Chapter 13:
South-South and Triangular Cooperation for Sub-Saharan Africa's Development –With special emphasis on knowledge exchange and co-creation

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1. Introduction

This chapter looks at South-South Cooperation (SSC) and Triangular Cooperation (TrC) in the context of the development of Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA). The reason for our focus on SSC and TrC[1] is twofold. First and most importantly, SSC/TrC has been one of the central principles underpinning and guiding the TICAD process since its beginning in 1993. And second, SSC/TrC has become the key theme both in the UN fora (UN 2012a) and the global process on development effectiveness agenda especially since the 2011 Fourth High Level Forum on Aid Effectiveness (HLF4) in Busan, which strongly highlighted SSC as well as TrC (Global Partnership for Effective Development Cooperation 2011).[2]

This paper has two specific objectives. One is to give a broad picture of

1. As to the definition of SSC and TrC, we rely on the definition of the UN, which reads as follows:
"South-South cooperation development is a process whereby two or more developing countries pursue their individual and/or shared national capacity development objectives through exchanges of knowledge, skills, resources and technical know-how, and through regional and interregional collective actions, including partnerships involving governments, regional organizations, civil society, academia and the private sector, for their individual and/or mutual benefit within and across regions. South-South cooperation is not a substitute for, but rather a complement to, North-South cooperation (UN 2012b, p.5)."
"Triangular cooperation involves Southern-driven partnerships between two or more developing countries supported by a developed country (ies)/or multilateral organization(s) to implement development cooperation programs and projects (UN 2012b, p.5)."

2. HLF4 emphasized that "South-South and triangular cooperation have the potential to transform developing countries' policies and approaches to service delivery by bringing effective, locally owned solutions that are appropriate to country contexts" (Global Partnership for Effective Development Cooperation 2011: p.9).

the current state of SSC vis-à-vis SSA, given the increasing interest and actual involvement in African development by the Southern partners. And the other is to take a closer look at, among various forms of SSC/TrC, how *knowledge exchange and co-creation* is happening, based on JICA's experiences in facilitating such processes by means of TrC.[3]

The body of the chapter consists of two parts. Section 2 is an overview of SSC/TrC targeting SSA. Section 3 will try to share some of Japan's experience in supporting knowledge exchange and co-creation through TrC.

2. SSC/TrC: Overview of Trends and Issues

2.1 Africa as the central actor in SSC

SSC itself is an age-old phenomenon, and Africa, together with Asia, has always been at the center of the movement. Cooperation among the South, particularly on the aspect of economic cooperation, dates back to 1955 when the Asia-Africa Conference was held in Bandung, Indonesia, to discuss Afro-Asian economic and cultural cooperation. In the subsequent decades, developing countries pressed further ahead to form a group to push their economic interests (Cheru 2011).[4] Such a movement first culminated in the Non-Aligned Movement (NAM) involving more than 100 countries. Then in 1964, G 77, a forum for developing countries to articulate and promote their collective interests relating to the global economy was formed within the United Nations (UN). Throughout, Africa was at the center of the movements.

During the 1970s, several key resolutions and policy documents on technical cooperation among developing countries (TCDC) were adopted, which then culminated in the adoption of "the Buenos Aires Plan of Action (BAPA)" at the UN Conference on TCDC held in 1978. The action plan laid out both the conceptual and operational framework for TCDC promotion, which, to this day, remains as the main reference document (UN 1995). Following the launch of BAPA, there were also moves on the economic cooperation front, such as the Caracas Programme of Action adopted by the High-level Conference on

3. The South-South knowledge exchange in the context of African development seems to have been receiving inadequate attention compared to South-South trade and financing in Africa (UNCTAD 2010; UN 2008; Kragelund 2012).

4. The South-South partnership in the field of economic cooperation has until recently been termed as Economic Cooperation among Developing Countries (ECDC) in UN fora.

