REPORT ON SOUTH-SOUTH COOPERATION IN IBERO-AMERICA 2013-2014















Secretaría General Iberoamericana Secretaria-Geral Ibero-Americana Ibero-American General Secretariat (SEGIB) Paseo Recoletos, 8 28001-Madrid

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COVER PHOTO

Bilateral Horizontal South-South Cooperation Project between Chile and Peru to strengthen Integrated Management of Watersheds on the border between the two countries

DESIGN AND PRINTING

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Depósito Legal: 363.128

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ACRONYMS

AECID	Spanish Agency for International Cooperation for Development	CMG
		COMISC
AGCI	Chile's International Cooperation Agency	
AIESAD	American Association of Higher Distance Education	COMJIB
AMEXCID	Mexican Agency for International Development Cooperation	COSIPLA
AMI	Amazon Malaria Initiative	CSUCA
ANUIES	Mexican Association of Universities and Higher Education Institutions	CUIB
APCI	Peruvian Agency for International Cooperation	DAC
AUSAID	Australian Agency for International Development	ECLAC
BHSSC	Bilateral Horizontal South-South Cooperation	EU FOCAI
CAATEL	Andean Committee of Telecommunications Authorities	GDP
CAC	Central American Agriculture Council	GEF
CAF	Latin American Development Bank	GNI
CAN	Andean Community	IAEA
CARICOM	Caribbean Community	ICG
CDB	Caribbean Development Bank	IDA
CELAC	Community of Latin American and Caribbean States	IDB
CERLALC	Regional Centre for Book Development in Latin America and the Caribbean	IICA
CINTERFOR	Inter-American Centre for Knowledge Development in Vocational Training	INCAP
CISSCAD	Council of Social Security Institutes of Central America and the Dominican Republic	INTI

CMG	Mercosur Common Market Group
COMISCA	Council of Central American Ministers of Health
COMJIB	Conference of Latin American Ministers of Justice
COSIPLAN	South American Council of Infrastructure and Planning
CSUCA	Central American University Superior Council
CUIB	Iberoamerican University Council
DAC	Development Assistance Committee
ECLAC	Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean
EU	European Union
FOCAI	Colombia's International Cooperation and Assistance Fund
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GEF	Global Environment Fund
GNI	Gross National Income
IAEA	International Atomic Energy Agency
ICG	Mercosur International Cooperation Group
IDA	International Development Association
IDB	Inter-American Development Bank
IICA	Inter-American Institute for Cooperation on Agriculture
INCAP	Nutrition Institute of Central America and Panama
INTI	Comprehensive territorial nutritional intervention
LDC	Least Developed Country

LIC	Lower-income country	RHSSC	Regional Horizontal South-South Cooperation
LMIC	Lower middle-income country		1
MDG-F	Millennium Development Goals Achievement Fund	RMAAM	MERCOSUR Meeting of Ministers and High Authorities of Women
		SEGIB	Ibero-American General Secretariat
MDGs MERCOSUR	Millennium Development Goals Mercado Común del Sur	SENAI	Brazilian National Service for Industrial Training
MIC	Middle-income country	SICA	Central American Integration System
MOU	Memorandum of Understanding	SSC	South-South Cooperation
MSMEs	Micro, small and medium enterprises	TSSC	Triangular South-South Cooperation
OAS	Organization of American States	UMIC	Upper middle-income country
OCAM	Central American Commission of Migration Directors	UNASUR	Union of South American Nations
0.0.4		UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
ODA	Official Development Assistance	UNS	United Nations System
OEI	Organization of Ibero-American States for Education, Science and Culture	UNSG	United Nations Secretary General
0155	Ibero-American Social Security Organization	USAID	United States Agency for International Development
OSPESCA	Organization of the Fisheries and		
	Aquaculture Sector of Central America	WB	World Bank
PAHO	Pan American Health Organization	WFP	World Food Programme
PGTF	Perez-Guerrero Trust Fund	WHO	World Health Organisation
PIFCSS	Ibero-American Program to Strengthen South-South Cooperation		

Amazon Network for the Surveillance of Antimalarial Drug Resistance

Meeting of the Healthcare Sector of Central America and the Dominican Republic

RAVREDA

RESSCAD

PRESENTATION

PRESENTATION

he work undertaken since 2007 by the Ibero-American General Secretariat, along with our countries and the Ibero-American Program to Strengthen South-South Cooperation (PIFCSS), has once again borne fruit. The result of that collaboration is the 2013-2014 Report on South-South Cooperation in Ibero-America, its seventh edition.

This edition has several new features. First, the report will no longer be published in the fourth quarter of the year (generally coinciding with the Ibero-American Summits of Heads of State and Governments); rather, it will now be presented early in the following year. The change has no impact on frequency (the report continues to be annual), but publication now coincides with the start of the calendar year.

Second, new advances in methodology were applied in this *Report on South-South Co-operation in Ibero-America*. Specifically, group and horizontal work by countries in the region between consecutive editions enabled us to include more and better analysis tools. The use of indicators for South-South Cooperation and, more recently, the application of statistical techniques have been especially important. We also improved our capacity to obtain better qualitative data, such as those relating to the functioning and management of the forms of South-South Cooperation recognised in the region.

Finally, as a third new feature, Brazil, one of the most dynamic countries in South-South Cooperation in the region, enhanced its contribution to our report. Although Brazil has cooperated actively in all editions, in 2013 it joined the Ibero-American Program to Strengthen South-South Cooperation (PIFCSS). Including Brazil, twenty Ibero-American countries are participating in the Program, which fills us with pride and which we interpret as a show of support and trust on the part of the countries in the work we are all doing together.

As a result, the report is steadily improving and becoming more comprehensive, but its future depends on how we respond to what will undoubtedly be stimulating challenges posed by the global scenario due to the transformation of the cooperation system and the construction of a new post-2015 Development Agenda. At SEGIB, we aim to respond to this challenge with the same commitment and dedication to service we have always had. We trust that our response will be captured in future editions of this report, which will continue to gain strength as an innovative, necessary tool for managing South-South Cooperation between our countries and our peoples.

Rebeca Grynspan Ibero-American Secretary General Salvador Arriola Secretary for Ibero-American Cooperation

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The **Report on South-South Cooperation in Ibero-America 2013-2014** comprises five chapters:

- a) As has been the case since 2009, the first chapter covers the political position that the Ibero-American countries, through their Heads of Cooperation, have adopted in the various international debates on the Agenda for Development and South-South Cooperation.
- b) The second, third and fourth chapters focus on the trends and features, in 2012, of the various forms of cooperation recognized in Ibero-America and, in particular, on Bilateral, Triangular and Regional Horizontal South-South Cooperation.
- c) The fifth chapter reviews Ibero-America's share of Official Development Assistance (ODA) in a context shaped by the global economic crisis.

Responding to the will that our region "... play an outstanding role in the debates to shape the new global development agenda, beginning right from the definition", the first chapter of this report explores the Ibero-American vision of the Post-2015 Cooperation Agenda. In this respect, Ibero-America emphasized what it considers to be the main challenges:

- a) On the one hand, identifying possible content in the definition of the Post-2015 Agenda. The focus was on how to incorporate into this agenda the dialogue between global and local, between ensuring universality and respecting plurality. Thus, it was imperative to "closely link the normative agenda on human rights with the development agenda," but also to adopt approaches that run across the priorities of the future agenda.
- b) It was also necessary to adapt the role of International Cooperation to the new Agenda. Considering the changing situation, in order to advance towards an integrated, solidarious system of international cooperation, lbero-America highlighted the need to "adopt a distinctive approach which goes beyond GDP when determining a country's level of development" and to "scale up the southern countries' contribution to development through South-South and Triangular Cooperation."

The second chapter analyzed events with 506 projects and 203 actions in the area of Bilateral Horizontal South-South Cooperation in Ibero-America in 2012. In fact, regarding the way in which the countries participated, the underlying sectoral profile and other trends in this form of cooperation, it should be noted that:

- a) Almost 90% of all projects were executed by Brazil, Mexico, Argentina, Chile and Colombia-countries whose share of these 506 projects ranged from 30% (Brazil) down to 9.5% (Colombia). The other 11.1% depended on new providers, whose shares were also disparate: Uruguay and Ecuador (16 and 14 projects, respectively); Peru, Cuba and Costa Rica (20 projects in total); and El Salvador, Paraguay, Guatemala and Panama (the only countries whose involvement was confined to one or two projects each). Meanwhile, Honduras, Nicaragua, the Dominican Republic, Venezuela and Bolivia were inactive as providers.
- b) All Latin American countries participated as recipients of assistance. Again, in terms of intensity of participation, it is possible to distinguish between Ecuador, the main recipient (66 projects, equivalent to 13% of the total in 2012), El Salvador, Bolivia and Paraguay (with shares of 8-9%, each), Guatemala, Costa Rica, Cuba, Peru, and Uruguay (which accounted for another 30% of incoming projects), Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama and the Dominican Republic, plus Colombia and Argentina (accounting for almost 25% of the 506 projects), and finally Honduras with three South American countries–Chile, Venezuela and Brazil–which accounted for the remaining 7%.
- c) Close to 45% of those projects focused on strengthening national economies. This occurred in a proportion of 70:30, favoring Productive sectors, whose share was notably higher than that of Infrastructure and economic services. Complementarily, slightly more than onefourth of the projects (27.1%) had a social objective. Meanwhile, strengthening of government institutions was less important though nonetheless notable, accounting for 14.4% of Bilateral HSSC. Projects focused on the Environment (7.1%) and Other development models (7.4%) accounted for similar percentages.
- d) Finally, using the indicators for South-South Cooperation developed in recent years and applying statistical techniques provided additional knowledge about other aspects of Bilateral Horizontal South-South Cooperation in 2012. The following conclusions were drawn:
 - A minimal proportion (10%) of BHSSC projects under way in 2012 were approved between 2006 and 2009; the bulk (90%) were approved after 2009. The largest single number of approvals came in 2011 (160 projects, more than half of those considered).

• Only one-third of projects under way were completed in 2012. Most of the remainder are expected to be completed in 2013 (48.2%) and 2014 (15.6%). A very small proportion (1.5%) are expected to conclude in 2015.

• The average duration of projects under way in 2012 was 492.1 days (around one year and four months). In contrast, the average duration of actions was much shorter: 57.4 days (two months).

The **third chapter** focuses on the **77 Triangular South-South Cooperation actions undertaken by Ibero-American countries in 2012**. Notable issues in this connection were the intensity of the countries' participation and their roles; the profile of the capacities that were strengthened; the performance of other features of the projects and actions; and the deepening of other aspects related to planning and operational management of Triangular South-South Cooperation. Specifically:

- a) In practically 95% of the Triangular South-South Cooperation projects in 2012, the top provider was one of four countries: Chile (44.2% of the 77 projects finally registered), Mexico (31.2%), Colombia (11.7%) and Brazil (7.8%).
- b) Notable second providers were Germany, Japan, the US and Australia, which were involved in two-thirds of the projects.
- c) The top three recipients were Paraguay, El Salvador and Guatemala, accounting for close to half (46.8%) of the 77 projects. Including Honduras, the top four recipients had a share of 58.5%.
- d) However, part of each country's share should be understood in the light of preferential relationships. Examples in 2012 include the relationship between Chile and its main second provider, the USA; their triangular relationship with Paraguay; and the relationship between Germany and Mexico, on the one hand, and other countries in the region, particularly some Central American countries, the Andean countries and Paraguay.
- e) Two-thirds of the projects (67.5%) focused on strengthening economic and social capacities (44.2% and 23.4% respectively). Within the strictly economic area, projects focused on developing productive sectors predominate (28.6%) with respect to those that supported operating conditions (15.6%). Also, practically one out of five projects (18.2%) focused on environmental needs. Projects to strengthen public institutions and governments played a less significant role (one out of ten). "Other" dimensions (e.g. culture, gender, and various development models) accounted for just 3.9% of Triangular SSC in 2012.

f) The use of indicators and statistical techniques again reveals aspects of this form of cooperation. For example:

• The bulk of Triangular SSC projects (54.8%) commenced in 2012. In fact, over 90% of projects and close to 100% of actions began in 2012 or 2011.

• Also, most projects (70%) concluded in 2012. Another 25% of projects are expected to conclude in 2014 (16.7%), or in 2015-2016 (6.6%). Meanwhile, 90% of actions concluded in 2012 and practically 96% will have concluded by the end of 2013.

• Alternatively, it is estimated that projects take an average of 440 days (slightly over 14 months) while actions take much less: 109 days (just over three-and-a-half months).

g) Finally, the survey also revealed the most frequent formulas used in planning and managing Triangular South-South Cooperation projects. In general terms:

• Projects under this formula tend to arise from requests by the recipients. The request tends to be a formal response to an invitation from the providers, which offer a catalog of possible projects based on their capabilities. Also, recipients tend to request those projects that meet their needs for institutional strengthening, often associated with the process of designing and implementing development policies and strategies.

• The "invitation" to participate in Triangular South-South Cooperation projects tends to be governed by a bilateral agreement between the first and second providers. This seems to be coherent with the fact that the various types of formal agreement regulating relations between the parties tend to be bilateral and the bulk of them are between the two providers. Meanwhile, agreements signed by all three participants, though important, tend to be a minority.

• The bulk of funding tends to come from the providers (particularly the second provider). This is mostly in the form of specific allocations. Only in a minority of cases is funding channeled through institutionalized mechanisms. However, when this happens, the predominant formula is that of cooperation funds (either individual or multilateral).

Chapter IV identifies 38 Regional Horizontal South-South Cooperation programs and 13 projects in 2012. In this respect:

a) In general terms, the main goal of this form of cooperation involving Ibero-American countries was to respond to problems related to strengthening governance and capacities on the part of Governments, and the area of Healthcare and Education. However, differences were observed in the degree to which the various instruments were used: countries opted for programs to cover needs in the areas of **Culture** and **Science and Technology**; and for projects to address more specific needs related to **Business** competitiveness, the **Environment** and **Gender**.

- b) Maps were drawn of the partners involved in Regional Horizontal South-South Cooperation programs and projects in 2012. The maps identify the national sectoral authority, institution or body representing each Ibero-American country; the councils, associations, forums and ministerial meetings around which they were grouped (sometimes as an organic part of regional and international organizations); the participation of Foreign Ministries and Cooperation Agencies; and that of regional bodies, through their general secretariats.
- c) Additionally, a first approximation was made to the features of the institutional arrangements that accompanied Regional HSSC. Specifically, the goal was to obtain more information about the legal instruments around which these mechanisms were structured; the organizational structure created to implement this form of cooperation; the way in which specific aspects were regulated, such as program requests, approval, follow-up and evaluation; and the most common funding formula. Given the available data, the results were shaped by the study of three specific cases: Ibero-America Cooperation Programs; the Mesoamerican Program (Mexico axis); and the Mercosur-AECID program.

The final chapter focused on Official Development Assistance (ODA) in which Ibero-America participated between 2000 and 2012, particularly on changes in trend in 2008, coinciding with the beginning of a global financial crisis which had a profound impact on some of the region's main donors:

- a) Between 2000 and 2012, world ODA to the region practically doubled: from US\$3.237 billion in 2000 to US\$6.215 billion in 2012. The crisis marked a change in trend: the average growth rate went from 9.4% between 2000 and 2008 to 2.8% between 2009 and 2012. Nevertheless, the second average growth rate conceals very disparate performance: a sharp decline combined with an anomalous 29.9% increase in 2011, which raised the total amount of ODA to an unprecedented-and unexpected-figure of US\$7.152 billion.
- b) This pattern needs to be interpreted in the light of all the changes in individual performance by the region's principal donors: mainly, traditional donors such as the US, Spain and Japan, and new donors, such as France. From 2012 onwards, there was a combination of: negative rates in the case of Japan; an intense decline in ODA from Spain; growing fluctuations, with a downward trend, in aid from the US; and sharp growth in ODA from France, which displaced the US as the region's main donor.
- c) The changes in ODA from these donors reflect different responses to the crisis: fiscal adjustments and budget reductions in some cases, and the modification of sector and geographic priorities in others. In fact, there were also changes in the structure of recipients. Starting in 2008-2009, moderate reductions in aid to traditional recipients such as Bolivia and Honduras coincided with an irregular but gradual decline in funds to Colombia, and a sharp increase in ODA to Brazil, which ranked as the top recipient.



TOWARDS A POST-2015 COOPERATION AGENDA: EXPLORING SHARED **IBERO-AMERICAN** VISIONS

Chapter agreed upon and drafted by the Ibero-American countries through their Heads of Cooperation.

I.1. CONTEXTUALIZING THE CURRENT FRAMEWORK OF THE MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS (MDGs): MAIN LESSONS LEARNED

IN DECEMBER 2000, the world's leaders approved the Millennium Declaration with the goal of addressing the main global challenges. This agreement provided a framework for the eight Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), a world agenda for development to be completed by 31 December 2015. Setting common global goals also made it possible to advance in defining clear, communicable and verifiable targets through indicators and monitoring schemes.

The establishment of objectives, goals and indicators has made it possible to formulate more effective public policies and to evaluate the results at national and international level by creating or strengthening national statistics offices. In the same vein, the institutional structure has favored transparency and accountability, making it possible to identify and address areas where actions may have the greatest impact.

The MDGs have clearly proven to be a useful tool for focusing priorities and channeling resources: the debates around these objectives have served to legitimize the challenges posed by eradicating poverty worldwide, and the need to generate strategies to attain worldwide prosperity. In this framework, it is pertinent to acknowledge the relevance of the MDGs for countries' internal development and for the international agenda in that they constituted a political agreement that has mobilized the international community, international financial institutions, and the funds, programs and agencies within the United Nations System (UNS) for the construction of a social and economic structure to combat poverty and raise living standards for people throughout the world.

However, the MDGs have also drawn criticism, from which we can extract lessons for the future. The limitations that have been identified include the general nature of the objectives, the fact that they advocate the attainment of minimum levels, and the failure to consider the sustainability of the results. Other limitations include their "one-size-fits-all" format, their simplicity, and the fact that they are unconnected to other commitments made at regional and international level (e.g. conventions on climate change and on human rights).

Another major criticism is that the MDGs are presented as a framework that addresses the symptoms but not the underlying causes of poverty, such as growing internal inequality within countries (an issue of great interest to the middle-income countries–MICs). Critics also note the scant interconnection between the economic, social and environmental objectives within the "MDG agenda". The inclusion of gender equality as a single MDG rather than a transverse axis is also an acknowledged shortcoming.

Last, but not least, criticism has been leveled at the internal imbalance within the MDGs in that fulfillment of 7 of the 8 objectives depends primarily on the developing countries, whereas only MDG 8 "Global partnership for development", where commitments are more diffuse and deficient than in the other goals, defines responsibilities that lie principally with the developed countries; moreover, this is the goal where fewest achievements have been logged. It is noteworthy that this goal implicitly defines the global architecture, the countries' role and global funding.

The aforementioned praise and criticism are components of the global and regional debates about the achievements under the MDGs and their effectiveness in the fight against poverty. This process, which was launched in view of the imminent deadline for fulfillment of the MDGs, was made official in 2011 by the UN when the Secretary-General (UNSG) released a report entitled "Accelerating progress towards the Millennium Development Goals: options for sustained and inclusive growth and issues for advancing the United Nations development agenda beyond 2015", which called on all parties to establish an inclusive, transparent and open consultation process in order to define a post-2015 development agenda.

The issues under debate range from the content of the future agenda to the question of how to articulate it with the goals of sustainable development so as to take advantage of, and consolidate, the achievements already attained while also building upon them.

Taking a more holistic view, the goal is to integrate the new agenda under construction with the results achieved in other spheres that have discussed issues which the MDGs overlooked, for example the "Rio+20" conference, which debated development in its various dimensions, highlighting that each country has primordial responsibility for its own economic, social and environmental development and that these efforts must be supported by ODA commitments and South-South Cooperation (SSC). SSC is reinforced by triangular cooperation schemes, trade and investment patterns, and technical cooperation for development, as well as by a national and international context that is conducive to development. Because of their comprehensive nature, the principles and agreements established in these spheres are still valid for addressing, in practical terms, how to finance the Post-2015 Development Agenda. They enrich the debate about post-2015. Our region must play an outstanding role in the debates to shape the new global development agenda, beginning right from the definition; for that reason, it is necessary to continue debating and building regional agreements to use the region's wealth to address and resolve the global challenges.

I.2. IDENTIFYING POSSIBLE CONTENT IN THE DEFINITION OF THE POST-2015 DEVELOPMENT AGENDA

THE WORLD HAS CHANGED significantly since the Millennium Declaration and the drafting of the MDGs. Developing countries are changing the dynamic of multilateralism by expanding their participation and influence in the negotiations and decisions on core issues in the international agenda, such as climate change, international trade and development finance.

The post-2015 agenda must be based on continuing the efforts made to achieve the MDGs, while also taking on board the lessons learned in their implementation and establishing innovative funding mechanisms that can mobilize the necessary resources.

The priority of the post-2015 agenda must evidently still be to eliminate world poverty and ensure that achievements to eradicate it are irreversible, i.e. by seeking conditions that offer well-being in a globalized society on a planetary scale in all spheres (economic, social and environmental). Nevertheless, in recent years the geography and conceptualization of poverty have changed on both a global and regional scale as a result –among other factors– of demographic growth, migration, urbanization, the food, energy and financial crises, and climate change. The latter will have devastating consequences on the progress made so far to achieve the MDGs and may also seriously affect efforts to eradicate poverty unless it is taken into account, as it affects the groups most vulnerable to the damaging consequences of changes in the climate.

Therefore, in contrast with the limited perspective adopted by the MDGs, a more comprehensive approach is now required which deals with all the social, economic and environmental components of development from a multidimensional standpoint, recognizing the different conceptions of the world, and working from a plurality of specific situations instead of assuming a single global situation.

However, this should not be understood as downplaying the globality component since global processes, systems and phenomena impact or limit countries' development prospects (for example, food security is affected by international price volatility and by commodity speculation in the international financial system); rather, it should be seen as a call to include the particular features that drive globality. The post-2015 development agenda must attack the structural causes of inequality, poverty and environmental degradation, having regard not only to the particular forms in which they are expressed in each region but also to their global characteristics and effects.

Returning to the dialogue between global and individual, the post-2015 development agenda must be able to recognize and promote forms of work that can reflect the specific circumstances and characteristics of each country and region. It would be an injustice to treat different situations in the same way without considering what makes them different.

Consequently, it is vital to closely link the normative agenda on human rights with the development agenda—a task that, though complex, is nonetheless possible. Only an approach that takes human rights into account can assure a universal approach to the problems of development: the enjoyment of all those rights by each and every man and woman—regardless of the income per capita of the country where they live or any other condition—should guide the definition of the new agenda which we are discussing at present. Development is impossible if the States fail to meet their obligations to promote, respect and guarantee the universal, indivisible set of human rights.

To ensure enjoyment of these rights, it is essential to design public policies from the standpoint of people and to deepen the dialogue and actions aimed at promoting coherence between the various actors' policies.

The post-2015 framework must also take a transversal approach to issues that run across the priorities to be defined in the future agenda. Human rights are clearly one such issue, but another is the situation of the most vulnerable groups (such as indigenous peoples and Afro-Descendants), and particularly of women, young people and children.

Our region considers that the new framework must recognize the importance of the processes of human mobility and migration from the standpoint of human rights, since migrants are exposed to numerous forms of violence, one of the worst being human trafficking (which is not exclusive to this group) but also discrimination, racism and xenophobia. Additionally, the post-2015 agenda must ensure that the efforts have, as their ultimate objective, the establishment of conditions of fairness, understood as a measure of well-being, by promoting equitable access to opportunities so as to allow an expansion of individuals' basic capabilities. In order to advance in the construction of clear and verifiable goals and indicators, it is necessary to ground expectations in specific commitments that reflect the diversity of countries' problems while also facilitating tracking and evaluation of the objectives agreed upon in the new agenda.

Finally, to achieve the new objectives that are to be defined, a vision of international development cooperation will be needed that is coherent with the agenda that arises from the ongoing debates.

I.3. PROSPECTS FOR THE ROLE OF INTERNATIONAL COOPERATION IN THE POST-2015 DEVELOPMENT AGENDA

WHILE THE NEW DEVELOPMENT agenda is being discussed, it is important for lbero-American countries to reflect on the role of cooperation in the coming years. It is fundamental that international development cooperation make a commitment to a multilateralism that can accommodate the various concepts of development that different countries have.

It is necessary to promote the debate to build a new international cooperation agenda that is aligned with the new development agenda and facilitates and promotes the participation of all players involved in development processes, including civil society, the private sector and the academy, while acting always in coordination with national governments, which must retain their leading role in designing and executing public policy.

The new system must also demonstrate its ability to adapt to changing situations in the international dynamic. In this context, we would like to highlight two issues that we consider to be indispensable in order to attain international cooperation schemes that enable determined progress towards a successful Post-2015 Development Agenda in which all the aforementioned elements are present:

Firstly, it is necessary to adopt a distinctive approach which goes beyond GDP when determining a country's level of development.

A classification of countries by per capita GDP fails to reflect the challenges that MICs still face. That indicator conceals persistent levels of poverty and enormous inequality that exist both between and within countries. Defining the work and priorities of development cooperation on the basis of GDP represents a regression to the now superseded idea that GDP is synonymous with economic growth.

Additionally, classifying countries on the basis of GDP has led to competition for cooperation resources between lessdeveloped countries, higher middle income countries and lower middle income countries.

In the particular case of our region, the exclusive use of GDP as a development indicator has led to a decline in flows of ODA towards Latin America and the Caribbean, from 1% of regional GDP in the 1960s to 0.22% at present.¹

Although several economies in the region have expanded in the last decade, with the consequent improvement in their macroeconomic indicators (reserves, public debt, inflation) and a reduction in the poverty index, they still face internal challenges in the form of development needs associated with a series of structural vulnerabilities and gaps.

In an effort to address the difficulty posed by using GDP as the sole variable for classifying States, the Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) has proposed a new approach to determine vulnerabilities on the basis of structural development gaps, defined as endemic production lags that limit the possibility of transitioning towards more inclusive economies and societies and which persist despite the economic growth that has been attained.

^{1.} ECLAC. 2012. "Middle-income countries: A structural-gap approach". 2012, p. 14

In the case of Latin America and the Caribbean, the main structural gaps lie in: i) income per capita, ii) inequality, iii) poverty, iv) capital expenditure and saving, v) productivity and innovation, vi) infrastructure, vii) education, viii) health, ix) taxation, x) gender, and xi) the environment.²

Identifying and quantifying the relative magnitude of these breaches at individual country level would be the first distinctive step to determining the greatest challenges facing development in the region and those areas that should be incorporated into a new development cooperation agenda.

However, it should also be acknowledged that, on the basis of their human and financial resources, not all MICs have the same international cooperation needs.

Consequently, if we accept that one of the primordial objectives of development cooperation will continue to be the fight against poverty, then it is necessary to establish new allocation criteria focused on the needs of people and not just on countries' economic performance.

Moreover, economic progress by the region leads it to face new problems that overlap with the more traditional ones and affect its development, such as frequent natural disasters, energy and food (in)security, transnationalization of crime, and the demographic difficulties associated with child and elderly dependence, among others. To address them, an innovative development model is needed that is based on changes to achieve equality and environmental sustainability so as to close structural gaps. Consequently, these gaps need to be overcome in order to improve productivity and competitiveness on a systemic basis, so as to strengthen democratic institutions and systems, and also invest in innovation and physical and human capital, an aspect considered to be vital.

A broad and multifaceted concept of development that requires not only an improvement in macroeconomic variables at the national level but also improvements in the lives of people through sustainable, inclusive processes. For the debates around the Post-2015 Development Agenda, this means building a holistic system for classifying countries' development, one that is flexible and provides a more faithful picture of the specific realities of populations such that the actions of the UNS are better oriented to responding to global development challenges and the needs of countries in a more balanced fashion by adopting efficient, distinctive, sustainable approaches.

Countries which are classified as "middle income" by the international system must play a specific role within the global cooperation architecture in line with the duality of their situation (progress and needs covered in certain areas, coupled with serious difficulties in others). Accordingly, they should continue to receive traditional and development cooperation from donor countries in the north to avoid a regression to underdevelopment and seize the opportunities offered by South-South and Triangular Cooperation (SS&TC) so as to enhance their commitment as promoters of global development.

Accordingly, it should be noted that SS&TC can mobilize additional resources for development promotion but does not, in any event, replace North-South cooperation or impair any of the commitments to development and its funding assumed historically by the developed countries, including the commitment to allocate 0.7% of GDP to official development aid. The greater the cultural proximity between the countries involved, and the greater the respect for different visions of development, for flexibility and adaptability of shared experience, and for solidarity between nations, the more important is SSC.

Secondly, it is necessary to scale up the southern countries' contribution to development through South-South and Triangular Cooperation.

If we understand development as a multidimensional phenomenon that requires participation by all concerned, it is important to establish an integrated, solidarious system of international cooperation which accommodates all countries as a function of their capacities, in terms of both structure and international insertion.

As noted above, even though the countries in the region are growing, international support is needed to strengthen their capabilities, with the result that cooperation serves as a catalyst for national efforts. Consequently, cooperation towards Latin America should be channeled to address internal needs and the challenges to sustainable development that still persist in the region.

It is also necessary to promote effective opportunities for progress for developing countries by ensuring coherence between policies in different areas such as international trade, foreign investment, technology transfer, mobilization of internal resources, and the treatment of debt, so as to amplify the opportunities available to developing countries. Analogously, it is considered necessary to foster greater participation by Latin America and developing countries in the global governance of development.

In recent decades, the architecture of international cooperation has evolved along two axes. As a result of growth and institutional strengthening on the part of some developing countries and a declining participation by some traditional donor countries, South-South Cooperation has grown in importance and visibility, while triangular cooperation schemes have expanded and become more complex.

A growing demand for horizontal alliances and the recognition of technical strengths by the various actors is found to promote new forms of association between southern countries without requiring the assistance of a traditional donor. In order to combine technical and financial efforts, the partners of developing countries can execute cooperation actions which are more comprehensive than those which can arise in a purely bilateral context.

^{2.} ECLAC. 2012. "Middle-income countries: A structural-gap approach". ECLAC. Santiago de Chile.

Accordingly, a number of association mechanisms between two southern countries for the benefit of the third country are growing in importance within SSC. A number of Latin American countries are using this approach to undertake cooperation actions with countries in the Caribbean, Africa and South-east Asia. Actions of this type are being developed between countries in the region, particularly to benefit Haiti.

These triangular approaches are in addition to those involving northern donors or international agencies and it is now clear that triangular cooperation can enhance the benefits of both traditional cooperation and SSC.

Nevertheless, it is essential for our region that all these cooperation experiences take place with full respect for the fundamental principles that guide cooperation between southern countries: solidarity between nations, respect for national sovereignty, horizontality in negotiations, action upon a request from the recipient, and non-conditionality.

Finally, it is vital to promote greater participation by Latin America and the Caribbean, and by other developing countries, in the international mechanisms and fora to promote development. It is also necessary to strengthen regionwide coordination mechanisms, in order to make actions more complementary, support efforts in the region in favor of inclusion and equity, learn from each other and draw up specific agendas for the region.

It is essential to strengthen the new regional integration bodies, such as UNASUR (Union of South American Nations) and ECLAC (Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean), by promoting coordinated policies and actions to advance sustainably towards higher levels of development.

In short, the evaluation and definition of new commitments in the area of development represents a good opportunity to advance towards governance and an agenda in international cooperation that reflect the fact that the alternatives and proposals for addressing development challenges can arise from many places and players, thereby recognizing that the countries of the South have attained a significant role in the international scenario as a result of work, innovation and their future prospects.

I.4. CHALLENGES FACING THE REGION IN BUILDING THE POST-2015 AGENDA

BASED ON THE FOREGOING, we can identify a series of challenges that we consider to be important for the region in connection with the process of building the post-MDG agenda.

a) Own the agenda:

Much has been said in the international cooperation literature about the importance of "ownership" for the success of actions undertaken. Countries in the region must go even further and "own" the process of creating the future agenda by playing a determined role in its drafting. The new development agenda will recognize the progressive importance of our countries in the international cooperation space with the depth that we know we have only if we participate in the ongoing dialogue in a determined way and can clearly express our viewpoints, our potential contribution, and our needs.

As a source of environmental and cultural wealth and as the main supplier of global public goods, Latin America needs to maintain a horizontal dialogue in building the new development agenda and the architecture for international cooperation.

b) Clearly establish the importance of SSC and its contribution to the Development Agenda

SSC should not be considered a "new" form of international cooperation. There are differences as to which were the first actions under this form of cooperation, but even the most recent estimates— those that date it from the Bandung Conference— acknowledge that it has been in existence for close to 60 years.

It is important to clarify that the United Nations Conference on Technical Cooperation among Developing Countries did not "create" a new form of development cooperation but, rather, merely recognized and systematized a pre-existing process. SSC, with its particular forms and specific principles, has as much to offer the development of countries and people as does traditional cooperation and, consequently, it is not subsidiary to the latter. It is necessary to continue evidencing and building this contribution. c) Demand that the needs of all be taken into account in order to build a truly global development agenda.

The agenda of the MDGs failed to take full account of key issues for the MICs, which resulted in an excessive concentration of aid from traditional donors in the countries that were economically poorest in terms of per capita GDP. The new agenda must be capable of accommodating the varying development needs in the countries and regions of a diverse world.

By respecting the need to support people and groups of people in situations of greatest vulnerability, the agenda must open up to address the multiplicity of obstacles to development which, from a global standpoint, must be taken together in order to have any assurance of success. Inequalities between and within countries are obstacles to development which can only be overcome with international support since they reflect deeply entrenched structural processes that must be modified.

d) Build an agenda with a transverse dimension

There are obstacles to development that are visible as impediments in the various areas that compose it because of a multifaceted reality. The new Post-2015 Development Agenda must adhere to the human rights commitments made by the States and, in every action, must take account of variables such as the status of women and youth, the environment, and the promotion of peace.

To conclude, we maintain that the countries of Latin America have a special role to play in building the new Post-2015 Development Agenda and we also affirm the commitment by each and every one of us, as persons in charge of international cooperation in the States that make up the Ibero-American region, to make every effort to fulfill the responsibility which that entails.



IBERO-AMERICA AND BILATERAL HORIZONTAL SOUTH-SOUTH COOPERATION

II.1. APPLYING STATISTICS TO SOUTH-SOUTH COOPERATION: A NEW CHALLENGE

LAST YEAR'S *Report on South-South Cooperation in Ibero-America* reported notable progress: for the first time, the report incorporated indicators, allowing for a deeper analysis and more information about South-South Cooperation in the region. As shown in Diagram II.1, those indicators were not readily available but, rather, resulted from almost two years' work by the countries themselves, through their cooperation agencies and/or bureaus, in the framework of the Ibero-American General Secretariat (SEGIB) and the Ibero-American Program to Strengthen South-South Cooperation (PIFCSS).

Ibero-America's progress in this area in 2011 and 2012 is summarized in that diagram. In short:

- a) The Seminar-Workshops in Quito and Montevideo (September 2011 and March 2012, respectively) laid the foundation for developing these indicators: there was a debate on why measure South-South Cooperation, what to measure, and how to measure.
- After taking these steps, we were able to build metadata (in simple terms, the definition, calculation formula and potential use) for each of the desired indicators. Only in this way were we able to obtain something that

is essential for developing any indicator: data that was applicable, understandable and socialized (Mondragón, 2002).

c) The final step was to test the indicators, which we did in the most logical place: in the *Report on South-South Cooperation in Ibero-America 2012*, which set out all of the data available on South-South Cooperation in the region.

However, the achievements in applying these indicators for South-South Cooperation could still be improved (e.g. through better, more rigorous characterization and a greater understanding of what's happening in Ibero-America). This gave rise to many other challenges, in two main areas:

- The need to improve countries' capacities in terms of data logging and reporting. In fact, it was necessary to advance in the development of countries' Information Systems (IS) on Cooperation.
- b) Greater "optimization" in the use of existing basic data and indicators, to be able to use the same information to provide a deeper analysis. However, this requires techniques from descriptive statistics, which we had not used before.



Source: Reproduced from Ibero-American Program to Strengthen South-South Cooperation (2013).

This edition of the *Report on South-South Cooperation in Ibero-America* undertakes those challenges:

- a) On the one hand, by providing ongoing support for Ibero-American Cooperation Agencies and/or Bureaus to improve logging and reporting systems for the data used each year in this report.
- b) And, on the other, by beginning to use statistical techniques to further enhance our understanding of South-South cooperation in Ibero-America. Box.II.1 addresses the use those techniques, by providing an explanation of descriptive statistics and illustrating how it can be used in analyzing South-South Cooperation. Additionally, even readers who are less familiar with these techniques will find that their application yields a series of results and information that could not have been obtained with the resources previously available.

Accordingly, this chapter, on Bilateral Horizontal South-South Cooperation, is structured as follows:

- a) Firstly, the *provider and recipient matrices* for BHSSC actions and projects in 2012 are generated. An analysis of the data in those matrices yields the following:
 - Regional maps, which indicate countries' role in BHSSC and the degree to which they participate.
 - A characterization of the exchange between those countries, both bilaterally and between the subregions comprising Latin America.
- b) By reproducing these same matrices of projects and cooperation actions with a sectoral approach, we can analyze the capabilities and needs for South-South Cooperation in Ibero-America: for the region as a whole, and for each country and its role.
- c) Statistical techniques also provide important information about the performance of South-South Cooperation in the region. Notable among these is the presentation of projects (by duration and cost) and the assessment of the degree of efficiency in terms of management and use of resources.

BOX II.1.

Applying descriptive statistics to the analysis of South-South Cooperation

POSSIBLE STATIST	ICAL VARIABLES FO	R SOUTH-SOUTH COC	DPERATION ANALYS	IS	
Variable	Val	ues	Elemen	ts which provide info	rmation
variable	Example	Description	Individual	Population	Sample
Projects provided	1, 4, 20, 35, 57, 72, 128	Any whole number, in units	A country	Ibero-American countries	Group of countries acting as providers
Budgeted cost	1,000; 13,540.27; 105,423.05,	Any number, including decimals, in monetary units	A project	Total projects under way in a year	Total projects under way for which cost data is available

Source: SEGIB.

DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS is a science which analyses series of data and seeks to draw conclusions about the behavior of certain variables. Although such analysis can be performed on *qualitative variables* (i.e. *attributes*, such as nationality, gender or skin color, which cannot have a numerical value), it is normal to perform statistical analysis on *quantitative variables* (such as age, price or income, all of which can be expressed as numbers). If a value is a finite whole number, the *quantitative variable* is *discrete*; in contrast, if the value can "have (infinite) decimal places" and be anywhere within a range, the *quantitative variable* is *continuous*.

When a variable's behavior is studied, it is necessary to distinguish between:

- The *individual* (any element that provides information about the phenomenon);
- The *population* (comprising the set of all individuals);
- The *sample* (a chosen subset of the entire population).

The preceding table sets out some examples of the variables applied in analyzing South-South Cooperation. Two possible options would be:

- Projects offered, a discrete variable that can be expressed as a whole number (1, 4, 57,... 128...). Information about the number of projects offered may be associated with a country (*individual*), all Ibero-American countries (*population*) or with group of countries as providers (*sample*).
- Budgeted cost, a quantitative variable that is also discrete as the monetary value has limited decimal places (e.g. US\$13,540.20). Similarly, this cost may refer to a project (individual), to the total amount in

execution over the course of one year (population), or to all ongoing projects for which cost data is available (sample).

After identifying the variable, the available data series and the universe on which the analysis will be performed, the next step is to apply *statistical techniques*. Although there are many options (*measures of central and non-central tendency*, such as the *mean* and *percentiles*, respectively; *measures of dispersion*, such as the *variance* and *standard deviation*; and *measures of the shape*, of *concentration*, *asymmetry* and *kurtosis*, among others), one technique is particularly interesting for analyzing South-South Cooperation: *frequency distribution*.

Below is sample *table of frequency distributions*. The analysis variable chosen for this example is *budgeted cost* for projects that were being implemented during the reporting period. The table, read from left to right, provides the following information:

- The values of all the variables are listed in the first column (in this case, the budgeted cost, for example, BC1, BC2, BC3, etc.) in ascending order.
- The second column contains the *simple absolute frequency* for each value, i.e. the number of times each value occurs (BC1 once, BC2 four times, BC3 four times, etc.).
- The third column lists accumulated absolute frequencies, i.e. progressing down the table, the datum shows the accumulated number of instances (e.g. 9 for BC₃). The final value in this column (in this case, 75) should coincide with the total number of items in the sample.

EXAMPLE FREQUENCY	DISTRIBUTION TABLE			
	Absolute	frequencies	Relative f	requencies
Variable	Simple	Cumulative	Simple	Cumulative
BP1	1	1	(1/75)*100 = 1.3%	1.3%
BP2	4	(1+4) = 5	(4/75)*100 = 5.3%	(1.3%+5.3%) = 6.7%
BP3	4	(5+4) = 9	(4/75)*100 = 5.3%	(6.7%+5.3%) = 12.0%
BP4	2	(9+2) = 11	(2/75)*100 = 2.7%	(12.0%+2.7%) = 14.7%
BP5	5	(11+5) = 16	(5/75)*100 = 6.7%	(14.7%+6.7%) = 21.3%
		75		100.00%

Source: SEGIB.

