Political scientists have argued that supranational institutions which emerged as a result of deep regional integration reduce international insecurity (de Melo, 2019). de Melo (2019) stated that evidence shows that membership in a deep regional trade arrangement reduces the probability of a dispute escalating into war. This is so because, through dialogue, and exchange of information on military capabilities, political issues and conflicts are settled.

Although many scholars have argued that removing tariffs would not necessarily translate into increased intra-African trade, given other issues such as cross border infrastructure, policy harmonisation, illicit financial flows, need for territorial protection. However, there is no doubt that AfCFTA is a bold step and a giant stride towards integrationist efforts in Africa. It will certainly galvanise progress towards intra-African trade and South-

South Cooperation. The expectation is that AfCFTA will increase intra-African trade by over 50 per cent, and boost the continent's GDP by more than US\$ 40 billion. With a market size of 1.2 billion people, AfCFTA is the world's largest free trade area (Karuhanga, 2019). Its full implementation will remove 90 per cent of tariffs and other trade barriers on goods traded with other African countries, as well as increase intra-African trade by over 52 per cent (Bikales, 2019).

Conclusion

African countries have made concerted efforts towards improving economic integration in the continent. This is evident in the number of regional economic communities (RECs) scattered all over Africa. One of the reasons behind these RECs is to integrate regional markets to increase intra-regional trade, which will, in turn, contribute to South-South economic resilience. AfCFTA is a giant stride for deeper regional integration and is expected to deal with the stagnant aggregate trade volume which the continent is faced with. This is so because if AfCFTA comes into force with the necessary investments and reforms, there will be improved production network and increased financial flows. Thus, African governments need to work together and engage in cooperative initiatives given that AfCFTA has come to stay.

Endnotes

According to Iloh and Nwokedi (forthcoming), there are about 17 regional trade blocs/integration schemes in Africa. Out of this number, eight regional economic communities were recognized by the African Union as the building blocks of the African Economic Community (AEC). These RECs include:

the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS); Economic Community of Central African States (ECCAS); Arab Maghreb Union (AMU/ UMA); Southern African Development Community (SADC); Common Market Eastern and Southern (COMESA); Intergovernmental Authority on Development (IGAD); (Community of Sahel-Saharan States (CEN-SAD); and the East African Community (EAC) (Iloh and Ojukwu, forthcoming). The rest are the Southern African Customs Union (SACU); West African Economic and Monetary Union (WAEMU); Central African Economic and Monetary Community (CEMAC); Mano River Union (MRU); Indian Ocean Commission (IOC); and the International Conference on the Great Lakes Region (ICGLR).

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Delhi Process Fifth Conference - New Opportunities & New Partnerships Post-BAPA+40



IS has been on the forefront of bringing all stakeholders together to deliberate on South-South Cooperation (SSC) for a better understanding of the global development architecture. In order to carry forward this process and generate a balanced and well informed debate, RIS initiated the Delhi Process conferences. The first conference in 2013, provided an international platform for such a deliberation. Subsequent conferences (2016, 2017 and 2018), highlighted the plurality and diversity of SSC, its linkages with Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and looked at SSC through a theoretical lens in the light of empirical realities and emerged with a narrative asserting the 'uniqueness' of SSC. Deliberations during the Delhi Process helped contribute significantly to



Shri T.S. Tirumurti, Secretary (ER), Ministry of External Affairs, Government of India with fellow distinguished panelists at the Inaugural session.

the Second United Nations High Level Conference on South-South Cooperation (BAPA+40), held in March 2019.

In partnership with the Ministry of External Affairs, Government of India, United Nations Office for South-South Cooperation (UNOSSC), Network of Southern Think-Tanks (NeST) and Forum for Indian Development Cooperation (FIDC), RIS organised the Delhi Process fifth Conference on South-South and Triangular Cooperation towards "Exploring New Opportunities and New Partnerships Post-BAPA+40". The conference was held on 22-23 August, 2018 at New Delhi. The aims of the conference was to assess the future implications, identify challenges and develop a roadmap for SSC in tune with the consensus arrived at BAPA+40.