Economic Cooperation among Developing Countries (ECDC) in May 1981.

Such high levels of interest in SSC (including ECDC), however, waned in the following decades.[5] Nonetheless, several notable actions on SSC/TrC started in the 1990s. In 1993, the UN General Assembly endorsed the strategy and framework for the promotion and application of TCDC (UN Resolution 48/172).[6] And it was around this time that the first TICAD was co-organized in Tokyo by the Government of Japan, the Global Coalition for Africa (GCA)[7] and the UN. In spite of the rather somber situation surrounding SSC at the time, the Tokyo Declaration for African Development adopted at the 1993 TICAD underscored the importance of SSC, especially the exchange of development knowledge and experience between Asia and Africa. The conference declaration read as follows:

> We, the participants of TICAD, recognize that development achievement in East and South-East Asia have[sic] enhanced opportunities for South-South cooperation with Africa. We welcome the interest shown by some Asian and African countries in promoting this cooperation.[8]

The strong focus on SSC by the first TICAD then led to the holding of the Asia-Africa Forum in Bandung in the following year. The subsequent Tokyo Agenda of Action adopted during the second TICAD in 1998 further went on to highlight intra-African cooperation (TICAD 1998). At TICAD III in 2003, after the launch of the New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD) in 2001 and African Union (AU) in 2002, the participants reviewed the achievements and challenges of the preceding ten years and acknowledged the tangible contributions of the TICAD process in continuously upholding and supporting SSC/TrC practices, especially Asia and Africa cooperation. Building on the review results, its tenth anniversary declaration urged African countries and partners to

5. Manning pointed out that such decline of development cooperation from non-DAC states resulted in the dominance of aid from DAC countries and multi-lateral organizations up until the mid-2000s(Manning 2006).

6. DAC also endorsed the importance of SSC in its document of Principles on the New Orientations in Technical Cooperation (OECD/DAC 1991).

7. GCA was later replaced by the Africa Union (AU) following its establishment in 2002. The World Bank joined the TICAD process as co-organizers from the second TICAD.

8. Tokyo Declaration for African Development 1993 (TICAD 1993 Paragraph 26)

further strengthen their partnership in the spirit of solidarity (TICAD 2003). In furthering the achievement of the past TICAD process, the "Yokohama Declaration towards a vibrant Africa", the outcome document of the fourth TICAD was presented in 2008 (TICAD2008).

The centrality of SSC/TrC came to be reaffirmed in December 2009 with the Nairobi Outcome Document being adopted at the United Nations High-Level Conference on South-South Cooperation in Nairobi (UN 2010). Organized as the 30th anniversary of the 1978 Conference on TCDC in Buenos Aires, the conference set out the overall UN SSC/TrC framework.[9] Such heightened energy surrounding this theme has also started to be felt in other global fora, such as the global monitoring process of the Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness. SSC/TrC was registered as one of the major agenda items at the HLF4. The outcome document of the Busan Forum, namely the Global Partnership for Effective Development Cooperation, strongly featured the theme as a highly promising approach for effective development cooperation in coming years.

Thus, in the history of the development of SSC/TrC as an effective means for development cooperation, Africa has been playing a dual role – both the central promoter and beneficiary. We also note that the TICAD process has been instrumental in supporting African countries' efforts in SSC.

2.2 The current state of SSC for Sub-Saharan Africa[10]

The limited availability of data makes it nearly impossible to capture exactly the magnitude and breadth of SSC and TrC for SSA including technical cooperation (TC), which is the main aid instruments for knowledge exchange and co-creation. Currently accessible data is from the OECD Creditor Reporting System (CRS), which incorporates data from the limited numbers of non-DAC donors, including non-DAC

9. The document was formally endorsed at the 66th General Assembly in February 2010. After the conference actions to translate the Nairobi outcome document into practice got into full swing. A prime example is the annual Global South-South Development Expo (GSSD Expo) with the UN office for South-South Cooperation (UNOSSC) as its main secretariat.