- The next column indicates the simple relative frequency of each value: it measures each figure as a percentage of the total records (in this case, 1.3% for BC1).
- The last column is the cumulative relative frequency, which, for each value, indicates the percentage of the total records accumulated so far (the last figure is 100%).

The information in the table can be used to create graphs which contribute to attaining the initial objective: to obtain more information about the variable being analyzed, and to understand it better. For example, that table could be used to create the graph below.:

In this particular example, budgeted cost is plotted along the x-axis within a *range of values* from 0 to US\$100,000. Every cost figure is assigned a *"simple* *relative frequency*", i.e. the percentage of total projects which register that cost figure. According to this graph, we can observe the following:

- There were barely any projects with costs of less than US\$20,000 or more than US\$60,000;
- Another way of saying that is that the projects tended to have budgets between US\$20,000 and US\$60,000;
- A large proportion of the projects (40%) cost around US\$40,000-US\$50,000.

Source: SEGIB, based on information from http://www.aulafacil.com/ CursoEstadistica



II.2. BILATERAL HORIZONTAL SOUTH-SOUTH COOPERATION ACTIONS AND PROJECTS IN 2012

MATRICES II.1 AND II.2¹ show that the 19 Latin American countries had 506 BHSSC projects and 203 BHSSC actions under way in 2012. That represents a decline with respect to 2011 (when there were 586 projects and 229 actions ongoing); 13.7% in the case of projects and 11.4% in the case of actions. However, for methodological reasons, those percentage reduction figures are not reliable.

As has been the case with previous editions, the supply of data is still not completely stable. As a result, variations in sources of reported information make it impossible to reliably develop time series or compare data between two consecutive years. In 2011, 18 out of 19 cooperation agencies and bureaus in Latin America reported data (Venezuela being the only exception); however, Cuba, traditionally a leader in South-South Cooperation, among the top five providers, failed to report in 2012. To illustrate the impact on overall figures for the region, it's important to note that, in 2010, Cuba was involved in 139 projects (surpassed only by Brazil) and 43 actions. Those numbers declined to 53 and 28, respectively, in 2011, and to 7 and 4, in 2012.2

There were two other issues that affected the calculation methodology:

- a) Some of the projects (but not the actions) counted in 2012 were already under way in 2011, with the result that they were already included in the previous year's numbers. This affected 147 projects in 2012 (29.1% of the 506 registered).
- b) The matrices also include "bidirectional" projects and actions. Because the two partners in such projects act simultaneously as provider and recipient, each "bidirectional" project and action (identified in the matrix by parentheses) is assigned to the two partners in their respective roles, with the result that it is counted twice and artificially inflates the number of projects and actions that are finally counted. "Bidirectional" projects actions accounted for a notable proportion of the total in 2011 and 2012: around 10% of projects and around 3.5-4% of actions.

Also, given the varying scopes of projects and actions, the ratio between the two continues to be interpreted as a sign of the strength of BHSSC in the region. Specifically, although the number of actions remains necessarily high, projects predominate: every action executed led to 2.6 projects in 2011 and 2.5 projects in 2012 (i.e. barely one-tenth of a point less).

c) The sum total of the last column and row is the total number of projects/actions executed in the year.

^{1.} Each cell in the Matrix reports on:

a) The number of projects/actions exchanged by each pair of partners: providers are arrayed on the vertical axis, recipients on the horizontal axis.

b) The last cell of each row/column contains the total number of projects/actions in which each country participated: again, as provider and recipient, respectively.

^{2.} It's worth noting that the number of projects and actions "registered" for each country is obtained by combining the data reported by all the countries. In the specific case of Cuba, the 2010 and 2011 data depends on several sources (Cuba itself and its cooperating partners), whereas the information for 2012 was reported only by its partners.

MIC Ecuador MIC 1 +(2) Mexico Mexico 1 +(2) Mexico Mexico 1 -(1) Mexico Mexico 1 0+(5) 3 4 1 1 0+(5) 3 4 1 1 1+(3) 4 1 8 1 1 1+(3) 4 1 1 3 1 1+(3) 4 1 8 1 8 1 1 1 3 4 1 1 3 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1+(3) 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1+(3) 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1+(3) 3 7 1 1 1 1 1 </th <th></th> <th></th> <th></th> <th></th> <th></th> <th></th> <th></th> <th></th> <th>אוטאברנאי בטובי</th> <th>2012.</th> <th>RE</th> <th>RECIPIENT PARTNERS</th> <th>ARTNEF</th> <th>S</th> <th></th> <th></th> <th></th> <th></th> <th></th> <th></th> <th></th> <th></th>									אוטאברנאי בטובי	2012.	RE	RECIPIENT PARTNERS	ARTNEF	S								
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		TOTAL	46	47	36	9	18	40	21	N	23	28	BO	99	25	14	ЭO	21	£	5	26	506

Source: SECIB, based on reporting from cooperation agencies and/or bureaus.

		PROVIDER				LMIC									UMIC	UMIC	UMIC	UMIC	UMIC	UMIC		HIC
		PROVIDER PARTNERS	Rolivia	El Salvador	Guatemala	Honduras	Nicaragua	Paraguay	Argentina	Brazil	Colombia	Costa Rica	Cuba	Ecuador	Mexico	Panama	Peru	Dominican R.	Venezuela	Chile	Uruguay	
		Bolivia							7	-1					ω		-			2		14
		El Salvador							ω	_	4	Т	2	4	~						_	24
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		Nicaragua							2	ω					ω							œ
		Paraguay							_	_					2	_				_		6
		Argentina								-					2					-1		4
		Brazil							4						ω							7
R		Colombia							4	ω				-	4		1+(1)					14
RECIPIENT PARTNERS		Costa Rica							2	1	ω				7							13
PARTNE		Cuba								-					ω							4
RS	UMIC	Ecuador		-					4		_	ω	-1		ω		ω		-	ω		20
		Mexico									_	-										N
		Panama		_					_		_			ω	7		0+(1)					5
		Peru							4	ω	0+(1)	-		_	ω	0+(1)			_	1+(1)	0+(1)	18
		Dominican R.							2	2				<u> </u>	4					ω		12
-		Venezuela							4					_	σ							3
	HIC	Chile							ω						ω		0+(1)					7
		Uruguay							4						ω		0+(1)					∞
		TOTAL	-	2	•	•	0	•	48	17	12	8	4	12	72	N	o	•	N	ά	N	203

Source: SEGIB, based on reporting from cooperation agencies and/or bureaus.
II.3. COUNTRIES' PARTICIPATION IN BILATERAL HORIZONTAL SOUTH-SOUTH COOPERATION

THE INFORMATION IN THE matrices can be expressed in myriad formats, depending on the final objective. One possibility is to create Maps II.1 and II.2, which show the geographic distribution of cooperation projects and actions, respectively, according to the provider and recipient countries.

Specifically, creating the maps requires:

- a) Taking the data in Matrices II.1 and II.2 for the total number of projects (and actions) provided and received by each country (last column and row, respectively).
- b) Based on the selected data, measuring the degree of participation by each country in each role, out of a total of 506 projects and 203 actions registered in 2012.
- c) Drawing a map of Latin America for each role and, in each case, for projects and actions, and assigning each country a color representing the intensity of its participation in BHSSC in 2012.

According to these maps:

- a) The bulk of the projects (practically 90%) were executed by just 5 countries, specifically, and in descending order: Brazil, Mexico, Argentina, Chile and Colombia. However, there were notable differences in participation among these five providers (Map II.1.A): Brazil accounted for almost 30% of the 506 projects in 2012, and Colombia for 9.5%.
- b) The remaining 11.1% were from a total of nine countries, which can also distinguished according to intensity. Uruguay and Ecuador are increasingly active as providers (16 and 14 projects, respectively); Peru, Cuba and Costa Rica participated in 20 projects in total; and El Salvador, Paraguay, Guatemala and Panama were each involved in one or two projects.
- c) Five countries (Honduras, Nicaragua and the Dominican Republic, in Central America and the Caribbean, and Venezuela and Bolivia, in South America) did not participate as providers in any project in 2012.
- d) However, all countries in Latin America participated as recipients, which explains the much more even distribution. The degree of participation reflected in Map II.1.B ranks countries in the following groups: the largest recipient, Ecuador, with 66 projects, equivalent to 13% of the total

in 2012; El Salvador, Bolivia and Paraguay, each accounting for around 8-9%; Guatemala, Costa Rica, Cuba, Peru and Uruguay, which together accounted for 30% of projects received; Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, and the Dominican Republic, plus Colombia and Argentina, with practically 25% of the 506 final projects; and Honduras, Chile, Venezuela and Brazil, representing the remaining 7%.

 e) The distribution of cooperation provided and received follows the same general pattern, although with nuances in terms of percentages and country participation:

• Of the providers (Map II.2.A), 85.7% of the actions were concentrated in six countries (Mexico, Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Colombia and Ecuador), among which there were also notable differences. Relative participation in the 203 actions varied, from 5.9% for Ecuador to 35.5% for Mexico (a 6-fold difference between the two).

• Once again, one block of countries did not participate as providers (Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua, the Dominican Republic, along with Bolivia and Paraguay), while another, comprising seven countries, accounted for the remaining 14.3%: Peru and Costa Rica (9 and 8 actions, respectively); and Cuba, El Salvador, Panama, Venezuela and Uruguay (4 actions for Cuba and 2 each for the other four).

 All Latin American countries acted as recipients (Map II.2.B). In terms of sub-groups, and according to relative participation, the primary recipient was El Salvador (11.8% of actions); Ecuador and Peru accounted for around 20% of the 203 actions; Honduras, Costa Rica, Panama, Colombia, Venezuela and the Dominican Republic, as well as Bolivia, accounted for practically 45% of actions; while the remaining 25% were attributable to Nicaragua plus a block of South American countries comprising Chile, Uruguay, Paraguay and Brazil (17.7%), and to Mexico, Guatemala, Cuba and Argentina (7.4%).

Accordingly, the maps suggest different distribution patterns for projects and actions: greater concentration in cooperation provided, and less in terms of cooperation received. These patterns can be cross-checked using some indicators of concentration and dispersion for South-South Cooperation³ that were used in the previous edition of this report. Specifically:

Concentration of projects and actions in a few providers and recipients should be accompanied by a greater dispersion of values; and vice versa.



 $[\]textbf{Source:} \ \mathsf{SEGIB}, \ \mathsf{based} \ \mathsf{on} \ \mathsf{reporting} \ \mathsf{from} \ \mathsf{cooperation} \ \mathsf{agencies} \ \mathsf{and/or} \ \mathsf{bureaus}.$



Source: SEGIB, based on reporting from cooperation agencies and/or bureaus.



$\textbf{Source:} \ \mathsf{SEGIB}, \ \mathsf{based} \ \mathsf{on} \ \mathsf{reporting} \ \mathsf{from} \ \mathsf{cooperation} \ \mathsf{agencies} \ \mathsf{and/or} \ \mathsf{bureaus}.$



Source: SEGIB, based on reporting from cooperation agencies and/or bureaus.

a) Table II.1. shows the Herfindahl Index⁴ for projects and actions provided and received in 2011 and 2012. Those values (ranges of less than 0.1000, between 0.1000 and 0.1800, and above that value, from low to high concentration) are illustrated in Diagram II.2, which reveals the following:

• Both projects and actions received have Herfindahl Indices of less than 0.1000 (between 0.0660 and 0.0707), reflecting diversification and a relatively low level of dispersion.

• Meanwhile, the lowest value for cooperation provided (for actions in 2011) is 0.1278, which suggests moderate concentration. The other values (actions in 2012 and projects in 2011 and 2012) exceed 0.1800, indicating a more concentrated and disperse pattern of cooperation provided.

• However, there were variations in BHSSC received between 2011 and 2012: dispersion increased for actions (from 0.1278 to 0.2041) and declined for projects (from 0.2095 to 0.1878). This was influenced by the variation in the range of values, which increased in actions provided (from 47 in 2011 to 72 in 2012, favoring dispersion) and declined in projects provided (from 210 in 2011 to 149 in 2012, favoring a slightly more uniform distribution of potential values).

 b) Table II.1 also shows other indicators of concentration (e.g. percentages of participation by the principal cooperating countries in total projects and actions provided and received in 2011 and 2012), some of which are shown in Graph II.1. Once again, the conclusions drawn from both graphs reinforce those detailed above:

• All of the concentration and dispersion indicators applied reflect higher values for the provision as opposed to reception of BHSSC projects and actions in 2011 and 2012.

• As further evidence, the relationship between projects and actions provided by the top three providers and those provided by the remaining providers is 70%/30% (Graphs II.1.A and B). The relationship is inverted in the case of recipients: 30%/70% (Graphs II.1.C and D).

• As for projects provided, the changes in concentration levels between 2011 and 2012 were confirmed: declining for projects and increasing for actions. For example, the percentage of projects provided by the top provider declined, from 35.8% in 2011 to 29.4% in 2012, whereas it increased in the case of actions (from 20.5% in 2011 to 35.5% in 2012).

The way in which the actions and projects are distributed, in terms of both provision and reception, can also be analyzed in other ways. Table II.2 provides some additional information about country behavior when providing or receiving BHSSC using a new resource: Descriptive Statistics applied to the study of South-South Cooperation.

^{4.} In economics, this Index is used to measure the degree of concentration of exports and imports of a product: to identify if global trade or a country's trade depends on many or few partners, many or few products, or even a combination. The most comprehensive version is obtained by adding up the relative participation of each product and partner in a country's total trade with the rest of the world. The mathematical formula yields an index of between 0 and 1. Within this range of values, the results are interpreted as follows: there is diversification when the values are below 0.10; moderate concentration when they are between 0.10 and 0.18; and high concentration when values exceed 0.18. Modified here to measure the degree of concentration or diversification of the provision and reception of BHSSC, where $n\Sigma$ i=1 $(P_{nf-i} / P_{nf-T})^2$, obtained by adding the boxes with the relative weights of each country within final provision and reception of projects and actions. It also provides results of between 0 and 1 and the values are interpreted in the same terms (PIFCSS, 2013).

Table II.1. D	egree of concentration of	BHSSC, by ind	icator. 2011 and	2012.	
INDICATODO		PROJ	ECTS	ACT	IONS
INDICATORS		2011	2012	2011	2012
	Herfindahl Index for BHSSC provided	0.2095	0.1878	0.1278	0.0241
	No. of providers that concentrate 75% of BHSSC	4	4	6	5
PROVIDERS	Percentage of BHSSC provided by the top provider	35.85%	29.4%	20.5%	35.5%
	Percentage of BHSSC provided by the top two providers	56.3%	50.6%	38.8%	59.1%
	Percentage of BHSSC provided by the top three providers	69.5%	69.2%	52.4%	67.5%
	Herfindahl Index for BHSSC received	0.0660	0.0694	0.0707	0.0678
	No. of recipients that concentrate 75% of BHSSC	11	11	10	11
RECIPIENTS	Percentage of BHSSC received by the top recipient	11.1%	13.0%	11.8%	11.8%
	Percentage of BHSSC received by the top two recipients	20.8%	22.3%	22.3%	21.7%
	Percentage of BHSSC received by the top three recipients	30.2%	31.4%	31.9%	30.5%

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Source: SEGIB, based on PIFCSS (2013) and reporting from cooperation agencies and/or bureaus.



Source: SEGIB based on PIFCSS (2013) and reporting from cooperation agencies and/or bureaus.



Source: SEGIB, based on PIFCSS (2013) and reporting from cooperation agencies and/or bureaus.

BOX II.2.

Applying Descriptive Statistics: an example based on project distribution

THE APPLICATION OF Descriptive Statistics to South-South Cooperation may contribute to greater knowledge about the performance of some of its variables (Box II.1). This can be illustrated by trying to understand how projects were distributed among the various providers and recipients: in other words, understanding how many projects tended to offered or received by each country in Ibero-America.

The most immediate, simple statistical response to that question is to estimate an average: the average projects provided and received, for each cooperation participant. Given that 19 countries participated in 506 BHSSC projects in 2012, each country provided and/or received 26.6 projects on average (506/19).

However, this average ignores important factors:

- a) On the one hand, the existence of outliers which distort the final result if they are not eliminated. For example, five Ibero-American countries did not provide any projects in 2012. So, the average for providers must be recalculated to eliminate those five non-participants. As a result, estimating the average for just 14 countries (506/14) yields a higher value: 36.1 projects.
- b) On the other hand, the various degrees of concentration of project provision and reception have not been considered, which invalidates the use of a single average to analyze two realities that behave differently.

One way to avoid these errors is to use a frequency distribution table. Below are the results for the various roles played by the countries:

a) In the case of providers, the number of projects provided by each country varies broadly, from o to 149. The obvious next step would be to prepare a table with the 19 values between those two extremes. However, since it is such a small sample, the frequency distribution table would provide very little information, since most values (except for o) appear only once. In those cases (small samples in wide ranges), it is better to create tables which group values by interval: in this case, in blocks of 20. This provides a quick picture of the intervals in which values tend to be concentrated.

The resulting table shows that most of the values (14 out of 19, i.e. 73.7% of the total) are concentrated in the 0-20 interval. The other 5 data items are in notably higher intervals (from 40 to 60, 80 to 100, 100 to 120, and over 140). This trend (many countries providing few projects and a few providing many) reflects the high concentration and dispersion that is typical in the provision of BHSSC projects. The graph below, drafted using simple relative frequencies from the previous table, confirms this.

b) The range of numbers of projects received is significantly smaller: from 0 to 66. Since the sample contains barely 19 values, the records are grouped again in intervals of 20. According to the resulting table (below), the majority of countries (10) received between 20 and 40 projects in 2012; another 6 received less than 20, and barely 3 received between 40 and 80 projects. This figures are again consistent with the distribution of BHSSC projects received: more diversified and less disperse than those provided. The graph below, plotted using simple relative frequencies from the previous table, confirms this.

An alternative exercise, derived from the preceding ones, is to visualize both trends simultaneously in a single graph. This exercise reveals different trends in each role: in the role of provider, most countries provide no more than 20 projects, while a few provide considerably more (40, between 80 and 100 or more than 140 projects); in the role of recipient, most Ibero-American countries received around 20 projects, a smaller number received between 40 and 60, but none received more than 80.

This alternative exercise serves to refine the results obtained when calculating the average.

FREQUENCY DISTRIBU	TION OF PROJECTS EXECU	ITED, BY COUNTRY. 2012	2			
Duala at internals	Absolute fi	requencies	Relative frequencies			
Project intervals	Simple	Cumulative	Simple	Cumulative		
0-20	14	14	73.7%	73.7%		
21-40	0	14	0.0%	73.7%		
41-60	2	16	10.5%	84.2%		
61-80	0	16	0.0%	84.2%		
81-100	1	17	5.3%	89.5%		
101-120	1	18	5.3%	94.7%		
121-140	0	18	0.0%	94.7%		
141-160	1	19	5.3%	100.0%		

Source: SEGIB.



Source: SEGIB.

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUT	ION OF PROJECTS RECEI	VED, BY COUNTRY. 2012				
During this terms in	Absolute f	requencies	Relative frequencies			
Project intervals	Simple	Cumulative	Simple	Cumulative		
0-20	6	6	31.6%	31.6%		
21-40	10	16	52.6%	84.2%		
41-60	2	18	10.5%	94.7%		
61-80	1	19	5.3%	100.0%		
81-100	0	19	0.0%	100.0%		
101-120	0	19	0.0%	100.0%		
121-140	0	19	0.0%	100.0%		
141-160	0	19	0.0%	100.0%		

Source: SEGIB.



- a) The figure of 26.6 projects is more in line with the real situation of recipients (for which a lower value range and a better distribution was observed) than with that of providers (a wider range with a more extreme distribution).
- b) The 36.1 figure estimated for providers is not in line with the real situation, since it is calculated excluding the outliers at the bottom of the range

(five zeros) but not those at the top (149, 107, 94, etc.). Accordingly, an average of around 40 projects offers an approximate picture of the actual situation in a minority of countries (only two register values which are close: 52 and 48 projects), but does not reflect the majority.

Source: SEGIB, based on reporting from cooperation agencies and/or bureaus.



Source: SEGIB.

II.4. COOPERATION FLOWS BETWEEN COUNTRIES: AN APPROXIMATION

A SEPARATE ANALYSIS should address the type of relationship established between countries which cooperate with each other: identify who cooperates with whom and with what intensity, or if there are preferential relationships–or even relationships of dependency–between providers and recipients, etc. Below is an analysis which applies a double perspective: bilateral, focused on relationships between pairs of countries; and subregional, by grouping countries into blocks (in this case, Mexico and the Ibero-American Caribbean, Central America, the Andean countries, Brazil and the Southern Cone).

II.4.1. ANALYSIS FROM A BILATERAL PERSPECTIVE

Graph II.2 identifies the degree of concentration of bilateral relations between the main providers (Graph II.2.A) and recipients (graph II.2.B) and the other cooperating partners. To this end, the Herfindahl Index is calculated for each country⁵, which assesses the degree of concentration and dispersion of the total projects provided or received by each country with respect to its partners.

It reveals that:

- a) Among those countries that mainly acted as providers (Graph II.2.A), only Brazil had a sufficiently diversified relationship with the other partners. It is the only country whose Herfindahl Index is less than 0.1000, which is coherent with the fact that it provided the greatest number of projects (149) to the largest number of partners (Brazil was the only country which cooperated with all of the other 18).
- b) Mexico, Argentina, Chile and Colombia (the next providers in order of importance) had Herfindahl Indices of between 0.1016 (Mexico) and 0.1363 (Argentina). Those values reveal that their relation with other countries was moderately concentrated. This finding is also consistent with the fact that, in 2012, these providers tended to execute between 50 and 100 projects with just some (13 to 15) of the 18 potential partners.
- c) Consistent with the foregoing, Uruguay and Ecuador (respectively, 16 and 14 projects, with 6 partners in both

cases) are the providers with highest Herfindahl Indices, 0.2344 and 0.2041, i.e. over the 0.1800 threshold which distinguishes countries with the most concentrated project and partner distribution.

- d) In terms of recipients, Ecuador has the most moderate concentration and dispersion of projects and partners, with a Herfindahl Index of 0.1524. This is the lowest value among recipients and is also in line with its performance: Ecuador received the greatest number of projects (66) from more partners (9 out of a possible 18).
- e) The other recipients (in fact, all of the other 18, with the sole exception of Brazil)⁶ registered Herfindahl Index values of over 0.1800, ranging from 0.2051 (El Salvador) to 0.6033 (Venezuela). These values are typical of countries that received a small number of projects from a small number of partners. In 2012, this situation varied from El Salvador's 47 projects with 8 partners to Venezuela, which had the highest concentration: 11 projects with just two partners.

However, and beyond the particular pattern that each lbero-American country may follow in establishing bilateral cooperation with other countries in the region, some behavior patterns tend to recur and, therefore, can be considered trends. This point is illustrated in Diagram II.3 and Graph II.3:

- a) The main providers (which number less than potential recipients, for the moment) tend to distribute their co-operation among more partners, as visible in their lower Herfindahl Index numbers than those of recipients, for which the opposite is true (a relatively high number of recipients vs. a low number of potential providers). This behavior is visible in Diagram II.3: on the line that extends from the lowest to the highest Index values, providers are mainly located on the left-hand side (more diversification) and recipients on the right (more concentration).
- b) Similarly, and as has been demonstrated repeatedly, there is a direct relationship between the number of projects that can be offered or received and the possibility of diversifying relations with partners. Graphs II.3.A and II.3.B link providers and recipients, respectively, with the volume of projects exchanged in 2012, with their corresponding Herfindahl Indices. In both using, a downward trend is observed: the greater the

^{5.} The formula used in this specific case is ${}_{n}\Sigma_{i=1}(P_{of-i}/P_{of-j})^2$, which is the sum of the squares of each partner's share of final projects provided by or received from each provider/recipient. The outcome is always a figure between 0 and 1. The interpretation is the same as in other cases: under 0.1000, the distribution is diversified; between 0.1000 and 0.1800, it is moderately concentrated; and over 0.1800 it is concentrated.

^{6.} Brazil is excluded since it received just two projects in 2012, i.e. below the threshold of 10 required to ensure that the resulting Herfindahl index is meaningful.



Source: SEGIB, based on PIFCSS (2013) and reporting from cooperation agencies and/or bureaus.

number of projects offered or received, the greater the possibility of dispersion and, therefore, of lower concentration.

However, each country's concentration with respect to the others is not the only important datum. Other concentration indicators corroborate these ideas, while also offering additional information: they help understand the importance and identity of each country's main partners. Table II.2 reflects this situation, estimating the percentage that the first-, second- and third-most important providers (Table II.2.A) and recipients (Table II.2.B) represent, and how much the first two and three represent together.

The tables reveal that, in line with data thus far, the recipients are more dependent on their relationship with a few providers, but the opposite does not hold. In terms of the new indicators, the result is as follows:

- a) For almost half of the recipients, their principal provider is responsible for more than half of the cooperation received in 2012. In some cases, participation by the primary provider accounts for more than two-thirds of the total.
- b) Providers registered much lower relative participation by the top recipient, ranging from 11.4% to 31.3%.
- c) Ecuador is the only recipient whose two principal partners do not account for more than 50.0% of cooperation; that percentage exceeds 50% in all other countries.
- In contrast, the top two recipients of five of the seven providers considered continue to register participation levels of under 50%.
- e) The top three partners of the recipients account for at least 59.1% of their cooperation. However, for the five countries that provided the most projects in 2012, their top three partners' share was less than 53.2%.



Source: SEGIB, based on PIFCSS (2013) and reporting from cooperation agencies and/or bureaus.



Table II.2. Top Bilateral Horizontal South-South Cooperationproviders and recipients: partners' share. 2012.

Number of projects in descending order. Share (%)

II.2.A. PRINCIPAL PROVIDERS

II.2.A. FRINCIFAL FI					
PROVIDERS	TOP RECIPIENT	SECOND- LARGEST RECIPIENT	TOP TWO RECIPIENTS	THIRD-LARGEST RECIPIENT	TOP THREE RECIPIENTS
Brazil	11.4	10.7	22.1	10.1	32.2
Mexico	17.8	14.0	31.8	13.1	44.9
Argentina	26.6	13.8	40.4	12.8	53.2
Chile	25.0	17.3	42.3	7.7	50.0
Colombia	20.8	12.5	33.3	10.4	43.8
Uruguay	31.3	31.3	62.5	12.5	75.0
Ecuador	28.6	21.4	50.0	21.4	71.4

II.2.B. TOP RECIPIENTS

RECIPIENTS	PRINCIPAL PROVIDER	SECOND-LARGEST PROVIDER	TOP TWO PROVIDERS	THIRD-LARGEST PROVIDER	TOP THREE PROVIDERS
Ecuador	21.2	19.7	40.9	18.2	59.1
El Salvador	36.2	14.9	51.1	12.8	63.8
Bolivia	54.3	26.1	80.4	8.7	89.1
Paraguay	40.0	32.5	72.5	12.5	85.0
Guatemala	52.8	27.8	80.6	8.3	88.9
Cuba	50.0	26.7	76.7	20.0	96.7
Peru	50.0	23.3	73.3	13.3	86.7
Costa Rica	53.6	17.9	71.4	14.3	85.7
Uruguay	30.8	30.8	61.5	19.2	80.8
Mexico	36.0	24.0	60.0	20.0	80.0
Colombia	34.8	26.1	60.9	21.7	82.6
Argentina	28.6	23.8	52.4	23.8	76.2
Dominican R.	66.7	19.0	85.7	4.8	90.5
Nicaragua	44.4	33.3	77.8	11.1	88.9
Panama	28.6	21.4	50.0	21.4	71.4
Chile	75.0	8.3	83.3	8.3	91.7
Venezuela	72.7	27.3	100.0	0.0	100.0
Honduras	40.0	30.0	70.0	20.0	90.0

Note: For the results to be minimally significant, these indicators are applied to providers and recipients that offered/received at least 10 projects in 2012 (only projects, not actions). All percentages above 50% have been shaded.

Source: SEGIB, based on PIFCSS (2013) and reporting from cooperation agencies and/or bureaus.

Projects (u	nits); share (% of total re	ceived)						
II.3.A. IN NUM	IBER OF PRO	JECTS							
				F	RECIPIENTS				
PROVIDERS	Other	Argentina	Brazil	Colombia	Ecuador	Mexico	Chile	Uruguay	TOTAL
Other	4	1		1	16	4			26
Argentina	61			4+(4)	12	0+(5)		7+(1)	94
Brazil	116	5		6	7	5+(1)	1	8	149
Colombia	31	1+(4)	1		4	1	1	3+(2)	48
Ecuador	13							1	14
Mexico	74	1+(5)	0+(1)	3	14		0+(9)		107
Chile	24	2			13	0+(9)		4	52
Uruguay	8	1+(1)		3+(2)			1		16
TOTAL	331	21	2	23	66	25	12	26	506
II.3.B. EACH P.	ARTNER'S SH	ARE OF THE	TOTAL RECEI	VED					
					RECIPIENTS				

Matrix II.3. Bilateral Horizontal South-South Cooperation projects, by top providers. 2012.

				I	RECIPIENTS				
PROVIDERS	Other	Argentina	Brazil	Colombia	Ecuador	Mexico	Chile	Uruguay	TOTAL
Other	1.2	4.8		4.3	24.2	16.0			5.1
Argentina	18.4			34.8	18.2	20.0		30.8	18.6
Brazil	35.0	23.8		26.1	10.6	24.0	8.3	30.8	29.4
Colombia	9.4	23.8	50.0		6.1	4.0	8.3	19.2	9.5
Ecuador	3.9							3.8	2.8
Mexico	22.4	28.6	50.0	13.0	21.2		75.0		21.1
Chile	7.3	9.5			19.7	36.0		15.4	10.3
Uruguay	2.4	9.5		21.7			8.3		3.2
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Note: The maximu	um values for eac	h recipient are in l	bold type.						

The figures in parentheses refer to the number of projects registered as "bidirectional".

Source: SEGIB, based on reporting from cooperation agencies and/or bureaus.

Finally, it is possible to link data to identify the pairs of countries with the strongest bilateral relationships. Combining the information from Table II.2 with that of Matrix II.3, we see that:

- a) There are three pairs of countries (Brazil and El Salvador, Argentina and Bolivia, Mexico and Guatemala) with an especially interesting relationship whereby in each pair, each member is the other's most important cooperation partner. This is illustrated by Diagram II.4, which reveals that Brazil, Argentina and Mexico's main recipients are El Salvador, Bolivia and Guatemala, respectively, and the latter three are the main recipients of cooperation from the former three.
- b) Similarly, when the most important providers are analyzed in their role as recipients, we see that their largest

single provider is also one of the main providers overall. Matrices II.3 clearly show the degree of BHSSC exchanged in 2012 between those countries and with the other countries. This confirms that:

• While Argentina, Brazil, Colombia, Ecuador, Mexico, Chile and Uruguay accounted for 94.9% of the 506 projects provided in 2012, they accounted for a much smaller percentage in their role as recipients: 34.6%.

• For each of those countries, another member of the group was the largest single provider of cooperation. Specifically (Matrix II.3.B): for Argentina, the top provider was Mexico (28.6% of the total); for Colombia, it was Argentina (34.8%); for Ecuador, Mexico (21.2%); for Mexico, Chile (36.0%); and for Chile, Mexico (75%). In



Source: SEGIB, based on reporting from cooperation agencies and/or bureaus.

the case of Uruguay, the role of primary providers was shared by Argentina and Brazil (30.8% of the total projects received, respectively).⁷

• This is influenced by the fact that a notable part of the exchange between these countries was through bidirectional projects (Matrix II.3.A): in fact, exchanges between these providers account for 86.9% of all bidirectional exchanges in 2012.

To summarize, all indicators confirm that BHSSC providers and recipients maintain a distinct pattern of behavior in their relationship with other partners: more diversified in the case of the former, and more concentrated and disperse in the case of the latter. However, these results continue to reflect a situation where a few Ibero-American countries execute a majority of the projects, while all of them act as recipients at some point. Achieving a better distribution of BHSSC depends on the providers and not the recipients who, as a result, become more dependent on a small number of partners.

II.4.2. ANALYSIS FROM A SUBREGIONAL PERSPECTIVE

Following the last edition of this report, and after considering several possibilities, it was decided to work with a subregional division of Latin America into five blocks: Mexico and the Ibero-American Caribbean, Central America, the Andean countries, Brazil (as a separate entity) and the rest of the Southern Cone. Matrix II.4 reproduces the base matrix (II.1) of projects supplied and received, but groups country data into these subregional blocks. The resulting matrix (II.4) provides information about BHSSC from a different perspective by addressing the relationships established at intra- and inter-subregional level.

The first conclusion to be drawn relates to each subregion's share of the 506 BHSSC projects exchanged in 2012. Accordingly, and as Graph II.4 demonstrates:⁸

- a) In the role of providers (Graph II.4.A), Southern Cone countries were the most active block, responsible for nearly one-third (32.4%) of projects. This participation does not include Brazil which, although it has a significant share since it is taken alone and is the largest single provider, comes quite close but ranks slightly below its neighbors, equivalent to 29.4% of the total.
- b) More than half of the remainder of the 506 projects (close to 40.0%) were undertaken by Mexico and the Ibero-American Caribbean (22.5% of the total). They were followed by Andean countries, which together represented 13.8% of projects in 2012. Central America played the smallest role, accounting for 1.8% of the total provided.
- c) Viewed in the role of recipient, the shares were redistributed and reversed (Graph II.4.B). The Andean coun-

Excluding Brazil since it received only two projects and is, therefore, not material. Those two projects came from Colombia and Mexico.

^{8.} To interpret this chart, the imaginary line from the centre of the outer figure (a pentagon, in this case) to each of the vertices reflects the percentage share (from 0%, at the centre, to 100%, at the vertex) of the indicated items. The irregular polygon drawn inside the pentagon is obtained by joining the various data points.

tries (34.8%) and Central America (30.2%) accounted for practically two-thirds of total projects executed in 2012. Southern Cone countries and the group comprising Mexico and the Caribbean accounted for a smaller– though still significant–share: 19.6% and 15.0%, respectively. Brazil received barely 0.4% of projects during the year.

An analysis from the standpoint of intra- and inter-subregional relations provides additional conclusions:

- a) With regard to the relationships established among the various subregions, in view of Matrix II.4.B and referring to the blocks that were responsible for executing the bulk of the 506 projects in 2012, some clear preferences in inter-subregional relations emerge. This occurred in at least two of the cases analyzed: the cooperation provided by the Southern Cone (43.3% was aimed at the Andean countries) and by Mexico and the Ibero-American Caribbean (48.2% was aimed at Central America).
- b) However, this pattern was not repeated in Brazil which, as a provider, has more diversified relations. The largest single share of its projects (32.2%) was executed in Andean countries, and the remainder was distributed quite evenly among Central America, Mexico the Caribbean, and the Southern Cone (shares of 20-24% each).

- c) From the recipient standpoint, there were various relationship patterns: firstly, the Andean countries exhibit a degree of dependency since around two-thirds of their incoming cooperation came from the Southern Cone (40.3%) and Brazil (27.3%); secondly, the Central American countries, which were less dependent, although Mexico and the Caribbean accounted for the largest single share of the projects received (35.9%), while the remainder was distributed evenly between Brazil (23.5%) and the Southern Cone (22.2%).
- d) With regard to internal relationships in each subregion, Matrices II.4.B and II.4.C suggest that, in terms of the intensity of exchanges between member countries, there is only one notable subregion: the Southern Cone, whose preferred destination for cooperation was itself (accounting for 33.3% of the 164 projects executed), and which accounted for about one-fifth of the 99 projects received.

Finally, in terms of a subregional analysis, it's worth elaborating further on an issue addressed in previous editions: a review of cooperation between our countries and the nonlbero-American Caribbean. Since 2007, coinciding with the first edition of this report, and in particular after 2010, when Haiti suffered from a devastating earthquake, this region has been a preferential recipient of solidarity and cooperation. Box II.3 summarizes and characterizes the BHSSC projects and actions that lbero-America promoted in the Caribbean in 2012.



Source: SEGIB, based on reporting from cooperation agencies and/or bureaus.

Matrix II.4. Bilateral Horizontal South-South Cooperation projects, by subregion. 2012.

Projects (units); share (% of total provided/received)

II.4.A. TOTAL PROJECTS

			RECIPIEN	TS		
PROVIDERS	Mexico and the Ibero-American Caribbean	Central America	Andean countries	Brazil	Southern Cone (excluding Brazil)	TOTAL
Mexico and the Ibero-American Caribbean	8	55	35	1	15	114
Central America	4	1	3	0	1	9
Andean countries	3	27	19	1	20	70
Brazil	35	36	48		30	149
Southern Cone (excluding Brazil)	26	34	71	0	33	164
TOTAL	76	153	176	2	99	506

II.4.B. SHARE (OF THE TOTAL PROVIDED)

			RECIPIEN	TS		
PROVIDERS	Mexico and the Ibero-American Caribbean	Central America	Andean countries	Brazil	Southern Cone (excluding Brazil)	TOTAL
Mexico and the Ibero-American Caribbean	7.0	48.2	30.7	0.9	13.2	100.0
Central America	44.4	11.1	33.3	0.0	11.1	100.0
Andean countries	4.3	38.6	27.1	1.4	28.6	100.0
Brazil	23.5	24.2	32.2		20.1	100.0
Southern Cone (excluding Brazil)	15.9	20.7	43.3	0.0	20.1	100.0
TOTAL	15.0	30.2	34.8	0.4	19.6	100.0

II.4.C. SHARE (OF THE TOTAL RECEIVED)

			RECIPIEN	TS		
PROVIDERS	Mexico and the Ibero-American Caribbean	Central America	Andean countries	Brazil	Southern Cone (excluding Brazil)	TOTAL
Mexico and the Ibero-American Caribbean	10.5	35.9	19.9	50.0	15.2	22.5
Central America	5.3	0.7	1.7	0.0	1.0	1.8
Andean countries	3.9	17.6	10.8	50.0	20.2	13.8
Brazil	46.1	23.5	27.3	0.0	30.3	29.4
Southern Cone (excluding Brazil)	34.2	22.2	40.3	0.0	33.3	32.4
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Note: The subregions are Mexico and the Ibero-American Caribbean (Cuba and the Dominican Republic); Central America (Guatemala, Honduras, El Salvador, Nicaragua, Costa Rica and Panama); the Andean Countries (Venezuela, Colombia, Ecuador, Peru and Bolivia); Brazil; and the rest of the Southern Cone (Paraguay, Chile, Argentina and Uruguay).

Source: SEGIB, based on reporting from cooperation agencies and/or bureaus.

BOX II.3.

Cooperation with Haiti and the non-Ibero-American Caribbean

Selection of basic indicators for Haiti and the rest of the non-Ibero-American Caribbean.

Population; GDP per capita (current dollars); infant mortality (per thousand live births). 2012 Data.

_			Income	Infant	
Country	Population	Gross Domestic Product (GDP) per capita	Classification according to the World Bank	mortality rate	
Haiti	10,173,775	760.0	LIC-Low Income Country	56.5	
Antigua and Barbuda	89,069	12,640.0	HIC-High Income Country	9.2	
Bahamas	371,960	NA	HIC-High Income Country	13.9	
Barbados	283,221	NA	HIC-High Income Country	16.9	
Belize	324,060	NA	UMIC-Upper Middle Income Country	15.7	
Dominica	71,684	6,460.0	UMIC-Upper Middle Income Country	11.5	
Grenada	105,483	7,110.0	UMIC-Upper Middle Income Country	11.4	
Guyana	795,369	3,410.0	LMIC-Lower Middle Income Country	29.0	
Jamaica	2,712,100	5,140.0	UMIC-Upper Middle Income Country	14.4	
Saint Kitts and Nevis	53,584	13,330.0	HIC-High Income Country	7.0	
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	109,373	6,380.0	UMIC-Upper Middle Income Country	21.1	
Saint Lucia	180,870	6,530.0	UMIC-Upper Middle Income Country	14.9	
Suriname	534,541	8,480.0	UMIC-Upper Middle Income Country	18.5	
Trinidad and Tobago	1,337,439	14,400.0	HIC-High Income Country	18.4	
Total including Haiti	17,142,528	7,694.5		18.5	
Total excluding Haiti	6,968,753	8,388.0		15.5	

Source: SEGIB, based on World Bank data.