H.E. Dr. Nomvuyo Nokwe, Secretary General, Indian Ocean Rim Association, Mauritius, delivered the inaugural address and Amb. Mohan Kumar, Chairman, RIS, made the welcome remarks. Mr. Jorge Chediek, Director, UNOSSC; Professor Anuradha Chenoy, Chairperson, FIDC; and Professor Li Xiaoyun, Chairman, NeST made key oberservations on behalf of partner Institutions and Shri T. S. Tirumurti, Secretary (ER), Ministry of External Affairs, Government of India gave his special remarks. Prof. Sachin Chaturvedi, Director General, RIS, extended the vote of thanks and welcomed participants from over 53 countries that included 16 international institutions and major SSC stakeholders.

Experts deliberated on issues related to scaling up of SSC in the face of Industry 4.0; evolving an impact assessment framework that captures the unique features of SSC; the diversity of actors and role of institutions in actualising the aspirations of the South; the role of SSC for global financial governance and simultaneously engaged in exploring the potential of Triangular Cooperation (TrC). The discussion explored the need for sharing and co-creation of technology for strengthened cooperation and presented a space for emerging agencies of the Global South to come together to share experiences, knowledge and mechanisms for the institutionalisation of SSC.

Shri Piyush Goyal, Hon'ble Minister of Railway and Minister of Commerce and Industry, Government of India, gave the keynote address for the challenges and opportunities faced by the South in respect to financial governance, underscoring India's vision of 'reformed multilateralism'.



Shri Piyush Goyal, Hon'ble Minister of Railways and Minister of Commerce and Industry, Government of India delivering the Keynote Address at the Plenary Session I.

Dr. Rajat Kathuria, Chief Executive, Indian Council for Research on International Economic Relations, highlighted the need for skilling and reskilling in the South as it continues the feat to catch up to Industrial Revolution 3.0 while preparing for Industrial Revolution 4.0.

The conference also evolved a broad consensus on assessing SSC against the nonnegotiable principles, on one hand, and the modalities with its variations in operation, on the other. The idea of 'Development Compact' as a complementary set of interdependent modalities received considerable appreciation from the participants. The experts articulated the responsibility of Southern partners to share the impacts, positive or otherwise, with peers in the spirit of solidarity so as to help them identify best practices that may be implemented with necessary adjustments to contribute to their developmental aspirations. The purpose of SSC assessment should then be driven by the desire to enhance mutual learning and experience sharing.

A dedicated session to initate 'Knowledge Sharing among Southern Partners' brought together eight Southern agencies to engage on sharing experiences in institutional development, coordination with other agencies and mechanisms for strengthening SSC. The representing institutions were: Agencia Presidencial de Cooperacion Internacional (APC) of Colombia; Thailand International Cooperation Agency (TICA); Development Partnership Administration (DPA) III of India; Palestinian International Cooperation Agency (PICA); Moroccan Agency for International Cooperation (AMCI); Azerbaijan International Development Agency (AIDA); Ministry of Investment and Foreign Economic Relations of Myanmar; and the Embassy of the Argentine Republic in India. The practitioners shared best practices, major challenges in project implementation and delivery and enumerated upon the SSC principles that form the basis of all engagements.

Furthermore, the conference opened avenues for a continued dialogue as we march towards strengthening Southern engagement and initiating triangular partnerships for the achievement of Agenda 2030. This was underlined by Ms. Renata Lok-Dessallien, UN Resident Coordinator in India, in her special remarks and Shri Kiren Rijiju, Hon'ble Minister of State (I/C) for Youth Affairs & Sports and Minister of State for Minority Affairs, Government of India, in his valedictory address.



Ambassador Bhaskar Balakrishnan with fellow panelists at the Young Scholar's Forum

Delhi Process Fifth Conference further took the much needed steps to strengthen knowledge linkages initiating a Think Tanks-University Connect and a Young Scholars Forum. The Think tanks-University Connect created a collective platform for knowledge creators inaugurated by the Professor V.K. Malhotra, Member Secretary, Indian Council of Social Science Research (ICSSR) and Dr. Bhushan Patwardhan, Vice-Chairman, University Grants Commission. This new initiative aimed to further feed in teaching and research at various institutes of higher learning, bringing in the disciplines of international relations, international economics, development studies, and their interface with public policy formulation process into a collective platform. The consultation involved participation of members of faculty from 22 universities and seven Think Tanks located in India. Most of the participants from the universities were affiliated to the departments of international relations or public policy. The effort was first of its kind to initate a knowledge sharing mechanism among Southern Universities and Think-Tanks to facilitate the desired integration between teaching and policy- making.