10. The Republic of Korea, which has often been included among the emerging donors, is not fully covered in this paper as it has been a DAC member only since 2009. Nevertheless, as a relatively new donor country, it is worth noting that Korea is among the active donors in knowledge promotion such as through its Knowledge Sharing Program (KSP) implemented by the Korea Development Institute (KDI).

OECD members.[11] Other than CRS, the global AidDATA initiative, working closely with the International Aid Transparency Initiative (IATI), has made an effort to develop an aid database using a variety of sources including CRS, and donor reports. However, the data from most non-DAC donors, including those major actors such as China, India and Brazil, are mostly on a project basis, which made the analysis difficult.

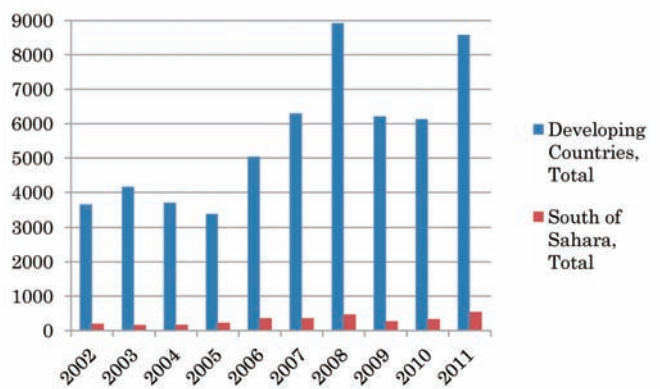
(1) SSC for SSA from partners outside Africa

Non-DAC partners in the CRS data[12]

This paper first looks at the trend of Non-DAC partners reported to DAC CRS, which include several major Non-DAC partners such as Saudi Arabia, Thailand and Russia. We will then turn to China, India, Brazil and South Africa, on which an increasing number of articles and reports are now available, as well as to other non-DAC partners such as North African partners, in later sections.

Figure 1 indicates the gross total ODA disbursements by non-DAC partners on CRS data at both levels of global and SSA countries covering the period between 2004 and 2011.

Figure 1. Gross total ODA disbursements by non-DAC partners reported to OECD (in millions of US dollars)



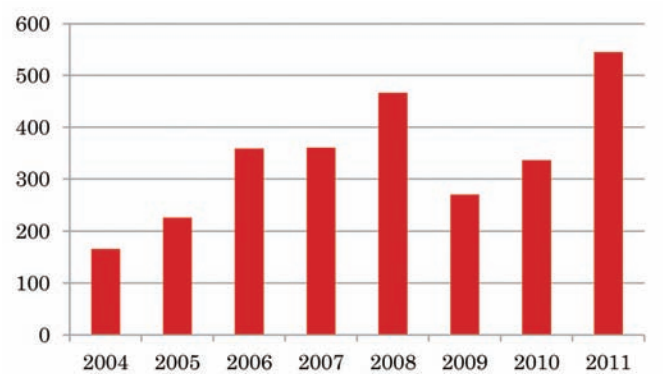
Source: Author based on OECD CRS data (OECD Various Years)

11. Non-DAC donors in the CRS data include the Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Iceland, Israel, Poland, the Slovak Republic, Slovenia, Turkey, Chinese Taipei, Cyprus, Kuwait, Latvia, Liechtenstein, Lithuania, Malta, Romania, Russia, Saudi Arabia, Thailand and the United Arab Emirates.

12. According to the rough definition provided by OECD on the data, ODA denotes the "concessional financing for development ("ODA-like" flows)" (OECD Various Years).