THE CARIBBEAN IS an extremely heterogeneous region. The disparity of situations that coexist there is illustrated in the table above, which shows the demographic and socio-economic data for the 14 nations of the Caribbean which are not Ibero-American (i.e. all except for Cuba and the Dominican Republic). Two of them (Saint Kitts and Nevis, and Haiti) represent extremes:

- a) Saint Kitts and Nevis (measuring 261 km², i.e. almost 1,000th the size of Haiti, which spans 27,250 km² on the island it shares with the Dominican Republic) has the smallest population in the region (about 53,500), which contrasts with the more than 10 million people in Haiti (nearly 5 times more populous than the second most populous island, Jamaica).
- b) Also, they have very different income levels: while Saint Kitts and Nevis had one of the highest GDP per capita levels in the region in 2012 (over \$13,000), Haiti had the lowest (\$760, equivalent to less than two dollars a day), much lower than Guyana, the second-poorest country in the region (\$3,410). St. Kitts and Nevis is one of five non-Ibero-American Caribbean nations classified as a high income economy by the World Bank, whereas Haiti is the only one considered to be a low income economy.
- c) Other differences include social indicators. One example is the infant mortality rate, which is 7 per 1,000 (typical of a developed country) in Saint Kitts and Nevis, compared with 56.5 per 1,000 in Haiti.

As has been the case in successive editions of this report, American countries have maintained an active

Bilateral Horizontal South-South Cooperation Projects with Haiti and the non-Ibero-American Caribbean.2012.

In units

A. PROJECTS

A. PROJECTS		Rest of the non-Ibero-American Caribbean													
Ibero-American Countries	Haití	Antigua and Barbuda	Bahamas	Barbados	Belize	Dominica	Grenada	Guyana	Jamaica	Saint Kitts and Nevis	Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	Saint Lucia	Suriname	Trinidad and Tobago	Total
Argentina										1	2	3		1	7
Brazil															0
Chile	2														2
Colombia	7	2		3	6	2			2	1		2	1		26
Ecuador	1														1
Mexico	8				3									1	15
Total	18	2	o	3	9	2	O	o	5	2	2	5	1	2	51
											adines				
Ibero-American Countries	Haití	Antigua and Barbuda	Bahamas	Barbados	Belize	Dominica	Grenada	Guyana	Jamaica	Saint Kitts and Nevis	Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	Saint Lucia	Suriname	Trinidad and Tobago	Total
	L Haití	Antigua and Barbuda	Bahamas	Barbados	Belize	Dominica	Grenada	Cuyana	Jamaica	ω Saint Kitts and Nevis	Saint Vincent and the Grer	Saint Lucia	5 Luriname	Trinidad and Tobago	Total
Countries			Bahamas	Barbados	Belize	Dominica			Jamaica		L Saint Vincent and the Grer	L Saint Lucia		Trinidad and Tobago	
Countries			Bahamas	Barbados	Belize	Dominica			Jamaica					Trinidad and Tobago	8
Countries Argentina Brazil			Bahamas	Le Barbados	Belize	Dominica			Jamaica					Trinidad and Tobago	8 2
Countries Argentina Brazil Chile		1	Bahamas						Jamaica	3		1	1	Trinidad and Tobago	8 2 0
Countries Argentina Brazil Chile Colombia		1	Bahamas						Jamaica	3		1	1	Trinidad and Tobago	8 2 0 25

Source: SEGIB, based on reporting from cooperation agencies and/or bureaus and data from http://www.sitimapa.com/apc/apcNew2.3/

flow of BHSSC with non-Ibero-American Caribbean nations in recent years. The tables below reflect this exchange in 2012.

- In this regard, it's worth noting that:
- a) In 2012, Latin American countries executed a total of 51 BHSSC projects and 42 actions in the non-Ibero-American Caribbean.
- b) The profile of project and action recipients varied:

• As regards projects, one recipient-Haiti-stood out from the others since it accounted for 35.3% of the total. It received double (18 projects) the number of projects received by the second-ranking recipient, Belize, and more than triple the number of projects received by the third-ranking recipients (Jamaica and Santa Lucia, 5 each). The other nations received between three projects (Barbados) and none (Bahamas, Grenada, Guyana).

• An interesting feature of this distribution is that it does not appear to discriminate on the basis of income: the top recipient, Haiti, is both a Low Income Country (LIC) and a Least Developed Country (LDC), while the next recipient, Belize, is classified as an Upper Middle Income Country (UMIC).

• Meanwhile, the distribution of actions was considerably more diversified. In fact, the 42 actions registered were distributed in a range from zero for Trinidad and Tobago to seven for Saint Kitts and Nevis. In this case, Haiti was not a particularly significant recipient, as it received only 3 actions.

• As on other occasions, this can be corroborated using the Herfindahl Index for each distribution. Projects have a higher index (0.1864), indicating concentration, while actions have a lower index (0.1099), which is on the border between diversification and moderate concentration.

c) As regards providers, the 51 projects and 42 actions executed in 2012 were attributable to just six countries.

Only two (Colombia and Mexico) are on the Caribbean (the others are Argentina, Brazil, Chile and Ecuador).

Most likely for this reason, those two countries accounted for a higher share of cooperation. Specifically: • More than three quarters of total BHSSC executed in the region in 2012 originated in Colombia (the main provider, which accounted for 51.0% of projects and 59.5% of actions) and Mexico (which accounted for 29.4% and 16.7%, respectively).

• The preferential relationship of Colombia and Mexico with the region is not due to chance: after several years of executing cooperation in various countries on a strictly bilateral level and having observed a degree of inefficiency, both countries decided to group their cooperation under common guidelines, which led to the promotion of regional cooperation strategies. In 2009, Colombia launched its Caribbean Regional Strategy, under which BHSSC with cooperating nations is executed in priority areas of activity. In 2010 and following the devastating earthquake in Haiti, Mexico signed a Technical Cooperation Programme with CARICOM, providing a framework under which it executes some of its projects and actions.

• Among the other providers, Argentina accounted for just 13.7% and 19.0%, respectively, of the remaining BHSSC. Brazil, Chile and Ecuador engaged in sporadic exchanges, with much smaller combinations of projects and actions (0/2, 2/0 and 1/0, respectively).

It's also worth highlighting that BHSSC projects promoted in the non-Ibero-American Caribbean were very focused on meeting needs in the areas of education, healthcare and social programmes (all with a particular bias towards children), the development of farming and fishing skills and the institutional reinforcement of various areas of governance. The actions sought to meet the same types of needs, through training tools, such as courses and grants.

Source: SEGIB, based on reporting from cooperation agencies and/or bureaus, worldbank.org and www.sitimapa.com/apc/apcNew2.3/

II.5. SECTORAL ANALYSIS OF BILATERAL HORIZONTAL SOUTH-SOUTH COOPERATION

BELOW IS AN ANALYSIS of the sectoral profile of BHSSC in 2012. This requires two exercises: identifying the type of capacities (social, economic, environmental, etc.) in which this type of cooperation tended to be concentrated; and ascertaining whether countries had a certain specialization profile when transferring and reinforcing those capabilities.

However, first, these projects and actions must be classified by sector. To this end, a sectoral classification has been used since 2007 (a variant of the one created by the Development Assistance Committee, DAC, in 2004), which reorganized and grouped the sectors according to "social", "economic" and "other" capabilities. However, analysis in previous editions proved that the "other" category was too broad. Accordingly, in the overall analysis, sectors such as institutional strengthening–which is classified under the "other" heading and is very important for the region–proved to be virtually "invisible" and only further study revealed their true dimension.

For that reason, the "other" category was broken down for this edition. The end result is a sectoral classification, as detailed in Table II.3, which also includes a comparison of the resulting classification and the one previously in use. This final classification distinguishes a total of 27 sectors, grouped around the following dimensions:

- a) Social, which includes Education, Health, Reproductive Health, Water Supply and Sanitation and a more general "Others", which mainly refers to Social and Housing Policies;
- b) Economic, broken down here into two subgroups of sectors: those focused on the creation of conditions for the functioning of the economy (referred to here as *In-frastructure and Economic Services*), which includes everything related to Energy, Transport, Communications, Science and Technology, Finance, Employment and Enterprise; and those focused on *Productive Sectors*, i.e. those involved in strengthening the Extractive Industries, Agriculture, Forestry, Fisheries, Construction, Industry, Tourism and Trade.
- Institutional strengthening, a heading which covers all activities whose final objective is the support of Governments and Civil Society;
- d) Environment, refers to everything related to measures and policies in connection with Environmental protection and preservation and Disaster prevention;
- e) Other multisectoral, which now includes only activities related to Culture, Gender, and "others" related to alternative development models.

On the basis of this sectoral classification, Matrices II.5 (projects) and Matrices A.1 (actions, as set out in the an-

nex) were developed. As usual, the data contained in these matrices provides information for each country in each role, indicating how much cooperation was exchanged and with which countries; it also states the goals of each of these exchanges in terms of strengthening capabilities. Their content serves as the basis for the analysis.

II.5.1. PROFILE OF COOPERATION PROJECTS AND ACTIONS

Graph II.5 shows the share of each dimension of activity within the total 506 BHSSC projects and 203 BHSSC actions registered in 2012. According to the graph:

- a) A large proportion of the projects (almost 44%) focused on strengthening national economies. This occurred in a proportion of 70:30, favoring Productive sectors, whose share was notably higher than that of Infrastructure and economic services. Slightly more than one-fourth of the 506 projects (27.1%) had a Social objective. Strengthening of government and civil society institutions was less important than the above-mentioned areas, though nonetheless notable, accounting for 14.4% of initiatives. Initiatives focused on the Environment (7.1%) and Other development models (7.4%) accounted for a similar percentage.
- b) The profile of actions differed from that of projects. More than two-thirds of the 203 actions registered in 2012 sought to strengthen countries' social and institutional capabilities, in similar proportions (34.8% and 33.3%, respectively). Other objectives accounted for a much smaller proportion of actions, ranging between 6.2% and 7.1% (for Environment and Infrastructure and Economic services) and slightly over 9.0% and 9.5% (Others and Productive sectors).

More specifically, Table II.4 and Graph II.6 break down the projects by sector and sort them in terms of their share of the total. They reveal that more than half of the 506 projects were concentrated in just 5 of the 27 sectors of activity (Agriculture, Strengthening Government, Health, Environment and Others-social). Specifically,

 a) Support for agricultural activities involved 85 projects (16.8 % of the total). That support was visible in multiple ways, but there are certain recurring themes. For example:

• The transfer of experiences which improve the yield of common products in the region, such as cocoa, coffee, wheat and maize;

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		14	Water supply and sanitation	14		
		15	Others	15		
		21	Energy	21		
		22	Transport and storage	22		
	Infrastructure	23	Communications	23		
	and economic	24	Science and technology	24	Infrastructure and	
	services	25	Banking and finance	25	economic services	
		26	Employment	26		
		27	Enterprise	27		
conomic		2A	Extractive industries	2A		Econom
		2B	Agriculture	2B		
		2C	Forestry	2C		
	Productive	2D	Fisheries	2D		
	sectors	2E	Construction	2E	Productive sectors	
		2F	Industry	2F		
		2G	Tourism	2G		
		2H	Trade	2H		
		31	Government	31		
		32	Civil society	32	Institutional stre	igtnening
		34	Environment	41	E	
)ther		36	Disaster prevention	42	Environme	ent
		33	Culture	51		
		35	Gender	52	Others	
		37	Others	53	1	

Source: SEGIB, based on a variant from the Development Assistance Committee (DAC) (November 2004).

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Graph II.5. Bilateral Horizontal South-South Cooperation, grouped by sector of activity. 2012.

• Special treatment for family farms, by transferring knowledge and management tools and even giving small farmers the skills to reduce risks inherent in farming (e.g. implementation of simple irrigation systems and improving access to crop and farm insurance);

• Small-scale processing of agricultural products, particularly those related to livestock (notably milk and meat);

• Everything related to phytosanitary matters, an area where there are very varied projects ranging from epidemiological research through to pest and disease treatment and control, including the creation and design of legal frameworks to guarantee safe, standards-compliant production.



Source: SEGIB, based on reporting from cooperation agencies and/or bureaus.

Source: SEGIB, based on reporting from cooperation agencies and/or bureaus.

b) The second-most important sector in terms of share was institutional strengthening of governments (72 projects, 14.2% of the total). Once again, the projects were varied, but there were some recurring themes:

• There was a predominance of projects focused on management in the public administrations: transfer of managerial skills, technological modernization, progress in legal frameworks, new methods of resource allocation, etc. In this regard, the projects referred to either the public administration in general or to specific institutions. In fact, as shown in Table II.4, 12.5% of these projects in 2012 were related to the institutions responsible for fiscal and tax issues.

• Defense of Human Rights was approached from a wide range of perspectives, including: the fight to eradicate child labor and human trafficking, victim counting, identifying the missing, advances in genetic anthropology, and the creation of gene banks, among others.

• There were also many institutional strengthening projects in the areas of justice, defense, and law and order.

Public administration capabilities accounted for one-third of actions. Box II.5 takes a detailed look at actions to strengthen voting systems.

c) Another relevant sector was health. In this case, of special note were exchanges in the areas of clinical research, epidemiological surveillance, disease control, drug development, and strengthening of health system management. Additionally, a portion of the health projects (together with projects in other groups) were aimed at a particularly vulnerable group: indigenous communities (see Box II.6, which details their situation in the region and the incipient mainstreaming of this issue in BHSSC 2012).

Nurr	ber of projects (units); share (%)					
CODE	SECTOR OF ACTIVITY	NO. OF PROJECTS	SHARE	CUMULATIVE FREQUENCY	SHARE WITHIN THE GROUP	GROUP (CUMULATIVE TO 100%)
2B	Agriculture	85	16.8	16.8	54.1	
31	Government	72	14.2	31.0	94.7	
12	Health	57	11.3	42.3	41.0	
41	Environment	27	5.3	47.6	79.4	
15	Other (social)	24	4.7	52.4	17.3	
11	Education	21	4.2	56.5	15.1	
2F	Industry	21	4.2	60.7	13.4	
51	Culture	21	4.2	64.8	58.3	
13	Population and reproductive health	20	4.0	68.8	14.4	
14	Water supply and sanitation	17	3.4	72.1	12.2	Social
21	Energy	16	3.2	75.3	25.0	
2A	Extractive	15	3.0	78.3	9.6	
23	Communications	13	2.6	80.8	20.3	
53	Other	13	2.6	83.4	36.1	
24	Science and technology	12	2.4	85.8	18.8	
2D	Fisheries	12	2.4	88.1	7.6	
2G	Tourism	11	2.2	90.3	7.0	
27	Enterprise	10	2.0	92.3	15.6	
2C	Forestry	8	1.6	93.9	5.1	
26	Employment	7	1.4	95.3	10.9	
42	Disaster prevention	7	1.4	96.6	20.6	Environment
2H	Trade	5	1.0	97.6	3.2	
25	Banking and finance	4	0.8	98.4	6.3	
32	Civil society	4	0.8	99.2	5.3	Institutional strengthening
22	Transport and storage	2	0.4	99.6	3.1	Infrastructure and economic service:
52	Gender	2	0.4	100.0	5.6	Others
2E	Construction	0	0.0	100.0	0.0	Productive sectors
	TOTAL	506	100,0			

Source: SEGIB, based on reporting from cooperation agencies and/or bureaus.

BOX II.4.

Fiscal and tax systems: the incipient role of South-South Cooperation

Fiscal and tax	indicators for Lati	n America and the (Caribbean. 2000-20)11.
% of GDP				
Region	Tax rev	venues	Tax bı	ırden*
Region	2000	2011	2000	2011
Latin America	19.6%	23.6%	12.7%	15.7%
Caribbean	24.5%	28.3%	19.3%	23.0%
Note: Excluding Social Sec	urity contributions.			

Source: SEGIB, based on ECLAC (2013)

IN RECENT YEARS, Latin America has expressed a growing concern for improving the performance of its fiscal and tax systems. As suggested by Pita (2008)¹, this is being driven by the awareness that such an improvement would have a series of positive effects, such as: increased tax revenues and a reduction in tax evasion and in the "tax gap" (the difference between potential and actual tax revenues), which are so characteristic of the income inequalities that prevail in Latin America. This would also improve governments' capacity to release resources for redistribution and social welfare and, ultimately, develop their national economies and people.

This change in perception is in line with events in the region: between 2007 and 2012, 17 countries in Latin America and the Caribbean undertook a reform of their tax and fiscal systems (ECLAC, 2013). The adjustments focused mainly on two areas:

- a) Firstly, on introducing new taxes. For example, the collection of Value Added Tax (VAT) was strength-ened, taxes on capital were increased and excise taxes on alcohol and tobacco gained in importance, not to mention others based on environmental criteria and applied to fuel consumption and vehicles.
- b) Secondly, the administration structure was also reformed. In this case, the prevailing trend was towards decentralization (especially in larger countries), which in turn led to the need to improve coordination between the various actors and institutions.

Changes in tax revenues in Latin America and the Caribbean should be seen in this context. More specifically, and as shown in the following table, in the decade between 2000 and 2011, tax revenues in Latin America increased by four percentage points of GDP (from 19.6% to 23.6%). The same occurred with the tax burden, which increased from 12.7% to 15.7%. Caribbean countries registered the same upward trend in both indicators.

The commitment to strengthening tax and fiscal systems in the region was also reaffirmed by the increase in BHSSC initiatives to support changes in the institutions responsible for these issues. As depicted in the table below, there were 9 tax and fiscal projects in 2012. Uruguay and Mexico participated in those projects (with two of the largest reforms undertaken), as did Argentina and Colombia, which primarily supported Guatemala, Paraguay and El Salvador, three nations engaged in sweeping changes to their tax systems and particularly interested in assistance in this area.

Source: SEGIB, based on reporting from cooperation agencies and/or bureaus and ECLAC (2013).

http://www.eurosocialfiscal.org/uploads/documentos/20090703_150705_SIST._TRIBU._AMERICA_LATINA.pdf.

Provider	Recipient	Project
		•
Argentina	Paraguay	Strengthening technical skills of civil servants at the Tax Undersecretariat
Colombia	Guatemala	Strengthening the model for planning, monitoring and evaluating management and the quality management system at the Superintendence of Tax Administration (SAT)
		Skill building for technical staff in quantifying tax evasion and performing tax analyses
		Strengthening the Transfer Pricing Unit, audit units, Superintendence of Tax Administration (SAT)
Mexico	Guatemala	Exchange of materials and support for technological modernization of the Center for Tax and Customs Training (CENSAT) under the Superintendence of Tax Administration (SAT)
Uruguay	El Salvador	Development of an Institutional Strategic Plan for El Salvador's Ministry of Finance
		Tax reform and administration, and analysis of the sustainability of public debt
	Paraguay	Support for the implementation of Personal Income Tax
		Strengthening the tax audit area

Source: SEGIB, based on reporting from cooperation agencies and/or bureaus.

BOX II.5.

Cooperation actions in adjusting the region's voting systems

ACCORDING TO THE Mexican Federal Voting Institute (IFE), an election system is *"a set of measures (through which) the will of citizens is transformed into bodies of government or political representation"*.¹ The final outcome may be extremely varied depending on the decisions made in connection with the various technical components that make up this complex structure: for example, the distribution of constituencies of voters, the formula for candidacies, methods of voting and their conversion into seats, etc.

There is an enormous diversity of these systems in Latin America. Some illustrative data:

- a) In 2007, there were 12 different types of procedures used to elect representatives in Latin America.²
- b) Between 1994 and 2011, Latin American voting systems were very dynamic and underwent profound transformations. In fact, in that period, 13 of the 19 countries in the region made some kind of reform or adjustment to their presidential election systems. Additionally, some of them (Venezuela, 1999; Ecuador, 2008; Bolivia, 2009; and Dominican Republic, 2010) went so far as to reform their constitutions.³

The BHSSC actions exchanged by Latin American countries in order to strengthen their voting systems occurred in this context of transformation and change (all countries in the region held an election of some kind between 2008 and 2012)⁴. The following table shows the actions registered in 2012. The organization of workshops, seminars, technical assistance and exchanges of experience primarily sought to strengthen diverse aspects of those systems. However, of special note are those related to the implementation of electronic voting and the extension of voting rights to citizens living abroad.

- a) As regards electronic voting, Brazil was the first country to implement certain initiatives which have yet to be replicated. However, in October 2012, Venezuela extended the process to become the first country in the world to electronically automate all phases of the voting process. Its example was followed by other countries such as Argentina, Ecuador, Mexico, Paraguay and Peru, which are advancing in this direction. Colombia and Panama expect to follow suit in the near future.⁵
- b) The number of countries in the region that authorized voting by their citizens living abroad increased from 10 to 15 between 2008 and 2012. In that period, Bolivia (2009) and, more recently, Paraguay, El Salvador and Costa Rica (which will allow absentee voting for the first time in the elections held between 2013 and 2014) joined the original 10 countries (Argentina, Brazil, Colombia, Ecuador, Honduras, Mexico, Panama, Peru, Dominican Republic and Venezuela). Other countries, such as Chile, are in the process of guaranteeing this right. An exceptional case is Nicaragua, which has had absentee voting on the statute book since 2000 but has not actually implemented it to date for technical reasons.⁶

Source: SEGIB, based on reporting from cooperation agencies and/or bureaus, as well as the Mexican Federal Voting Institute (http://www.ife.org): International Institute for Democracy and Electoral Assistance (IDEA) (http://www.idea. int): Latinobarómetro Database (http://www.latinobarometro.org/lat.jsp); and Electoral World Magazine (http://www.mundoelectoral.com).

 http://www.ife.org.mx/documentos/DECEYEC/sistemas_ electorales_y_de_partid.htm#11

- 2. http://www.idea.int/americas/ep.cfm
- http://www.ife.org.mx/docs/IFE-v2/CAI/CAI-publicaciones/docs/2011/ELECC-LEGYPRES.pdf).
- 4. http://www.latinobarometro.org/documentos/LATBD_IN-FORME_LATINOBAROMETRO_2010.pdf
- 5. http://www.rpp.com.pe/2012-09-17-tendencias-del-votoelectronico-en-america-latina-noticia_522552.html
- 6. http://www.mundoelectoral.com/html/index.php?id=1007

		Action	
Provider	Recipient	Name	Type of action
Colombia	Peru	Gradual implementation of electronic voting under the Program for Strengthening Political Parties and Processes	Exchanging experiences
Mexico	Peru	Absentee voting	Panel
Panama/ Peru	Panama/ Peru	The role of civil society in voting reform: Panama and Peru	Workshop (Bidirectional)
Peru	Ecuador	Experience developed by the National Elections Board (JNE) through the "Informed Vote" project	Technical assistance
Uruguay	Peru	Transmission of election results within the framework of electoral security	Seminar
Venezuela	Peru	Audits of Venezuela's automated voting system	Workshop

Soure: SEGIB, based on reporting from cooperation agencies and/or bureaus.
BOX II.6.

BHSSC in 2012: an unwavering commitment to indigenous peoples

BHSSC PROJECTS WITH INDIGENOUS PEOPLES. 2012							
Provider	Recipient	Project					
Brazil	El Salvador	Support for healthcare actions and training of indigenous peoples					
Chile	Ecuador	Strategies to strengthen the management model and intercultural healthcare/ Strengthening intercultural public policy					
Mexico	El Salvador	Development of tourism in indigenous communities in El Salvador					
	Nicaragua	Strengthening the administration and management of territorial governments of indigenous people and Afro-Descendants in the autonomous regions of Nicaragua					
	Panama	Advisory services in school management and administration (bilingual intercultural education)					
	Peru	Analysis of genomic variations of the indigenous and mestizo populations of Peru as a platform to develop genomic medicine					
Peru	Argentina	Promotion of Intercultural Health with Indigenous Communities					

Source: SEGIB, based on reporting from cooperation agencies and/or bureaus.

DESPITE EFFORTS IN various areas, the statistics on indigenous peoples are still incomplete, depending very much on the source. In fact, the data on Latin America and the Caribbean provided by two different agencies of the UN (UNICEF and UNDP) do not coincide: according to UNICEF, there are around 30 million indigenous people in Latin America and the Caribbean, notably lower than the UNDP estimate of 50 million. In addition to uncertainty about the overall figure, there is enormous heterogeneity in the distribution within the region: according to UNICEF figures, 87.0% of this population is concentrated in five countries (Mexico, with the largest number in absolute terms: 9 million, as well as Guatemala, Peru, Colombia and Bolivia, the latter having the highest concentration: 66.2% of the population is indigenous).12

Using the highest estimates, indigenous people represent between 7% and 8% of the region's total population.³ But beyond their relative weight, the importance of this population is confirmed by other data. For example, to date, barely 22 countries worldwide have ratified the fundamental instrument of international law for the protection of indigenous peoples: International Labour Organization (ILO) Convention No. 169. Fourteen of the signatory countries (i.e. more than half) are in the Latin American and Caribbean region.⁴

In this context, it is unsurprising that 2012 saw an increase in the number of BHSSC projects dedicated to improving the lives of indigenous peoples. Although activity in this area is still incipient, countries involved include Mexico and Peru, as well as other Central American and Andean countries, plus Brazil, Chile and Argentina. Additionally, although they are multi-sector projects (strengthening of tourism to generate revenues, strengthening governments and education), they tend to focus on healthcare and the implementation of intercultural attention.

Almost all studies on indigenous people confirm their vulnerability to poverty, extreme poverty and illness.⁵ According to the Pan American Health Organization (PAHO), 40% of the indigenous population in Latin American and the Caribbean do not have access to basic health services. As a result, this population suffers illnesses traditionally associated with a lack of access to clean drinking water and with poverty (tuberculosis, ma-

http://www.unicef.org/lac/pueblos_indigenas.pdf2http:// www.undp.org/content/undp/es/home/presscenter/ pressreleases/2013/05/22/pue

http://www.undp.org/content/undp/es/home/presscenter/pressreleases/2013/05/22/pueblos-indigenas-enamerica-latina-pese-a-los-avances-en-la-participacion-politica-las-mujeres-son-las-mas-rezagadas-segun-el-pnud/

http://estadisticas.cepal.org/cepalstat/WEB_CEPALSTAT/ PublicacionesEstadisticas.asp?idioma=e

^{4.} http://www.survival.es/campanas/convenio169

http://assets.survivalinternational.org/static/files/campaigns/PCK_SPANISH_LONG.pdf

laria, pneumonia, etc.) more frequently and with greater virulence.⁶

Given that these populations have traditionally been reluctant to seek conventional medical treatment, one of the most important tasks will be to bring them into line with the general population in health terms by applying treatments that promote multiculturalism. This requires health systems which harmonize medical knowledge and treatments from all the cultures involved. As observed in the cooperation agenda being implemented in the region, this will overcome the population's wariness and create conditions for greater and better access to healthcare for indigenous peoples.⁷

Source: SEGIB, based on reporting from cooperation agencies and/or bureaus, as well as statistical data from the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), the Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), Survival International and the Pan American Health Organization (PAHO).

 http://www.cdi.gob.mx/participacion/dlupe/salud_pueblos_indigenas_americas.pdf http://www.paho.org/can/index.php?option=com_ docman&task=doc_view&gid=6569&Itemid= d) Lastly, a number of topics were addressed in the areas of environment and Other-social (27 and 24 projects, respectively). The majority of projects focused on the preservation and management of natural areas, training in environmental measurement and assessment indicators, waste management and the implementation of clean technologies, as well as the strengthening of social programs highly focused on groups which, for various reasons, are considered vulnerable (children, youth, people with disabilities, etc.).

II.5.2. PROFILE OF COUNTRIES' CAPACITIES AND NEEDS

In order to know what kind of capacities and needs predominated in cooperation exchanged between Latin American countries in 2012, the following graphs were drawn:

- a) Graphs depicting each sector group's share of total projects offered and received by the main providers and recipients, respectively.
- b) Similar graphs providing a more comprehensive breakdown in terms of activity, showing each sector's share, by country and role.
- c) Tables which measure providers' and recipients' sector profiles according to the values indicated by the Revealed Comparative Advantage index (RCA) proposed by Béla Balassa. This is an alternative indicator which helps confirm a sector's importance in relation to the total offered or received by the country. In this way, and according to standard scales, a sector group is considered to be significant if its RCA value exceeds 0.9.9

In terms of countries which primarily acted as providers, Graph II.7 (sector groups and shares), Table II.5 (groups and RCA) and Graph II.8 (breakdown by activity sector) reveal that:

a) Close to 75% of the projects executed by Brazil in 2012 were split almost evenly between Social (37.6%) and Economic (36.1%). Among these projects, the share of Productive sectors (26.8%) greatly exceeded that of Infrastructure and economic services (10.1%). In fact, Brazil's strength in those groups of activities is corroborated by the results in terms of RCA: the Social and Productive sectors (Table II.5) have values of over 0.9 (1.4 and 1.0, respectively).

By sector, agriculture accounted for a notable share of Brazil's BHSSC projects (one-fifth of its 149 projects). They mainly involved skills transfer in phytosanitary matters, support for innovation and information systems, and the creation of production chains and agribusiness. Curiously, another sector outside the socio-economic dimension proved to be important: strengthening of public institutions (15.4%). In this case, notable projects addressed defense (military training) and protection of the rights of children and young people. Brazil's cooperation also involved social sectors (Health, 14.8%; Reproductive Health, 11.4%; Education, 5.4%) and especially matters related to supporting national healthcare systems, treatment of specific diseases (HIV/AIDS, cancer, dengue fever), pharmaceuticals, mother-child health, and support for vocational training, among others.

b) Mexico and Argentina (second and third main providers) showed a marked bias towards Economic projects: 57.9% and 57.4%, respectively, of the total executed. Once again 50-60% of those projects were focused on strengthening Productive sectors. Their associated RCAs were the highest (1.7 and 1.5, respectively), once again.

For both countries, agriculture-related projects were predominant, accounting for 1 out of 4 in Mexico and 1 out of 5 in Argentina. However, their specific profiles differed: Mexico was more active with phytosanitary projects and in evaluating and minimizing associated risks, whereas Argentina showed a clear preference for livestock projects (especially cattle, autochthonous species and camelids, among others).

The two providers also coincided in assisting their partners with institutional strengthening (second-largest sector, representing 9.3% and 13.8%, respectively, of projects implemented). The differences were also visible in other ways. For example, Mexico gave priority to Extractive industries (8.4%), Environment (8.4%) and Water supply and sanitation (6.5%), whereas Argentina focused on Health (13.8%)¹⁰ and support for Industry (8.5%).

In any case, Mexico's clear economic bias in cooperation (especially with its Central American neighbors) is visible in Box II.7.

c) The pattern exhibited by Chile (fourth-largest provider) is the one closest to that of Brazil: 75% of projects were Social (34.6%) and Economic (37.7%); a majority of the latter (9)

^{9.} As seen in last year's report, the Revealed Comparative Advantage index (RCA) put forward by Béla Balassa is used in international trade to determine a country's specialisation profile. This index is used to calculate the relative advantage or disadvantage of a certain country in exports of a certain class of product. In this case, the most common formula is RCA= $(X_{a}^{i} / X_{w}^{i}) / (X_{a}^{t} / X_{w}^{i})$ X^t_), where Xⁱ_a / Xⁱ_w refers to the share that country a's exports of product i represent out of total world exports of that product; and X_{x}^{t}/X_{w}^{t} measures country *a*'s total exports as a share of world exports. In other words, the index gives an idea of the importance of a country's exports of a given product considering that country's importance as an exporter. In order to apply this reasoning to Bilateral Horizontal South-South Cooperation, it is necessary to change some variables and targets: exports can be replaced by the supply of projects, products by sectors of activity, and the world total by Ibero-America as a whole; moreover, the goal now is to ascertain the importance of a given dimension of activity in the total projects executed by a country, and whether there are many or just a few countries sharing this strength (SEGIB, 2012).

^{10.} See detail in Box II.9 on the importance of the Social dimension in Argentina's outgoing cooperation and Ecuador's incoming cooperation profile.



Source: SEGIB, based on reporting from cooperation agencies and/or bureaus.

Table II.5	Table II.5. Sector profile of the main providers, according to Béla Balassa's RCA. 2012.											
RCA, to one decimal place												
	SECTOR DIMENSIONS											
PROVIDERS		Econo	mic	Institutional								
	Social	Infrastructure and econ. services	Productive sectors	strengthening	Environment	Others						
Brazil	1.4	0.4	1.0	0.6	0.2	0.1						
Mexico	0.6	0.4	1.7	0.3	0.4	0.2						
Argentina	0.7	0.6	1.5	0.5	0.1	0.3						
Chile	1.3	0.1	1.1	0.5	0.4	0.3						
Colombia	0.8	0.5	0.5	1.0	0.2	0.6						
Uruguay	0.7	0.7	0.2	1.1	0.2	0.7						
Ecuador	1.3	1.0	0.3	0.5	0.5	0.0						
Others	1.5	0.7	0.8	0.4	0.0	0.1						
Note: To be meaning	ngful, the profile was c	alculated only for those pr	oviders who provided	at least 10 projects.								

Source: SEGIB, based on PIFCSS (2013) and reporting from cooperation agencies and/or bureaus.



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of 10) were aimed at strengthening Productive sectors; the RCA values support these conclusions, since they exceed 0.9 for Social and Productive projects (1.3 and 1.1, respectively).

The most notable differences can be broken down by activity sector. In the case of Chile (Graph II.8.D), the main activity is not agriculture (fourth in terms of importance) but, rather, the promotion of social welfare policies (especially for children and young people) and access to housing for lower-income families (13.5% of the 52 projects in 2012). This is followed, in order of relative importance, by cooperation aimed at Strengthening public institutions (11.5%), Health (9.6%) and the Environment (9.6%).

d) Colombia had one of the most diversified profiles, with a lower share of social and economic activities (barely half of the 48 projects in 2012: 22.9% and 27.1%, respectively). Among economic projects, the focus was not on Productive sectors but, rather, on strengthening Infrastructure and services (14.6%), specifically Energy, Communications, and extending Science and Technology.

In fact, the projects with the greatest shares were focused on Institutional strengthening (25% of the total and with an RCA of 1.0), as well as support for Governance, Conflict Resolution and Cooperation. In particular, Culture accounted for 14.6% of the 48 projects, (more details in Box II.8). Another one-fifth of Colombia's cooperation referred to activities in Health and Social policy and housing (10.4% each).

e) For Uruguay and Ecuador, the lower number of projects (16 and 14, respectively) makes it difficult to identify their profiles. Nevertheless, Uruguay's pattern of cooperation bears a striking resemblance to that of Chile (less than half in socio-economic areas, greater focus on Infrastructure than on Economic sectors, and similar proportions to Chile in Institutional strengthening, Environment and Others). Also of special note is the importance in Ecuador of the transfer of Social (35.7%) and Economic capacities (also 35.7%) and especially Infrastructure and services (over 28% in Science and Technology, Communications and support for Business).

Turning to the role of recipients, Graph II.9, Table II.6 and Graph II.10 are similar to those above for providers. They show that it's possible to identify different country profiles based on the share of socio-economic capacities. For a meaningful interpretation, only countries that received more than 20 projects were analyzed:

- a) There was a first group (Ecuador and Bolivia, the first and third recipients, and Cuba, Peru, Mexico, Argentina and the Dominican Republic), for which support for socio-economic activities was very significant, representing between 75% and 90% of projects received. Within that same group, it was also clear:
 - Which countries had very similar percentages of Social and Economic projects (Ecuador, Peru, Mexico and Argentina) compared with those where Economic projects predominated (Bolivia, the Dominican Republic and

Cuba). Cuba has the most extreme ratio: of the 30 projects received in total, 77% were focused on economic capacities and only 13% on social capacities.

- In strictly economic terms, support for Productive sectors predominated in almost all the countries (in fact, almost all have an RCA of over 1.0 in this sector dimension; Table II.6). The exceptions are Ecuador, Bolivia and Cuba, where projects to improve economic performance accounted for between 13% and 20% of those received, with high indices, ranging from 1.0 to 1.6.
- b) The second group (El Salvador, Paraguay and Guatemala, the second, fourth and fifth main recipients, as well as Costa Rica, Uruguay and Colombia) share a profile in which the majority (over 50% of projects received) are socio-economic, but their combined share is significantly lower and never exceeds 65% (ten percentage points below 75%, the minimum registered in the first group). Moreover:

• Most of these countries share a profile where Social and Economic projects are either quite evenly matched (El Salvador, Guatemala and Paraguay) or there is a clear bias towards the latter (Paraguay, Costa Rica and Colombia).

• In the strictly economic sphere, most also had a profile in which Productive Sectors predominated. The exception is Costa Rica, where almost one-third of incoming projects focused on supporting the production of Infrastructure and economic services, which explains why the country has the highest RCA (2.3) in this sector group.

Given the sector structures described above, the lower the combined share of Social and Economic projects, the higher the share of other types of activities (Institutional strengthening, Environment and Others) in recipients' profiles. This inverse proportion explains why countries in the second group (with socio-economic shares of less than 65%) attain higher shares in other dimensions of activity compared with the first group (where the combined socio-economic share is at least 75%). Specifically:

- a) Projects to improve governments' institutional capacities had shares ranging from 4.8% in Argentina to 10.6% in Ecuador, in the first group. This range of values increased and expanded in the second group, ranging from 13.0% for Colombia up to 32.5% for Paraguay.
- b) The same dynamic was visible in the case of projects that were executed to support the protection and preservation of the Environment: their share varied from 0.0% (Cuba) to 10.0% (Peru) in the first group, and from 2.5% (Paraguay) to 17.9% (Costa Rica) in the second.
- c) As regards cooperation to strengthen other development models, the values ranged from 3.3% (Peru and Cuba) to 9.5% (Argentina), in the first group, and from 3.6% (Costa Rica) to 15.4% (Uruguay) in the second group.

Graph II.10 shows the profiles of the top five recipients (Ecuador, El Salvador, Bolivia, Paraguay and Guatemala), by activity sector. Those profiles were somewhat heterogeneous in 2012. Specifically:



Source: SEGIB, based on reporting from cooperation agencies and/or bureaus.

a) In the case of Ecuador, projects which supported Health were the largest single group (one-fifth of the 66 projects received in 2012). This priority is closely related to the process of change that this country is experiencing, and the consequent need to improve the management of a system which ensures access and quality (see Box II.9). Also of special note were projects aimed at strengthening Public Administrations and guaranteeing the rights of children and young people (10.6%), those related to Sanitation and improving drinking water supply (9.1%), those enhancing Communications (from the postal service to television broadcasts: 9.1%), and agricultural projects related to phytosanitary matters and food security (9.1%).

b) One-third of incoming cooperation in El Salvador focused on strengthening public institutions, notably projects in

	SECTOR DIMENSIONS											
PROVIDERS		Econo	omic	Institutional								
	Social	Infrastructure and Productive econ. services sectors		strengthening	Environment	Others						
Ecuador	1.3	1.6	0.7	0.7	0.5	1.1						
El Salvador	1.0	1.2	0.3	2.1	1.3	0.9						
Bolivia	0.9	1.0	1.4	0.6	0.6	0.9						
Paraguay	0.8	0.2	1.1	2.2	0.4	0.7						
Guatemala	1.2	0.4	0.7	1.8	0.8	0.8						
Cuba	0.5	1.1	2.1	0.4	0.0	0.5						
Peru	1.3	0.8	1.0	0.7	1.5	0.5						
Costa Rica	0.3	2.3	0.7	1.4	2.7	0.5						
Uruguay	1.1	1.2	0.5	1.0	1.1	2.2						
Mexico	1.3	0.6	1.0	0.5	1.2	1.2						
Colombia	0.5	1.0	1.3	0.9	1.3	1.9						
Argentina	1.2	0.4	1.4	0.3	0.7	1.4						
Dominican R.	0.9	0.8	1.4	0.6	1.4	0.7						
Nicaragua	0.4	0.4	1.1	0.7	3.3	2.4						
Panama	1.3	1.7	1.2	0.5	0.0	0.0						
Chile	1.2	1.3	0.5	0.6	1.2	2.4						
Venezuela	2.0	1.4	0.9	0.0	0.0	0.0						
Honduras	1.5	0.0	1.6	0.0	1.5	0.0						

Table II.6. Sector profile of the main recipients, according to Béla Balassa's RCA. 2012.

Note: For a meaningful interpretation, only countries that received more than 20 projects were analyzed.

Source: SEGIB, based on reporting from cooperation agencies and/or bureaus.

the areas of security, human rights and conflict resolution (31.9%). The other two-thirds of the 47 projects received were: health-oriented (12.8%), including very specific topics (e.g. social gerontology or blood products, illnesses such as chagas disease, and even groups: indigenous peoples); support for the design and implementation of social welfare and housing policies (8.5%); agriculture and livestock (8.5%), which in this case affected very different areas, including farming, livestock and bee-keeping.

- c) In Bolivia, cooperation focused mainly on strengthening agriculture: almost 35% of the 46 incoming projects were aimed at improving performance and productivity, phytosanitary developments and processing of basic products such as milk and meat. Another one-third of projects were health related (epidemiological surveillance and treatment of diseases), Institutional Strengthening (particularly forensic anthropology), housing development and the inclusion of people with disabilities.
- d) As for Paraguay, support received in the institutional area (30.0%), to reorganize and modernize the structure of its public administration, train civil servants and design government policies played an essential role. Also, close to 30% of projects focused on generating economic alternatives and alternative sources of revenues, particularly for families and small producers in specific sectors: agriculture (15.0%) and tourism (12.5%). Healthcare, particularly epidemiology and pharmaceuticals, accounted for the remaining 10.0%.
- e) In Guatemala, the 36 projects received tended to concentrate on strengthening three types of capacities: institutional, particularly in connection with the tax system, national security and the defense of human rights (one out of every four projects); education, in a clear attempt to improve both general and professional education and to offer universal access (one out of five projects); a combination of protection for children and young people with minimizing risks for small farmers and improving food security (one out of three projects).