The Young Scholars Forum highlights another vertical of strengthened SSC as it tapped into the alumni network of Indian Technical and Economic Cooperation Programme (ITEC) participants continuing the processes of knowledge exchange. It aimed to engage an increasing number of researchers from the South in unravelling the complexities and pluralities of SSC. In response to a call for papers extended to the RIS-ITEC Alumni networks, 80 papers were received out of which 20 papers were selected through a two-month rigorous selection process. The papers were presented under three themes at the Young Scholar's Forum i.e. Strengthening South-South Trade and Scientific Cooperation; South-South Cooperation and Triangular Cooperation; and Achieving SDGs and Country Perspectives. The objectives identified for the Forum were fully realised. The participants could relate their understanding about development cooperation to the ground-level realities they observe around themselves. The participants also got the opportunity to take part in the main deliberations of Delhi Process Fifth Conference, allowing them to be further engaged with the larger issues facing global cooperation.

On this occasion, RIS also held a special exhibition with the participation of 27 partner countries and institutions, showcasing their contributions towards fortifying South-South Cooperation. The fifth conference under the Delhi Process moved towards creating a network of policymakers, civil society and academic to bring various stakeholders together in a call for collective action and fortifying partnerships for collective development. The conference facilitated the exchanges of ideas and initiatives taking steps towards achieving the global goals for sustainable and inclusive development.

The detailed agenda and key takeaways of the Conference are available here http:// www.ris.org.in/key-takeaways-delhi-processfifth-conference-south-south-and-triangularcooperation

SSC in Statistics

An Analysis of Official Development Assistance from 1960-2018



Sushil Kumar*

The Development Assistance Committee (DAC) comprising of 29 members of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) keeps track of the flow of Official Development Assistance (ODA)¹ to the developing countries, and annually releases data on the same. As per data available from OECD, ODA from the DAC member countries increased from USD 38 billion in 1960 to USD 143 billion in 2018 (at constant 2017 prices) at an annual rate of growth of more than 2 per cent. ODA in 2018 was 3.8 times of that provided in 1960 in real terms. However, it is important to note that ODA as percentage of GNI (Gross National Income) of donor countries declined from 0.51 per cent in 1960 to 0.31 per cent in 2018 (see Figure 1). This is contrary to the commitments made way back in 1970 vide a UN resolution adopted on 24 October 1970 in tune with the recommendation of Pearson Commission² made in 1969.

160 0.60 140 120 100 80 0.30 60 0.20 40 0.10 20 0 0.00 1960 1965 1970 1975 1980 1985 1990 1995 2000 2005 2010 2015 2018 → Total ODA → ODA/GNI

Figure 1: ODA as a Per cent of GNI, DAC Donors, 1960-2018

Source: OECD Statistics.

Note: Data is based on constant prices (2017), GNI data taken from WDI.3

^{*} Consultant, RIS

"In recognition of the special importance of the role which can be fulfilled only by official development assistance, a major part of financial resource transfers to the developing countries should be provided in the form of official development assistance. Each economically advanced country will progressively increase its official development assistance to the developing countries and will exert its best efforts to reach a minimum net amount of 0.7 per cent of its gross national product at market prices by the middle of the Decade." - UN General Assembly Resolution 2626 (XXV), 24 October 1970, paragraph 43

The resolution refers to a commitment of contributing 0.7 per cent of GDP (Gross Domestic Product) (later changed to GNI) as their ODA by all the member countries of OECD. It is also important to note that

if the UN (United Nations) target of 0.7 per cent of GNI for ODA had been achieved in 2018, USD 329.3 billion would have been available for development assistance, compared to USD 143.23 billion. Thus there is an apparent shortfall of USD 186.07 billion from the accepted norm. More recent data shows that overall ODA flow from the DAC member's countries decreased from USD 147.55 billion in 2016 to USD 143.23 billion in 2018 (in real term). It is a decline by about 2.67 percent (Figure 1).