Figure 2 provides a closer look at the disbursement trend regarding SSA from 2004 onwards (indicated by the red columns in Figure 1 above). After the sudden decline in 2009, which may be largely explained by the global financial crisis in late 2008, it returned to an appreciation trend and surpassed the level of 2008 in 2011. The rapid expansion in 2008 and the sudden decline in the following year largely reflect the disbursement trend by oil-producing Arab countries, including Saudi Arabia, which accounts for over 60% of CRS non-DAC donor data. Overall, the ODA trend toward SSA countries seems to be following the same general growth trend of the total ODA by non-DAC partners, at least for the first decade in the 2000s.

Figure 2. Gross total ODA disbursements to SSA countries by non-DAC partners (in millions of US dollars)



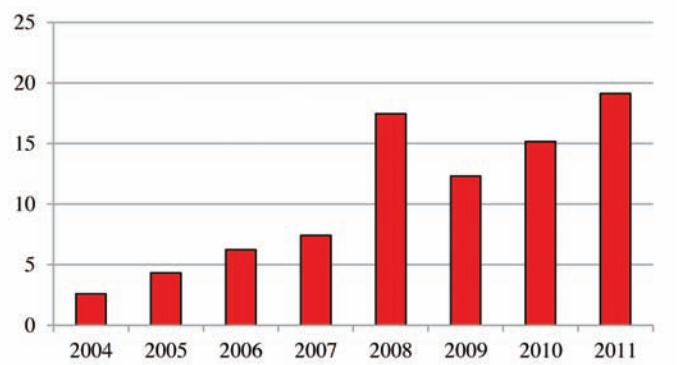
Source: By authors, based on OECD CRS data (OECD Various Years)

In addition to the total volume of ODA disbursement, CRS also collects and publishes data specifically on TC. Figure 3 depicts the non-DAC members' ODA disbursement trend for TC to SSA countries. It displays an upward trend similar to that of the total ODA. It should be noted here, however, that the volume of TC is by far a smaller fraction of the total ODA.[13] Among the non-DAC partners reported to the CRS data, several donors are increasingly active in knowledge exchange through TC in support for the development of SSA countries. One example is

13. The very small volume of TC may also be explained by the composition of CRS data in which oil producing non-DAC donors occupy the large proportion of the total non-DAC donor ODA reported to DAC. The main aid activities of these countries are the financing of infrastructure projects through concessional loan windows such as those of the Saudi Fund for International Development. Also, the fact that other non-DAC donors have not provided disaggregated figures for technical cooperation may also explain the small volume.

Turkey. In addition to its neighboring countries such as those in West Asia, Turkey has been rapidly expanding its assistance to Africa including capacity building assistance through TC in various fields such as agriculture, health and vocational training.[14]

Figure 3. ODA disbursements (Technical Cooperation) to SSA countries by non-DAC partners (in millions of US dollars)

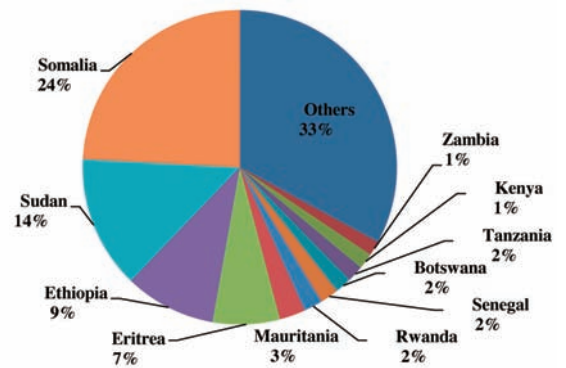


Source: By authors, based on OECD CRS data (OECD Various Years)

Looking at the beneficiaries' side, we can see that a limited number of SSA countries tend to have received a large portion of total non-DAC aid disbursements including TC, as shown in Figure 4, which shows that conflict-affected countries tend to receive handsome portions of aid from non-DAC member countries.

14. It is noteworthy that Turkey has been making efforts in systematizing its cooperation by undertaking various actions including the introduction of joint country strategy paper and talent bank mechanism, which pools Turkish technical experts for South-South knowledge sharing (Gülseven 2012).