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BOX II.7.

Mexico and Central America: predominantly economic cooperation

BHSSC project	s executed	by Mexico v	with Central /	America, by	y country a	nd sector d	imension.	2012.
Projects (units)	; share (%)							
A. PROJECTS								
	Costa Rica	El Salvador	Guatemala	Honduras	Nicaragua	Panama	Others	Total
Social	0	0	5	0	0	1	12	18
Inf. and ec. serv.	4	1	1	0	1	0	5	12
Produc. sectors	5	4	8	4	3	2	24	50
Inst. Stren.	4	0	3	0	1	0	2	10
Environment	2	1	2	0	2	0	4	11
Others	0	0	0	0	1	0	5	6
TOTAL	15	6	19	4	8	3	52	107
B. SHARE OF EACH	I SECTOR DIM	AENSION IN C	OOPERATION I	RECEIVED BY	EACH COUNT	RY		
	Costa Rica	El Salvador	Guatemala	Honduras	Nicaragua	Panama	Others	Total
Social	0.0	0.0	26.3	0	0.0	33.3	23.1	16.8
Inf. and ec. serv.	26.7	16.7	5.3	0.0	12.5	0.0	9.6	11.2
Produc. sectors	33.3	66.7	42.1	100.0	37.5	66.7	46.2	46.7
Inst. Stren.	26.7	0.0	15.8	0.0	12.5	0.0	3.8	9.3
Environment	13.3	16.7	10.5	0.0	25.0	0.0	7.7	10.3
Others	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	12.5	0.0	9.6	5.6
TOTAL	100.0	100	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

COOPERATION PROVIDED BY Mexico to Central American countries in 2012 was highly biased towards strengthening economic capacities. The predominance of this economic exchange is reflected in the following tables, in which the 107 BHSSC projects executed by Mexico in 2012 were assigned on the basis of:

- a) The recipient country (distinguishing Central American countries–Costa Rica, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua and Panama–from the rest of Latin America);
- b) The dimension of activity under which they were classified (Social; Economic, distinguishing between Infrastructure and Productive sector services; Institutional strengthening; Environment; and Others).

Based on the table, we can confirm that:

- a) Almost 60% of the cooperation implemented by Mexico in 2012, regardless of the final destination, was related to productive sectors (46.7%) and infrastructure and economic services (11.2%).
- b) The majority (51.4%) of the 107 projects were executed in Central America.
- c) As a result of the combination of both factors, economic projects accounted for the largest share of the total received from Mexico by each of the Central American countries. In fact, those shares ranged from 47.4% in Guatemala and 50.0% in Nicaragua, (first and third recipients) and 60.0% in Costa Rica and 66.7% in Panama, to highs of 83.3% in El Salvador and 100.0% in Honduras.

Source: SEGIB, based on reporting from cooperation agencies and/or bureaus.

Taking each recipient's share of total cooperation executed by Mexico in Central America and breaking down the sector dimensions by activity, it's possible to obtain more specific information:

- a) The cases of Guatemala and Costa Rica were very different: for Guatemala, cooperation focused on Extractive industries (mining and energy) as well as Agriculture (from promoting family farming and agricultural loans through to phytosanitary matters); whereas, for Costa Rica, projects addressed a range of activities, from bioethanol (Extractive) and mechatronics (Science and Technology), through to Agriculture, Fishing and promoting microenterprise
- b) Economic cooperation provided by Mexico to Nicaragua and El Salvador was primarily Agricultural, notably the transfer of cattle-raising skills. However, in the area of creating economic conditions, whereas power generation was predominant in Nicaragua, company incubation predominated in El Salvador.
- c) Honduras and Panama, both of which received a low number of projects (4 and 3, respectively), had a very defined profile: projects were concentrated in Agriculture and, in particular, on detecting and treating animal and plant illnesses, in Honduras; and on Aquaculture and Fishing, especially on farming Tilapia and native species, in Panama.

BOX II.8.

Importance of culture in Colombian cooperation: some examples

ALMOST 15% OF THE 48 BHSSC projects that Colombia executed in 2012, and over 40% of its 12 actions, had a common denominator: culture.

The table below lists the culture-related projects and actions executed by Colombia in 2012. Participants included Costa Rica, El Salvador and Guatemala (4 projects and 5 actions in total), and, to a lesser extent, Brazil, the Dominican Republic and Uruguay (1 project each). Additionally, and in line with the topics addressed, projects dedicated to capacity strengthening in the areas of Music and National Library Networks and Systems predominated, as did training of educators in Socio-Cultural Animation and a range of Performing Arts. Other activities were related to Policy Management, Cultural Industries and Museographic training, among others.

Among these projects and actions, several specific experiences are detailed below:

a) The project to train 700 music teachers and conductors in Guatemala. In this case, Colombia played an important role in the transfer of music learning techniques and methodologies. The ultimate goal was to improve the quality of music training and ensure access under equal conditions to all Guatemalans. The challenge was to achieve this having consideration for the need for such techniques to conform to the multi- and intercultural situation in Guatemala (23 different ethnic groups).

- b) El Salvador executed a National Music Plan for Coexistence; the goal: bring music to young people and use it to enhance social integration and to discourage conflict and exclusion. In its early stages, it involved the implementation of a Sustainable Music Schools project. Colombia, which has experience in this area, provided advice and training for the design and implementation of both the School Model and the National Plan for Peaceful Coexistence.
- c) In the Dominican Republic, the National Library System (comprising the National Library; public, private, school, municipal and university libraries; and documentation centers) was found to be deficient. This, in turn, negatively affected the reading habits of the population as well as their access to social, economic, political, scientific, technical, and cultural knowledge. To palliate this deficit, the Dominican Republic received support from Colombia, which helped design a new National Library System, which included redefining its functions and adapting to the needs of each community.

	Recipient	Title				
Projects	Brazil	Technical support to implement the network of libraries in Mexico City				
	Costa Rica	Training teachers for the Parque de la Libertad Schools of Dance, Theatre and Circus				
	El Salvador	Sustainable Music Schools				
	Guatemala	Training teachers in socio-cultural animation				
		Training for Music School as part of the Ministry of Education's Pentagram Programme				
	Dominican R.	Advisory services for the creation of the National Library System				
	Uruguay	Exchange of experiences in the literary sector				
Actions	Costa Rica	Technical assistance for the Satellite Account Project				
		Art for integration				
	El Salvador	Technical assistance to strengthen museums				
		Cultural policies for cultural entrepreneurship and cultural industries				
		Advisory services for the National Music Plan				

BOX II.9.

Healthcare in cooperation: Argentina and Ecuador

PROJECTS IN THE FIELD of health represent a large share of these two countries' cooperation profiles: Argentina, where 13.8% of the 94 projects it provided in 2012 were devoted to strengthening healthcare systems in its partner countries, and Ecuador, for which more than one-fifth (21.2%) of the 66 projects received were health related.

The following table shows a breakdown of health projects in which both countries participated in 2012 in their respective roles, as well as those which were exchanged between Argentina and Ecuador. The breakdown by area and topic shows that each country had a very distinct profile: in the case of Argentina, projects focused on capacities strengthened in recent years, and in Ecuador, on strengthening a healthcare system that is undergoing profound restructuring. Neither profile can be separated from the processes that the sector is undergoing in both countries.

In recent years, and from very different starting points, both Argentina and Ecuador have prioritized this sector, promoting adjustments and reforms. More specifically:

a) The Argentine health system is one of the region's longest-running, with some of the best results. It provides universal free coverage and is the second system (after Cuba) with the highest share of resources (6.2% of GDP in 2011). Most of its indicators for mortality and morbidity, as well as for resources, access and health coverage, rank Argentina among the top five countries in Latin America.¹

This track-record is attributable in no small part to the Federal Health Plan, in force since 2004, when it began to transform several areas of the system. The areas that experienced the greatest transformations and development include:

• Considerable progress was made in the area of pharmaceuticals as a result of measures such as: the Remediar Programme (the world's largest free medicines program) to ensure access to medicines for the most vulnerable groups; drug traceability, monitoring and location to ensure the quality and legality of the final product; and promotion of domestic production of medicines by local laboratories.

• Other priority initiatives were related to mother and child care, the community health program for training primary care professionals; and research and treatments in the field of epidemiology (including greater coverage of free compulsory vaccinations and the implementation of special programs to fight dengue and yellow fever).

Given this context, Argentina's profile of BHSSC projects executed in 2012 is more comprehensible. Observing the table, it's possible to identify "words" associated with the above-mentioned developments: most of the healthcare projects were related to pharmacovigilance, pharmacopoeia, microencapsulation of nutritional substances, electromedical equipment and monitoring of causative agents and control of disease vectors, among others.

b) For years, Ecuador has had a fragmented, segmented healthcare system with numerous funding sources and suppliers, resulting in ineffective coverage in which the bulk of the population did not have ready access to the most basic health care services. More recently, as a result of the 2008 Constitution and the development of the National Welfare Plan (2009-2013):

• According to Ecuador's new Constitution: "Health is a right guaranteed by the State" and must be provided by the latter under "the principles of equity, universality, solidarity, interculturalism, quality, efficiency, effectiveness, prevention, and bioethics, with a gender and generational approach".²

• Following this repositioning, reaffirmed in the National Welfare Plan, the Transformation of Ecuador's Healthcare System (TSSE)³ commenced, which focuses on two fundamental aspects: increasing investment (public expenditure on healthcare increased from 1.3% to 3.0% of GDP between 2000 and 2011);⁴ and improving management, coordination and articulation of the public system (which also includes implementing the MAIS model of comprehensive healthcare).⁵

^{1.} http://ais.paho.org/chi/brochures/2012/BI_2012_SPA.pdf

http://www.mmrree.gob.ec/ministerio/constituciones/2008.pdf

^{3.} http://www.paho.org/saludenlasamericas/index. php?id=40&option=com_content

^{4.} http://datos.bancomundial.org/indicador/SH.XPD.PUBL.ZS

http://construyamossalud.grupofaro.org/sites/default/ files/documentos/Manual_Modelo_Atencion_Integral_ Salud_Ecuador_2012%20Logrado%20ver%20amarillo.pdf

Healthcare	e projects as part of cooperation by Argentina and Ecuador 2012.				
A. ARGENTINA,	AS A PROVIDER				
Recipient	Project				
Bolivia	Strengthening the capacity of the Ministry of Health and Sports in kidney procurement, removal and transplants				
	Implementation of a National Pharmacovigilance System				
	Monitoring <i>Shiga Toxin-producing Escherichia coli</i> as the cause of hemolytic-uremic syndrome in clinical samples (HUS and bloody diarrhea)				
El Salvador	Social gerontology				
Mexico	Production of functional foods and related products via microencapsulation of substances of nutritional interest (BIDIRECTIONAL)				
	Peptides that regulate insect physiology: potential in controlling infectious disease vectors. Second phase (BIDIRECTIONAL)				
Paraguay	Technical assistance for the repair and maintenance of electromedical equipment				
	Strengthening the National Health Surveillance Department to create a Regional Pharmacopoeia				
Uruguay	Strengthening the Ministry of Public Health in Uruguay for the future establishment of a Regional Pharmacopoei				
B. ECUADOR AS	RECIPIENT				
Provider	Project				
Brazil	Technical support to strengthen the regulatory functions for pre- and post- authorization of medicines				
Chile	Strategies to strengthen the Intercultural Health Care and Management Model				
Cuba	Strengthening management at Ecuador's Ministry of Public Health in oncology, specifically in radiation therapy, based on technical assistance and knowledge transfer				
	Strengthening institutional management at Ecuador's Ministry of Public Health through the provision of professional services by Cuban health professionals				
	Implementing services for the early diagnosis of hearing impairment in children				
	Implementing a neonatal metabolic screening system in Ecuador				
	Implementing and strengthening the Healthcare Model through technical support and training of Ecuadorian professionals				
	Community Involvement Project for biological control of the yellow fever mosquito (Aedes aegypti)				
	Pilot project to control vectors in endemic areas of Oro province				
Peru	Healthcare II partner project (BIDIRECTIONAL)				
C. FROM ARGEN	TINA TO ECUADOR				
Project					
	ce for Ecuador's Ministry of Public Health to strengthen institutional capacity by applying rules to monitor norization of medicines				
Strengthening of t	the Department of Health Economics at Ecuador's Ministry of Health				
Strengthening Ecu	ador's transplant system by training healthcare personnel in critical hospital areas				
Comprehensive te	rritorial nutritional intervention				

Healthcare projects as part of cooperation by Argentina and Ecuador 2012.

Comprehensive territorial nutritional intervention

Source: SEGIB, based on reporting from cooperation agencies and/or bureaus.

Given this context, it is unsurprising that a large proportion of incoming bilateral HSSC projects in Ecuador focused on strengthening management capacities in the public healthcare system. For this reason, some of the actions centered on healthcare models (both Intercultural and Comprehensive), as well as the Economic Department of the Ministry for Public Health, and the Ministry itself, among others.

Source: SEGIB, based on reporting from cooperation agencies and/or bureaus; and statistics from the World Bank and the Pan American Health Organization (PAHO).

II.6. OTHER ASPECTS OF BILATERAL HORIZONTAL SOUTH-SOUTH COOPERATION IN 2012

AS DETAILED EARLIER IN the chapter, the work performed in Ibero-America in the last two years has resulted in the production of a number of indicators for South-South Cooperation. In this respect:

- a) The desired indicators were defined;
- b) The corresponding formulas were drawn up;
- c) The required databases were defined;
- d) Potential applications and uses were considered.

Some of those indicators were tested in the previous edition of this report. However, the lack of data (which was not available for all countries or for all projects and actions) limited the extent to which those indicators could be used. The fact that basic information required for calculating these indicators is still partial and incomplete represents a serious impediment to analyzing South-South Cooperation.

However, for this edition, in order to palliate this problem as much as possible, it was decided to combine the use of indicators with descriptive statistical techniques. This represents a qualitative change: rather than obtaining a single datum (using indicators) which is difficult to interpret, combining statistics provides a series of data points from which it is possible to identify a trend. Consequently, combining the two techniques makes it possible to use the same initial data to ascertain more information in greater detail.

This section focuses on analyzing other aspects of Bilateral Horizontal South-South Cooperation in Ibero-America in 2012 by estimating some of the indicators developed in recent years and applying statistical techniques to them. By focusing on two large blocks of indicators—those generated from project approval, start and completion dates, on the one hand, and budgeted and executed costs, on the other further information can be gleaned about CSS.

II.6.1. USING DATE-BASED INDICATORS

In the last two years, countries have had the possibility to report approval, start and completion dates for projects and actions in the context of Bilateral Horizontal South-South Cooperation." By combining the related data, a good number of new indicators for South-South Cooperation can be produced. Diagram II.5 characterizes two of these indicators. Specifically:

a) By combining the start and completion dates (see formula) it is possible to calculate the "average duration of cooperation projects and/or actions". The result gives an idea of the "dimension" of the instruments through which cooperation aimed at strengthening capacities is implemented.

^{11.} Those dates are defined as follows: 1. Approval date. A project is considered to be approved when there is a project document and it has been formalised, regardless of the specific body. The approval date is considered to be the date of the latter, since that is the point when both requirements are met. 2. Start date. A project is considered to have started when the first activity commences. The start date is the date of first activity, disregarding preliminary management work. 3. Completion date. A project is considered, not including the final report, which is not a necessary condition in all projects. The date is that of the conclusion of the last activity (PIFCSS, 2013).





- b) Also, by combining approval and start dates, it is possible to ascertain the average time lapse between approval of projects and/or actions and when they actually commence. In this case, the result is an approximation to the "efficiency" with which they were implemented (PIFCSS, 2013).

However, date information for projects (and actions) under execution was again incomplete for this 2012 edition. Diagram II.6 shows the volume of data actually available: approval and start dates are unavailable for almost 40% and 35%, respectively, of projects, while completion dates are unavailable in over 60% of cases. Also, only 55.7% of projects have both and approval at the start dates, while under 40% have both a start and a completion date. Since the indicators proposed above depend specifically on those combinations of dates, they can only be produced from a sample which falls short of representing the possible "universe" (282 and 197 projects, out of the 506 registered in 2012). To make the data more representative, it is advisable to: apply the indicators; eliminate outliers; retain data that reflects the "more general" pattern; build the resulting series of data; and interpret the main pattern using statistics.

Using this approach, below is an analysis of other aspects of Bilateral HSSC in 2012 that can be ascertained from date information. Specifically:

- a) The period in which projects tended to be approved, start and be completed;
- As a measure of "efficiency", the average time lapse between approval and commencement of those projects;
- c) As a measure of "dimension", their average duration, i.e. the time elapsed between the start and completion dates.

II.6.1.1. Approval, Start and Completion dates

Table II.7 distributes a number of the 2012 BHSSC projects¹² according to the year in which they were approved or started and the year in which they concluded or are expected to conclude. Plotting this data in terms of absolute and relative frequencies, both simple and cumulative, reveals in which years these project events tend to be concentrated. Likewise, Graph II.11 illustrates part of the preceding information by plotting approval and start dates. This approach reveals peaks of project approval, commencement and completion.

Interpreting Table II.7 and Graph II.11 together, it can be inferred that:

- a) A minimal proportion (10%) of BHSSC projects under way in 2012 were approved between 2006 and 2009. The bulk (90%) were approved after 2009. The largest single number of approvals came in 2011 (160 projects, more than half of those being considered).
- b) Barely 7.0% of projects commenced before 2010. The start dates tend to be concentrated in 2011 (37.8%) and, to a greater extent, 2012 (55.2%).
- c) Only one-third of projects (69, i.e. 34.7%) were completed in 2012. Most of the remainder are expected to be completed in 2013 (48.2%) and 2014 (15.6%). A very small proportion (1.5%) are expected to conclude in 2015.

II.6.1.2. Time lapse between project approval and commencement

As indicated earlier, it is not possible to calculate the average time lapse between approval and commencement for

^{12.} Obviously, only for those for which the corresponding dates are available.

Abs	Absolute frequencies (number); relative frequencies (%)													
		APPROV	AL DATE	S		START DATES				COMPLETION DATES				
YEAR	Absolut	te frequency	Relativ	e frequency	Absolut	te frequency	Relativ	e frequency	Absolut	te frequency	Relativ	e frequency		
	Simple	Cumulative	Simple	Cumulative	Simple	Cumulative	Simple	Cumulative	Simple	Cumulative	Simple	Cumulative		
2006	7	7	2.3%	2.3%	1	1	0.3%	0.3%						
2007	1	8	0.3%	2.6%	1	2	0.3%	0.6%						
2008	14	22	4.5%	7.1%	2	4	0.6%	1.2%						
2009	9	31	2.9%	10.0%	2	6	0.6%	1.8%						
2010	41	72	13.2%	23.2%	17	23	5.2%	7.0%						
2011	160	232	51.6%	74.8%	124	147	37.8%	44.8%						
2012	78	310	25.2%	100.0%	181	328	55.2%	100.0%	69	69	34.7%	34.7%		
2013									96	165	48.2%	82.9%		
2014									31	196	15.6%	98.5%		
2015									3	199	1.5%	100.0%		

Table II.7. Distribution of projects by approval, start and completion date.



all 506 BHSSC projects under way in 2012, but only for the 282 projects (55.7% of the total) for which the necessary dates are available.

However, an initial analysis of those 282 projects revealed a number of outliers in the time lapse data. For example, 2.1% of the data points are negative (ranging up to -626 days), suggesting that a minority of projects were formally approved long after they actually started; on the other hand, 8.9% reveal delays of over 18 months (between 541 and 2,175 days). With these outliers in the series, the average time lapse is 250.05 days (slightly over eight months).

Eliminating those outliers, which account for a minority (10%) of cases, the analysis is performed on a smaller set of "more normal" data (246 projects). The results of this exercise are more representative, as shown in Table II.8 (which distributes projects by average duration in intervals of 60 days) and Graph II.12 (which shows how many projects there are in each duration interval).

Accordingly, under these conditions:

- a) It is estimated that the average time lapse between project approval and commencement was slightly over six months (181.9 days).
- b) Practically 60% of projects fall below that average. In fact, most projects register a time lapse of under two months (23.6% of projects) or between 120 and 180 days (19.5%, i.e. nearly one-fifth).
- c) Beyond the average of 180 days, the number of projects tails off. There were 30 projects with a time lapse be-

tween 180 and 240 days (12.2%) while just eight registered a lapse between 480 and 540 days (3.3% of the total).

II.6.1.3. Average duration

In 2012, there were 197 projects (38.9% of the total) for which both start and completion dates were available. Calculating project duration using that data reveals a range of values, from one day up to 2711 days (almost seven-and-ahalf years). Based on those figures, the average duration of projects under way in 2012 was 572.07 days (one year and seven months).

Again, however, outliers are distorting the final result. In fact, just 17 projects (8.6% of the initial sample) had durations of over 900 days (between 3 and 7.5 years). Eliminating those outliers reduces the sample to the 91.4% of projects with durations under three years. This new data set was used to build Tables II.9 (sorting project by duration in intervals of 90 days) and Graph II.13 (plotting the number of projects in each interval).

From those figures, it can be concluded that:

- a) The BHSSC projects exchanged by Ibero-American countries in 2012 were executed in an average of 492.1 days (approximately one year and four months).
- b) In fact, slightly over two-thirds of the projects (67.8%) had durations distributed around that average: between 360 and 810 days. However, within that interval, a num-

Table II.8. Distribution of projects by time elapsed between approval and start dates.

/ woodute heq											
TIME LAPSE	DISTRIBUTION C	F PROJECTS BY TIME ELAPS	ED BETWEEN APPROVAL AI	ND START DATES							
BETWEEN THE TWO DATES	Absolute	frequency	Relative frequency								
(DAYS)	Simple	Cumulative	Simple	Cumulative							
0-59	58	58	23.6%	23.6%							
60-119	38	96	15.4%	39.0%							
120-179	48	144	19.5%	58.5%							
180-239	30	174	12.2%	70.7%							
240-299	18	192	7.3%	78.0%							
300-359	15	207	б.1%	84.1%							
360-419	17	224	6.9%	91.1%							
420-479	14	238	5.7%	96.7%							
480-539	8	246	3.3%	100.0%							

Absolute frequencies (number); relative frequencies (%)



ber of peaks are observed around the two-year mark: between 540 and 629 days (15.6%) and between 720 and 809 days (17.2%).

c) The remainder (close to one-third) had mainly belowaverage durations (28.3% under 360 days) while only a small proportion (4.4%) were executed over longer periods (between 810 and 900 days).

Splitting projects into two large subgroups— those that concluded in 2012 and those that continued in execution

thereafter-reveals an interesting fact: non-completion tends to extend the expected execution time. Graphs II.14.A and II.14.B illustrate this: the first distributes projects by duration, distinguishing on the basis of whether they are completed or not; the second also distinguishes between completed and ongoing projects, showing the percentage of each that were completed in under one year, in between one

a) As Graph II.14.A shows, the bulk of projects completed in 2012 had durations of 540 days (one-and-a-half

and two years, and in over two years.

Table II.g. Distribution of projects by average duration.											
Absolute frequencies (number); relative frequencies (%)											
TIME LAPSE	DISTRIBUTION OF PROJECTS BY TIME ELAPSED BETWEEN APPROVAL AND START DATES										
BETWEEN THE TWO DATES	Absolute	frequency	Relative	frequency							
(DAYS)	Simple	Cumulative	Simple	Cumulative							
0-89	7	7	3.9%	3.9%							
90-179	15	22	8.3%	12.2%							
180-269	15	37	8.3%	20.6%							
270-359	14	51	7.8%	28.3%							
360-449	20	71	11.1%	39.4%							
450-539	26	97	14.4%	53.9%							
540-629	28	125	15.6%	69.4%							
630-719	16	141	8.9%	78.3%							
720-809	31	172	17.2%	95.6%							
810-900	8	180	4.4%	100.0%							



years) or less, while the bulk of projects that were still ongoing had notably higher durations, ranging up to 810 days (two years and three months).

b) The same pattern is observed in Graph II.14.B, which shows that most of the already completed projects (close to 95%) had execution periods either under one year (49.3%) or between one and two years (44.8%). In contrast, the bulk of projects still under execution (over 86%) had estimated durations of between one and two years (51.2%) or longer (slightly over one-third: 34.6%).

It is interesting to compare these results with those for actions. Purely to show the different dimensions of actions with respect to projects, of the 203 exchanged in 2012, only 146 (72%) for which start and completion dates were available were used. Four outliers (which exceeded 900 days) were eliminated. The following observations were made in the remaining set of 142 actions (Graph II.15):

- a) On the one hand, the execution period averaged 57.4 days (barely 2 months);
- b) The bulk (80%) had durations under 100 days whereas a sizeable group (13.7%, corresponding to long courses, grants and Masters programs, which are classified as actions) registered longer durations: 300-399 days.

II.6.2. Using indicators based on costs

As occurred with dates, considerable efforts have been made in the last two years to track budgeted and executed costs for cooperation projects and actions.¹³ The availability

of this data made it possible to build another battery of indicators. Diagram II.7 shows the characteristics of three of them, each with its formula and possible applications.

Specifically:

- a) Calculating the total budgeted (or executed) cost of all the projects (and/or actions) implemented in the region during a given period or year reveals the dimension (in this case, economic) of South-South Cooperation.
- b) Moreover, estimating the ratio between budgeted and actually executed costs gives a measure of efficiency since it reveals the degree of under-spending (values <1) or over-spending (values >1).
- c) By estimating the proportion of the executed (or budgeted) cost borne by each party (provider and recipient, in this case), we obtain an indication of how the burden was distributed. With the specific formula proposed, values over 0.5 suggest that the provider bore more of the burden than did the recipient, and vice versa (PIF-CSS, 2013).¹⁴

Again, however, it was difficult to obtain all the necessary information. Graph II.16 shows the percentage of the 506 projects registered in 2012 for which cost data is available. Availability differs between budgeted and executed costs, both for 2012 and for the entire project cycle, and depending on which country acted as provider, recipient or both.

This graph can be interpreted as follows:

a) Aside from the type of cost, there is always more information available from the providers' side than from that

^{13.} The direct budgeted cost refers to the "total amount of expenses planned in the project proposal document". The direct executed cost is the "total amount of the expenses associated with the project lifecycle that entail the disbursement of funds" (PIFCSS; 2013).

^{14.} When measuring burden sharing, other qualitative indicators could be used, such as identifying how the responsibility for drafting projects is shared, and whether the partners plan to conduct joint evaluations (PIFCSS, 2013).



Source: SEGIB, based on reporting from cooperation agencies and/or bureaus.



of the recipients. And this difference is significant in most cases: ranging from a low of 6.5 percentage points in the case of total executed cost to a high of 19.6 in the case of costs executed in 2012.

- b) Also, there is even less information about costs borne by both partners simultaneously: ranging from 1.4% of the 506 projects in the case of total executed cost to 8.1% in the case of total budgeted cost.
- c) In descending order of importance, the four cost data sets for which most information is available refer to the provider side: cost executed in 2012 (available for 27.1% of projects), total budgeted (one out of five), budgeted for 2012 (13.6% of cases) and total executed cost (9.1%).

Given the availability of data, other aspects of Bilateral Horizontal South-South Cooperation in 2012 are ad-

dressed by applying statistical techniques to combined cost data so as to identify, as far as possible, the main trends in three variables: the economic dimension of South-South Cooperation, the degree of efficiency with which it is executed, and the degree to which partners share the burden.

II.6.2.1. Economic dimension.

Table II.10 sorts projects on the basis of the cost (budgeted, executed, for 2012, and total) that their respective providers bore in order to realize them. Projects are plotted within cost intervals.

 As for budgeted costs (Table II.10.A), projects were sorted in intervals of US\$50,000 in a range between US\$0 and over US\$450,000. This is because, in 99% of projects for

Indicator	Formula	Potential use
Total cost budgeted/executed	∑i=1n DCBPi or ∑i=1n DCEPi i=1,, N Where: N: number of completed projects DCBPi: direct cost budgeted for project i DCEPi: direct cost executed for project i	DIMENSION
Average of the ratio between direct costs executed and direct costs executed in completed projects	∑i=1n (DCEPi / DCBPi)/N i=1,, N Where: N: number of completed projects DCEPi: direct cost executed for project i DCBPi: direct cost budgeted for project i	EFFICIENCY
Average of the ratio between direct costs executed per provider and direct costs executed per recipient	Σi=1n (DCEPi / DCERi)/N i=1,, N Where: N: number of projects approved DCEP i: direct cost executed by provider(s) of project i DCER i: direct cost executed by recipient(s) of project i	BURDEN SHARIN

Source: Reproduced from PIFCSS (2013).



Source: SEGIB, based on reporting from cooperation agencies and/or bureaus.

which a budgeted cost is available, that figure did not exceed US\$450,000. The other 1% were outliers. 15

b) In contrast, the range for executed costs (Table II.10.B) was narrower: from US\$0-US\$100,000, in intervals of US\$10,000. This is because 95% of those values were found not to exceed US\$100,000. In fact, only a very small number of projects had costs between US\$100,000 and US\$150,000, and only 2% were outliers above the latter figure.¹⁶

That same distribution scale was used for Graphs II.17.A and II.17.C, which plot the proportion of projects associated with each cost interval. The following conclusions can be drawn from Tables II.10 and the aforementioned graphs:

- a) By eliminating outliers and reducing the sample to a more representative set comprising 95%-98% of projects, it is possible to ascertain the average economic dimension of each BHSSC project in 2012. Following this exercise, the average total budgeted cost per project was US\$48,379; the planned expenditure for 2012 was US\$15,814; expenditure executed throughout the entire project lifecycle was US\$2,197; and the amount actually disbursed in 2012 was US\$8,171.
- b) The reference figures for costs are US\$50,000 (82.2% of total budgeted costs and 91.3% of budgeted costs for 2012 are below that figure) and US\$20,000 (close to 70% of all costs executed over the project lifecycle and 86.1% of those executed in 2012 are below that figure).

- c) Based on the latter trend, a more detailed analysis of cost performance is called for. To this end, it is necessary to reduce the range of values and the intervals: up to US\$100,000 in intervals of US\$10,000, in the case of budgeted costs, and up to US\$30,000 in intervals of US\$5,000 for executed costs. This leads to the new versions of Graph II.17 (B and D), which assign projects on the basis of cost, but on a smaller scale.
- d) Based on this new division, it can be said that:

• In the case of total budgeted cost (Graph II.17.B), 70.3% of projects did not exceed US\$50,000 and just 12% were between US\$50,000 and US\$100,000. As could be expected, the bulk of projects in 2012 had a budgeted cost of under US\$50,000 (84.1%), while 7.2% fell between US\$50,000 and US\$100,000.

• As regards total budgeted cost (Graph II.17.D), the bulk (more than two-thirds) fell in the intervals US\$0-US\$10,000 (37.0%) and US\$10,000-US\$20,000 (32.6%). In contrast, also as could be expected, the bulk of projects (76.6%) had an executed cost in 2012 of under US\$10,000 and only a minority (9.5%) were between US\$10,000 and US\$20,000.

II.6.2.2. Efficiency and burden sharing

In order to ascertain the degree of efficiency with which BHSSC projects were executed in 2012, and the degree to which the "economic" burden was shared between partners, two indicators were analyzed: one is the proportion of the budgeted cost per provider and project that was actually executed; and the other is the proportion of the cost in a period that was borne by the provider and recipient, respectively.

^{15.} Specifically, US\$1,726,799 total budgeted cost, and US\$19 million budgeted for 2012.

^{16.} The actual figures were in the region of US\$2, US\$8 and US\$19 million.

II.10.A. BUDGETED COSTS											
		TOTAL BUDO	ETED COSTS		BUDGETED COST 2012						
COST INTERVALS	Absolute frequency		Relative frequency		Absolute	Absolute frequency		frequency			
	Simple	Cumulative	Simple	Cumulative	Simple	Cumulative	Simple	Cumulative			
0-49,999	71	71	70.3%	70.3%	58	58	84.1%	84.1%			
50,000-99,999	12	83	11.9%	82.2%	5	63	7.2%	91.3%			
100,000-149,999	5	88	5.0%	87.1%	2	65	2.9%	94.2%			
150,000-199,999	5	93	5.0%	92.1%	0	65	0.0%	94.2%			
200,000-249,999	0	93	0.0%	92.1%	3	68	4.3%	98.6%			
250,000-299,999	5	98	5.0%	97.0%	0	68	0.0%	98.6%			
300,000-349,999	0	98	0.0%	97.0%	0	68	0.0%	98.6%			
350,000-399,999	1	99	1.0%	98.0%	0	68	0.0%	98.6%			
400,000-449,999	1	100	1.0%	99.0%	0	68	0.0%	98.6%			
Over 450,000	1	101	1.0%	100.0%	1	69	1.4%	100.0%			

Table II.10. Distribution of projects by type of cost borne by provider 2012.

Cost intervals (US\$); absolute frequencies (number); relative frequencies (%)

II.10.B. EXECUTED COSTS

		TOTAL EXEC	UTED COST		EXECUTED COST 2012				
COST INTERVALS	Absolute frequency		Relative frequency		Absolute frequency		Relative frequency		
	Simple	Cumulative	Simple	Cumulative	Simple	Cumulative	Simple	Cumulative	
0-9,999	17	17	37.0%	37.0%	105	105	76.6%	76.6%	
10,000-19,999	15	32	32.6%	69.6%	13	118	9.5%	86.1%	
20,000-29,999	3	35	6.5%	76.1%	5	123	3.6%	89.8%	
30,000-39,999	3	38	6.5%	82.6%	4	127	2.9%	92.7%	
40,000-49,999	0	38	0.0%	82.6%	2	129	1.5%	94.2%	
50,000-59,999	2	40	4.3%	87.0%	1	130	0.7%	94.9%	
60,000-69,999	0	40	0.0%	87.0%	0	130	0.0%	94.9%	
70,000-79,999	1	41	2.2%	89.1%	0	130	0.0%	94.9%	
80,000-89,999	1	42	2.2%	91.3%	1	131	0.7%	95.6%	
90,000-99,999	0	42	0.0%	91.3%	0	131	0.0%	95.6%	
Over 100,000	4	46	8.7%	100.0%	6	137	4.4%	100.0%	

Source: SEGIB, based on reporting from cooperation agencies and/or bureaus.

However, in this case, not one but at least two data items are required to calculate the indicators: executed and budgeted cost per provider in a given period, for the first indicator; and executed or budgeted cost in the period, per provider and recipient, for the second indicator. Table II.11 shows that the samples of data available for those calculations are very small. Specifically:

a) The largest sample of projects for which both executed and budgeted costs are available for each provider in 2012 amounts to barely 10.1% of the total (51 out of 506 projects that were ongoing during the year). b) The samples for estimating the ratio between costs borne by the partners are even smaller. The only moderately significant data sets referred to executed costs in 2012 (information available for 17 projects, i.e. 3.4% of the total) and total budgeted cost (a mere 11 projects, i.e. 2.2% of the total).

Consequently, given these sizeable limitations, the results that can be obtained from this data are scarcely representative and should be interpreted with great caution. In fact, far from providing solid conclusions about BHSSC, the foregoing exercise only hints at the potential offered by these indicators and a statistical analysis of same. Using that data, Graphs II.18 were drawn up to show: the percentage of budgeted cost per provider that tends to be executed (Graph II.18.A); and the proportion of the cost that tends to be borne by the provider (Graph II.18.B) and the recipient (Graph II.18.C). It can be concluded that:

- a) In general, providers tended to execute around 100% of the budgeted costs in each project. In fact, Graph II.18.A shows that this is the most frequent interval (78.6% of projects in terms of total cost, and 71.7% in terms of 2012 cost). Also, the average degree of execution was approximately 100%, though with qualifications because of the impact of outliers: providers tended to spend 87.3% of the total budget and 101.6% of the amount budgeted for 2012 (the first ratio is less than 100% because 10% of projects registered lower execution rates, between 50% and 70%; the second ratio exceeds 100% because of some outliers around 120%).
- b) A curious situation is observed in how expenses are shared: calculating averages with available data, providers bore 64% of budgeted costs over the entire project lifecycle, while recipients bore 36%; however, in terms of actual payments in 2012, recipients bore slightly more than providers (51% and 49%, respectively). In fact, the peaks observed in Graphs II.18.B (share of the burden borne by the provider) and II.18.C (share of the burden borne by the recipient) ratify both discoveries:

• Providers tend to bear between 60% and 80% of total planned cost for the entire project lifecycle, while recipients bear around 10%-30%.

• Meanwhile, in the graph of actual executed expenditure in 2012, the peak for providers shifted to lower values (between 30% and 60%) while that for recipients shifted higher (between 30% and 60%).



Table II.11. Availability of the data required to calculate cost indicators.				
Projects (number); share (% of total)				
POTENTIAL USE	INDICATOR	NECESSARY DATA	AVAILABILITY	
			Projects	Percentage of total
Efficiency		Total executed cost	46	9.1%
		Total budgeted cost	101	20.0%
	Ratio between executed cost and budgeted cost (per provider) for each project	Both	28	5.0%
		Executed cost 2012	137	27.1%
		Budgeted cost 2012	69	13.6%
		Both	51	10.1%
Burden sharing		Total budgeted cost – Provider	101	20.0%
	Ratio between cost borne by provider and recipient or Percentage of final cost borne by each partner	Total budgeted cost – Recipient	41	8.1%
		Both	11	2.2%
		2012 budgeted cost – Provider	69	13.6%
		2012 budgeted cost – Recipient	30	5.9%
		Both	4	0.8%
		Total executed cost – Provider	46	9.1%
		Total executed cost – Recipient	13	2.6%
		Both	0	0.0%
		2012 executed cost – Provider	137	27.1%
		2012 executed cost – Recipient	38	7.5%
		Both	17	3.4%



 $\textbf{Source:} \ \mathsf{SEGIB}, \ \mathsf{based} \ \mathsf{on} \ \mathsf{reporting} \ \mathsf{from} \ \mathsf{cooperation} \ \mathsf{agencies} \ \mathsf{and/or} \ \mathsf{bureaus}.$



TRIANGULAR SOUTH-SOUTH COOPERATION IN IBERO-AMERICA

III.1. THE NEED TO ADDRESS CONCEPTUAL AND METHODOLOGICAL CHANGES

THE IBERO-AMERICAN COUNTRIES met in Buenos Aires (Argentina) in March 2013 for a workshop to review the way that two forms of cooperation had been conceptualised to date: Triangular South-South and Regional Horizontal South-South Cooperation.¹ The event was held following a thorough review of the data reported by the countries on both forms in successive editions of the report, between 2007 and 2012. The following conclusions were drawn from the review (PIFCSS and SEGIB, 2013):

- a) There can be confusion when differentiating between triangular and regional cooperation. As a result, the same activity or project might be classified and addressed under either of the two headings, without making the proper distinction.
- b) Likewise, and due to countries' reporting efforts, a large amount of data (mostly qualitative) was available in connection with each form. However, part of the information could not be utilised adequately. This was due to difficulties in treating the information methodologically and to the lack of clarity as regards its purpose.

Accordingly, it became clear that a workshop was needed to:

- a) Redefine the concepts of Triangular South-South and Regional Horizontal South-South Cooperation used to date.
- Identify the essential features of both forms to establish a clear distinction between them.
- c) A process to select information and the type of data that it would be desirable to have when both forms are analysed. The objective would be to optimise the use of the bulk of the information eventually available: on the one hand, by having more options for processing and, on the other, by improving knowledge about as many aspects as possible.

The Buenos Aires Workshop addressed these issues, and the results (PIFCSS and SEGIB, 2013) yielded new conceptualizations of Triangular South-South and Regional Horizontal South-South Cooperation. In this framework, in view of the most notable changes to their definitions, this chapter focuses on Triangular South-South Cooperation and offers an overview of the characteristics that have been identified as determinants. Based on the resulting definition and the type of information that is ultimately available, this chapter addresses the following:

- a) First, the Triangular SSC projects and actions executed in Ibero-America in 2012 are documented and characterized.
- Then, the level of participation and role of the Ibero-American countries involved is analyzed.
- c) This is followed by an analysis of the sectoral nature of Triangular SSC, which provides a closer look at the capacities and needs that were served by the various projects and actions.
- d) For the first time (in line with the approach to Bilateral SSC), "other characteristics" of Triangular SSC are analyzed (e.g. size, average duration of projects, monetary costs). To this end, indicators based on dates and costs are used and statistical techniques are applied.
- e) Finally, other aspects in connection with the "operational" facet of Triangular SSC in Ibero-America are examined, focusing especially on the schemes that regulate its functioning, the mechanisms by which it is financed, and the various phases of the project cycle (identification, negotiation and formulation, implementation and monitoring and evaluation).

The Workshop, entitled "Questionnaire for the 2013 South-South Cooperation in Ibero-America Report: reviewing the approach to triangular and regional cooperation", was held on 20-22 March. See final PIFCSS and SEGIB report (2013).