Figure 2 looks at country wise disaggregate contribution to ODA for 2018, the last year for which such data is available. As is clear, the largest donors in 2018 by volume were the USA (United States of America), Germany, the United Kingdom (UK), France and Japan. These five countries together contributed US\$ 97.44 billion, accounting for more than 68 per-

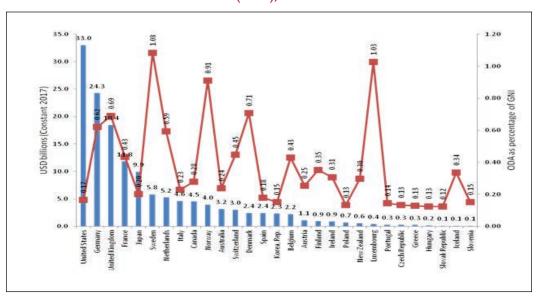


Figure 2: Official Development Assistance from DAC Member Countries (2018), USD Billion

Source: OECD Statistics.

Note: Data is based on constant prices (2017), GNI data taken from WDI and figure are estimated.

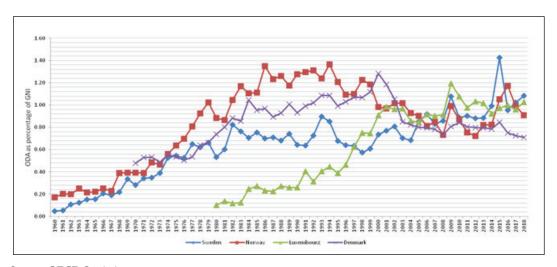
cent of total ODA in 2018. However, only one among them, the UK, maintained an ODA/GNI ratio close to 0.7 (0.69 per cent in actual). The rest all slipped significantly from the norm. The four countries that maintained ODA/GNI ratio above 0.7 percent are Luxembourg, Sweden, Norway and Denmark. Their contribution to global ODA in 2018 was a meagre 8.83 percent.

International Variations in ODA/ **GNI Ratio**

As we consider the pattern of their ODA contributions over time, some select donor countries (nine-DAC countries) can be classified into three major groups according to their generosity in providing ODA. The first group records an ODA/ GNI ratio more than 0.7 per cent in 2018. The four countries in the group Sweden, Norway, Luxembourg and Denmark maintained the 0.7 per cent ODA/GNI target for a considerable stretch of time (Norway achieved in 1976, Denmark in 1980, Sweden in 1982 and Luxembourg in 1998) (see Figure 3). It is also important to note that in 1994, Norway reached its highest ODA/GNI ratio of 1.36 per cent.

The second group maintained an ODA/GNI ratio between 0.4 per cent to 0.7 per cent in 2018. Germany's ODA/GNI ratio between 1960 and 2018 shows that it

Figure 3: ODA/ GNI Ratio (Donor-wise more than 0.7 Per cent of GNI in 2018)



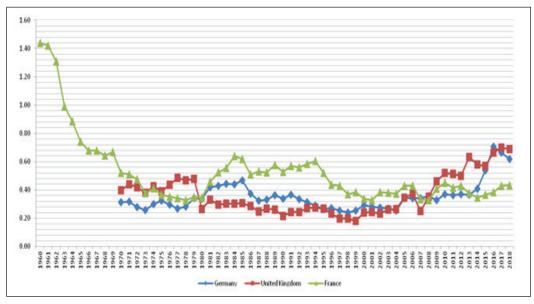
Source: OECD Statistics.