Figure 4. Share of beneficiaries in reported non-DAC aid to Sub-Sahara Africa, 2011



Source: By authors, based OECD CRS data (OECD Various Years)

Though most individual non-DAC partners in the CRS data do not provide their regional distributions, the most likely major active partners for SSA are oil-producing Arab countries, which mainly provide assistance to Islamic countries in SSA. Other than that, Turkey is an increasingly active donor; it has pledged to provide more aid to least developed countries (LDCs) including SSA countries.[15]

China, India and Brazil

As stated above, our analysis so far has not included the very important non-DAC partners of China, India and Brazil, and South Africa due to the unavailability of data. Given this shortcoming, we now turn to the estimated figures of *gross* global ODA disbursements of the three abovementioned countries between 2005 and 2010, using information from the OECD Development Cooperation Report 2012.[16] South Africa will be dealt with later.

15. According to the briefing note of Turkey's development cooperation on the webpage of the Turkish government, aid delivered to Africa increased by 67% from 30.9 million US dollars to 71 million US dollars in 2010.

16. There is also a large discrepancy between the DAC estimation and other estimated figures in several other papers such as by Kragelund 2012, potentially due to definitional issues, the different source of information and other reasons.

Table 1. Trend of Gross Global ODA Disbursements by Brazil, China and India (in millions of US dollars)

	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Brazil	158.07	277.21	291.90	336.83	362.21	N/A
China	911.90	1,033.27	1,466.86	1,807.57	1,947.65	2,010.61
India	414.50	381.40	392.60	609.50	488.04	639.07
Total Estimate	1,487.47	1,691.88	2,151.36	2.753.90	2,797.90	2.649.68

Source: By the authors, based on OECD (2012) [17]

Table 1 above gives a rough picture of the general trend of these countries in expanding their global ODA. In comparison to the ODA by non-DAC partners (shown in Figure 1), the figures, likely to be significantly underestimated, indicate that considerably larger volumes of ODA are being provided by these three countries, especially by China.

Their specific contribution to SSA is hard to discern, since regionally disaggregated data is unavailable. The following is a glimpse of their profiles by referring to several existing documents.

China's White Paper on Foreign Aid in 2011[18] states that 45.7% of China's foreign aid in 2009 was allocated to Africa including North Africa. It also reports on China's foreign aid distribution by income levels for recipient countries, namely that 39.7% of the total aid is provided to LDCs, a good part of which could be SSA countries. Combining all these, Chinese's sizable foreign aid is likely to be flowing to SSA countries.

Component-wise, the country has also been continuing and expanding TC and knowledge exchanges. The review of the achievements on the Sharm el Sheikh Action Plan (2010-2012) indicated that the country has accepted around 24,000 professionals to the training programs offered by the Chinese Government during the three year period in various fields like agricultural, education and health (The People's Republic of China 2012).

As regards India's aid to Africa, major beneficiaries of her concessional

17. The table is based on the STATLINK data for Figure V33 of the OECD Development Cooperation Report (DCR) 2012.

18. This white paper on China's foreign aid is the first of its kind published by the Chinese Government.

loan aid through the EXIM Bank from 2003 to 2007 (Indian financial years) include Sudan (21%), Ethiopia (7%) and Mali (5%) (Kondoh et al. 2010, pp.33-34). Under the Africa-India Partnership for Enhanced Cooperation adopted in 2011, training opportunities for over 1,200 professionals for Africa have been provided between 2011-12 (AIFS 2011).

Brazil's SSC, according to the 2009 figure, amounted to over 362 million US dollars,[19] out of which 14% is delivered through TC. In spite of the traditional focus on its support to neighboring countries in Latin American, Brazil is expanding its support to SSA. Moreover, it has also started to extend its assistance to non-Lusophone African countries like Ghana and Burkina Faso.[20]

(2) SSC partners in the African continent

Having looked at the partners outside the continent, we now turn to SSC partnerships on the African continent.