III.2. TOWARDS A NEW DEFINITION OF TRIANGULAR SOUTH-SOUTH COOPERATION

DIAGRAM III.1 ILLUSTRATES the main characteristics of the two definitions of Triangular SSC: the one in force until 2012 and the one agreed as from 2013. As the diagram shows, acceptance of the first of these conceptions meant that Triangular SSC was identified as being determined by:

- a) The specific origin or dynamic on which cooperation develops. Thus, it was assumed as a determinant that such cooperation "arose from the exchange of experiences between two developing countries," which suggested that this form cooperation referenced and was supported by Bilateral Horizontal SSC.
- b) From there, the important issue was "intervention by a third actor", be it a developing or developed country, a multilateral organisation, etc.
- c) Therefore, the number of actors (three) became a defining quality of Triangular SSC. Each actor undertook a role: two developing countries acted as first provider and recipient, while the third partner took on the role of second provider.
- d) Fulfilling that role presupposes other contributions: primarily (though not exclusively) technical, by the first provider; and primarily (though not exclusively) financial, by the second provider. The definition did not reflect any contribution from the recipient.

The contrast between this definition and actual cases of countries involved in TSSC calls into question some of its components. Two contradictions stand out in particular:

- a) For example, based on available data, of the 74 TSSC projects reported in 2012, barely 5.9% "arose from an exchange of experiences between two developing countries" which were later joined by "a third actor". The most common case was quite different: most projects arose at the initiative of the two providers, which invited the recipient country to participate and/or received a request from that country. Consequently, the countries considered that the way in which triangulation developed should not be a defining factor and, therefore, could not be a distinguishing feature of TSSC.
- b) The economic information, for example, revealed that the role of the recipient was not "merely" passive but that, in many cases, this actor bore a more or less significant part of the monetary cost of the cooperation. In fact, along these lines, assuming in the definition (even

making it explicit, by omission) that the recipient does not make a contribution clashes with part of the principles that lbero-America has defended as being essential for SSC in the region: mutual capacity building, reciprocity, burden sharing and, of course, horizontality. In fact, not without a degree of self-criticism, since the definition in force until 2012 assumed there were no contributions from the recipient, it actually has a bias towards "verticality" (from the providers towards the recipient) which clashes with the aforementioned principles.

Consequently, having consideration for these and other issues, the countries decided to modify some of the defining features of TSSC and reformulate its definition. As reflected in Diagram III.1.B, since 2013 it is agreed that:

- The way in which each triangulation arises does not determine its nature.
- b) The number of participants is not a determinant, either. The main issue is the role each participant plays, regardless of how many there are. Accordingly:
 - It is still necessary to have three distinct roles: a first provider, a second provider and a recipient.
 - It is understood that, in exercising each of these roles, several players may participate simultaneously, provided that they have the following profiles: developing countries (first provider); developing or developed countries or multilateral agencies, including regional organisations (second provider); and developing countries (recipient).
 - Although participants can make contributions of any kind (technical, financial or other) in any of the roles, the principal distinguishing feature of TSSC is that the first provider's main responsibility is to provide technical assistance.

Therefore, in summary and as shown in Diagram III.1.B and the PIFCSS and SEGIB document (2013, p. 8), going forward, TSSC will be understood as referring to that "form of SSC which involves a set of actors, all of which provide various types of contributions (technical, financial or other) distributed in three roles: the first provider and recipient (developing countries) and the second provider (developed or developing country, regional or multilateral agency, or an association between them). The distinguishing feature is determined by the role of the first provider, which acts as the main party responsible for capacity building."



Source: SEGIB, based on PIFCSS and SEGIB (2013).

III.3. TRIANGULAR SOUTH-SOUTH COOPERATION PROJECTS AND ACTIONS IN 2012

IBERO-AMERICAN COUNTRIES executed 77 TSSC projects and 55 actions in 2012. Tables III.1 (in this section) and A.3 (in the annex) classify such projects and actions (respectively) according to the country that acted as first provider and they contain data about the other partners (second provider and recipient), the name of the activity, and the sector (using the same codes and classification as applied in BSSC).

After obtaining this overall figure, Graph III.1 was created to reflect the historical development of TSSC actions and projects from 2006 (date of the first record) through 2012. However, as a result of methodological changes in the conceptualisation, measurement and identification of this form of cooperation during that period, the historical series is not rigorous. Accordingly, it's worth highlighting:

 a) The breakdown (in 2010) of TSSC "actions" that included interventions of all types, regardless of their size, into two distinct blocks of instruments: "projects" and "sporadic actions".

- b) The inability (for various reasons) to maintain the same information sources each year. In fact, the 22 countries in Ibero-America haven't always been able to provide the required data, which makes a real comparison of year-on-year information impossible.
- c) The most recent change in the definition of TSSC enhances data sorting but does not substantially modify the numbers.

Accordingly, Graph III.1 should be interpreted with caution. However, it does suggest that Ibero-American countries' commitment to this form of cooperation has grown in recent years: from 26 "actions" in 2006, to 72 (i.e. almost triple) in 2008, peaking in 2011 (with disaggregated data) with more than 140 interventions (specifically, 74 TSSC projects and 70 actions). Total interventions declined slightly in 2012, due to the reduction in the number of actions (from 70 to 55), while the number of projects increased slightly year-onyear (77 compared with 74).



III.1.A. CHILE	III.1.A. CHILE				
SECOND PROVIDER	PROJECT	RECIPIENT	ACTIVITY SECTOR		
Germany	International cooperation project to strengthen waste management	Colombia	Environment (41)		
	Transfer of methodology to develop the employability and social entrepreneurship strategy	El Salvador	Employment (26)		
	Project between SERNAC in Chile and DIACO in Guatemala to strengthen institutional management in attention, education and information for consumers	Guatemala	Government (31)		
	Redesign of training for teachers and extensions to university studies in food engineering	Guatemala	Health (12)		
	Institutional strengthening of the Secretariat for Natural Resources and the Environment in end-to-end solid waste management	Honduras	Environment (41)		
	Promoting youth employability in disadvantaged rural areas	Dominican Republic	Employment (26)		
Germany and Australia	Paraguay entre todos y todas: Integrated social development in the country	Paraguay	Others (Others) (53)		
Australia	Training for the mining regulation	Honduras	Extractive (2A)		
Colombia	Strengthening social development through the exchange of experiences and best practices between Chile and Colombia and joint action to support the Central America and the Caribbean sub-regions	Central American countries'	Others (Social) (15)		
United States	Designing and implementing an intelligence system for markets in agricultural produce (SIMAG)	El Salvador	Agriculture (2B)		
	Implementing a safety system for agricultural products (SIPA) which allows for the voluntary implementation of Good Agricultural Practices (GAP) in line with Good Manufacturing Practices (GMP)	El Salvador	Agriculture (2B)		
	Strengthening the Pest Risk Analysis Unit (ARP) and the Geographic Information System under EI Salvador's Directorate- General of Plant Health	El Salvador	Agriculture (2B)		
	Strengthening epidemiological surveillance in veterinary services through the implementation of a productive unit registration system in a pilot area	El Salvador	Agriculture (2B)		
	Designing the National System for Phytosanitary Inspection and Certification for exported agricultural products in Guatemala	Guatemala	Agriculture (2B)		
	Strengthening the capacity of the Panamanian police to investigate corruption	Panama	Government (31)		
	Support for, and strengthening of, Paraguay's National Institute of Food and Nutrition (INAN)	Paraguay	Health (12)		
	Reinforcement of internal oversight in the Customs Administration	Paraguay	Trade (2H)		
	Strengthening and implementing the social welfare system (Paraguay Solidario)	Paraguay	Others (Social) (15)		
	Support the design of public policies on peasant farming	Paraguay	Agriculture (2B)		
	Strengthen the Export and Investment Network (REDIEX)	Paraguay	Trade (2H)		

III.1.A. CHIL					
SECOND PROVIDER	ι		PROJECT	RECIPIENT	ACTIVITY SECTOR
Best syste Stren		Transt	fusion Medicine	Bolivia	Health (12)
		Best p syster	practices in labour intermediation and the information m	El Salvador	Employment (26)
			gthening management and development of public sector oyees at the service of Paraguay's citizens	Paraguay	Government (31)
Shell		Techn	ical skills development for inclusive rehabilitation	Bolivia	Others (Social) (15)
		Shellf	ish farming	Colombia	Fisheries (2D)
		Stren	gthening early care services (SAT)	Paraguay	Health (12)
Si Fo		Zero M	Malnutrition Programme (WFP)	Bolivia	Health (12)
		Suppo	orting local skills to improve food and nutritional security	Ecuador	Health (12)
			security programme. Support for the Zero Malnutrition amme	Guatemala	Health (12)
		Zero N	Malnutrition Programme (WFP)	Paraguay	Health (12)
III.1.B. OTH	R FIRST	PRO\	/IDERS		
FIRST PROVIDER	SECOI PROVII		PROJECT	RECIPIENT	ACTIVITY SECTOR
Argentina/ Colombia	World B	ank	Support for the development of public policy on Science, Technology and Innovation	Bolivia	Science and technolog (24)
Brazil	Germany		Strengthening the Uruguay National Integrated Health System (SNIS) with a focus on towns with less than 5,000 people	Uruguay	Health (12)
	ltaly and CAF	t	Amazonía Sin Fuego program (PASF)	Bolivia	Environment (41)
	Japan		Project for the development and administration of training courses based on labour skills	Ecuador	Employment (26)
			Support for the establishment of a community policing philosophy (FPC)	El Salvador	Government (31)
			Improve diversification in beekeeping (FENIX)	Paraguay	Agriculture (2B)
			Strengthen transparency and capacity-building for local governments	Paraguay	Government (31)
Colombia	German	y	Exchange of experiences on results and progress in the Programme of Towns for Local Development (PROMUDEL)	Guatemala	Others (Others) (53)
	Australia		Exchange of best practices in social development and support for micro-enterprises and SMEs	Countries in Mesoamerica ²	Enterprise (27)
	MDG-F		National system for family subsidies and loans for affordable housing	El Salvador	Others (Social) (15)
Mexico	Germany		Improvements in wastewater reuse and treatment and protection of bodies of water with a focus on adapting to climate change	Bolivia	Water (14)
			Sustainable housing in terms of energy and environmental efficiency	Colombia	Construction (2E)
			Broad scheme for triangular cooperation in environmental management in municipalities and industry	Countries in Mesoamerica ²	Environment (41)
			Strengthen infrastructure quality	Paraguay	Industry (2F)
			Managing contaminated sites	Peru	Environment (41)

Table III.1. Triangular South-South cooperation projects, by first provider. 2012. (cont'd).

Mexico	IICA	Triangular cooperation in irrigated agriculture	Countries in Mesoamerica ²	Agriculture (2B)
	Japan	Strengthening air quality monitoring: gases and suspended particles	Honduras	Environment (41)
		Managing natural resources and watersheds in the Caribbean Biological Corridor in Honduras	Honduras	Environment (41)
		Improving construction technology and energy dissipation systems for earthquake-resistant social housing - Phase II	El Salvador	Construction (2E)
		Improving the production of sesame seeds by small farmers	Paraguay	Agriculture (2B)
	OAS	Technical assistance for the Inter-American programme on democratic values and practices with an intercultural approach to indigenous peoples	Peru	Government (31)
	UNDP/ UN Women	Gender Equality Seal	Honduras	Gender (52)
Peru	Germany	Improving local tax management system	Guatemala	Government (31)
		Exchange of training management experiences between RENIEC in Peru and the Directorate General of Civil Status Registry (REC) in Paraguay	Paraguay	Government (31)
Peru and Chile	GEF	Towards an eco-systemic approach to the Large Marine Ecosystem of the Humboldt Current (GEMCH)	Peru and Chile	Environment (41)
III.4. PARTICIPATION BY COUNTRIES IN TRIANGULAR SOUTH-SOUTH COOPERATION IN 2012



Source: SEGIB, based on PIFCSS (2013) and reporting from cooperation agencies and/or bureaus.

USING THE INFORMATION in Table III.1, we can also see who participated, in what role and to what degree, in the 77 TSSC projects and 55 actions executed in 2012. A summary of this can be found in Diagram III.2 and Graph III.2:

a) Diagram III.2 measures how TSSC was concentrated in 2012 among first and second providers and recipients (projects, in the upper part, and actions in the lower part). To this end, the same Herfindahl index of concentration and dispersion used for BHSSC can be applied to the projects and actions provided and received by the various partners. In interpreting the results, it's important to highlight that the degree of concentration increases as the value of the index exceeds the 0.1000 (moderately concentrated) and 0.1800 (concentrated) thresholds.² b) Graphs III.2.A and B plot projects and actions, respectively, and denote the relative importance of each of the principal partners in each role in relation to all TSSC executed in 2012.

With regard to projects, it's important to note that:

- a) Since the number of potential recipients is greater than the number of potential first and second providers (14 of the 19 Latin American countries acted as recipient, 13 as second providers and just 5 as first providers in 2012), it stands to reason that TSSC reflects increasing degrees of concentration and dispersion in that order: i.e., an index of 0.1095 for recipients, 0.1439 for second providers and 0.3129 (high concentration) for first providers.
- b) This information is consistent with the fact that, as the analysis focuses on each role in turn, the main cooperating partners account for a growing share of total projects in 2012. Three recipients (Paraguay, El Salvador and Guatemala) account for just under half (46.8%) of all projects. The three main second providers (Germany, Japan and the United States) accounted for a larger share (55.8% of the total), albeit much smaller than that of the top three primary providers (Chile, Mexico and Co-

^{2.} Analogously to Bilateral South-South Cooperation, the Herfindahl Index was calculated for three different scenarios: first providers, second providers and recipients. In each case, the index was calculated using the formula ${}_{n}\Sigma_{i=1}(P_{ofi}/P_{ofi})^2$, which is equivalent to the sum of the squares of each partner's share (in the corresponding role) and final provision or reception of Triangular South-South Cooperation projects (or actions). Once again, the resulting values were between 0 and 1.



Source:: SEGIB, based on reporting from cooperation agencies and/or bureaus.

lombia, 87.0%). Also, the percentages continued to rise if the top four participants are counted in each role: in this case, Honduras, Australia and Brazil raised the above figures to 58.5%, 66.2% and 94.8%, respectively.

In analysing TSSC actions, we can draw similar conclusions though, as will be analyzed later, it is necessary to consider the intensity of the relationship between some countries. In fact:

a) Concentration levels for recipients and for second and first providers according to the Herfindahl index (lower part of Diagram III.2) fit a pattern of moderate concentration in the first case (0.1174) and greater concentration in the latter two (0.2926 and 0.2060, respectively). b) Also, the relative importance of the four main cooperating partners in each role also increases: whereas they account for slightly over 60% in the case of recipients (various countries, mainly in Mesoamerica, and especially El Salvador and Nicaragua together with CELAC countries), they represent over 80% (85.5% and 83.6%) in the case of the first and second providers (Japan, Spain, the IDB and South Korea in the first group, and Costa Rica, Brazil, Chile and Argentina in the second group).

The specific relations mentioned in the previous paragraph are attributable to the high concentration of second providers: just two countries, Japan and Spain, together accounted for close to 75% of the 55 actions of 2012. The important role played by these actors is attributable to the agreements (through cooperation programs with third countries) which both maintained with certain first providers (Japan with Brazil, Chile and Argentina, and Spain with Costa Rica).³

But the importance of bi-and trilateral relations when explaining the relative importance of some countries in TSSC in 2012 was not confined to actions. In the case of projects (and although the sample size is small for such a diversity of partners and combinations of alliances), the following preferential relationships should also be highlighted:

- a) On the one hand, those between Chile and its main second provider, the United States, a partner which accounted for almost one-third (32.4%) of the 34 projects executed in 2012 by Chile. Similarly, although Paraguay had many cooperation recipients, it was also a preferred partner of Chile, accounting for one in every four Chilean projects (26.5%). In fact, Chile-US-Paraguay was the most frequent single triangulation (5 cases, equivalent to 14.7% of the total).
- b) Furthermore, nearly half (45.8%) of the 24 TSSC projects in which Mexico participated in 2012 involved Germany as a main player. Meanwhile, recipients were very diversified, and included El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Peru and Paraguay.

Finally, it's worth noting that TSSC in 2012 included remarkably intense relationships with other nations that are not part of the Ibero-America, such as those in the Caribbean (Table III.2). Additionally, and in terms of cooperation outside the region, Portugal is playing an increasingly important role in triangular projects with the Community of Portuguese Language Countries (Box III.1).

In conclusion, and with regard to the non-Ibero-American Caribbean:

- a) Argentina, Chile, Colombia, Cuba and Mexico acted as first provider in around 20 TSSC projects and actions in non-Ibero-American Caribbean countries (Tables III.2.1 and III.2.B). On several occasions, the recipients were a block of countries, such as CARICOM or CELAC member countries, and also Haiti (which participated in 5 projects and all actions except for two), Belize, St. Lucia, Saint Kitts and Nevis, and Saint Vincent and the Grenadines.
- b) Some Ibero-American countries (Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Spain and Mexico) participated in these same projects and actions as second providers, along with institutions like the IICA and countries outside the region, ranging from Australia, Canada, South Korea and Israel to Japan.
- c) Although TSSC executed in the non-Ibero-American Caribbean had various objectives (Table III.2), it focused especially on projects and actions to strengthen social policies and government institutions, agriculture and fishing, and areas related to humanitarian aid and disaster prevention.

^{3.} In this case, moreover, the agreement between the two countries was to cooperate with Central American countries, the largest component in the "Others" segment which was the largest single recipient of actions (18.2% of the 55 actions in 2012–Graph III.2.B).

Table III.2. Triangular South-South Cooperation with the non-Ibero-American Caribbean, by first provider. 2012.

III.2.A. PROJECTS						
FIRST PROVIDER	SECOND PROVIDER	ACTION	RECIPIENT(S)	ACTIVITY SECTOR		
Argentina	Canada	Self-production of fresh foods (Pro-Huerta Programme)	Haiti	Agriculture (2B)		
Chile and Mexico	Colombia	Strengthening management of social development through the exchange of experiences and best practices	Central America and the Caribbean	Other Social Policies (15)		
	Mexico and Chile	Strengthening Spanish language training in the English-speaking Caribbean	CARICOM	Education (11)		
		Strengthening Haiti's Ministry of Economy in promoting foreign investment	Haiti	Government (31)		
Colombia	Australia	Regional Cooperation Programme with Mesoamerica - Social Development and SMEs and micro-enterprises	Belize	Other Social Policies (15)		
Mexico	IICA	Protected Agriculture	Saint Lucia	Agriculture (2B)		
	Spain	Mexico-Spain Triangular Cooperation on immediate support for humanitarian aid	Haiti	Humanitarian Aid		
	Japan	Training in human resources and development of tools for earthquake- resistant construction	Haiti	Disaster prevention (42)		
III.2.B. ACTIONS						
FIRST PROVIDER	SECOND PROVIDER	ACTION	RECIPIENT(S)	ACTIVITY SECTOR		
Argentina	Japan	International course in managing international cooperation projects (PCM)	Haiti Saint Kitts and Nevis	Government (31)		
		Course on applying management technologies in SMEs	Saint Lucia Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	Enterprise (27)		
		IV Course on Food Security: self- production of foods and local development	Haiti	Agriculture (2B)		
Chile	Korea	International aquaculture course	CELAC countries	Fisheries (2D)		
		International course: "Update on productive aquaculture systems: scientific and technological foundations"	CELAC countries	Fisheries (2D)		
		International course on E-governance	CELAC countries	Government (31)		
	Israel	1st International course on diversity in early childhood	CELAC countries	Other Social Policies (15)		
				Water supply and sanitation (14)		
	Japan	Integrated watershed management	CELAC countries			
Colombia	Japan Australia	Integrated watershed management Regional Cooperation Program with Mesoamerica - Social Development and SMEs and micro-enterprises	CELAC countries Belize			

BOX III.1.

Portugal and its growing commitment to Triangular South-South Cooperation

IN THE LAST TWO YEARS, Portugal has begun to show growing interest in TSSC in two ways: through promotion and a greater presence in international fora where this form of cooperation is addressed, and through the incipient establishment of the necessary foundation and tools for Portugal to undertake new triangular projects and actions.

For example,

- a) Portugal has decided to participate actively in international discussions on the main characteristics, added value and challenges of TSSC. It hosted and organized the Policy Dialogue on Triangular Cooperation in Lisbon on 16 and 17 May 2013 under the umbrella of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD). Official representatives from other countries (including Latin America) and international agencies (including OAS and SEGIB) participated in the event, which sought to identify and share best practices in Triangular Cooperation with a view to improving and promoting it. The event's conclusions¹ were presented to the Executive Committee of the Global Partnership for Effective Development Co-operation in the hope that they will serve as a starting point for the discussion at its first meeting in Mexico City in April 2014.
- b) Portugal is also advancing in the design of its New Cooperation Strategy, which is expected to be adopted in 2014. It is expected to specifically address Triangular South-South Cooperation. Portugal understands that this form of cooperation addresses formulae which make it possible to combine the resources (which are scarce in a crisis) and the exchange of experiences. Portugal's New Cooperation Strategy envisions:

• Using various forms of Triangular Cooperation, such as those based on co-funding, the establishment of fiduciary funds, training, and the creation of networks for sharing knowledge and experience.

• Acting on those areas of activity that combine two factors: the priorities of Portugal's cooperation with those identified and expressed by its partners, which enable all parties to take the utmost advantage of their comparative advantages through triangulation. However, the priority areas are those related to governance, human safety and capacity development (particularly in fragile and post-conflict states), sustainable development, combating poverty, and regional integration. Other interests may be also be included, such as the environment and climate change, food security, energy and water.

• This is triangular cooperation focused preferentially on the Community of Portuguese Language Countries. The main recipients would be Angola, Cape Verde, Guinea Bissau, Mozambique, São Tomé and Príncipe, and East Timor. As regards providers, Portugal is considering how to promote agreements with other Ibero-American countries.

Some of these intentions have already been set out explicitly in the Indicative Cooperation Programs that Portugal has drawn up for all countries in the Community of Portuguese Language Countries. The cases of Mozambique and Cape Verde are illustrative:

- a) The Indicative Program of Portugal-Mozambique Cooperation² for the period 2011-2014 defines relations between the two countries in the area of cooperation. This Program justifies the focus on multilateral approaches and Triangular Cooperation as a formula for cooperation which, in the current context of economic crisis, guarantees optimal exchange of knowledge and experience. In this case, based on the needs identified by Mozambique, support is explicitly envisaged in two new areas: Scientific and Technological Capacity Building, and Entrepreneurship and Business Development.
- b) More recently, applying the same logic, the Indicative Program of Cooperation with Cape Verde³ will govern Portugal's cooperation with this country in the period 2012-2015. The framework document refers to Triangular Cooperation in the same terms as with Mozambique.

Source: SEGIB based on data from the Instituto Camões da Cooperação e da Língua

http://www.oecd.org/dac/dac-global-relations/[FINAL]%20 Summary%20Policy%20Dialogue%20on%20Triangular%20 Co-operation.pdf

https://www.instituto-camoes.pt/images/cooperacao/pic_ portugal_caboverde_2012_2015.pdf

https://www.instituto-camoes.pt/images/cooperacao/ pic_2011_2014_mz.pdf

III.5. SECTORAL ANALYSIS OF TRIANGULAR SOUTH-SOUTH COOPERATION IN 2012

WE NOW ANALYZE the sectoral profile of Triangular South-South Cooperation in Ibero-America during 2012. For this purpose, the 77 projects and 55 actions on record were broken down by sector and activity dimension. This first exercise made it possible to draw up a profile of capacities and needs which were addressed in the region as a whole. The same exercise was then performed on the Ibero-American countries in each of their roles, revealing what type other activities the providers specialized in and in what sectors the support to recipients was concentrated.

Graph III.3 shows the share of each dimension of activity⁴ within the total number of Triangular South-South Cooperation projects and actions in 2012. Graph III.3.A shows that two-thirds of projects (67.5%) focused on strengthening economic and social capacities (44.2% and 23.4% respectively). Within the strictly economic area, projects focused on developing productive sectors predominate (28.6%) with respect to those that supported operating conditions (15.6%). Practically one of five projects (18.2%) focused on environmental needs. Projects to strengthen public institutions and governments played a much less significant role (one out of ten). "Other" dimensions (e.g. culture, gender, and various development models) accounted for just 3.9% of Triangular SSC in 2012.

The profile of actions (Graph III.3.B) differed from that of projects. Specifically, a majority of actions (56.4%) focused on strengthening the social area (38.2%) or institutions and government (18.2%). Meanwhile, nearly one out of five ac-

4. The same classification is used as for Bilateral HSSC (Table A.1 of the Annex).

tions focused on the economic area (a combination of 12.7% in productive sectors and 7.3% in infrastructure and services). The main common feature between the two profiles was the share of environmental and initiatives: 16.4% of actions and 18.2% of projects. Once again, "other" dimensions accounted for a relatively minor share: 7.3%

A new breakdown into sectors (Table III.3 and Graph III.4, versions A and B, referring respectively to projects and actions) provides some nuances to the profiles described above. Specifically:

- a) Half of the 77 projects were focused on strengthening three distinct areas: agriculture (19.5%), environment (18.2%) and health (11.7%). Within these areas, projects focused notably on strengthening animal and plant health systems, managing natural resources and environmental waste, and promoting nutrition programs.
- b) Another 30% comprised projects whose objective was basically to support the construction of social welfare systems (10.4%), public-sector management capabilities (10.4%) and small and medium enterprises (9.1%). Another 10.4% focused on the economic area: job creation, construction and trade.
- c) Meanwhile, close to half (45.5%) of the 55 actions focused on three distinct sectors with the common characteristic that they were not related to the economy: institutional strengthening and the environment (16.4% in each case) and cooperation in health (12.7%).
- d) One out of five actions was in support of social areas: specifically, education (10.9%) and water supply and sewage (9.1%).



Graph III.3. Triangular South-South Cooperation, by sectoral groups of activity. 2012.

Table	III.3. Breakdown of Triang			•	•
Absol	ute frequency (units); relative fre	equency (%)			
III.3.A. PI	ROJECTS				
CODE	ACTIVITY SECTOR	ABSOLUTE	FREQUENCY	RELATIVE F	REQUENCY
CODE	ACTIVITY SECTOR	SIMPLE	CUMULATIVE	SIMPLE	CUMULATIVE
2B	Agriculture	15	15	19.5%	19.5%
41	Environment	14	29	18.2%	37.7%
12	Health	9	38	11.7%	49.4%
15	Others (Social)	8	46	10.4%	59.7%
31	Institutional strengthening	8	54	10.4%	70.1%
27	Enterprise	7	61	9.1%	79.2%
26	Employment	4	65	5.2%	84.4%
2E	Construction	2	67	2.6%	87.0%
2H	Trade	2	69	2.6%	89.6%
53	Others (Others)	2	71	2.6%	92.2%
2A	Extractive	1	72	1.3%	93.5%
2D	Fisheries	1	73	1.3%	94.8%
2F	Industry	1	74	1.3%	96.1%
14	Water supply and sewage	1	75	1.3%	97.4%
52	Gender	1	76	1.3%	98.7%
24	Science and technology	1	77	1.3%	100.0%
III.3.B. A0	TIONS				
CODE	ACTIVITY SECTOR	ABSOLUTE	FREQUENCY	RELATIVE F	REQUENCY
	ACTIVITY SECTOR	SIMPLE	CUMULATIVE	SIMPLE	CUMULATIVE
31	Institutional strengthening	9	9	16.4%	16.4%
41	5 5	5	5	•	
	Environment	9	18	16.4%	32.7%
12					32.7% 45.5%
12 11	Environment	9	18	16.4%	
	Environment Health	9 7	18 25	16.4% 12.7%	45.5%
11	Environment Health Education	9 7 6	18 25 31	16.4% 12.7% 10.9%	45.5% 56.4%
11 14	Environment Health Education Water supply and sewage	9 7 6 5	18 25 31 36	16.4% 12.7% 10.9% 9.1%	45.5% 56.4% 65.5%
11 14 53	Environment Health Education Water supply and sewage Others (Others)	9 7 6 5 4	18 25 31 36 40	16.4% 12.7% 10.9% 9.1% 7.3%	45.5% 56.4% 65.5% 72.7%
11 14 53 2B	Environment Health Education Water supply and sewage Others (Others) Agriculture	9 7 6 5 4 3	18 25 31 36 40 43	16.4% 12.7% 10.9% 9.1% 7.3% 5.5%	45.5% 56.4% 65.5% 72.7% 78.2%
11 14 53 2B 2D	Environment Health Education Water supply and sewage Others (Others) Agriculture Fisheries	9 7 6 5 4 3 3	18 25 31 36 40 43 46	16.4% 12.7% 10.9% 9.1% 7.3% 5.5% 5.5%	45.5% 56.4% 65.5% 72.7% 78.2% 83.6%
11 14 53 2B 2D 13	Environment Health Education Water supply and sewage Others (Others) Agriculture Fisheries Reproductive health	9 7 6 5 4 3 3 3 2	18 25 31 36 40 43 43 46 48	16.4% 12.7% 10.9% 9.1% 7.3% 5.5% 5.5% 3.6%	45.5% 56.4% 65.5% 72.7% 78.2% 83.6% 87.3%
11 14 53 28 2D 13 2C	Environment Health Education Water supply and sewage Others (Others) Agriculture Fisheries Reproductive health Tourism	9 7 6 5 4 3 3 3 2 1	18 25 31 36 40 43 46 48 49	16.4% 12.7% 10.9% 9.1% 7.3% 5.5% 5.5% 3.6% 1.8%	45.5% 56.4% 65.5% 72.7% 78.2% 83.6% 87.3% 89.1%
11 14 53 2B 2D 13 2G 15	Environment Health Education Water supply and sewage Others (Others) Agriculture Fisheries Reproductive health Tourism Others (Social)	9 7 6 5 4 3 3 3 2 1 1	18 25 31 36 40 43 46 48 49 50	16.4% 12.7% 10.9% 9.1% 7.3% 5.5% 5.5% 3.6% 1.8%	45.5% 56.4% 65.5% 72.7% 78.2% 83.6% 83.6% 87.3% 89.1% 90.9%
11 14 53 2B 2D 13 2C 15 32	Environment Health Education Water supply and sewage Others (Others) Agriculture Fisheries Reproductive health Tourism Others (Social) Civil society	9 7 6 5 4 3 3 2 1 1 1 1	18 25 31 36 40 43 46 48 49 50 51	16.4% 12.7% 10.9% 9.1% 7.3% 5.5% 5.5% 3.6% 1.8% 1.8% 1.8%	45.5% 56.4% 65.5% 72.7% 78.2% 83.6% 83.6% 87.3% 89.1% 90.9% 92.7%
11 14 53 2B 2D 13 2C 15 32 21	Environment Health Education Water supply and sewage Others (Others) Agriculture Fisheries Reproductive health Tourism Others (Social) Civil society Energy	9 7 6 5 4 3 3 3 2 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	18 25 31 36 40 43 46 48 49 50 51 52	16.4% 12.7% 10.9% 9.1% 7.3% 5.5% 3.6% 1.8% 1.8% 1.8% 1.8% 1.8%	45.5% 56.4% 65.5% 72.7% 78.2% 83.6% 83.6% 87.3% 89.1% 90.9% 92.7% 94.5%

Table III.3. Breakdown of Triangular South-South Cooperation, by sector of activity 2012

 $\textbf{Source:} \ \mathsf{SEGIB}, \ \mathsf{based} \ \mathsf{on} \ \mathsf{reporting} \ \mathsf{from} \ \mathsf{cooperation} \ \mathsf{agencies} \ \mathsf{and/or} \ \mathsf{bureaus}.$



e) The remaining actions were very diverse, ranging from development models and gender and cultural issues (7.3%), demographics and reproductive health (3.6%) to economic areas (agriculture and fisheries, accounting for 5.5% each).

However, as noted at the beginning of this section, a sectoral analysis can also be conducted from a complementary standpoint, breaking down cooperation by partner in each role. The result is Graph III.5, which illustrates the profiles of the country that acted as first provider, second provider and recipient⁵ of the 77 Triangular South-South Cooperation projects in 2012. It suggests that the main type of activities performed by each partner is determined directly by the associations established when executing the project. Specifically:

a) Chile (the largest first provider) focused its cooperation on transferring capacities in the socioeconomic area, with the result that three out of four projects focused on strengthening health and social welfare (44.1%), and agriculture and trade (29.4%). It is no coincidence that the latter two areas accounted for over 70% of the projects in which the United States participated as second provider, and between 42.9% and 50.0% of those received by Paraguay and El Salvador, the two preferential recipients of Chilean-US cooperation. In fact, Box III.2 goes into detail about the Memorandum of Understanding signed by the agencies of Chile and the United States in 2011 to implement development cooperation activities in third countries, which served as the framework for the projects conducted in El Salvador, Guatemala, Paraguay and Panama. Those projects where clearly oriented towards simultaneously strengthening agriculture and trade, partly as a strat-

Source: SEGIB, based on reporting from cooperation agencies and/or bureaus.

egy for supporting, via Triangular South-South Cooperation, the recipients' capacity to export food to new markets.

- b) As regards Mexico (the second-largest first provider), over 90% of the triangular projects in which it participate in 2012 sought to strengthen, in equal measure, productive sectors (agriculture, construction and industry) and the environment (management of resources and waste of various types). Once again, each of these priority areas predominated in cooperation by the second providers with which it is associated: Germany (47.6% of its projects were environment-related) and Japan (36.4% of its projects were related to productive sectors).
- c) One half of the ten Triangular South-South Cooperation projects in which Guatemala participated as a recipient depended on triangulation by Chile with other partners (Germany, the US, Colombia and the UNEP). Chile's relative importance explains why social projects (especially related to combating malnutrition) accounted for a sizable share, both in its profile and in that of Guatemala (44.1% in the case of Chile, 30% in the case of Guatemala).

^{5.} For results to be minimally significant, the analysis was confined to those partners that participated in at least 10 projects.



BOX III.2.

Chile-US triangulation linking agriculture and trade

THE FIRST MEMORANDUM of Understanding on Cooperation between the governments of Chile and the United States dates from 1998. In January 2010, the two governments updated the MoU and laid the foundation for the signature, in February 2011, of a Memorandum of Understanding for the Implementation of Development Cooperation Activities in Third Countries by their respective cooperation agencies (AGCI and USAID). Through this MoU, the two countries created a legal framework through which to promote Triangular South-South Cooperation actions and projects in other countries, which naturally included Ibero-American countries. In fact, the 11 triangular projects implemented in 2012 in El Salvador, Guatemala, Paraguay and Panama (Table III.1) arose and were managed within the framework of that MOU.¹

Additionally, a detailed analysis of triangulation in which Chile and the United States participated in those four countries reveals a very specific pattern of sectoral priorities. In fact, a majority of the projects (72%) focused on strengthening two areas, plant health and trade, which are interrelated, particularly with regard to insertion in external markets. Specifically:

- One of the priorities of Chile-US cooperation is to strengthen agriculture in recipient countries, particularly with regard to the production of quality foodstuffs. Arising out of the experience accumulated by the Chilean Institute of Public Health, this entails intervening in four aspects: nutritional, organoleptic, commercial and innocuousness (assurance that the food will not harm the consumer provided that it is prepared and consumed as intended).²
- Improving the quality of agricultural products for use as foodstuffs pursues two objectives: one is to guarantee health on the part of all consumers; the other is to create the conditions in which such foodstuffs can be inserted into the domestic and international markets. In fact, failure to comply with these regulations and technical requirements is just another barrier to trade.
- Consequently, there can be no access to international trade unless plant health conditions are guaranteed. However, market insertion can be enhanced by improving management tools. Such is the case of using "intelligent systems" (essential for the development of any industry) and applying them to agri-

2. http://www.ispch.cl/inocuidad-alimentaria

cultural markets. Such systems provide information about all the components (products, actors, sales volumes, etc.) of the market structure, facilitate policy decisions and provide greater transparency and reliability in the market. In fact, improving market information systems is one of the four recommendations made by the G 20 Ministers of Agriculture in 2011 in order to reduce market price volatility and increase exports.³

The sectoral profile of the projects implemented in El Salvador, Guatemala and Paraguay can be understood in the light of these priorities:

- In July 2011, the Chilean and US agencies signed a Declaration of Intent with the El Salvador Ministry of Agriculture to implement, in 2012, four projects to assist in pest prevention, strengthen food security, improve animal health, and design an agricultural market intelligence system.⁴
- Through Triangular South-South Cooperation, Guatemala began to adopt the successful Chilean model of public-private partnerships to improve the National System of Plant Inspection and Certification for Agricultural Produce for Export. Additionally, through the various projects that were implemented, it began to expand product coverage and reduce the risk associated with agricultural exports while also improving agricultural inspection, affording better access to key markets.⁵
- Three of the lines of work implemented in Paraguay also followed this pattern (the fourth was social): Improving and expanding agriculture and extending credit to small farmers; customs reforms by modernizing the customs system and changing the container scanning system; and promoting exports by strengthening databases and promoting the creation of an agency similar to the successful "Pro-Chile".

Source: SEGIB, based on reporting from cooperation agencies and/or bureaus.

 http://chile.usembassy.gov/2013press0605-fact_sheet_ trilateral_coop_us-chile.html

^{1.} http://www.agci.cl/index.php/nuestros-socios/estados-unidos

http://www.cmdrs.gob.mx/prev/sesiones/2012/10a_ sesion/3_aserca.pdf

http://www.rree.gob.sv/index.php?option=com_ k2&view=item&id=1522:chile-y-estados-unidosapoyar%C3%A1n-iniciativas-de-agricultura-en-el-salvadora-trav%C3%A9s-de-la-cooperaci%C3%B3n-t%C3%A9cnicatriangular&tmpl=component&print=1

III.6. OTHER ASPECTS OF TRIANGULAR SOUTH-SOUTH COOPERATION IN 2012

ANALOGOUSLY WITH THE chapter on Bilateral Horizontal South-South Cooperation, the combination of indicators and statistical techniques offers a wide range of new resources for examining Triangular South-South Cooperation. Once again, the indicators are based on two types of data: activity start and completion dates;⁶ and budgeted and executed costs. Statistical analysis offers more information about such aspects as the financial dimension and duration of Triangular SSC.

III.6.1. ANALYSIS USING DATES

In any statistical analysis, the availability of data determines the sample size and, consequently, the degree to which the conclusions are representative: logically, the larger the data universe, the more representative are the results, and vice versa.

Therefore, this analysis commences by ascertaining the volume of information logged for 2012 in connection with start and completion dates for projects and actions under the heading of Triangular South-South Cooperation. Data availability is shown in Table III.4. Observing this suggests that there is more information available for actions than for projects but that there are also differences in the data depending on the variable: the sample of start dates is quite representative (available for 80.5% of projects and 100% of actions) while the sample of completion dates, and the pos-

sibility of using them with start dates, is quite representative for actions (data available for 87.3%) but considerably lower for projects (barely 39%).

Using the available data, it is possible to obtain an idea of the period during which Triangular South-South Cooperation projects and actions under way in 2012 tended to begin and conclude. Table III.5 and Graph III.6 plot the projects and actions registered in 2012 on the basis of the year in which they commenced and concluded activity. Conclusions:

- a) The bulk of triangular projects (54.8%) and actions (63.6%) commenced in 2012. In fact, over 90% of projects and close to 100% of actions began in 2011 or 2012.
- b) Moreover, the bulk of projects (70%) concluded in 2012. However, 25% of projects are expected to conclude in 2014 (16.7%), or in 2015-2016 (6.6%). Approximately 90% of the actions concluded in 2012 and practically 96% would have concluded by the end of 2013.

Additionally, the simultaneous use of both dates makes it possible to apply an indicator and estimate the average duration of Triangular South-South Cooperation projects and actions.⁷ Using the 40% of projects and 85% of actions for which that data is available, Table III.6 and Graph III.7 were drawn up

^{7.} The duration of each project and action is obtained by calculating the number of days between the start and completion dates. The average duration of all projects and actions is obtained by totaling the time lapses between those dates and dividing by the total number of records for which the data is available.

Table III.4	Table III.4. Date information for Triangular SSC projects and actions. 2012.											
Projects and	d actions (units)	; share (%)										
		NUM	IBER			SHARE						
	Total	Start date	Completion date	Both	Start date	Start date	Both					
PROJECTS	77	62	30	30	80.5%	39.0%	39.0%					
ACTIONS	55	55 48 48 100.0% 87.3% 87.3										

Approval dates are excluded since they have not been explicitly defined for Triangular SSC.

Absolute	e frequencies (r	number); relati	ive frequencie	s (%)									
III.5.A. PROJ	ECTS												
		START	DATES		COMPLETION DATES								
YEAR	Absolute	frequency	Relative	frequency	Absolute	frequency	Relative	frequency					
	Simple	Cumulative	Simple	Cumulative	Simple	Cumulative	Simple	Cumulative					
2009	2	2	3.2%	3.2%									
2010	3	5	4.8%	8.1%									
2011	23	28	37.1%	45.2%									
2012	34	62	54.8%	100.0%	21	21	70.0%	70.0%					
2013					2	23	6.7%	76.7%					
2014					5	28	16.7%	93.3%					
2015					1	29	3.3%	96.7%					
2016					1	30	3.3%	100.0%					
III.5.B. ACTI	ONS												
		START	DATES			COMPLETI	ON DATES						
YEAR	Absolute	frequency	Relative	frequency	Absolute	frequency	Relative	frequency					
	Simple	Cumulative	Simple	Cumulative	Simple	Cumulative	Simple	Cumulative					
2009	1	1	1.8%	1.8%									
2010	0	1	0.0%	1.8%									
2011	19	20	34.5%	36.4%									
2012	35	55	63.6%	100.0%	43	43	89.6%	89.6%					
2013					3	46	6.3%	95.8%					
2014					2	48	4.2%	100.0%					

Table III.5. Distribution of Triangular SSC projects and actions by start and completion date. 2012.