Note: Data is based on constant prices (2017), GNI data taken from WDI and figure are estimated.

increased in late 1970s and decreased in 1980s and 1990s. Only after 2002 it steadily increased and in 2017 achieved the 0.7 per cent of GNI target. Trends also show that in initial years France's ODA/GNI ratio was more than one per cent of GNI after

that it declined and reached 0.43 percent of GNI in 2018. United Kingdom's ODA/ GNI ratio also varies from 0.4 per cent in 1970 to 0.69 per cent of GNI in 2018 (see Figure 4)

Figure 4: ODA/ GNI Ratio (Donors with 0.4 to 0.7 per cent of GNI in 2018)



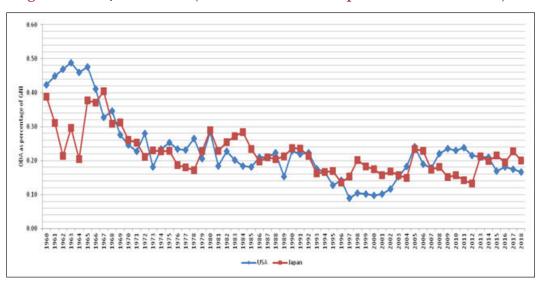
Source: OECD Statistics.

Note: Data is based on constant prices (2017), GNI data taken from WDI and figure are estimated.

Finally, the third group whose ODA/GNI ratio is less than 0.2 per cent. Figure 5 shows that the ODA/GNI ratio is the lowest for the USA at about 0.17 per cent of its GNI in 2018, just over half of the 1968

level of 0.35 per cent and it is also important to note that in 1997, USA reached its lowest ODA/GNI ratio of 0.09 per cent (see Figure 5). Japan's ODA/GNI share also declined from 0.39 per cent in 1960 to 0.20 per cent in 2018.

Figure 5: ODA/ GNI Ratio (Donors with 0.0 to 0.2 per cent of GNI in 2018)



Source: OECD Statistics.

Note: Data is based on constant prices (2017), GNI data taken from WDI.

Endnotes

- Since 1961, Development Assistance Committee (DAC) of OECD (Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development) has been measuring aid flows from the North to the South. The DAC defines ODA as "those flows to countries and territories on the DAC list of ODA (Official Development Assistance) recipients (currently contains over 150 countries) and to multilateral development institutions which are (a) provided by official agencies, including state and local governments; and (b) each transaction of which (i) is administered with the promotion of the economic development and welfare of developing countries at its main objectives; and (ii) is concessional in character and conveys a grant element of at least 25 percent (calculated at a rate of discount of 10 percent" (OECD, 2009). With the new changes adopted later the ODA does not include loans and credits for military purposes.
- Discussed here: http://ris.org.in/sites/ default/files/Delhi_SSC_Conference_Background_Note.pdf; For further details on Pearson Commission see http://web.

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- GNI data taken from the WDI at current prices. Deflator = (ODA at current prices/ ODA at constant prices 2017) ×100 EXTAR-CHIVES/0,,contentMDK:20121526~pageP-K:36726~piPK:36092~theSitePK:29506,00.

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- United Nations. General Assembly. (1970). International Development Strategy for the Second United Nations Development Decade. UN General Assembly Resolution 2626 (XXV). October 24, 1970.

ETHIOPIA, CHINA AND SRI LANKA TO COOPERATE IN RENEWABLE ENERGY

Ethiopia, China and Sri Lanka take steps to form a trilateral partnership under the South-South Cooperation for the renewable energy technologies sector. The joint commitments were made during the high-level workshop on enhancing access to renewable energy technologies within the global commitment to achieve the global Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). As part of the trilateral Southern cooperation, Ethiopia and Sri Lanka are partnering with China enhancing access to renewable energy technologies.

According to the UN Development Programme (UNDP) Ethiopia office, the trilateral cooperation project among the three countries "seeks to promote sustainable energy solutions by focusing on demonstrating the applicability of biogas and solar photovoltaic technologies for communities in Ethiopia and Sri Lanka."

"Close technical cooperation between countries could be the key to acquire sustainable energy technologies for developing countries," Harsha Wickramasinghe, Deputy Director-General of Sri Lanka's Sustainable Energy Authority. "It will speed up the dissipation of technologies vital for the global energy transition. This project could be a good start for similar actions all over the developing world," Wickramasinghe added.

Financing for the three-year project comes from the Ministry of Commerce of China with the provision of two million USD, which will be equally shared between Ethiopia and Sri Lanka.