Regional mechanisms for intra-Africa collaboration

First and foremost, the regional organs such as the African Union Commission (AUC), with its development arm of NEPAD and sub-regional organs like SADC and EAC, have played and are increasingly playing larger roles in intra-Africa development cooperation and knowledge facilitation. As part of their mandate, these regional and sub-regional organs have organized various programs and initiatives, which aim to promote the coordinated actions of development cooperation and sharing of knowledge and experience among African countries. Specifically regarding SSC, the AU and NEPAD formulated the African Platform for Development Effectiveness (APDev) in July 2010, with SSC as one of the three thematic thrusts (NEPAD n.d.). In more specific fields, the AUC and NEPAD Agency and the African Development Bank (ADB) have formed an initiative, namely the Programme for Infrastructure Development in Africa (PIDA), for the purpose of coordinated region-wide actions on infrastructure development (e.g., energy, transport, water, and ICT) in Africa (PIDA n.d.). In other areas such as agriculture,

19. This figure only covers the grant portion of aid provided by the Federal Government and excludes concessional loans, debt relief and cooperation by state and local governments (OECD 2012 p.260).

20. However, according to the report by the Brazilian Government, African Portuguese-speaking countries still account for 55% of Brazil's resources for TC in Africa (Brazilian International Cooperation Agency 2010).

the Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme (CAADP) coordinated by NEPAD has been formulated to create a multilateral framework for agricultural development (CAADP n.d.) involving a broad range of stakeholders including state institutions, NGOs, the private sector and research organs in and outside Africa.[21]

The African Peer Review Mechanism (APRM) is an innovative NEPAD initiative worth mentioning. APRM is an African-led self-monitoring mechanism for political, economic and corporate governance among African countries that voluntarily acceded to it.[22] The APRM process of review and the follow-up actions involve not only the government but also other actors such as civil societies and the private sector. As of the end of 2011, 14 countries had been peer-reviewed (APR Secretariat 2012). Though criticisms remain on its limited abilities to hold African leaders accountable, it has certainly offered rare opportunities for mutual learning among African countries on their governance challenges (Grutz 2010). We now turn to look at individual, prominent SSC partner countries in the African continent: South Africa, and North African countries, notably Egypt, Tunisia, and Morocco.

South Africa[23]

Being a BRICS country, South Africa is by far the major actor in SSC in Sub-Saharan Africa with its GDP roughly 40 times larger than average SSA economies. South Africa's cooperation toward African peer countries covers a wide range of activities like aid, trade, security, and politics, which goes beyond the OECD-DAC's categories.[24]

Since 2009 when President Zuma took office, the process of institutional development for SSC has been rapidly progressing, including the establishment of the South African Development Partnership Agency (SADPA), envisaged to be a unified agency for international cooperation, and of the Partnership Fund for Development, which will replace the African Renaissance and International Cooperation Fund (ARF). The

21. NEPAD has also opened a virtual space for the community of practice involving various themes including infrastructure and agriculture. The access to the community of practice for food security is http://www.nepad.org/foodsecurity/group.

22. Thirty three member countries were in APRM as at January 2013 (APR Secretariat 2013).

23. This section draws heavily on Vickers (2012).

24. In 2010, South Africa received about US$1,000 in net ODA. According to Vickers (2012, footnote 1 in p. 536), about 2.2 % of South Africa's ODA was to Africa over the period 2000-2010.

Department of International Relations and Cooperation (DIRCO), renamed from the Department of Foreign Affairs, was also established in 2010 for the purpose of "promoting South Africa's national interests and values" and "the African Renaissance" (DIRCO 2010, p. 6). In April 2012, the concept of SADPA was formally approved by the government. The establishment of SADPA will bring a wide range of changes, including stricter project assessment, mobilization of multiple funding sources, and using various modes of cooperation with emphasis placed on grants and TC.