Table III.	6. Distribu	ition of Tri	angular S	SC, by ave	rage duratio	n.							
Absolute f	requencies	(number); re	lative frequ	encies (%)									
	PROJECTS ACTIONS												
		JENCY		ATIVE JENCY	DAY)LUTE JENCY		ATIVE UENCY				
INTERVALS	Simple	Cumulative	Simple	Cumulative	INTERVALS	Simple	Cumulative	Simple	Cumulative				
0-89	5	5	16.7%	16.7%	0-59	28	28	58.3%	58.3%				
90-179	8	13	26.7%	43.3%	60-119	3	31	6.3%	64.6%				
180-269	0	13	0.0%	43.3%	120-179	1	32	2.1%	66.7%				
270-359	0	13	0.0%	43.3%	180-239	2	34	4.2%	70.8%				
360-449	2	15	6.7%	50.0%	240-299	3	37	6.3%	77.1%				
450-539	1	16	3.3%	53.3%	300-359	3	40	6.3%	83.3%				
540-629	1	17	3.3%	56.7%	360-419	2	42	4.2%	87.5%				
630-719	3	20	10.0%	66.7%	420-479	1	43	2.1%	89.6%				
720-809	2	22	6.7%	73.3%	480-539	2	45	4.2%	93.8%				
810-899	0	22	0.0%	73.3%	540-599	0	45	0.0%	93.8%				
900-989	З	25	10.0%	83.3%	600-659	0	45	0.0%	93.8%				
990-1.079	0	25	0.0%	83.3%	660-719	0	45	0.0%	93.8%				
Más de 1.080	5	30	16.7%	100.0%	Más de 720	3	48	6.3%	100.0%				

 $\textbf{Source:} \ \mathsf{SEGIB}, \ \mathsf{based} \ \mathsf{on} \ \mathsf{reporting} \ \mathsf{from} \ \mathsf{cooperation} \ \mathsf{agencies} \ \mathsf{and/or} \ \mathsf{bureaus}$



Source: SEGIB, based on reporting from cooperation agencies and/or bureaus.

Table III.7. Informa	tion availa	ble about [.]	Triangular	SSC costs,	, by cost ty	vpe and co	untry role.	2012.	
Projects (units); share	(%)								
PARTNER BEARING	NUMBER O	F PROJECTS V	VITH ASSOCI	ATED DATA		•	ECTS' SHARE STERED IN 20		
THE COST	Budget	ed cost	Execut	ed cost	Budget	ed cost	Executed cost		
	Total	2012	Total	2012	Total	2012	Total	2012	
First provider	7	1	30	30	9.1%	1.3%	39.0%	39.0%	
Second provider	18	10	8	6	23.4%	13.0%	10.4%	7.8%	
Recipient	0	0	0	1	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	1.3%	
First and second provider	0	0	0	3	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	3.9%	
Second provider and recipient	1	0	0	0	1.3%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	
All three partners	9	1	0	0	11.7%	1.3%	0.0%	0.0%	
Records	33	23	56	63	42.9%	29.9%	72.7%	81.8%	

to portray the results on the basis of time intervals: 90 days (three months) for projects and 60 days (two months) for actions. Observing them, it can be concluded that:

- a) After eliminating outliers from both series (over 1080 days in the case of projects, and over 720 days in the case of actions)⁸, it is estimated that projects take an average of 440 days (slightly over 14 months) while actions take much less: 109 days (just over three-and-a-half months).
- b) Project durations are observed to be distributed evenly around the 440-day average: 50% took less time, and 50% took more. Nevertheless, the most frequent data items were in the extreme intervals: 43.3% of projects had durations under 180 days while the remaining 30% were distributed in the intervals 630-720 days, 900-990 days, and >1080 days.
- c) In contrast, close to two-thirds (64.6%) of actions took less than the average duration. In fact, a sizable proportion (58.3% of the total) were executed in under 60 days (two months). Meanwhile, practically 1 in 5 actions took longer than average (between 240 and 360 days) or even much longer (>720 days).

III.6.2. ANALYSIS USING COST DATA

Following the same logic as above, in order to analyze Triangular South-South Cooperation on the basis of budgeted and executed costs, it is necessary to know the volume of available data. This is shown in Table III.7. Participation by at least three countries expands the range of options for which combined data is required. For example, the dimension of Triangular SSC can be estimated from a single data item in relation to the cost borne individually by each partner; however, to ascertain the degree of burden sharing, it is necessary to have the costs borne by each of the three partners.

Table III.7 shows the number of projects (in absolute and relative terms) for which budgeted and executed cost data is available for 2012 and for the entire project cycle, as well as data referring to the first provider, second provider and recipient, and combinations between the first and second

provider, second provider and recipient, and all three together. The results suggest that the data is not very representative:

- a) The largest data set refers only to partners who acted as first provider (data available for 39% of projects) or second provider (at most 23% of projects have the required data).
- b) Nevertheless, for each of those roles, those maximum data sample sizes are associated with only one data type: in the case of the first provider, costs executed in 2012 and in the entire project cycle; in the case of the second provider, the total budgeted cost. The other data sets are much smaller.

For this reason, the small data sets greatly reduce the scope for applying indicators. Nevertheless, as an exercise to illustrate their potential, Table III.8 and Graph III.8 distribute triangular projects on the basis of total budgeted cost borne by the second provider (in intervals of US\$50,000) and total executed cost borne by the first provider (in intervals of US\$25,000). An analysis provides an approximation to the "economic dimension" of Triangular South-South Cooperation in 2012. Specifically:

- a) In eliminating outliers and working with the smallest representative 90% of values, we find that the budgeted cost borne by the second provider over the entire project cycle averaged US\$108,565, i.e. more than double the executed cost borne by the first provider: US\$41,919 (also over the full project cycle).
- b) Taking those two averages, we find that in most projects (60%) the second provider tended to budget below that figure of US\$108,565. In fact, the budget was below US\$50,000 in a large proportion (45%) of projects. In contrast, 30% of interventions were for larger and more extreme values: in the ranges US\$200,000-250,000, US\$300,000-350,000 and over US\$400,000.
- c) Likewise, in three out of four projects, the first provider bore an average total execution cost of under US\$41,919.
 Once again, that cost was actually under US\$25,000 in more than half of the cases (56.7%). In one out of five projects, the first provider bore higher budgets: up to US\$75,000 and US\$100,000-125,000.

^{8.} In other words, taking 93.3% of projects and 93.8% of actions.

Cost intervals	Cost intervals (US\$); absolute frequencies (number); relative frequencies (%)													
TOTAL BU	JDGETED C	OST – SECON	ID PROVID	ER	TOTAL EXECUTED COST – FIRST PROVIDER									
	Absolute	frequency	Relative	frequency	INTERVALS	Absolute	e frequency	Relative frequency						
INTERVALS	Simple	Cumulative	Simple	Cumulative	INTERVALS	Simple	Cumulative	Simple	Cumulative					
0-49,999	8	8	44.4%	44.4%	0-24,999	17	17	56.7%	56.7%					
50,000-99,999	3	11	16.7%	61.1%	25,000-49,999	6	23	20.0%	76.7%					
100,000-149,999	0	11	0.0%	61.1%	50,000-74,999	2	25	6.7%	83.3%					
150,000-199,999	0	11	0.0%	61.1%	75,000-99,999	0	25	0.0%	83.3%					
200,000-249,999	2	13	11.1%	72.2%	100,000-124,999	4	29	13.3%	96.7%					
250,000-299,999	0	13	0.0%	72.2%	125,000-149,999	0	29	0.0%	96.7%					
300,000-349,999	2	15	11.1%	83.3%	Over 150,000	1	30	3.3%	100.0%					
350,000-399,999	1	16	5.6%	88.9%										
Over 400,000	2	18	11.1%	100.0%										

Table III.8. Distribution of TSSC, by cost type and partner. 2012.

 $\textbf{Source:} \ \mathsf{SEGIB}, \ \mathsf{based} \ \mathsf{on} \ \mathsf{reporting} \ \mathsf{from} \ \mathsf{cooperation} \ \mathsf{agencies} \ \mathsf{and/or} \ \mathsf{bureaus}$



III.7. PLANNING AND MANAGEMENT OF TRIANGULAR SOUTH-SOUTH COOPERATION

FOR THIS EDITION OF THE *Report on South-South Cooperation in Ibero-America*, the countries expressed particular interest in information about aspects of planning and operational management of Triangular South-South Cooperation. Specifically, they wanted to know:

- Who requests triangulation and in response to what sort of need.
- What sort of agreements regulate the relationship between the various players.
- What finance formulas or mechanism are used.
- Who participates in each phase of the project cycle, and what is the nature of their participation.

Therefore, additional qualitative information was collected. This information provided a more in-depth picture of other issues relating to 75%-80% of the Triangular South-South Cooperation projects and actions in 2012. Based on the degree of representativeness of the resulting sample and confining the analysis first to the principal dimension (projects), the following patterns were identified:

- a) In practically all cases, the project originated at the request of the recipient. Normally, that request tended to arise at the same time as the development of a standard or an institutional plan on the part of the recipient (e.g. the design of a multi-year program in science and technology, or a social welfare policy). The need for technical support in such a process was the motive on the part of most recipients when requesting triangular cooperation.
- b) Requests also tended to arise in response to the publication of catalogs of Triangular South-South Cooperation projects by first providers (mainly) and second providers (to a lesser extent). In response, recipients aligned their needs with the project application.
- c) Additionally, practically 80% of projects were performed under an agreement that regulated relations between the partners. However, only in a minority of cases was the agreement ratified by all three partners (Graph III.9): in most cases the framework agreement was bilateral (nearly always between the first and second providers, occasionally between one of the providers and the recipient; very occasionally two bilateral agreements of the foregoing types were merged). This coincides with the general pattern described above, in which an application by a recipient is in response to a "formal" call on the part of the providers.
- d) Those agreements went by numerous names: "agreements", "conventions", "memoranda of understanding", "declarations of intent", "commitment proceedings", "records of discussions"; and also "Joint Committees", "Triangular Cooperation Programs with Third Countries" and "project documents". In one way or another, they all set out rules for planning and managing the cooperation to which



Source: SEGIB, based on reporting from cooperation agencies and/or bureaus.

they refer. Additionally the main difference between the various formats lies in the potential legal consequences of signing them. For example, memorandums of understanding (MoUs) are generally not legally binding⁹, but merely set out the intentions of the signatories. In fact, they often serve as a basis for formal agreements to be signed at a later date and which will be binding upon all the parties.¹⁰

- e) Such agreements were generally signed by national cooperation agencies and/or bureaus and by local or central institutions or government bodies. National cooperation agencies and/or bureaus tended to participate in "Triangular Cooperation Programs with Third Countries", "Joint Committees" and "Memoranda of Understanding" (MoUs).
- f) As regards the means by which projects were financed, countries reported that there was no formal mechanism in most cases. Where a formal mechanism was used, it depended on the party (international or regional agency, or country) that acted as second provider (e.g. fiduciary funds of the World Bank, the OAS, the GEF, or the Regional Fund for Triangular Cooperation in Latin America and the Caribbean under Germany's GIZ) or joint funds established between the two providers (e.g. Fondo Mixto España-Chile para Cooperación Triangular). In contrast, the most frequent mode of funding was shared contributions or transfers from the second provider (e.g. GIZ, or Spanish government subsidies) administered either by each of the parties or by the first provider.
- g) Graph III.10 was drawn up to provide more information about who participated in the various phases of Trian-

^{9.} http://articles.economictimes.indiatimes.com/2013-02-04/ news/36743089_1_mou-document-parties

^{10.} http://www.ues.edu.sv/secretaria-de-relaciones-nacionales-einternacionales/sites/default/files/MANUAL_CONVENIOS.pdf and http://www.diccionariojuridico.mx/

gular South-South Cooperation projects and to what ex-

tent: the horizontal axis presents the four phases of the cycle (1: Identification; 2: Negotiation and formulation; 3: Implementation; and 4: Monitoring and Evaluation). The vertical axis plots the percentage of projects for which the various combinations of participants were involved (all three; first and second provider; first provider and recipient; first provider only; recipient only). Additionally, countries tend to report who represented them in each phase and role: generally cooperation agencies and/or bureaus, government bodies, and the target population. Consequently, for each phase of the cycle:

• Joint action by the two providers predominated in the identification phase (practically 60% of cases). Meanwhile, the recipient, either with the two providers, with the first provider or individually, participated in practically all other cases in the identification phase. This degree of participation by the recipient coupled with the fact that the latter tends to be the one that requests projects, supports the idea that the first and second providers are mainly responsible for "identifying" and " inviting participation" in Triangular SSC projects, while recipients make the formal request in response.

• All three parties tended to be involved in most cases in the negotiation and formulation phase, coinciding with the process of drafting the project document. This group work ensured that projects were adapted to the realities and specific features of each case. On other occasions, the first provider again played a prominent role (alone; with the second provider; or with the recipient).

• The implementation phase, i.e. the technical execution of the project, was clearly dominated by the party in charge of transferring experience and knowledge: the first provider, which was prominent in the execution of 100% of projects (accompanied by the second provider in half of the cases; by the second provider and recipient in one-third of the cases; acting alone in almost one-fifth of the cases).

• In the evaluation and follow-up phase, the recipient (represented predominantly by the target population) regained part of its initial prominence, this time in cooperation with the two providers. Nevertheless, the two providers played a more direct role in this phase of the cycle, not only because they were directly in charge in about half of all cases but also because, even where the recipient was involved, the providers tended to establish the guidelines.

Diagram III.3 was drawn up to summarize the most frequent formulas used in planning and managing Triangular South-South Cooperation projects. Clearly, the most common pattern is as follows:

Projects under this formula tend to arise from requests by the recipients. That request tends to be a formal response to an invitation from the providers, which offer a catalog of possible projects based on their capabilities. Among the range of projects available, recipients tend to request those that meet their needs for institutional strengthening, often associated with the process of designing and implementing development policies and strategies. The "invitation" to participate in Triangular South-South Cooperation projects tends to be governed by a bilateral agreement between the first and second providers. This seems to be coherent with the fact that the various types of formal agreement regulating relations between the parties tends to be bilateral and the bulk of them are between the two providers. Meanwhile, agreements signed by all three participants, though important, tend to be a minority.

The bulk of funding tends to come from the providers (particularly the second provider): mostly in the form of specific allocations. Only in a minority of cases is funding channeled through institutionalized mechanisms. However, when this happens, the predominant formula is that of cooperation funds (either individual or multilateral).

Finally, as regards how the partners participate in the various project phases, it can be concluded that:

The first provider is the most active partner in all cases, particularly during project implementation, where its role as technical implementer predominates.

The second provider also plays a major role in all phases, providing institutional and technical support. Nevertheless, the second provider's principal contribution is financial.

Recipients' participation varies, although two specific situations are notable: their involvement is lowest in technical execution of the project; and their involvement is greatest in the negotiation and formulation phase, when the project document is drafted and the recipient's viewpoint is vital in order to adapt a general form of cooperation to the specific new needs that have arisen.

In the final instance, the general pattern for actions does not differ notably from that identified for projects under Triangular South-South Cooperation. Nevertheless, the final formula depends considerably on the party acting as second provider: Japan and Spain, in three out of four actions. Specifically:

- a) Almost all actions involving Japan followed the same pattern: an Association Program was registered with the first provider and, together, they identified needs in the region and subsequently offered (and funded) a course for applicant countries. The only exception to this pattern was in the association with Mexico; in this case, the general pattern was that Mexico requested the course from Japan."
- b) Triangular South-South Cooperation actions performed in the framework of the association between Spain and Costa Rica took place under the institutional framework arranged by those two countries. On that basis, actions were implemented in response to requests from recipients based on a catalog of technical cooperation offered by Costa Rica¹² and funded with a subsidy from Spain to the Triangular Cooperation Program.

^{11.} Those same patterns were repeated in triangular actions with Korea, Israel and the United States, where the principal first provider was Chile.

Available at http://documentos.mideplan.go.cr/alfresco/d/d/workspace/SpacesStore/d413032b-30b5-4ce4-a5eb-ad101c140516/ Catalogo-oferta-cooperac-tec-CR-978-9977-73-042-4.pdf.







IBERO-AMERICA AND REGIONAL HORIZONTAL SOUTH-SOUTH COOPERATION

IV.1. INTRODUCTION

THE PREVIOUS *REPORT on South-South Cooperation in Ibero-America* devoted a chapter to Regional Horizontal South-South Cooperation. To that end, it performed an exercise to gain a clearer picture of the defining characteristics of that form of cooperation. That reflection led to a main recommendation: that those features be defined more precisely, leading to a reformulation of the concept of Regional Horizontal South-South Cooperation. This pursued two ultimate goals: one was to facilitate greater systematization of experiences under this form of cooperation; and the other was to advance in distinguishing and delimiting them from other experiences which, though having some "regional" characteristics, should not be classified as Regional Horizontal South-South Cooperation.

The Buenos Aires workshop in March 2013 took up the challenge and addressed a rethink of the definitions of Triangular South-South Cooperation and Regional Horizontal SouthSouth Cooperation. Taking the new conceptualizations as a reference, this chapter on Regional HSSC is structured as follows:

- a) The first section addresses the changes in the concept.
- b) Then, based on the new definition, the RHSSC programs and projects that the Ibero-American countries reported as being operational in 2012 were reclassified.
- c) Based on the list of programs and projects obtained in the preceding section, a sectoral analysis was performed which made it possible to ascertain the region's strengthened capacities profile.
- d) Finally, more qualitative and operational issues are dealt with: with regard to the actors (particularly countries and agencies) involved in Regional HSSC; and with regard to the institutional framework surrounding this form of cooperation, which regulates relations between partners.

IV.2. REDEFINING AND DELIMITING REGIONAL HORIZONTAL SOUTH-SOUTH COOPERATION

DIAGRAM IV.1 WAS drawn up on the basis of the definitions of Regional Horizontal South-South Cooperation: that in force up until the Buenos Aires March 2013 workshop (upper part of the diagram) and the one in use thereafter (lower part). Based on the recommendation, the funnel connecting the two definitions suggests that the reflection performed by the countries with respect to the defining features of this form of cooperation did not entail substantial conceptual changes: specifically, the result was simply an "adjustment" to some of the features, while emphasizing them and their relative importance.

The initial definition (upper, agreed upon by the countries in previous editions of the Report) characterized Regional Horizontal South-South Cooperation on the basis of:

- a) Participation by at least three developing countries.
- An agreement and cooperation strategy agreed upon by consensus among all the parties.
- c) The existence of a regional focus, oriented towards integration and/or development.
- d) The assurance of being governed by an institutional framework.

 e) Execution or instrumentalization on the basis of programs, projects or actions.

Based on that characterization, the Ibero-America countries nuanced several of the features and reclassified them in descending order of importance. As a result, those same countries agreed that any cooperation is Regional Horizontal South-South when:

- a) It pursues regional development and/or integration. In this case, less importance is attached to the objective itself and to the region involved, the latter being understood as an aggregation of places that share geographical and historical-social characteristics. In contrast, greater importance was given to the fact that the objective was "of the region" (i.e. shared, agreed and defended through collective action by all partners).
- b) In fact, the form in which participation by all partners is guaranteed became the second most important feature of Regional Horizontal South-South Cooperation, the countries now consider it to be decisive that this form of cooperation not only has an institutional framework (regulating relations between partners) but also, more importantly, that the framework has been formally acknowledged by all partners.



Source: SEGIB, based on PIFCSS and SEGIB (2013)

- c) Those two features take precedence over all the others, which adopt a secondary role. Nevertheless, it was emphasized that, although the number and type of partners is not decisive, Regional Horizontal South-South Cooperation should include at least three developing countries, regardless of their role (this is another feature which was diluted, in contrast with Triangular South-South Cooperation, where it is decisive).
- d) Finally, Regional Horizontal South-South Cooperation is conceived as being instrumented exclusively through programs and projects. Actions are excluded since the countries understand that the requirement for an institutional mechanism formalized by all partners demands time and effort not merited by an action, which are relatively smaller in scale (PIFCSS and SEGIB; 2013).

On that basis, from 2013 onwards, Regional Horizontal South-South Cooperation is defined as that "(...) form of South-South Cooperation whose goal is the development and/or integration of a region, i.e. that the countries that make it up (at least three developing countries) share and agree on that objective. The regional nature of this cooperation is set out in a formalized institutional mechanism. It is executed through **Programs and Projects.**"

This new definition, which focuses on the objective and a formalized institutional framework, provides new elements for differentiating cases and classifying them correctly. Therefore, fulfilling part of the pursued objective, this new definition (plus the one for Triangular South-South Cooperation) makes it possible for experiences that might initially appear to be cases of Regional Horizontal South-South Cooperation but are not to be classified under the appropriate heading. This is illustrated in Box IV.1.

BOX IV.1.

Experiences with bilateral, triangular and regional features: how to classify?

OCCASIONALLY, SOUTH-SOUTH Cooperation experiences may have features of bilateral, triangular and regional cooperation. The simultaneous existence of these features makes it difficult to classify these experiences under a specific heading. However, the exercise in delimitation performed in 2013 reduces the uncertainty and, even though an experience may share several features, there are a number of characteristics that can be used to distinguish it and are decisive for proper classification. To illustrate this, below are two examples which are very similar but correspond to different forms of South-South Cooperation.

Case 1. Bilateral HSSC and Regional HSSC: when more than three developing countries are involved

Experiences A and B in Case 1 refer to capacity strengthening between developing countries. Four countries are involved in each case: three acting as project recipients, and a fourth acting as provider. However, there is a substantial difference between them: the institutional framework. Specifically:

- As observed in the figure illustrating experience A, the provider executes the project in several countries simultaneously but under three separate and clearly bilateral agreements.
- In contrast, in experience B, that same cooperation is structured under an institutional framework shared and formalized by all partners.

Accepting that difference, it could be said that **experience A** corresponds to three **Bilateral Horizontal South-South Cooperation** projects (almost certainly encompassed under a "regional scope" cooperation program by the provider), while **experience B** fulfils the requirements to be classified as a **Regional Horizontal South-South Cooperation** program or project.

Case 2. Triangular SSC and Regional HSSC: where a regional body is involved

Experiences A and B in Case 2 refer to capacity strengthening involving: three developing countries (one as provider and the other two as recipients), on the one hand, and a regional body, on the other. The way in which the body participates in the cooperation is the decisive issue:

In executing experience A, the regional body provides support, just like any other partner, in the form of technical, financial and other resources, for the cooperation being performed by the provider into two countries. The institutional framework regulating the way in which cooperation takes place may be of several forms: simultaneous coexistence of several agreements (e.g. between the body and the provider, and between the provider and each of the recipients); or one that is designed, agreed upon and formalized by all involved (including the regional body). However, in either case, the role of the regional body results in experience A fitting the definition of two Triangular South-South Cooperation projects (one in each recipient country, possibly under a triangular program with "regional scope").



 In contrast, in the second experience, the regional body participates in a different way: in fact, it provides the cooperation exchange between developing countries with an institutional mechanism through which to regulate their relationship, in accordance with the rules previously agreed upon by the countries when they joined that body. However, the body does not make any technical contribution or play any technical assistance role. Accordingly, **experience B** fits the pattern of **Regional Horizon**tal South-South Cooperation.



IV.3. REGIONAL HORIZONTAL SOUTH-SOUTH COOPERATION PROGRAMS AND PROJECTS IN 2012

IN 2012, THE IBERO-AMERICAN countries reported that they participated in a total of 38 programs and 13 projects under Regional Horizontal South-South Cooperation. Those programs and project are listed in Tables IV.1 and IV.2, respectively. Additionally, to facilitate understanding of the analysis performed in this and subsequent sections using the content of those tables, each program and project is assigned a code.

Moreover, each of the 38 programs and 13 projects in 2012 was classified in accordance with the subregion to which the participating countries belong. Specifically:

- a) Central America (Costa Rica, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua and Panama).
- b) Mesoamerica (comprising Central America plus the Dominican Republic and Mexico, and also a non-Ibero-American country: Belize).
- c) Andes (Bolivia, Colombia, Ecuador, Peru and Venezuela).
- d) South America (the 5 Andean countries plus Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Paraguay and Uruguay).
- e) Latin America (the 19 countries in the continent, from Mexico to Chile, including Cuba and the Dominican Republic but excluding the other Caribbean countries).
- f) Ibero-America (the aforementioned 19 countries plus Andorra, Spain and Portugal).

Tables IV.3 (in this section) and A.4 (in the Annex) detail which countries were involved in those 38 programs and 13 projects, respectively. Observing those tables gives a better idea of the classification approach, which takes precedence over the participation of a subregional body, which might have been used as an alternative criterion.¹ To illustrate the way in which these cooperation programs and projects are listed:

- a) The Amazon Malaria Initiative (code 4.1), which primarily involves Andean countries (Bolivia, Colombia, Ecuador and Peru) together with Brazil (Table IV.3), is classified in the South America subregion, to which the five countries belong.
- b) The MERCOSUR-AECID program (code 6.23), which involves Argentina, Brazil, Paraguay, Venezuela, Uruguay and Spain, is classified under Ibero-America, which is the only subregion which groups all of them, even though the regional body participating in the program is not Ibero-American but, rather, encompasses the South American countries.

Additionally, there are a few exceptional cases where participation by a "regional element" does affect the classification. This is the case with some records from Central America and Mesoamerica (e.g. Programs and Projects 1.1, 1.4, 2.2 and A.2, respectively), which are supported by mechanisms (such as the Central American Integration Mechanism, SICA, and the Tuxtla Mechanism for Dialogue) which force the inclusion under those subregions of experiences involving countries which do not belong to them, such as the case of the Dominican Republic (for Central America) and Colombia (for Mesoamerica).²

It is also worth noting that non-Ibero-American countries also participated in the programs and projects registered in 2012. As shown in Tables IV.2 and A.4, in the Annex, they were mainly Caribbean countries (Belize, Guyana, Haiti, Jamaica and Suriname), Puerto Rico (an Associated Free State which, particularly in the early 1990s, had a special status in some cultural programs of the Ibero-American Conference); and traditional donors such as Germany, Australia, the USA and Switzerland, which, as detailed below, played in important role in funding part of the Regional Horizontal South-South Cooperation registered in 2012.

It was decided not to use the second criterion since, as discussed later, regional bodies are not involved in all Regional Horizontal South-South Cooperation programs and projects.

It should be noted that a purely geographical criterion was being used here, ignoring the fact that the Dominican Republic belongs to a Central American body such as SICA and that Colombia is a member of the Mesoamerican Project.

UBREGION	NAME OF REGIONAL HORIZONTAL SOUTH-SOUTH COOPERATION PROGRAM	ASSIGNED COD
ENTRAL AMERICA	Healthcare Human Resources Development Plan for Central America and the Dominican Republic	1.1
	Joint Medicine Procurement Program	1.2
	Regional Food and Nutritional Security Program for Central America (PRESANCA II)	1.3
	Regional Border Security Program for Central America and the Dominican Republic	1.4
IESOAMERICA	Mesoamerican Cooperation Program (Mexico axis)	2.1
	Mesoamerican Cooperation Program (Colombia axis)	2.2
NDES	Regional programs of the Andean Committee of Telecommunications Authorities (CAATEL)	3.1
OUTH AMERICA	Amazon Malaria Initiative (AMI)	4.1
	Program for Integrating Regional Infrastructures of the UNASUR countries	4.2
ATIN AMERICA	Regional Cooperative Agreement for the Advancement of Nuclear Science and Technology in Latin America (ARCAL-IAEA)	5.1
	Program to Transfer the SENAI model of Prospective Professional Training (CINTEFOR)	5.2
BERO-AMERICA	Support for Development of Ibero-American Archives (ADAI)	6.1
	IBERBIBLIOTECAS	б.2
	IBERMUSEOS	6.3
	IBERMÚSICAS	б.4
	IBERORQUESTAS JUVENILES	6.5
	IBERVIRTUAL	6.6
	Modernization of Justice and New Technologies	6.7
	Justice Observatory	6.8
	Ibero-American Literacy Plan (PIA)	6.9
	Ibero-American Network for International Legal Cooperation (IBERRED)	6.10
	Development Program to support the Performing Arts in Ibero-America (IBERESCENA)	6.11
	Training and Technology Transfer Program in End-to-End Management of Water Resources	6.12
	Pablo Neruda Academic Mobility Program	6.13
	Program to Combat Organized Crime	6.14
	Program in support of an American Audiovisual Space (IBERMEDIA)	6.15
	Ibero-American Program of Science and Technology for Development (CYTED)	6.16
	Ibero-American Program for Cooperation in Territorial Development (PROTERRITORIOS)	6.17
	Ibero-American Strategic Urban Development Program (CIDEU)	6.18
	Ibero-American Program of Development and Modernization of Professional Technical Education	6.19
	Ibero-American Program to Strengthen South-South Cooperation	6.20
	Ibero-American Program on Industrial Property and Development	6.21
	Ibero-American Program on the situation of Seniors in the region	6.22
	MERCOSUR-AECID Cooperation Program	6.23
	Network of Ibero-American Diplomatic Archives (RADI)	6.24
	Reform of Penitentiaries	6.25
	Ibero-America Educational Television (TEIB)	6.26
	Virtual Educa	6.27

Source: SEGIB, based on reporting from cooperation agencies and/or bureaus.

1

Table IV.2. Re	gional Horizontal South-South Cooperation projects. 2012.	
SUBREGION	NAME OF REGIONAL HORIZONTAL SOUTH-SOUTH COOPERATION PROJECT	ASSIGNED CODE
CENTRAL	Regional Academy of Search and Rescue in Emergencies	A.1
AMERICA	Systematization, instruments and tools for transferring and implementing the Small Business Development Centers (SBDC) model via the Centros de Desarrollo de Micro y Pequeñas Empresas (CDMYPE)	A.2
ANDES	Search for New Markets for Fruit and Vegetables (FPG)	B.1
	Exchange of Experiences on Opening up New Markets for Value-Added Products from Colombia, Ecuador and Peru	B.2
SOUTH AMERICA	Development of Mechanisms for Exporting Services in Free-Trade Zones in Colombia, Brazil and Peru	C.1
	Integrated and Sustainable Management of Cross-Border Water Resources in the Amazon River Basin Considering Climate Variability and Climate Change (GEF-Amazon Project)	C.2
	Quality control system for value-added products	С.з
LATIN AMERICA	Contribution by Higher Oversight Entity to Government Transparency	D.1
	Identification and selection of tomato cultivars resistant to the virosis complex transmitted by Bemisia Tabaci	D.2
	Project to improve competitiveness of Small and Medium Enterprises (Pacific Alliance)	D.3
	Network for Scientific Research into Climate Change (Pacific Alliance)	D.4
	Streamlining of the Gender Perspective in Public Health Policies	D.5
IBERO-AMERICA	Ibero-American Quality Project IBERQUALITAS/FUNDIBEQ	E.1

 $\textbf{Source:} \ \mathsf{SEGIB}, \ \mathsf{based} \ \mathsf{on} \ \mathsf{reporting} \ \mathsf{from} \ \mathsf{cooperation} \ \mathsf{agencies} \ \mathsf{and/or} \ \mathsf{bureaus}.$

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PROGRAM				IDEI					TIN															
SUBREGION	CODE	Mexico	Guatemala	Honduras	El Salvador	Nicaragua	Costa Rica	Panamá	Cuba	Republic	Colombia	Venezuela	Ecuador	Perú	Bolivia	Brazil	Paraguay	Uruguay	Argentina	Chile	Andorra	Spain	Portugal	OTHER COUNTRIES
ENTRAL	1.1																							
AMERICA	1.2																							
	1.3																							
	1.4																							Belize Belize
MESOAMERICA	2.1 2.2																							Belize, Australia, US
ANDES	3.1																							Delize, Australia, OS
				-																				Current Current LIC
SOUTH AMERICA	4.1			-																				Guyana, Suriname, US
	4.2 E 1			-																			-	Guyana, Suriname Haiti, Jamaica
LATIN AMERICA	5.1 5.2			-																				
	5.2 6.1			-																				Puerto Rico
BERO-AMERICA																								רטפונט אונט
	6.2																							
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IV.4.SECTORAL ANALYSIS OF REGIONAL HORIZONTAL SOUTH-SOUTH COOPERATION IN 2012

THE REGIONAL HORIZONTAL South-South Cooperation programs and project in which the Ibero-American countries participated in 2012 were aimed at strengthening capacities. Their sector profile was defined by the countries themselves, which identified common problems for which the best response was collective.

Graph IV.1 shows the sectors of activity (under the classification used in the preceding chapters) with which the programs and projects in 2012 were connected. In the first approach, both instruments were used to respond to problems related to strengthening governance and capacities on the part of Governments, and the area of Healthcare and Education. At the same time, however, countries opted for programs to cover needs in the areas of Culture and Science and Technology; and for projects to address more specific needs related to Business competitiveness, the Environment and Gender.

More specifically:

- a) Practically 40% of programs were aimed at strengthening Justice (classified under Government) and Culture. These were mainly programs for modernization of the justice sector, collaboration between justice systems, the fight against organized crime and the reform of penitentiaries; and for the promotion of the performing arts and management of museums, libraries and document archives. Their share is explained by the enormous importance of Ibero-American Cooperation programs (more than half) focused on these sectors, within the 38 programs registered in 2012. Cooperation in connection with border security in Central America and the Dominican Republic should also be added to this group.
- b) One out of four programs focused on strengthening the social areas of education and health. Notable in this respect were the Ibero-America program dedicated to virtual education, literacy and vocational training; one promoted by Brazil's SENAI and CINTEFOR-ILO in Central American in connection with a case of training; the Amazon Malaria Initiative; and Central American programs dedicated to strengthening human resources in public healthcare systems, the search for formulas for joint procurement of medicines, and food security.
- c) Additionally, programs designed to equip the countries of the region with greater scientific and technological capabilities and resources were also important in 2012. This referred basically to all cooperation conducted in Ibero-America and Latin American through programs such as CyTED, Industrial Property and Development, and the Regional Cooperative Agreement for the Advancement of Nuclear Science and Technology (ARCAL-IAEA).

- d) Beyond these specific themes, there were also some transversal issues that ran across several Regional Horizontal South-South Cooperation programs. In fact, many were biased towards strengthening public policies and applying progress in research, development and innovation. For example, there were cooperation programs for territory management, technology transfer for managing water resources, and modernization of education and justice. Additionally, there were three multisectoral programs that combined several lines of action. This was the case of the two Mesoamerican program (Mexico and Colombia axes) and Mercosur-AECID.
- e) As regards projects (Graph IV.1.B, built from Tables IV.2 and IV.4),³ the largest single category (one out of five), was aimed at strengthening business competitiveness in the region and assisting with insertion in the markets. Notable in this context were the Central American, South American and the Pacific Alliance project for the development and improvement of SME competitiveness, as well as those supporting the search for new markets for products (agricultural and value-added) from the Andean subregion.
- f) Meanwhile, there were numerous health-related projects but their profiles varied widely. Most of these projects responded to the action lines set out in the Mercosur-AECID and Mesoamerica (Mexico axis) programs (Table IV.4). On that basis, they addressed capacity building, ranging from cochlear implant training through diagnostic methodologies in emergency situations, to treating nervous system injuries in adults, to name a few.
- g) A curious pattern emerged in one-quarter of the Regional HSSC projects in 2012: support for Governments and the Environment. In both areas there was a shared concern relating to "management" issues: there were projects for better statistical handling; transferring methods for monitoring and evaluation; building environmental information systems; models for management of public procurement, and for oversight and transparency of governments. Some experiences were shaped particularly by the need for border action: for example, there were projects on *border governance* (Government) and management of *cross-border* water resources in the Amazon River Basin (Environment). In

^{3.} As set out in the methodology note in the chart, the project profile was estimated by taking into account the 13 projects registered individually (Table IV.2) and those implemented in the framework of multi-sectoral programs, such as MERCOSUR-AECID and Mesoamerica (Mexico axis), listed in Table IV.4.



PROGRAM	NAME OF REGIONAL HORIZONTAL SOUTH-SOUTH COOPERATION PROJECT
ARCAL-IAEA	Support for System and Process Automation at Nuclear Facilities
PROGRAM	Support for genetic improvement of underutilized plants and other important crops for sustainable agricultural development in rural communities, through radiation-induced mutagenesis
	Harmonization and validation of analytical methods for monitoring residues in food that pose a risk to human health
	Strengthening communication and strategic partnerships in countries to promote the use of nuclear applications
	Improving food crops in Latin America by induced mutation
MERCOSUR-AECID	Strengthening institutions and the gender perspective in MERCOSUR
PROGRAM	Institutional strengthening of gender equality policies in family farms in MERCOSUR
	Border governance: strengthening the capacities of departmental and local governments in MERCOSUR
	Sectoral and territorial integration of production in the framework of the Regional Observatory on Production Integration in MERCOSUR (ORPIP)
	Sharing experiences with the Model for Managing Public Procurement Policies with respect to Family Farms
	MERCOSUR Observatory of Health Systems (OMSS)
	Promotion of cooperative movements in the Southern Cone as instruments of social inclusion, creation of decent work and as actors of development and deepening of the MERCOSUR
	Mercosur Environmental Information System (SIAM)
MESOAMERICAN	Update on prevention and rehabilitation of disability focused on the new health challenges
COOPERATION PROGRAM	Supporting institutional capacity of Central American countries in diagnosis as well as in response to health emergencies
(MEXICO AXIS)	Consulting for the creation or strengthening of distance education centers in Mesoamerica
	Development of institutional capacities on the part of Mesoamerican governments for monitoring and evaluating implementation of the MDGs
	Cochlear Implant Training
	Training human resources in the Mesoamerican countries on civil defense and integrated management of risks associated with disaster
	Leadership training project in CNCDs
	Training human resources in statistics
	Strengthening Fisheries Management and Development in Central America (FODEPESCA)
	Central and Peripheral Nervous System injuries in Adults
	Climate prospects in Mesoamerica, and applications
	ANUIES-CSUCA academic exchange project
	Integral Project in Inclusive Education in Mesoamerica
	Mesoamerican Network of Biotic Resources

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fact, a problem such as climate change (which does not respect borders and which can only be addressed effectively on a collective basis) is present in several of the projects that were registered (in C.2 and D.4 and one under the Mesoamerican–Mexico axis).

 h) Also notable were some projects in the areas of education (to guarantee inclusion, access to distance education and academic exchanges), and, especially, those aimed at making gender equality a transversal issue. In this specific case, there were projects to extend this perspective into public health policies in Latin America, strengthen the institutionalization of Mercosur and incorporate it into family agriculture in the MERCOSUR countries. In relation to the latter experience, agricultural stood out not so much as a sector of Regional HSSC (although there are projects, especially in the phytosanitary area) but, rather, as an "object" addressed by projects. In this connection, there were projects for gender mainstreaming projects, public procurement RFPs to family farms, and promoting SMEs linked to family farming.However, the most striking cases were undoubtedly the projects under the ARCAL-IAEA Program for the Advancement of Nuclear Science and Technology (Table IV.4)⁴ under which nuclear analytical techniques and methods were transferred for application in crop improvement, plant health and sustainable agriculture.

^{4.} These projects are included in the top part of Table IV.4. However, they were not included when identifying the projects' sector profile since they belong to a program, ARCAL-IAEA, that is very clearly defined in sectoral terms (Science and Technology) and was already included in the identifying the Program profile.

IV.5. COUNTRIES AND REGIONAL BODIES: PARTICIPATION FORMULAS

WHEN ADDRESSING REGIONAL Horizontal South-South Cooperation, the *Reports on South-South Cooperation in Ibero-America* have reiterated one idea: it is a form of cooperation that requires the participation of several countries, but not necessarily of a regional body. In fact, the 2012 edition of the Report contained a figure (reproduced here as Diagram IV.2) that tried to illustrate this idea with intersecting ovals: it suggested that not all cooperation involving those bodies (areas C + A) is Regional Horizontal South-South Cooperation (A only), in the same way that there can be Regional Horizontal South-South Cooperation (A + B) that does not involve such bodies (B).

Similarly, the definitions of Regional Horizontal South-South Cooperation used in past reports assume (even explicitly, in the case of the definition that prevailed until March 2013) the possibility that the regional authorities may participate in this form of cooperation by for endowing it with an institutional framework. However, this is a "possibility", not a "condition", in contrast with the requirement that at least three developing countries participate (see Diagram IV.1 in section IV.2).