Source: MENAFN. (2019, August 1). Ethiopia, China, Sri Lanka to spur cooperation in renewable energy. MENAFN - Colombo Gazette. Retrieved from: https://menafn.com/1098830369/Ethiopia-China-Sri-Lankato-spur-cooperation-in-renewable-energy

ACP INFORMATION CENTRE FOR SOUTH-SOUTH AND TRIANGULAR COOPERATION

The African, Caribbean and Pacific Information Centre for South-South and Triangular Cooperation (SS&TrC) has been established in Malabo, the capital of Equatorial Guinea. The Centre is a gift of President Obiang Nguema Mbasogo, the government and the people of the country in Central Africa, to the people and the ACP Group of 79 member states. The Centre was established as a salient token of Southern peoples and countries' solidarity that is aimed at enhancing their respective autonomy and support their efforts to achieve the international Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs).

The ACP, an organisation created by the Georgetown Agreement in 1975 comprises 48 countries from Sub-Saharan Africa, 16 from the Caribbean and 15 from the Pacific who are signatories to the Cotonou Agreement, also known as the "ACP-EU Partnership Agreement". Though the Malabo Information Centre for SS&TrC is unique by itself, the ACP Group from its very beginning has engaged in South-South and Triangular Cooperation between its member states, in addition to North-South Cooperation, by the Lomé and Cotonou Agreements, with Europe. It was in the Sipopo Declaration, inspired by President Obiang, that ACP leaders called for the establishment of an organisation for South-South Cooperation. That call became a reality with his offer in October 2016 to host the ACP Centre in Equatorial Guinea.

A major task will be to deepen partnerships on best practices in development project design, including the ACP Secretariat's South-South Knowledge Exchange Programme. This resulted from the 2016 Symposium on Integrated rural development and how to strengthen women and youth empowerment through job creation and entrepreneurship. Also forging and strengthening partnerships is another important area that will build on the experiences of other stakeholders and bring together relevant synergies.

The Food and Agricultural Organisation (FAO), the Organisation Internationale de la Francophonie (OIF), the Community of Portuguese Speaking Countries (CPLP), the Commonwealth, the United Nations Office for South-South Cooperation, and Brazil among others, are partnering with the ACP Group in implementing various projects on South-South Cooperation.

Soruce: Jacobsen, R. (2019, August 15). ACP Information Centre for South-South and Triangular Cooperation Established in Equatorial Guinea. IDN-InDepthNews International Press Syndicate. Retrieved from: https://www.indepthnews.net/index.php/global-governance/acp-group-of-states/2902-acp-information-centre-for-south-south-and-triangular-cooperation-established-in-equatorial-guinea

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- 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

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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 GDI, FIDC and NeST has endeavoured to launch DCR, a monthly periodical, to fill this gap.

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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. \(\mathbf{y}\)@RIS_NewDelhi

About Global Development Initiative (GDI)

Established at RIS, the Global Development Initiative (GDI) aims to institutionalise knowledge on India's development initiatives and promote their replication as part of knowledge sharing in Asia and Africa with the help of its institutional partners, including civil society organisations. It attempts to explore and articulate global development processes within a micro framework and works as a unique platform to collate and assimilate learning processes of other countries towards promotion of equity, sustainability and inclusively based on multi-disciplinary and multi-functional approach.

About Network of Southern Think Tanks (NeST)

Knowledge generated endogenously among the Southern partners can help in consolidation of stronger common issues at different global policy fora. Consequent to the consensus reached on many of these issues at the High-Level Conference of Southern Providers in Delhi (March 2013) and establishment of the subsequent Core Group on the SSC within the UNDCF (June 2013), the Network of Southern Think-Tanks (NeST) was formally launched at the Conference on the South-South Cooperation, held at New Delhi during 10-11 March 2016. The purpose of the NeST is to provide a global platform for Southern Think-Tanks for collaboratively generating, systematising, consolidating and sharing knowledge on SSC approaches for international development. 🔰 @NeST_SSC

About Forum for Indian Development Cooperation (FIDC)

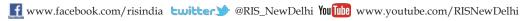
FIDC aims to encourage detailed analysis of broad trends in South-South cooperation and contextualise Indian policies by facilitating discussions across various subject streams and stakeholders based on theoretical and empirical analysis, field work, perception surveys and capacity building needs. **Y**@FIDC_NewDelhi

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