Consequently, it was considered of interest to identify the way in which both countries and regional bodies (and other intergovernmental bodies) participated in Regional Hori-

zontal South-South Cooperation: when they were involved, through whom, and with what formulas for combined action. Tables IV.5 (in this section) and A.5 (in the Annex) were drawn up for this purpose. For each of the programs and projects, respectively, that were implemented in 2012, they detail which actors (national and/or local) participated in representation of the Ibero-American countries; which did so on behalf of other partner countries; and which as part of the regional body.

It can be concluded that:

a) The actor necessarily present in the Regional Horizontal South-South Cooperation programs and projects was the national authority, institution, or sectoral body representing the participating country. Tables IV.5 and A.5 offer numerous examples. To name a few: health ministries and related institutions participated in Central American health programs; immigration offices and authorities participated in projects on border security; teaching institutions and education ministries participated in CINTEFOR-ILO and in modernizing technical education; and institutions related to the performing arts, cinema and audiovisual media participated in Ibero-American programs such as Ibermedia and Iberescena.



b) However, there were two different formats for participation by these sectoral authorities: "individual", i.e. at country level; and/or "group", i.e. where counterparty institutions from the country participated via another actor, which tended to be the council, association, forum or ministerial meeting, among others. For example:

 In the projects under the Mesoamerican programs, and those registered for South America, in those under the CINTEFOR-ILO program and in some belonging to the Ibero-American space in the areas of Justice, Science & Technology and Diplomatic archives, the sectoral institutions participated without having to integrate into or form part of another "supranational" actor.

• Meanwhile, for example, the ministries and sectoral institutes that participated in Programs 1.1, 1.2 and 1.3 on health and nutrition under Central American cooperation were organized around CISSCAD (Council of Social Security Institutes of Central America and the Dominican Republic) and COMISCA (Council of Central American Ministers of Health); in 1.3 about food security, they were organized around the CAC (Central American Agriculture Council); and in 1.4, focused on strengthening border security, around OCAM (Central American Commission of Migration Directors).

- c) Also, as shown in Tables IV.4 and A.5, some (but not all) of these new actors depended on and/or formed an organic part of regional or even international bodies. This is the case, for example, with all the aforementioned South American actors (which belong to the SICA framework), and with others not mentioned but which responded to the same logic (including CAATEL–Andean Committee of Telecommunications Authorities, – with respect to CAN, and the Communications Working Group of COSIPLAN–South American Council of Infrastructure and Planning–for UNASUR).
- d) Other representatives of countries that made a sporadic appearance in the various Regional Horizontal South-South Cooperation programs and projects were the Minis-

tries of Foreign Affairs and the Cooperation Agencies and Bureaus. They played a significant role in such programs as the Mesoamerican program (in which the Mexican and Colombian agencies participated); in some Ibero-American programs (where the Spanish agency played an active role); and in projects registered in the Andean and South American subregion, where the APCI (Peruvian Agency for International Cooperation) played a notable role.

- e) Still in the area of country-level representatives, some programs and projects, by their nature, required the participation of local actors. This is the case of the Central American programs on food security and border security, of the Ibero-American Strategic Urban Development Program (CIDEU) and the South American project to develop mechanisms for exporting services in freetrade zones, which involved groups of municipalities, individual municipalities and mayors' offices.
- f) There were also programs and projects in which regional bodies, this time through the general secretariats, played a decisive role, since on them depended the provision of an institutional framework and/or rules for working together in Regional Horizontal South-South Cooperation. This occurred in the Mesoamerican programs (with SICA); the Ibero-American program (with SEGIB, OEI, OISS and COMJIB, depending on the case); some of the Central American and Andean programs (with the WHO and PAHO); and in projects led by Peru under the Perez Guerrero Trust Fund (PGTF) of the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP).
- g) Finally, the map of actors is completed with representatives of other Latin American countries that participated in programs and projects under Regional HSSC. This was the case generally of cooperation agencies (those of Germany, Australia, the US and Switzerland), which played the role of financier; and of specialized technical support institutions (e.g. participation by the US Centers for Disease Control and Prevention in the Amazon Malaria Initiative).
| PROGRAM | | BODIES AND INSTITUTIONS THAT PARTICIPATED IN THE PROGRAMS, CLASSIFIED DEPENDING
ON WHETHER THEY REPRESENTED | | | | | | | |
|--------------------|------|--|--|---|--|----------------------------|--|--|--|
| | | | | IBERO-AMERICAN COUNTRIES | | | | | |
| | CODE | REGIONAL AND/OR
INTERNATIONAL
BODIES | OTHER
PARTNER
COUNTRIES | AT NATIONAL LEVEL | | | | | |
| SUBREGION | | | | Institutions | Where grouped,
specify the new
body* | What body it
reports to | AT LOCAL LEVI | | |
| Central
America | 1.1 | WHO/PAHO | | Health, social security,
water and sanitation
institutes | • RESSCAD; CISSCAD | • SICA | | | |
| | 1.2 | | | Social Security
institutes Health ministries | • CISSCAD; COMISCA | • SICA | | | |
| | 1.3 | | | Nutrition institutions Agriculture ministries Social Security
institutes Health ministries | INCAP, CAC,
OSPESCA, CISSCAD,
COMISCA | • SICA | Groupings of
municipalities Regional
municipalities | | |
| | 1.4 | EU | | Migration
departments Migration and
Customs offices | • OCAM | • OCAM | Frontier
municipal
governments | | |
| | | | | Border police
authorities | Commission of
Central American
Police Chiefs Interpol Regional
Office for Central
America | | | | |
| Mesoamerica | 2.1 | SICA (General
Secretariat) | | Cooperation agency
(AMEXCID) Ministries of foreign
affairs Institutions of the 6
priority sectors | | | | | |
| | 2.2 | SICA (General
Secretariat); CAF | Cooperation
agencies
(AUSAID,
USAID) | Cooperation agency
(APC) Ministries of foreign
affairs Institutions of the
priority sectors | | | | | |
| Andes | 3.1 | | | Telecommunications
regulators | • CAATEL | • CAN | | | |
| South America | 4.1 | WHO/PAHO | Cooperation
agencies
(USAID);
Centers for
Disease
Control and
Prevention
(UASA) | • Ministries of public
health | • RAVREDA | • PAHO/AMI | | | |
| | 4.2 | | | Ministries of
infrastructure
planning (in charge of
telecommunications) | Telecommunications
working groups, as
part of COSIPLAN | • UNASUR | | | |

Table IV.5. Map of the actors that participated in Regional HSSC programs in representation of a country and/or regional body. 2012.

PROGRAM		BODIES AND INSTITUTIONS THAT PARTICIPATED IN THE PROGRAMS, CLASSIFIED DEPENDING ON WHETHER THEY REPRESENTED							
				IBERO-AMERICAN COUNTRIES					
SUBREGION	CODE	REGIONAL AND/OR INTERNATIONAL BODIES	OTHER PARTNER COUNTRIES	A					
				Institutions	Where grouped, specify the new body*	What body it reports to	AT LOCAL LEVE		
Latin America	5.1	IAEA (coordinator of regional projects in the Latin American section)		Nuclear institutions					
	5.2	CINTEFOR/ILO		 Institutions in charge of learning and professional training 					
Ibero America	6.1			 Representatives in the area of archives 					
	б.2	SEGIB		 Culture ministries and secretariats 	CERLALC	UNESCO			
				 Libraries Organizations and foundations Universities and research centers 					
	6.3	SEGIB; OEI		 Museology institutions Brazilian Museums Institute (IBRAM) Cooperation agency (AECID) 					
	6.4	SEGIB		 Music authorities 					
	6.5	SEGIB		 Designated sectoral authorities 					
	6.6			 Universities 	AIESAD				
	6.7	СОМЈІВ		 Justice ministries Cooperation agency (AECID) 					
	6.8			 Justice ministries Judges and prosecutors 					
	6.9	SEGIB, OEI, Organization of the Andrés Bello Agreement		Education ministries					
	6.10	СОМЈІВ		 Justice ministries Public prosecutors 	 Ibero-American Judicial Summit Ibero-American Association of Public Prosecutors 	Ibero-American Conference			
	6.11	SEGIB		 Performing arts authorities 					
	6.12			Water management bodies	Conference of Ibero- American Water Managers	Ibero-American Conference			
	6.13	SEGIB, OEI		 Higher education institutions 	CUIB				

Table IV.5. Map of the actors that participated in Regional HSSC programs in representation of a country and/or regional body. 2012. (Continued).

PROGRAM		BODIES AND INSTITUTIONS THAT PARTICIPATED IN THE PROGRAMS, CLASSIFIED DEPENDING ON WHETHER THEY REPRESENTED						
				IBERO-AMERICAN COUNTRIES				
		REGIONAL AND/OR INTERNATIONAL BODIES	OTHER PARTNER COUNTRIES	AT NATIONAL LEVEL			_	
SUBREGION	CODE			Institutions	Where grouped, specify the new body*	What body it reports to	AT LOCAL LEVE	
Ibero America	6.14	сомјів		 Justice ministries 				
	6.15			 Cinema institutes and audiovisual representatives 				
	6.16			 Bodies responsible for science and technology policy 				
	6.17	SEGIB		 Territorial representatives 				
	6.18	SEGIB					Mayors' offices	
	6.19	OEI		 Education ministries Cooperation agency (AECID) 				
	6.20	SEGIB		 Cooperation agencies and bureaus 				
	6.21			 Ministries in charge of industrial property 	• Ministers' Forum	Ibero-American Conference		
	6.22	SEGIB; OISS		 Social Security institutions 				
	6.23			Sector representatives Foreign ministries Cooperation agencies and bureaus Cooperation agency (AECID)	 Ministerial conferences Work groups and subgroups 	MERCOSUR		
	6.24			 Heads of historical archives at ministries 				
	6.25	сомјів		Justice ministries				
	6.26			 Education and culture ministries Universities, Institutes, TV channels, etc. 				
	6.27	SEGIB, OEA		Education ministries				

Table IV.5. Map of the actors that participated in Regional HSSC programs in representation of a country and/or regional body. 2012. (Continued).

* Acronyms (in order of appearance): RESSCAD (Meeting of the Healthcare Sector of Central America and the Dominican Republic); CISSCAD (Council of Social Security Institutes of Central America and the Dominican Republic); COMISCA (Council of Central American Ministers of Health); INCAP (Nutrition Institute of Central America and Panama); CAC (Central American Agriculture Council); DSPESCA (Organization of the Fisheries and Aquaculture Sector of Central America); OCAM (Central American Commission of Migration Directors); RAVREDA (Amazon Network for the Surveillance of Antimalarial Drug Resistance); CAATEL (Andean Committee of Telecommunications Authorities); COSIPLAN (South American Council of Infrastructure and Planning); CERLALC (Regional Centre for Book Development in Latin America and the Caribbean); AIESAD (American Association of Higher Distance Education); CUIB (Iberoamerican University Council).

Source: SEGIB, based on reporting from cooperation agencies and/or bureaus.

IV.6. INSTITUTIONAL MECHANISMS REGULATING THIS TYPE OF COOPERATION

AS NOTED IN EARLIER sections of this chapter, the exercise to reformulate the concept of Regional Horizontal South-South Cooperation consisted mainly of establishing a new hierarchy of elements or traits that define it. Specifically, two of these features were categorized as decisive: the existence of a regional objective that is shared and agreed by all; and the need to implement this form of cooperation in accordance with the patterns established in an institutional mechanism formalized by all participants.

Understood in terms of the scheme that regulates the relationship between partners⁵, the institutional mechanism defines many of the functional aspects of the Regional HSSC: among others, those relating to how both the object of cooperation and the instrument of execution are decided upon and managed; the establishment of procedures through which the project or program is identified, requested and approved; how the implementation, completion, monitoring and evaluation phases are developed; and all matters relating to budgeting and administration of resources.

For a first approximation to the features of the institutional arrangements that accompanied Regional HSSC in 2012, we need to know more about:

- The legal instruments around which these mechanisms were established.
- b) The **organizational structure** that was created to make this form of cooperation operational.
- c) The way in which some specific aspects, such as the request, approval, monitoring and evaluation of programs, were regulated and how they were financed.

Since the information available is not incomplete (i.e. it does not cover all programs and projects that are on record), the lessons to be drawn will be neither conclusive nor fully representative of the situation of Regional Horizontal South-South Cooperation in Ibero-America. In this regard, it should be noted that the bulk of the information comes from three case studies: Ibero-America Cooperation (Summit);⁵ the Mesoamerican Program (Mexico axis) Programs;⁷ and the Mercosur-AECID program.⁸

IV.6.1. LEGAL INSTRUMENTS

The regulatory framework that accompanied Regional Horizontal South-South Cooperation was organized around a set of **legal instruments** of varying nature and nomenclature, including notably agreements, conventions, frameworks for action and protocols for execution, to name a few. Nevertheless, the principal features is that most programs and projects depended simultaneously on a combination of several legal instruments and, among these, there was a hierarchical relationship usually determined by two questions:

- The level of detail associated with the regulated object or aspect (from higher to lower importance, from the general to the specific, and from more strategic to more operational).
- b) Sometimes (but not always), the political rank of the persons who signed the documents that supported these instruments (in this case, ranging from the Heads of State and Government to representatives of governmental institutions).

To illustrate this, Diagram IV.3 shows the legal instruments created to regulate cooperation under the Mesoamerican Program (Mexico axis). Thus, from the general to the specific, in chronological order of appearance, the diagram highlights four instruments regulating Mesoamerican cooperation: the *Tuxtla Mechanism for Dialogue and Cooperation* (dating from 1996); the *Memorandum of Understanding* (MOU) between the Technical Secretariat of the Mexican Commission for Cooperation with Central America (ST-CMC-CA) and the General Secretariat of SICA (SG-SICA) (2000);

8. Program 6.23 in Table IV.1.

^{5.} As noted in the 2012 Report, the "institutional dimension" is that which "is composed of recognizable patterns of interaction within small groups" (Bartle) or, in the words of Charlin (1985), that which "adds regulatory elements to a relationship" (http:// cec.vcn.bc.ca/mpfc/modules/dim-inss.htm) (SEGIB, 2012).

^{6.} Two types of cooperation programs arise in the context of the Ibero-American Conference: firstly, those that, as a set of projects, respond to lines of action or work by sectoral agencies (such as COMJIB, the OISS and OEI); secondly, there are Ibero-American (or Summit) Programs, approved by the highest political authorities of the participating countries at Summits of Heads of State and Government. Programs 6.1 to 6.6, 6.9, 6.11 to 6.13, 6.15 to 6.18, 6.20 to 6.22, 6.24, 6.26 and 6.27 in Table IV.1 are in this category. The distinction is important because the two types of programs are governed by different legal instruments and different organizational and operating procedures.

^{7.} Program 2.1 in Table IV.1.



Source: SEGIB, based on reporting from cooperation agencies and/or bureaus, Cairo & Rocha (2007), and official documents from the Tuxtla summits.

the Framework for the Implementation and Administration of the Mesoamerican Cooperation Program (2005); and the Protocol for the Implementation and Administration of the Program (2011).

This diagram suggests that:

a) The Tuxtla Mechanism for Dialogue and Cooperation was agreed upon by the region's Heads of State in 1996. Its entry into force established the framework within which to approve a Mesoamerican Cooperation Program every two years.⁹ Through this mechanism, the outline and the Action Plan for each program were established. It was also established that each of these Programs would reflect the countries' concerns, expressed first in sectoral meetings of the various public institutions and elevated subsequently to higher echelons through the Regional Cooperation Subcommission, the High Commission and the Meeting of Foreign Ministers, ultimately reaching the Summit of Heads of State.

b) The other instruments (MOU, Reference Framework, and Implementation Protocol) were also approved at successive Summits of Heads of State (Tuxtla, 2000;, Tegucigalpa, 2005; Cartagena, 2010) but were not necessarily signed by them (e.g. the MoU was signed by the Technical and General Secretariats, respectively, of the Mexican Commission for Cooperation with Central America and SICA). Their goal was to regulate matters on a much more operational plane, addressing issues such as project coordination, management, administra-

^{9.} As indicated by the note in Diagram IV.3, there have been eight biennial programs between the first *Mexico-Central America Regional Cooperation Program 1998-2000* and the current *Meso-american Cooperation Program 2013-2104*.

tion, monitoring and evaluation, and burden sharing by participants.

The Ibero-American Programs followed a similar pattern, where the institutional arrangements conformed mainly to the following instruments: the *Bariloche Convention*, promoted by the Heads of State and Government at the Bariloche Summit in 1995; the *Operating Manual for Ibero-American Cooperation* (whose most recent version was discussed by the Heads of Cooperation and approved by the Presidents at the Mar del Plata Summit in 2010); a *Formula-tion Document* and a specific *Regulation* for each program (depending on the year of approval of the program in question). Specifically:

- a) The Bariloche Convention, established specifically to meet the "the need to establish an institutional framework to regulate cooperation within the framework of the summit meetings of the Ibero-American Conference" (Convention, 1995, p.1), set out the conditions and general requirements for creating a Cooperation Program.
- b) The other instruments regulated more operational aspects concerning the mechanisms of consultation and decision-making for the Programs; their organizational structure; their lines of action and forms of implementation; the patterns for resource management, and for monitoring and evaluating execution; and all aspects relating to formalizing their approval and completion, to name a few.

IV.6.2. GOVERNANCE AND MANAGEMENT BODIES

In order for Regional Horizontal South-South Cooperation to be really operational on the basis of the the institutional arrangements, it is necessary to equip the programs and projects with **governance and management bodies**. These are functional actors, which are vital either for decision-making or for actually executing the cooperation. This can be illustrated with some examples:

- The Mesoamerican Program (Mexico axis) is organised around an Executive Committee comprising the Presidential Commissioners appointed by each country. Its main function is to coordinate and oversee projects and actions that are undertaken.
- b) In order to execute cooperation approved under the Mercosur-AECID program, it is possible to designate and/or hire a Management Unit to take charge of the operational aspects. Also, the specialized Ministerial Meeting associated with each project may constitute a Technical-Political Committee to ensure oversight.¹⁰

c) Finally, the Ibero-American Cooperation Operating Man*ual* requires that each program is necessarily structured around the following bodies: a decision-making body, called the Intergovernmental Committee (IC), comprising officials appointed by the countries in the Program; and an implementing body, the Technical Unit/Secretariat, composed of personnel hired by IC decision. The IC's main functions include discussing and approving the strategic lines of the Program, the Operating Plan and the Annual Budget; deciding on the location of the headquarters of the Technical Unit; and guiding relationships with other bodies and partners. Meanwhile, the TU is responsible for more functional aspects, such as coordinating day-to-day work under the program, drawing up reports to facilitate decision-making by the IC; and resource management, to name a few.

The organizational structure of an Ibero-American Program does not end there; the Manual allows each IC to decide whether or not to rely on an Executive Committee (consisting of 3 to 5 members of the IC) and a President or Executive Secretary, a position that rotates among the members of the IC, at the decision of the IC itself. His/her functions include convening and directing meetings of the Intergovernmental Committee and monitoring the TU and providing technical and logistics support (SEGIB, 2010).

IV.6.3. REGULATING PROCESSES

As noted above, the institutional arrangements govern a wide range of aspects of the relationships and operational procedures of Regional Horizontal South-South Cooperation. Certain aspects of how some phases of managing programs and projects under this form of cooperation are regulated are described below.

a) Processes of requesting, approving and formalizing cooperation. The identification of a problem and the request for a solution through a Regional HSSC program or project generally depends on sectoral institutions in the participating countries. They generally do this through forums or ministerial meetings (for all three reference experiences-Ibero-American Programs, Mesoamerican (Mexico axis) and Mercosur-Aecid)- or through boards and commissions (very common in Central America). Occasionally, regional bodies (e.g. Ibero-American bodies) join the request; less often, the process is headed by a body (IAEA in the ARCAL programs and CINTEFOR in vocational training programs for Latin America) and/ or a country (Brazil's role, through SENAI, in CINTEFOR).

Once the request has been approved, the formalization process tends to depend on higher political echelons, whether sectoral institutions (most Central American programs tend to be signed by the boards and commissions into which the sectors are organized) or the Heads of State and Government (particularly Ibero-American

^{10.} Table IV.2 details the role of these Ministerial Meetings in projects implemented under the Mercosur-Aecid Program.



Source: SEGIB, based on Bariloche Convention (1995) and the Ibero-American Cooperation Operating Manual (2010).

Summit Programs and the Mesoamerican programs– Mexico axis). Occasionally, the Cooperation Agencies directly involved are also signatories (e.g. the Spanish agency in the Mercosur-Aecid program, and Colombia's APC in the Mesoamerican Program–Colombia axis in this case).

Diagram IV.4 illustrates a complete cycle of request, approval and execution of a Regional Horizontal South-South Cooperation, such as Ibero-American projects, as established in the Bariloche Convention and the Operating Manual. The Diagram shows separately the steps that precede a Summit of Heads of State and Government (the natural venue for approval and formalization) and during a Summit. For each of the steps, it shows the actors that are directly involved (Ibero-American bodies, representatives of governments and highest political authorities). In short, prior to a Summit, the countries identify and present their proposal, evaluate it and express their commitment; during the Summit, SEGIB and the Temporary Secretariat elevate the Program Document and Letters of Accession to the successive instances (Ibero-American Cooperation Heads, Foreign Ministers and Heads of State and Government). Once all these stages have been completed, the proposal is approved, signed and enshrined in a paragraph of the Summit Action Plan.

- b) Implementation is undoubtedly the phase of a Regional Horizontal South-South Cooperation program and/or project in which the sectoral representatives of the countries participate most actively and directly, or at least the one where they tend to participate alone. Cases where the regional body works alongside the countries, either supervising (e.g. WHO/PAHO in some Central American programs) or providing technical assistance (COMJIB, OEI and OISS, in programs in their areas of action), are less frequent.
- c) As for the process of oversight and evaluation of Regional South-South cooperation, there is a wide range of formulas but, in contrast with the execution phase, regional and even international bodies tend to take precedence over individual countries in this case. For example, SEGIB is in charge of monitoring and evaluating Ibero-American (Summit) Programs; bodies such as COMJIB and the OEI oversee other programs related to the Ibero-American Conference that are not Summit Programs; the WHO and PAHO oversee the Amazon Malaria Initiative; and the ARCAL program is overseen by the IAEA. Another common formula is to establish consultation mechanisms internally in the programs and projects, as in the case of the Mercosur-Aecid Program (a framework in which the sectors, through the Ministerial Meetings, the Management Units and AE-CID regularly track the projects) and the Mesoamerican Program (where a body within the structure, the Executive Committee, is responsible for monitoring and evaluation).

Box IV.2 summarizes the way in which all phases of the process may be regulated. It refers to a specific experience: two projects implemented under the Mercosur-AECID Program. It provides an overview of the patterns followed by any project from the point of request and approval up to execution and final evaluation. The process is described for two specific projects: Institutional Strengthening and Gender Perspective in Mercosur; and Establishment of an Environmental Information System in Mercosur. It details the actors and their functions in each phase of a Regional HSSC project.

IV.6.4. FUNDING

Guidelines for funding Regional Horizontal South-South Cooperation programs and projects are established through the various institutional mechanisms. The rules apply to a range of aspects, most notably: the sources of funding; and the designation of the parties in charge of making decisions and administering the funds.

Diagram IV.5 illustrates the three main forms of funding Regional Horizontal South-South Cooperation:

- Contributions (generally borne by the sectoral institutions of the countries participating in the program or project in question).
- b) Other contributions, from regional or international bodies, and from other (non-Ibero-American) partner or donor countries.
- c) Creation of a Regional Cooperation Fund.

These different avenues can be illustrated with examples. However, most programs and projects are funded with a combination of these formulas:

- a) Programs and projects promoted in the Andean and Central American subregions generally obtain contributions from other countries or bodies, such as the Swiss Agency, WHO/PAHO and the European Union, in addition to the contributions from participating countries through their sectoral institutions and/or the councils and committees to which they belong.
- b) Mesoamerican Programs (both Mexico and Colombia axis) are financed mainly through Cooperation Funds constituted by the Mexican and Colombian agencies (specifically, the AMEXCID Fund and FOCAI, the Colombian International Cooperation and Assistance Fund, respectively). Funding for the projects promoted in this framework may also be provided in kind, in the form of logistical and/or technical support, by other participating countries.
- c) Also, the ARCAL program for Latin America resorted to establishing a Regional Cooperation Fund which obtained funding from other countries in the region and the IAEA.

BOX IV.2.

Approval and management of projects in the MERCOSUR-AECID Cooperation Program: examples

IN 2008, MERCOSUR and the Spanish Agency for Development Cooperation (AECID) signed a Memorandum of Understanding (MoU) to regulate the cooperation relations that had existed between them for some time. This led to a Cooperation Program with financial support from Spain, designed to support projects to strengthen MERCOSUR institutions, promote regional development and enhance social cohesion between Member States. Furthermore, in accordance with the sectoral priorities of each of the parties, the program envisaged six lines of work: Institutional Strengthening, Gender, Environment, Productive integration, Local, rural and border Development, and Health.

The Memorandum of Understanding governs the management and execution of each of the projects to be undertaken under the aegis of this Program. The processes to be followed in each phase of the project are established, and the type of actor and/or body to participate in each phase is designated. The graphic reproduced in this box indicates that:

- The identification of the needs to be addressed should come from national consultations conducted by working groups and specialized meetings held within the framework of MERCOSUR; those groups and meetings involve national sector institutions in the member countries.
- The proposed project profile that emerges from these levels is elevated for dual assessment and approval: in MERCOSUR, first with the International Cooperation Group (ICG, called Technical Cooperation Committee until 2012), and secondly with the Common Market Group (CMG) (an executive body of MERCOSUR composed of the Ministries of Foreign Affairs); and, then, with Spain, where AECID validates and authorizes the disbursement of committed funds.
- Following approval by both parties, the activities performed in the project must conform to the Operational Plan (Annual and General) that was negotiated, formulated and agreed upon by Mercosur and AECID. Furthermore, a mechanism is established for regular consultations between the two institutions on all aspects of project implementation and, in particular, the monitoring and evaluation activities.
- Finally, although each project can conform to the mode determined in each case, a project management unit may be appointed and/or hired.

To illustrate the procedure, two experiences with projects executed in this framework in 2012 are described below: the first relates to Gender, the second to the Environment.

Case 1. Project for Institutional Strengthening and Gender Perspective in MERCOSUR

- The MERCOSUR Meeting of Ministers and High Authorities of Women (RMAAM) (formerly Special Meeting on Women–REM), consisting of representatives of the mechanisms for women and/or foreign ministries of each of the Member States, probed the countries' needs with regard to priority work at regional level. Guided by discussions held by its Working Groups (WG) (domestic violence, human trafficking, and political participation of women), the RMAAM developed an initial proposal for the project profile.
- This proposal was submitted to the MERCOSUR International Cooperation Group (ICG) and approved by the Common Market Group (CMG). Subsequently, the proposal was submitted to AECID, which evaluated and approved it, and then cleared the payment of the funds.
- When implementing the project, RMAAM constituted an internal Political-Technical Committee for oversight purposes. In parallel, a Management Unit was engaged to coordinate implementation and execution of the project.
- Oversight was exercised by the project Management Unit, the RMAAM (represented by a general coordinator and an administrative assistant) and AECID directly. The adjustments to be made on the basis of the oversight results depend on the decisions taken AECID and the CMG at meetings generally held every six months.
- Finally, an external assessment is performed once the project has concluded.

Case 2. Establishment of an Environmental Information System in MERCOSUR

- Environment Task Force No. 6 (SGT-6), consisting of representatives of the Environment Ministries and Agencies of all Member States, identified each country's priorities as regards regional-level work.
- Then, SGT-6 developed an initial proposal for a project profile which was submitted for initial approval to the International Cooperation Group and, for final approval, to the Common Market Group formed around the foreign ministers.



- Project management was entrusted to technical and administrative staff hired for this purpose.
- The Project Management Unit, with SGT-6 and AECID, periodically monitored and evaluated the project. To make decisions based on emerging find-
- Once again, an external assessment is performed once the project has concluded.

Source: SEGIB, based on reporting from cooperation agencies and/or bureaus and AECID (2010).



Source: SEGIB, based on reporting from cooperation agencies and/or bureaus.

d) Meanwhile, for Summit Programs, the Operating Manual for Ibero-American Cooperation establishes the possibility of funding via country contributions (financial or in kind, possibly subject to appraisal); voluntary contributions by member countries (an avenue commonly used by Spain through the establishment of voluntary funds); and from international cooperation or other sources. For the majority of programs that receive nonrefundable funding (e.g. Ibermedia and Iberescena)," the Manual recommends the establishment of a fund with contributions tailored to each country's ability to contribute. Note that decisions about budget execution and resource allocation, and the consequent administration, tend to fall on the bodies that, within cooperation programs and projects, are responsible for decision-making and management, respectively. For example, in the Mercosur-Aecid Program, decisions are made in consultation bodies established between the two institutions, while money is administered by the Management Unit. Analogously, as already mentioned, in Ibero-American Programs, the Intergovernmental Committee decides how funds are allocated and is in charge of approving the budget, while the Technical Unit manages the resources.

Ibero-American Programs can be divided into two large groups: those that engage in technical activities only; and those that may also offer aid for projects and/or cover part of the costs of national plans (SEGIB, 2010).



IBERO-AMERICA IN OFFICIAL DEVELOPMENT ASSISTANCE (ODA)

V.1. THE ECONOMIC CRISIS AND OFFICIAL DEVELOPMENT ASSISTANCE (ODA)

FROM THE BEGINNING of the 21st century, analysis of cooperation and of its primary financial instrument, Official Development Assistance (ODA), was based on three main issues:

- a) The possibility that such assistance would help achieve, by 2015, the United Nations Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) established in 2000;
- b) The international community's degree of compliance with the funding commitments made at the Monterrey (2002) and Doha (2008) summits with respect to those MDGs;
- c) Options to improve the quality and effectiveness of Assistance, which was a primary focus of the High Level Fora held in Rome (2003) and Busan (2011).

Concerns about these issues persist; however, as from 2008, a new factor reshaped the picture of Official Development Assistance flows: the impact of a global financial and economic crisis which was especially serious in donor countries. As expected, the main concern is how this will affect ODA. For example, the World Bank sponsored a study¹ to identify historical patterns of ODA flows in a post-global financial crisis context and establish projections for the current situation. An econometric analysis of the impact of the crisis in the 1980s and 1990s on 24 donor countries between 1977 and 2008 established a medium-term estimate that, after a global financial crisis, ODA from those donors may decline, in equivalent proportions, by between one-fifth and one-quarter of their pre-crisis value.²

The study highlighted fiscal adjustments, donors' standards response to this type of crisis, as the primary connection between the crisis and the decline in ODA. Additionally, the adjustment was identified as the reason for the prolonged stagnation in aid over time. On the other hand, and analyzing the results based on the current situation, the World Bank expressed concern about what might happen with the ODA of certain donors which ranked in the top positions in 2008, such as the United States (#1), United Kingdom (#3) and Spain (#7). However, concerns about the impact of the crisis on global ODA go beyond the possibility that the amount may decline (RACI, 2012). Since the latest crisis began, the focus has also shifted to other aspects, such as the potential revisions of pre-existing commitments and changes in the strategic, sectoral and geographical priorities of some donors, a factor which may substantially alter the structures of ODA donors and recipients.

Given this scenario, this chapter analyses Official Development Assistance in which Ibero-America participated between 2000 and 2012 (the last year for which data is available), focusing especially on changes and turning points as from 2008. The analysis is based on a dual perspective: flows of global ODA to recipients in the region, and exchanges of assistance within Ibero-America, and especially from Spain, Portugal and Andorra to other partners. This chapter concludes with a section devoted to ODA involving another sub-region of interest: Haiti and the rest of the non-Ibero-American Caribbean.

This chapter uses two main sources of data: statistics from the Development Assistance Committee (DAC) of the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) (http://stats.oecd.org/), and reports from the cooperation agencies and/or bureaus in Ibero-American countries.

^{1.} Dang, Knack and Rogers (2010).

More specifically, the study found that, five years after a banking crisis, a donor country affected by the crisis tended to have reduced its ODA by 17% and that, after about 10-11 years, this decrease reached 24% (Dang, Knack and Rogers, 2010).

V.2. IBERO-AMERICA IN GLOBAL OFFICIAL DEVELOPMENT ASSISTANCE (ODA)

THIS SECTION offers an overview of global Official Development Assistance (ODA) between 2000 and 2012 in Ibero-American countries still classified as recipients (currently the nineteen which also comprise Latin America).³ Specifically, it analyses the trends in that ODA and contrasts it with the global flows aimed at developing countries as a whole. Then it identifies the main donors and recipients in the region, highlights the changes in their structures between 2000, 2008 and 2012, and interprets the results.

V.2.1. TRENDS IN OFFICIAL DEVELOPMENT ASSISTANCE (2000-2012)

The lower line in Graph V.1.A tracks the trend in ODA from all donors to Ibero-America between 2000 and 2012. During that period, ODA in the region practically doubled: from US\$3.237 billion in 2000 to US\$6.215 billion in 2012. However, there was a change in trend, potentially due to the start of the crisis in 2008: the average growth rate went from a notable 9.4% between 2000 and 2008 to a significantly lower rate of 2.8% between 2009 and 2012. Nevertheless, the second average growth rate conceals very disparate performance: in 2009, 2010 and 2012, global ODA to Ibero-America registered increasingly intense declines, of 1.8%, 3.6% and 13.1%, respectively; however, this negative trend (in line with the crisis) was offset by the enormous, abnormal growth rate of 29.9% registered in 2011. That last figure explains why ODA in 2011 surprisingly reached a record high of US\$7.152 billion and why 2012 registered the secondhighest figure in the period: over US\$6.200 billion.

Global ODA allocated to all developing countries (top line of Graph V.1.A) shows the change in trend caused by the crisis more intensely: from an average growth rate of over 13.0% in 2000-2008 to a still positive but lower growth rate of 1.8% in 2009-2012. Once again, the second rate conceals disparate dynamics which suggest that the impact of the crisis was not felt immediately but, rather, with a slight delay. That 1.8% average rate is a combination of: an initial slight decline (-0.6% in 2009), two increases (3.6% in 2010 and 7.1% in 2011) and another notable reduction (-5.7% in 2012). All this explains how global ODA to developing countries went from around US\$50 billion in 2000 to a record high of over US\$141 billion in 2011, and then down to US\$133.039 billion in 2012.

As a result of these patterns, Graph V.1.B suggests a gradual decline in Ibero-America's share of global incoming ODA. Between 2000 and 2008, ODA to Ibero-America accounted for 5.9% on average of the total allocated to developing countries. In the next phase, 2009-2012, that share shrank to 4.6%. Nevertheless, irregularities in annual growth rates in the two data sets during the second period explain why the lowest values (4.2%) correspond to 2007 and 2010 while Ibero-America's share increased to its current 4.7% in the last two years.

V.2.2. DONORS

Graph V.2 offers a breakdown, by donor, of the US\$6.215 billion of ODA received by Ibero-America in 2012. We can conclude, firstly, that the top two bilateral donors, France (US\$1.268 billion) and the US (US\$1.245 billion), accounted for more than 40% of total ODA. At a significant distance (US\$500 million) is the next donor, a multilateral one-European Union institutions—which accounted for 12% of the region's incoming ODA (slightly less than US\$750 million). Germany was the fourth-largest donor overall (and the third-largest bilateral donor), providing Ibero-America with almost US\$600 million in ODA, almost 10% of the total. Another multi-lateral donor-the Inter-American Development Bank-accounted for slightly more than US\$500 million. The rest of the ODA came from Norway (US\$312 million), Spain (US\$201 million) and Canada (US\$191 million), which together accounted for 11.3% of the total.

However, the absolute figures do not reveal the priority given by each of the donors to Ibero-America. Graph V.3 was drafted to better understand their involvement and it details each donor's ODA to Ibero-America in million dollars and as a percentage of their total ODA to all developing countries. It shows, for example, that the US's donation of over US\$1.2 billion to the region accounted for barely 5% of the more than US\$25 billion it donated in 2012. In the case of France, its donation of US\$1.2 billion to the region accounted for 16% of its total ODA (close to US\$8 billion), almost triple Ibero-America's share of US assistance. In fact, that ratio was only surpassed by Spain, whose US\$200 million donation in 2012 accounted for 20% of its ODA for the year, and by the Inter-American Development Bank which, because of its nature. allocated almost 40% of its funds to Latin America. Ibero-America's share of other donors' ODA ranged from 9% (Norway) through 7% (Germany) to 4-5% (EU and Canada).

However, the most notable development in terms of donors in 2012 was in the line-up: France became the leading donor,

^{3.} Chile and Uruguay have been classified as High-Income Countries (HIC) since 2013. As a result of this change, they are unlikely to be listed as recipients once the Development Aid Committee (DAC) releases its ODA numbers for 2014 (or they will be listed under another heading).





unseating the US, while Japan and Spain also ranked lower. Graph V.4 illustrates this situation, showing each of the top five donors' share of total ODA to Ibero-America in 2000 and 2012. It can be concluded that:

- a) In 2012, France became the top ODA donor to Ibero-America, accounting for one-fifth of the total received by the region. France's rise was exponential: it allocated around US\$83 million to Ibero-America in 2000, and US\$156 million in 2008 (i.e. not even twice the previous figure); however, from that point forward its ODA increased at an annual average rate of 84.9%, to almost US\$1.270 billion in 2012 (Table A.7 in the Annex).
- b) The United States, the largest donor to Ibero-America since 2001, now ranks second, trailing France by just US\$13 million.⁴ The US has fallen to second place not only because of the sharp increase in French aid, but also due to a slight reduction in its own contribution to the region: from US\$1.426 million in 2008 to US\$1.245 million in 2012 (Table A.7).

- c) Spain, which ranked at the top with the United States between 2005 and 2010, was displaced, as a bilateral donor, to fourth place in 2011 and fifth in 2012. In this case, the dynamics in 2000-2008 (33.2% average annual growth) and 2009-2012 (33.1% average annual decline) explain why, after reaching a record high of nearly US\$1.2 billion in 2008, Spain's ODA slipped to US\$200.5 million in 2012, i.e. less than in 2000 (US\$241 million).
- d) Throughout this period, Japan went from being the largest donor to Ibero-America (Graph V.4.A; it accounted for 23.2% of ODA to the region in 2000) to actually registering negative shares: In 2010 and 2012, Japan's ODA amounted to -US\$462 million and -US\$209 million, respectively. This suggests that Japan received from its recipients (principally Peru and Mexico) more funds than it donated.
- e) Germany maintained the most stable flow of ODA to the region. Its share of total funds to Ibero-America barely changed, amounting to around 9.5-9.8% in 2000, 2008 and 2012 (Graph V.4 and SEGIB, 2010). Meanwhile, European Union institutions remained committed to the region and increased their share, from 7.6% in 2000 to 12.0% in 2012.

Between 2000 and 2001, the USA almost doubled its ODA to the region: from US\$520 million to US\$999.8 million (Table A.7 in the Annex).





V.2.3. RECIPIENTS

Graph V.5 offers another breakdown of the US\$6.215 million in global ODA to Ibero-America in 2012, but from the standpoint of recipients. It shows that Brazil received the most aid in 2012 (US\$1.288 billion, one-fifth of the total received by the region). Colombia and Bolivia ranked second and third and received US\$750 million and 650 million, respectively. Together they accounted for 23% of total aid. Honduras and Nicaragua received more than US\$500 million each in ODA, and Mexico and Peru around US\$400 million. The other 25% of regional ODA was distributed among 12 countries, albeit in disparate amounts: Cuba, Panama, Venezuela, Costa Rica and Uruguay received less than US\$100 million; Argentina, Ecuador, Chile and Paraguay between US\$100 and 200 million, and Guatemala, the Dominican Republic and El Salvador between US\$200 and 300 million.

However, the relative importance of these absolute volumes of funds for each Ibero-America country varies when considered in per capita terms. Graph V.6 compares the two variables: net ODA received on the vertical axis, and ODA per capita on the horizontal axis. We can draw several conclusions:

- a) For the two main recipients, the more than US\$1.2 billion received by Brazil and the more than US\$750 received by Colombia in 2012 came to barely US\$6.5 and US\$16 per capita.
- b) Per capita aid was much larger for the third, fourth and fifth recipients. Bolivia, Honduras and Nicaragua received between US\$60 and US\$90 per capita (US\$62.7, US\$70 and US\$88.9, respectively).
- c) For the sixth through tenth recipient, we can group the first two (Mexico, with US\$3.5 and Peru, with US\$13.1 per capita) and the last three (Guatemala, the Dominican Republic and El Salvador, with US\$20-40 per capita).

As with donors, the main developments in 2012 were related to the line-up of the recipients. Graphs V.7 and V.8 together illustrate the changes between 2000 and 2012. They compare the main recipients' shares of total ODA received by Ibero-America as a whole in both years.⁵ Based on these graphs and Table A.6 in the Annex, it can be concluded that:

 a) For the first time, Brazil became the top recipient of aid in Ibero-America in 2012. In fact, its amount of ODA increased substantially: by 24.2% per year on average between 2000 and 2008 (from US\$231 million to US\$460.4 million), and even faster-36.4% per yearthereafter, to almost US\$1.3 billion in ODA.

- b) Meanwhile, ODA directed to Colombia (the top recipient in 2006, 2008, 2009, 2010 and 2011) registered two very different periods of growth: substantial growth at first (32.1% per year between 2000 and 2008), followed by a downturn: an average annual decline of 4.5% between 2009 and 2012. As a result, its relegation in the ranking is attributable not only to the increase in funds to Brazil, but also to the reduction in its own incoming funds: from US\$900-1,000 million in recent years to slightly over US\$750 million in 2012.
- c) As Graph V.8 shows, four countries (Peru, Honduras, Nicaragua and Bolivia, in the top left quadrant) saw their shares decline: from over 11% of total ODA in 2000 (specifically, 12.3%, 13.8%, 17.3% and 14.9%, respectively) to below 11% (6.3%, 9.2%, 8.6% and 10.6%, respectively). This, together with the items detailed above, explains why these four countries were the main recipients of ODA to the region in 2000 but just three of them (Bolivia, Honduras and Nicaragua) remained among the top five in 2012, ranking below Brazil and Colombia.

V.2.4. INTERPRETING THE IMPACT OF THE CRISIS

As discussed in the previous sections, turning points and changes in the trend and structure of ODA to Ibero-America became noticeable as from 2008, and coinciding with the start of the global financial crisis. In fact, some trends can only be interpreted in light of the effects of that crisis:

- a) From 2009 to 2012, and as is to be expected in the current economic context, ODA to the region began to register negative annual growth rates. However, the declining trend in aid was not visible in the overall numbers (in fact, ODA to Ibero-America peaked in 2011) because of the compensatory effect of 2011, when aid flows surged by 30%, boosting the average growth rate in the period to 2.8%.
- b) The irregularity of growth and the unexpected increase in global ODA to the region should be interpreted in light of all of the changes in individual behaviors of the main donors in the region: mainly, of traditional donors such as the US, Spain and Japan, and of new donors, such as France. Graph V.9.A shows the trend in those four donors' ODA between 2000 and 2012. After 2008-2009, the graph reflects: negative rates in the case of Japan; an intense decline in ODA from Spain; growing irregularities, with a downward trend, in aid from the US; and sharp growth in French ODA.
- c) The changes in ODA from these donors reflect different responses to the crisis: fiscal adjustments and budget reductions in some cases, and the modification of sec-

^{5.} Specifically, Graph V.7, parts A and B, shows the five top recipients' shares in 2000 and 2012. Graph V.8 plots the main recipients in terms of their share in 2000 (vertical axis) and 2012 (horizontal axis). The graph is divided into four quadrants by a line representing an 11% share: countries in the bottom-left quadrant had shares under 11% in both years; those in the top-left quadrant were above 11% in 200 but below it in 2012; those in the top-right quadrant contains countries whose share was below 11% in 2000 but above it in 2012.









toral and geographic priorities in others. In fact, there were also changes in the structure of recipients. Graph V.9.B shows the trends in ODA received by Brazil, Colombia, Bolivia and Honduras in 2000-2012. Once again, there is a noticeable turning point in the 2008-2009 period, which coincided with the following: moderate reductions in aid to Bolivia and Honduras with an irregular but gradual decline in funds to Colombia, and a sharp increase in ODA to Brazil. d) An important datum for interpreting events is estimating the contribution that each donor and recipient made to the change in ODA to Ibero-America between 2008 and 2012, i.e. measure their individual impact on the US\$395.1 million difference between the figures for 2012 (US\$6,215.1 million) and 2008, the first year of the crisis (US\$5,820 million). Diagram V.1 illustrates the situation, with donors on the left and recipients on the right, situated depending on whether their contribution to the change was positive (upper quadrants) or negative (lower quadrants). It reveals considerable information:

• From a donor standpoint, between 2008 and 2012, France alone contributed more than US\$1,100 million in funds, almost three times the total increase in ODA to the region (US\$395 million). The contributions from other multilateral donors (the EU and the IDB) increased by another US\$650 million.

• This was offset in total ODA by the negative contributions from Spain, Japan, and the USA, which reduced their funds to the region in the period by US\$986 million, US\$434 million and US\$181 million, respectively.

• Net contributions from recipients came from increased ODA from Brazil (US\$827 million) and Mexico (US\$268 million). This was reduced by traditional recipients, such as Colombia, Nicaragua and Guatemala, where global funds received in the period declined, by US\$207 million, US\$208 million and US\$236 million, respectively.

e) All of these changes were reflected in a new pattern of bilateral relations. Graphs V.10.A and B illustrate the structure of bilateral relations in 2012: the first reflects some recipients' share of ODA to the region by the main donors; the second illustrates the donors' share of total ODA received by each of the main recipients in the region. These graphs show the following:

• The intense exchange between France and Brazil which, in 2012, were the main donor and recipient in the region, and which were the primary countries responsible for growth in ODA to Ibero-America between 2008 and 2012. The data was very explicit: in 2012, 67.8% of France's aid to Latin America went to Brazil, and French ODA accounted for two-thirds of the total aid received by Brazil.

• Brazil's relationship with Norway, the fourth-largest bilateral donor to the region, is also interesting. Norway allocated to Brazil 68.8% of its US\$312 million in aid to Ibero-America in 2012, and Norwegian ODA accounted for 16.7% of ODA received by Brazil.

• The preferred recipients of US ODA were Colombia and Mexico, which received 26.3% and 17.0%, respectively, of funds directed to the region in 2012. The US was also the main donor to both countries, accounting for 42.8% of the ODA received by Colombia and 50.8% of that received by Mexico.

• Given the size of US ODA to both countries, it is unsurprising that variations by this donor played a decisive role in explaining the trend in total aid received by Colombia and Mexico, albeit in opposite directions (a decrease and an increase, respectively). Between 2008 and 2012, the US halved its aid to Colombia (by an amount equivalent to US\$300 million), while it doubled its aid to Mexico (from US\$102 million to US\$212 million).

• Spain has always maintained a relatively diversified relationship in terms of target countries, but the bulk of its aid tends to be directed to the Central American and Andean subregions. The drastic reduction in Spanish assistance to Latin America between 2008 and 2012 (by almost US\$1,000 million) had a very notable impact on these countries. In fact, the displacement of Peru, Guatemala, Nicaragua, Bolivia and Honduras from among the region's top recipients was in part due to the decline in assistance from Spain: its ODA to those countries fell by 70%-90%, equivalent to a decline of between US\$93 million and US\$255 million.



Source: SEGIB based on OECD DAC statistics (http://stats.oecd.org/).





V.3. ODA FROM SPAIN, PORTUGAL AND ANDORRA TO THEIR IBERO-AMERICAN PARTNERS

AS NOTED AT THE BEGINNING of this chapter, this section addresses exchanges of Official Development Assistance (ODA) within Ibero-America, particularly from Spain, Portugal and Andorra to the rest of their partners. It covers the period from 2000 to 2012, focusing especially on possible effects of the crisis of 2008.

V.3.1. SPAIN

An analysis of global flows of aid to Ibero-America in recent years reveals the drastic adjustment by Spain to respond to the adverse economic situation it has faced since 2008. Graph V.11 illustrates the performance of Spanish ODA to developing countries (top line) and its Ibero-American partners (bottom line) from 2000 to 2012. It reveals that 2008 was a turning point for two contrasting dynamics: up to that year, flows increased notably; after 2008, assistance was curtailed drastically. This resulted in ODA numbers falling to below their 2000 levels.

Between 2000 and 2008, Spanish ODA to developing countries as a whole increased at an annual rate of close to 30%. This growth rate increased Spanish ODA seven-fold: from US\$720 million in 2000, to over US\$4.8 billion in 2008. Aid flows to its Ibero-American partners also increased substantially, with ODA growing five-fold: from US\$241 million to US\$1.,187 billion. Although global flows increased slightly more than those directed to Ibero-America, the region was the preferred destination for Spanish cooperation. This is illustrated by Graph V.12, which shows Ibero-America's share of total Spanish ODA. Although the share varied, between a low of 24.7% in 2008 and a notably high 56.3% in 2011, Spain allocated on average 35.5% of its ODA to Ibero-America between 2000 and 2008.

This contrasts with the situation after the crisis began. In this second phase, Spanish flows of ODA began to register negative growth rates that gradually grew more intense: specifically, Spain's global assistance and assistance to Ibero-America fell by 7-10% in 2008-2009 and by 57% in 2011-2012. As a result, ODA fell from record highs in 2008 to very low levels not seen since 2000: Spanish aid in 2012 was less than US\$1 billion (levels not seen since 2002), and ODA to Ibero-America amounted to US\$201 million (even less than in 2000, when that figure was \$US241 million). From 2009 to 2012, Ibero-America's share of Spain's total worldwide ODA varied less (Graph V.12); however, the average share (21.5% vs. 35.5% previously) suggests that it was difficult for Spain to maintain Ibero-America as its preferred destination for cooperation.

Nevertheless, the reduction in ODA to the region did not prevent Spain from maintaining diversified cooperation with numerous recipients.⁶ According to Graph V.13 (which plots Spain's assistance in 2012 to the 19 countries in Latin America, in descending order), 98.4% of the US\$200 million donated by Spain to the region was distributed among 12 countries; 80% among 8 countries, and the largest share attained by a single country was that of Peru: 14.6%, i.e. US\$29 million. In terms of geographies, Spain continued to prefer the Andean and Central American regions:

- a) In 2012 (Graph V.13), the top eight recipients were Peru, Bolivia, Colombia and Ecuador (US\$87.2 million in total, i.e. 43.5% of ODA to the region) and Guatemala, Nicaragua, el Salvador and Honduras (US\$74.6 million, representing 37.2% of funds to Ibero-America).
- b) There were only some variations in destination between 2000 and 2012, but always within these two subregions. Graph V.14 compares the recipients' share of Spanish aid to Ibero-America in 2000 and 2012.⁷ Observing the vertical axis, Central American and Andean countries—from Colombia and Guatemala to Honduras—had the largest shares in 2000 (between 5.2-6% and 14.5%). However, when comparing figures for 2000 and 2012, some countries experienced a decline in share, such as Venezuela, Honduras and Ecuador (above the diagonal line) and some, such as Bolivia, Guatemala, Peru, Colombia and Nicaragua, increased their share (points below the diagonal).

V.3.2. PORTUGAL AND ANDORRA

Portugal doubled its total ODA between 2000 and 2008: from US\$178.6 million to US\$373.4 million. But Portugal is another European country that was hard hit by the global

^{6.} As in the other chapters, one way to assess diversification is to calculate the Herfindahl index: this time, by adding the squares of each Ibero-American recipient's share of Spain's ODA to the region as a whole in 2012. Performing this calculation gives an index of 0.0943, which suggests diversification (concentration starts above 0.1000).

^{7.} As with Graph V.8, Graph V.14 is divided into four quadrants based on the recipient countries' shares in 2000 and 2012. The quadrants are divided along a line representing a 10% share. Moreover, a diagonal line was added. On the line are the countries whose share was exactly the same in 2000 and 2012. The countries above the line are those whose share was greater in 2000 compared with 2012, and vice versa.









financial crisis that struck in 2008. As a result, after 2008 its performance became irregular, alternating between positive and negative growth. This variation during the crisis explains why its ODA peaked at US\$477.1 million in 2011, and then declined to US\$397.2 million just one year later (http:// stats.oecd.org/).

As noted in previous editions of this report, the bulk of Portugal's aid flows were directed preferentially to Portuguesespeaking countries. Therefore, Ibero-America traditionally represents a low proportion of total aid from Portugal: in fact, in the period from 2000 to 2012, its share in the region peaked in 2010, when Ibero-America accounted for 2.2% of Portugal's total ODA (http://stats.oecd.org/). Graph V.15 shows Portugal's ODA to Ibero-America between 2000 and 2012: from \$US 600,000 in 2000 to a high of US\$9 million in 2011, falling to US\$7 million in 2012. As is standard in Portugal's ODA, 91.4% of that aid (US\$6.4 million) went to Brazil in 2012.

It's also worth noting that Andorra provided almost no assistance to Ibero-America in 2012. The only ODA registered by the Andorran authorities was US\$50,000 to fulfill their commitment to participate in the region, specifically the Ibero-American Programme for Human Milk Banks, led by Brazil.



V.4. HAITI AND THE NON-IBERO-AMERICAN CARIBBEAN IN OFFICIAL DEVELOPMENT ASSISTANCE (ODA)

GRAPH V.16.A shows the trend in world Official Development Assistance (ODA) to the non-Ibero-American Caribbean countries between 2000 and 2012. The overall number followed an irregular pattern: it shrank between 2000 and 2003, surged rapidly until 2010, and then fell between 2010 and 2012. More specifically, between 2000 and 2003, total ODA to the non-Ibero-American Caribbean countries fell by 2.4% in cumulative terms, from US\$442 million to US\$405 million. It then increased more than five-fold up to US\$1.812 billion in 2009, doubling again to US\$3.678 billion in 2010. It registered negative growth rates in 2011 and 2012, to US\$1.568 billion in the latter year, similar to the 2008-2009 levels.

Whereas the global ODA flows to developing countries overall and to Ibero-America were marked by the impact of the global financial crisis of 2008, the pattern in the case of non-Ibero-American Caribbean should be interpreted in light of Haiti (main recipient by far) and the severe earthquake of 2010. In fact, the area under the line in Graph V.16.A is divided into two regions: the lower area represents ODA to Haiti, and the upper area represents ODA to the rest of the non-Ibero-American Caribbean. Whereas Haiti accounted for 37.6%-39.0% of total ODA to the region in 2001 and 2002, its share increased to 83.3% due to the international response to the devastating earthquake.

Combining the 2012 data from Graphs V.16A and V.16.B (which plot the amounts received in that year by each of the countries in the region)⁸ further highlights the difference in the recipients' shares. Of the nearly US\$1.570 billion in ODA that reached the region in 2012, 81.3% (about US\$1.275 billion) went to Haiti; 7.3% to Guyana (the second-largest recipient, at a great distance from Haiti, with US\$114 million in ODA); another 10% was distributed to a total of six countries (Suriname, St. Lucia, Dominica, Belize, St. Kitts and Nevis, and Jamaica, which received between US\$20 and US\$40 million); and 1.2% was distributed among three other countries (Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, Grenada, and Antigua and Barbuda).

8. Apart from the 10 countries in the second graphic, the list of recipients drawn up by the OECD's Development Assistance Committee (DAC) includes other non Ibero-American Caribbean "nations" such as Monserrat and Anguilla. They are excluded from this analysis since they do not form part of the United Nations because they are classified not as "nations" but as "dependent territories" (of the UK, in this case).

However, as noted above, the picture is quite different when considered in per capita terms (Chart V.17). Moreover, this difference is accentuated in the non-Ibero-American Caribbean by the great disparity in size and population. If total ODA in 2012 is sorted by recipient in per capita terms, the top two recipients—Haiti and Guyana—fall to fifth and fourth place, respectively (US\$125 and US\$144 per capita, respectively). Meanwhile, St. Kitts and Nevis, Dominica and St. Lucia logged higher per capita numbers: US\$409, US\$358 and US\$148, respectively.

The divergence between Haiti and the rest of the non-Ibero-American Caribbean was also visible in terms of donors. Graphs IV.18.A and B show the breakdown of donors in 2012, distinguishing Haiti from the other recipients: first (version A), by aggregating donors depending on whether they are bilateral or multilateral; and then (version B), by breaking out each donor's share of aid to Haiti and the rest of the Caribbean. Observing these graphs leads to the following conclusions:

- a) While bilateral donors account for practically two-thirds of aid to Haiti, they account for just one-quarter of aid to other Caribbean nations. Consequently, the opposite occurred with multilateral donors, which accounted for a smaller proportion of cooperation with Haiti (35.4% of the total) and a larger proportion of cooperation with the rest of the region (73.9%).
- b) Also, the Official Development Assistance that Haiti received in 2012 came primarily from the United States (33.5%), Canada (13.1%) and France (5.8%), which together accounted for more than half of the US\$1.275 billion it received. Other notable donors were the IDB (12.1%) and the EU (10.3%).
- b) EU institutions (40.6% of ODA), the IDB (20.6%) and the Caribbean Development Bank (9.3%) were the main sources of funds in 2012 to the other non-Ibero-American Caribbean countries. Another three donors (France, the US and the UK) together contributed 23.2% of final ODA.



Note: Only ODA data whose geographic destination is known is used. Bahamas, Barbados and Trinidad and Tobago are not included because they are not classified as recipients by the DAC. Graph V.16.B uses color codes to distinguish High-Income Countries (HIC) from the rest.



Source: SEGIB based on OECD DAC statistics (http://stats.oecd.org/) y del Banco Mundial (http://datos.bancomundial.org/).



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ANNEXES

Tab	le A.1		Sectors	of activity, by dimension and code.
SECTO SPHI		ACTIVITY SECTOR	CODE	DESCRIPTION
TURE	ES)	Education	(11)	 From basic to university level. Includes: education policies, research, teacher training, professional training, etc.
ISTRUC	AND SOCIAL SERVICES)	Health	(12)	 General and basic. Health policy, medical services, basic healthcare, medical research, basic nutrition, healthcare infrastructure, healthcare education, training for healthcare providers, etc.
. (INFRA	SOCIAL	Population and reproductive health	(13)	 Programs and policies on population, reproductive healthcare, family planning, combating STDs, specific training, etc.
SOCIAL	AND	Water supply and sanitation	(14)	Water resources policy, supply and purification, watershed development, training, etc.
		Others	(15)	Social services and policies, housing policy, etc.
	vices	Energy	(21)	 Generation and supply. Energy policy, energy production, gas distribution, thermal power plants, hydroelectric plants, solar energy, energy research, etc.
	Sen	Transport and storage	(22)	Transport policy, road, railroad, river and air transport, warehousing, etc.
	Infrastructure and Economic Services	Communications	(23)	 Policy on communications, telecommunications, radio, television, press, information technology and communications, etc.
	re and E	Science and technology	(24)	 Scientific and technological development, support for the transfer of knowledge to strengthen the science system, universal access to technology, etc.
	, nctri	Banking and finance	(25)	Finance policy, monetary institutions, teaching financial services, etc.
	frastr	Employment	(26)	Employment policy, etc.
DMIC	Ξ	Enterprise	(27)	 Services and institutions to support business. SME development, privatization, processes to enhance competition, etc.
ECONOMIC		Extractive	(2A)	 Exploration and extraction of minerals and energy resources. Planning and legislation fo mining, geology, coal, oil, gas, minerals, etc.
	ý	Agriculture	(2B)	 Agrarian policy, arable land, agrarian reform, food sovereignty, animal husbandry, alternative crops, animal and plant health, agricultural cooperatives, etc.
	Productive sectors	Forestry	(2C)	Forestry policy, development, research, etc.
	tives	Fisheries	(2D)	Fishery policies, services, research, etc.
	oqnc	Construction	(2E)	Construction policy
	<u> </u>	Industry	(2F)	Industrial policy, industry by sectors, etc.
		Tourism	(2G)	Tourism policy, etc.
		Trade	(2H)	 Foreign trade policy and regulation. Regional trade agreements, multilateral trade negotiations, etc.
	UCTHENING	Government	(31)	 Institutional strengthening, development planning, public sector management, State modernization, governability, human rights (extension of first, second and third generation rights), combating impunity, demobilization, post-conflict peace-building (UN), statistica training, etc.
INSTI	STREN	Civil society	(32)	Support for and strengthening civil society.
ENVIRONMENT		Environment	(41)	Environmental protection, environmental policies, biodiversity, environmental research, etc.
ENVIRO		Disaster prevention	(42)	Logistical support for weather or seismic event preparedness, etc.
		Culture	(51)	Culture and leisure, libraries, museums, etc.
OTHERS		Gender	(52)	 Programs and projects to link women and development, foster and support women's groups and organizations, etc.
		Others	(53)	 Rural, urban, alternative, non-farm development, community development, etc.

Table A.1. Classification of sectors of activity, by dimension and code

Source: SEGIB from DAC data (November 2004).

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Matrix A.2. Bilateral horizontal South-South Cooperation 2.4. INSTITUTIONAL STRENGTHENING	S	Bolivia	El Salvador	Guatemala	Honduras	Nicaragua	Paraguay	Argentina	Brazil	Colombia	Costa Rica	Cuba	Ecuador	Mexico	Panama	Peru	Dominican Rep.	Venezuela	Chile	Uruguay	TOTAL
Matrix A.2. Bilateral horizont: A.2.4. INSTITUTIONAL STRENGTHENING	PROVIDERS	LMIC						UMIC											HIC		

		HIC											UMIC						LMIC	PROVIDERS			A.2.5. E	Matu
TOTAL	Uruguay	Chile	Venezuela	Dominican Rep.	Peru	Panama	Mexico	Ecuador	Cuba	Costa Rica	Colombia	Brazil	Argentina	Paraguay	Nicaragua	Honduras	Guatemala	El Salvador	Bolivia	ERS			A.2.5. ENVIRONMENT	Matrix A.2. Bilateral horizontal South-South Cooperation actions. 2012.
0																				Bolivia				ral hori
4							_		2		_									El Salvador				zontal
0																				Guatemala	LMIC			South-
0																				Honduras				South
•																				Nicaragua				Cooper
•																				Paraguay				ation a
0																				Argentina				ictions.
•																				Brazil				. 2012.
•																				Colombia				
•																				Costa Rica		RECIPIENTS		
•																				Cuba		IENTS		
б		-			-					2	_									Ecuador	UMIC			
-											_									Mexico				
۲								_												Panama				
0																				Peru				
2		2																		Dominican Rep.				
0																				Venezuela				
0																				Chile	HIC			
0																				Uruguay	Ē			
Ξ	0	3	0	•	-	0			2	2	ω	0	0	0	•	0	•	0	0	TOTAL				

	A.Z.O. UTTEN JETTENED																				
											RECIPIENTS	IENTS									
				LA	LMIC								UMIC						HIC	U	
PROVIDERS	ş	sivilo8	robevle2 I3	elemətenü	serubnoH	Nicərəguə	Paraguay	enitnəgıA	lise18	eidmoloJ	soiя eteoD	eduJ	Ecuador	Mexico	emeneq	Peru	.q9A nsjinimoO	eləuzənəV	əlidə	Vruguay	TOTAL
LMIC	Bolivia																				•
	El Salvador																				•
	Guatemala																				•
	Honduras																				0
	Nicaragua																				•
	Paraguay																				•
UMIC	Argentina	٢																			٢
	Brazil						٢														-
	Colombia		З								2										S
	Costa Rica																				•
	Cuba																				•
	Ecuador		-															-			7
	Mexico		1		1					1	2		1						1	1	8
	Panama																				•
	Peru																				0
	Dominican Rep.																				0
	Venezuela																				0
HIC	Chile																				•
	Uruguay																				•
	TOTAL	-	5	0	-	0	۲	0	0	-	4	0	٣	0	0	0	0	-	-	-	17

FIRST PROVIDER	SECOND PROVIDER	ACTION	RECIPIENT(S)	ACTIVITY SECTOR
Argentina	Japan	VIII Regional course for game wardens in Latin America	Nicaragua	Environment (41)
		International course on managing energy efficiency in industry	Bolivia Brazil Chile Colombia Costa Rica Cuba Ecuador El Salvador Guatemala Honduras Mexico Nicaragua Panama Paraguay Peru Dominican Republic Uruguay Venezuela	Energy (21)
		International course in managing international cooperation projects	Bolivia Brazil Chile Colombia Costa Rica Cuba Ecuador El Salvador Guatemala Honduras Mexico Nicaragua Panama Paraguay Peru Dominican Republic Uruguay Venezuela	Government (31)
		Workshop on prevention and control of zoonosis in South America	Bolivia Ecuador Paraguay Peru Uruguay	Health (12)
		Course on applying management technologies in SMEs	Bolivia Brazil Chile Colombia Cuba Ecuador El Salvador Nicaragua Paraguay Peru Uruguay	Enterprise (27)

FIRST PROVIDER	SECOND PROVIDER	ACTION	RECIPIENT(S)	ACTIVITY SECTOR
		IV Course on Food Security: self- production of foods and local development	Cuba Ecuador El Salvador Guatemala Nicaragua Paraguay Panama Dominican Republic	Agriculture (2B)
		Course on conservation and sustainable use of native Latin American ornamental plants	Brazil Bolivia Costa Rica Colombia Chile Ecuador Mexico Paraguay Peru Uruguay	Agriculture (2B)
Brazil	Germany	Technical Meeting of the Human Health Task Force: Brazil, Germany, Ecuador, Chile and Uruguay	Ecuador	Health (12)
		Negotiation and drafting of technical cooperation project in the area of integrated health services networks	Paraguay	Health (12)
	IDB	Support in the implementation of the National Water Quality Assessment Program–visit by ANA officials to Brazil	Peru	Water supply and sanitation (14)
		Technical visit by the regional presidents of Piura, San Martin, Amazonas and Huancavelica to Pernambuco-Brazil	Peru	Government (31)
	Japan	Course on management and conservation of plant genetic resources	Nicaragua	Agriculture (2B)
		International course in management practices and urban sustainability	Nicaragua	Other (53)
		Il International training course for the development, implementation and monitoring of the carbon project in Latin America	Nicaragua	Environment (41)
		V International course on monitoring tropical forests	Nicaragua	Environment (41)
		III International course on humane care for women and the newborn	Nicaragua	Population and reproductive health (13)
		II International course on management techniques and systems operation to control and reduce water losses	Dominican Republic	Water supply and sanitation (14)
		III International course on management techniques and systems operation to control and reduce water losses	Nicaragua	Water supply and sanitation (14)
		First international course for intensive training in environmental management of persistent organic pollutants (POPs)	Nicaragua	Environment (41)
		IV International course on health promotion, local development and healthy communities (2009-2013)	Dominican Republic	Health (12)

FIRST PROVIDER	SECOND PROVIDER	ACTION	RECIPIENT(S)	ACTIVITY SECTOR
Chile	Korea	International course KOICA: "Update on productive aquaculture systems: scientific and technological foundations"	CELAC countries	Fisheries (2D)
		International aquaculture course	CELAC countries	Fisheries (2D)
		International course on e-government	CELAC countries	Government (31)
	United States	ILEA Anti-corruption course 2012	Central American countries	Government (31)
		ILEA Course on gender/domestic violence	Central American countries	Other (53)
	Israel	1st International course on diversity in early childhood	CELAC countries	Others (Social policies) (15)
	Japan	Integrated watershed management	CELAC countries	Water supply and sanitation (14)
		International course on bivalve mollusk seed production	CELAC countries	Fisheries (2D)
Colombia	Fund for the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals (Spain-UN)	Experiences from Colombia in strategic urban intervention, urban development, creating public spaces, urban management tools, etc.	El Salvador	Other (53)
Costa Rica	Spain	Design of tourism facilities	El Salvador	Tourism (2G)
		Strengthening the System of Training in Public Administration	El Salvador	Government (31)
		Designing the manual of best practices for consumer protection	El Salvador	Civil society (32)
		Strengthening the Program: Let us be productive.	El Salvador	Education (11)
		Training for the census and national survey of sexual diversity	El Salvador	Population and reproductive health (13)
		Drug administration in public health facilities	El Salvador	Health (12)
		Course on needs assessment, management and evaluation of the impact of training in public administration	El Salvador	Government (31)
		Transportation planning system.	El Salvador	Transport and warehousing (22)
		High Performance District-La Trinidad	Guatemala	Health (12)
		Training and research in palliative care and pain relief	Guatemala	Health (12)
		Technical support for improving end- to-end solid waste management in the Municipality of Jalapa	Guatemala	Environment (41)

FIRST PROVIDER	SECOND PROVIDER	ACTION	RECIPIENT(S)	ACTIVITY SECTOR
Costa Rica	Spain	Strengthening financial capacities and promotion of sustainable markets for small-and medium-scale producers	Honduras	Other (53)
		Strengthening knowledge in professional rehabilitation	Honduras	Education (11)
		Implementation of new methodologies for the assessment of learning	Honduras	Education (11)
		Support for design of diploma program: Inclusive education and attention to diversity.	Nicaragua	Education (11)
		Support for design of diploma program: Attention to diversity	Nicaragua	Education (11)
		Orientation workshop on Costa Rica's experience with wage policy	Dominican Republic	Employment (26)
		International seminar: "Sharing best practices in performance assessment"	Dominican Republic	Government (31)
Mexico	Japan	International course on natural systems for treatment and reuse of waste water and sludge	Several countries in the region	Water supply and sanitation (14)
		International course on monitoring inshore water quality in the Mesoamerican Region to measure indicators of climate change	Several countries in the region	Environment (41)
Panama	United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA)	Using of mobile data capture devices (PDA) by technical staff in Cuba's National Office of Statistics and Information (ONEI)	Cuba	Government (31)
	Japan	Strengthening for sustainable watershed management in the protected forest area of the El Cajon reservoir in Honduras, with community participation	Honduras	Environment (41)
		Conservation of the Yguazú Lake basin	Paraguay	Environment (41)
Peru	United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA)	National survey on educational situation in Venezuela	Venezuela	Education (11)
Uruguay	Japan	Course for local governments in managing solid waste	Argentina Bolivia Brazil Chile El Salvador Dominican Republic	Environment (41)
Venezuela	Inter-American Development Bank (IDB)	Internships in the municipality of Chacao (Caracas)	Costa Rica	Government (31)

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Source: SEGIB, based on reporting from cooperation agencies and/or bureaus.

PROJECT	SUBREGION	Central America		Andes		South America			Latin America					Ibero-America
	CODE	A.1	A.2	B.1	B.2	C.1	C. 2	C.3	D.1	D.2	D.3	D.4	D.5	E.1
	Mexico													
	Guatemala													
	Honduras													
IBERG	El Salvador													
-AMEH	Nicaragua													
	Costa Rica													
IBERD-AMERICAN COUNTRIES (FROM NORTH TO SOUTH OF THE CONTINEN	Panama													
RIES (FI	Cuba													
	Dominican Rep.													
	Colombia													
	Venezuela													
H OF I	Ecuador													
HECON	Peru													
TINEN	Bolivia													
T, PLUS	Brazil													
T, PLUS THE IBERIAN PENINSULA)	Paraguay													
ERIAN	Uruguay													
PENIN	Argentina													
SULAJ	Chile													
	Andorra													
	España													
	Portugal													
	OTHER COUNTRIES	Switzerland					Guyana, Suriname		Germany					

			BODIES AND INSTITUTION	IONS INVOLVED IN THE VARIOUS PROGRAMS, CLASSIFIED DEPENDING ON WHETHER THEY REPRESEN I:	NDING ON WHETHER	THEY REPRESENT:	
PROJECT				MEMBER (MEMBER COUNTRIES		
SUBREGION	CODE	Regional and/		AT NATIONAL LEVEL			
		or International bodies*	Partner countries	Institutions	Where grouped, specify the new body*	Agency on which it depends	AT LOCAL LEVEL
Central America	A.1		Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation (COSUDE)	Civil defense and risk management agencies			
	A.2		University of San Antonio (USA)	CONAMYPE and institutions responsible for the promotion of micro and small enterprises	CENPROMYPE	SICA	
Andes	B.1	PGTF (UNDP)		Peruvian Agency for International Cooperation and agencies/ bodies in charge of export development			
	B.2	PGTF (UNDP)		Peruvian Agency for International Cooperation and agencies/bodies in charge of export development			
South America	۲: ت	PGTF (UNDP)		Peruvian Agency for International Cooperation, Ministry of Foreign Affairs			Free trade zones in Bogotá, Peru and Manaos
	C.2	SP-ACTO, GEF, UNEP		Ministries, Departments or Directorates related to water management, border issues or the environment.			
	C:3	PGTF (UNDP)		Peruvian Agency for International Cooperation, Agencies responsible for innovation, production and/or quality in the timber industry.			
Latin America	D.1		Cooperation Agency (GIZ)	Countries' higher tax authorities	OLACEFS	INTOSAI	
	D.2	IDB, IICA, CGIAR, FONTAGRO	Spanish Cooperation Agency (AECID)	Consortium of agriculture-related research centers belonging to public organizations or public-private partnerships.			
	D.3			Public institutions related to the production, member countries' cooperation agencies	GTC	Pacific Alliance	
	D.4			Public institutions related to the environment and/or technology and scientific cooperation, member countries' cooperation agencies	GTC	Pacific Alliance	
lbero-America	Ë.	FUNDIBEQ, SEGIB		Agencies and organizations linked to excellence and quality management			

lbero-America as % of world total	Developing countries	Ibero-American countries	Uruguay	Costa Rica	Venezuela	Panama	Cuba	Paraguay	Chile	Ecuador	Argentina	El Salvador	Dominican Rep.	Guatemala	Peru	Mexico	Nicaragua	Honduras	Bolivia	Colombia	Brazil	COUNTRY	MILLION DOLLARS, (
6.5%	49,776.6	3,237.0	17.4	9.6	76.1	15.4	44.0	81.6	48.9	146.1	52.5	179.7	56.0	263.1	396.8	-57.8	560.4	448.3	481.7	185.9	231.4	2000	CURRENT PRICES
8.9%	52,390.3	4,688.8	15.2	0.4	44.7	26.1	53.7	61.4	75·3	183.6	145.6	237.5	106.9	234.3	450.6	118.1	931.0	657.1	743.7	384.4	219.5	2001	ICES
6.5%	62,035.8	4,020.1	13.7	-o.3	56.5	20.4	63.7	56.8	-7.3	220.0	81.5	233.3	145.0	249.6	488.5	125.2	517.2	421.1	689.3	438.4	207.7	2002	
6.9%	71,746.2	4,975-9	23.6	29.0	81.1	27.4	75.0	51.2	85.7	174.9	106.6	192.2	68.9	246.8	516.9	123.1	842.6	393.8	938.4	800.4	198.3	2003	
6.2%	80,124.4	4,976.5	29.1	12.8	44.9	22.6	103.5	22.4	54.4	153·3	91.3	216.4	84.5	217.1	463.5	108.0	1,240.2	657.9	785.4	514.8	154.4	2004	
4.5%	108,652.1	4,878.3	14.4	25.8	50.3	26.7	88.4	50.7	167.3	225.8	96.2	204.5	80.6	256.6	450.5	180.5	763.4	690.1	643.1	620.5	243.1	2005	
5.1%	107,340.6	5,438.1	21.1	31.7	62.9	31.0	93.7	56.0	101.4	187.8	115.1	162.9	53.8	484.3	463.4	269.8	740.2	594.4	850.0	1,005.2	113.4	2006	
4.2%	108,488.4	4,572.2	37.0	58.0	77.8	-135.0	92.8	108.0	104.9	217.3	101.3	88.1	123.1	454.4	307.0	113.4	840.1	464.3	475.8	722.8	321.2	2007	
4.5%	127,918.7	5,820.0	33.3	66.1	59.2	28.5	127.5	133.5	107.9	230.6	130.6	233.4	156.0	536.0	463.0	149.1	740.7	564.3	627.9	972.0	460.4	2008	
4.5%	127,121.1	5,712.7	50.0	108.6	66. <u>3</u>	65.0	115.1	147.8	78.7	207.9	126.7	276.0	119.1	375.6	441.2	184.5	772.6	456.1	725.3	1,059.5	336.9	2009	
4.2%	131,670.2	5,505.0	46.7	95.0	52.7	128.9	129.1	120.8	197.5	157.1	121.1	283.5	175.2	393·5	-255.9	471.1	662.3	631.1	741.0	901.1	453·3	2010	
5.1%	141,058.4	7,151.9	19.4	40.4	44.9	111.4	86.9	94.3	164.0	158.8	87.0	285.9	225.4	387.9	604.8	971.3	694.3	620.4	721.8	1,017.7	815.5	2011	
4.7%	133,039.3	6,215.0	19.3	32.7	48.1	50.8	87.9	104.4	125.5	149.4	178.9	230.4	261.3	299.4	393.8	417.8	532.4	571.5	658.6	764.5	1,288.2	2012	

Table A.7. Total net ODA to Ibero-America, by donor. 2000-2012.	l net ODA t	o Ibero-Am	lerica, by d	onor. 2000	-2012.								
MILLION DOLLARS, CURRENT PRICES	URRENT PRIC	ß											
DONORS	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
France	83.4	85.3	133.4	154.5	235.4	121.9	229.2	276.2	156.1	152.7	484.8	840.8	1,268.4
USA	520.8	8.666	986.3	1,501.1	1,123.9	1,236.0	1,582.1	1,046.1	1,426.3	1,525.9	1,436.5	1,610.5	1,245.0
Germany	305.8	306.9	320.2	433.6	611.5	384.8	359.1	344.5	567.7	576.9	656.2	796.0	591.7
Norway	44.9	71.4	44.4	60.3	58.3	6.68	0.97	238.3	6.66	85.2	113.4	138.9	312.0
Spain	241.1	647.3	365.2	448.8	571.7	497.5	657.8	1,017.1	1,187.1	1,065.6	860.3	464.5	200.5
Canada	60.2	65.6	93·5	106.9	112.7	137.4	117.2	163.5	143.2	155.2	129.5	172.9	191.0
Japan	750.0	710.1	546.0	441.0	270.8	403.8	414.5	202.6	225.0	С. 80 80	-462.0	294.8	-209.8
Other countries (DAC and non-DAC)	581.7	698.5	783.1	691.8	849.7	846.6	648.2	89.5	866.4	816.1	749.6	911.0	842.5
EU institutions	244.5	424.3	263.2	392.3	364.9	444.0	531.2	624.3	521.0	594.5	546.3	772.5	743.8
IDB Special Fund	64.8	190.5	115.1	198.7	178.2	94.2	92.9	68.4	123.6	134.5	403.5	573.5	541.4
Other multilateral	339 [.] 9	489.1	369.7	546.8	599.7	628.3	727.0	501.7	503.9	517.8	586.9	576.7	488.5
ТОТАL	3,237	4,688.8	4,020.1	4,975.9	4,976.5	4,878.3	5,438.1	4,572.2	5,820	5,712.7	5,505	7,151.9	6,215.1
Note: The data refer only to amounts of ODA whose geographic destination is known.	amounts of ODA w	rhose geographic de	stination is knowr										

Source: SEGIB based on http://stats.oecd.org/

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//stats.oecd.org/	

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Source: SEGIB based on htt	
ttp://stats.oecd	

Note: The data refer only to amounts of UDA whose geographic destination is known

MILLION DOLLARS, CURRENT PRICES	ILLION DOLLARS, CURRENT PRICES	lices										
COUNTRY	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	
Peru	18.5	29.1	31.9	44.4	56.2	65.5	69.4	109.4	131.5	100.2	118.1	
Bolivia	22.4	29.7	30.8	51.6	54.5	66.7	51.6	74.6	93.0	97.6	69.0	
Guatemala	14.5	16.5	17.5	23.5	22.4	38.9	223.8	252.9	255.9	113.4	92.9	
Colombia	12.6	25.1	32.4	14.4	9.6	31.0	69.0	64.3	85.0	148.6	56.2	
Nicaragua	19.7	2.66£	22.3	72.7	207.7	60.1	36.6	115.1	125.4	142.4	106.2	
El Salvador	22.4	45.9	55·7	27.0	27.5	42.6	44.1	61.1	83.6	125.7	85.5	
Ecuador	23.2	18.9	43.0	24.6	31.5	48.2	37.7	71.3	87.9	48.7	55·3	
Honduras	34.9	33.0	36.4	57.6	54.0	95.0	44.3	110.8	117.6	58.4	69.1	
Brazil	5.6	6.5	6.2	7.1	9.9	10.2	17.2	32.8	36.8	64.9	26.4	
Dominican Rep.	15.8	17.1	38.2	24.8	45.1	21.4	18.3	27.3	32.1	29.2	49.9	
Cuba	10.6	9.7	13.3	14.5	16.6	15.2	17.6	24.0	45.8	37.7	42.8	
Paraguay	σ. ġ	8.4	4.1	11.7	6.4	7.1	9.8	13.3	23.0	38.9	21.8	
Venezuela	28.2	11.4	16.7	35.7	2.8	-5.4	9.9	15.9	15.5	12.9	8.2	
Uruguay	2.8	1.8	1.2	4.4	2.7	2.3	4.1	12.7	9.4	12.2	8.4	
Panama	13.0	7.3	5.9	8.1	6.6	4.5	6.4	10.6	7.4	6.3	5.9	
Chile	-1.6	-2.9	1.7	2.0	з.4	4.1	4·3	6.7	7.1	9.6	11.3	
Costa Rica	11.0	ω ώ	10.1	10.1	9.9	2.3	З.О	10.0	15.5	9·3	5.2	
Mexico	-11.4	-9.2	-12.0	-26.5	-28.3	-24.5	-23.1	-17.2	-15.1	-14.5	, ш	
Argentina	-6.5	-3.9	9.9	41.2	33.4	12.3	13.8	21.6	29.7	24.1	23.0	
Ibero-America total	241.1	647.3	365.2	448.8	571.7	497.5	657.8	1,017.1	1,187.1	1,065.6	860.3	
World total	720.2	1,149.5	998.5	1,151.4	1,400.2	1,863.0	2,092.0	3,338.9	4,801.6	4,473.1	3,998.9	2,281.7
Ibero-America as %	%EE	56%	37%	% 6 £	41%	27%	31%	30%	25%	24%	22%	