The notable characteristic of South African cooperation is the country's active support in the areas of peace building, democratic governance and public sector capacity development including public financial management. This largely reflects the historical pathways along which the country has traveled in the post-Apartheid era.

South Africa has been contributing to sub-regional integration by participating in political and economic regional frameworks, such as the Southern African Customs Union (SACU), the Southern African Development Community (SADC), the SADC free trade area, and the Spatial Development Initiative (SDI).

Egypt[25]

Egypt has been an age-old actor of SSC since the 1970s, particularly in Africa and the Middle East, while learning from development experience gained from other regions including Asia. Egypt prioritizes SSC in its foreign policy, with four principle regions: "free trade areas; foreign direct investment; TC; and exerting efforts for the region's positive integration into the global economy" (PEMA 2008, p. 8).

There are two funds for Egyptian SSC: one is the Egyptian Fund for Technical Co-operation with Africa (EFTCA) and the other is the Egyptian Fund for Technical Co-operation with the Commonwealth (EFTCC). The EFTCA started its activities in 1991 in order to consolidate and support cooperation between Egypt and other African countries. Its main activities have been organizing training courses, dispatching experts, and offering emergency humanitarian assistance to countries affected by natural disasters. Under the framework of the EFTCA, Egypt has helped more than 30 African countries, managed at least 45 projects,

25. This section chiefly draws on PEMA 2008 and JICA 2007.

dispatched at least 90 short-term and 140 long-term experts in the areas of health, agriculture, water resources, and education, and provided food, medicine, and logistics assistance to many African countries (INSouth n.d.). The other fund, EFTCC, has organized various training courses in the areas of tourism, culture, crime and investigation, the Arabic language, migration, and medical industries for many CIS countries such as Uzbekistan, Moldova, Kazakhstan, Georgia, Albania, Armenia, Tajikistan, Russia, and Mongolia. Egypt also conducts SSC with other partners such as the EU, USAID, Norway, China and Korea, as well as Japan.

Tunisia[26]

Under the supervision of the Ministry of Planning and International Cooperation, Tunisia has been actively promoting and implementing SSC through the Tunisian Agency of Technical Cooperation (ATCT) established in 1972. The ATCT is obliged to implement the national policy of TC. It has regional offices in Kuwait, Oman, Mauritania, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, and the United Arab Emirates. Its missions include mobilizing appropriate Tunisian human resources to work abroad through TC, providing training for foreign professionals, carrying out technical assistance projects, and promoting SSC/TrC. Tunisia's SSC for Africa covers various areas: poverty reduction, health, vocational training, banking, agriculture, water and the environment, telecommunications, and women's empowerment. The ATCT has dispatched more than 30,000 Tunisian professionals and experts abroad for foreign employers, public and private institutions, and regional and international organizations. It also has provided tailor-made training and standard training programs for 3,000 foreign professionals from more than 39 countries, mainly African countries. These training programs are organized in specialized institutions within the country or by dispatching experts to participants' countries, in cooperation with WB, UNDP, USAID, IDB, GTZ, and JICA.

Morocco[27]

Morocco is a member of the League of Arab States and the Arab Maghreb Union, and maintains friendly ties with the West. Morocco withdrew from the Organization of African Unity (AOU) in 1984 due to its territorial dispute over the Western Sahara. It is currently the only

26. This section draws chiefly on ATCT n.d.

27. This section mainly draws on AMCI n.d. and JICA 2012d.

African country which is not a member of the AU. However, Morocco also places emphasis on measures for Africa. As a foreign policy, Morocco has been promoting cooperation with African and Arab partners.

The Moroccan Agency for International Cooperation (AMCI) established in 1986 has been playing an active role in implementing SSC activities. The AMCI provides 1) training, particularly for foreign students and executives, 2) technical cooperation, and 3) economic and financial cooperation. Morocco receives about 8,000 students (including 6,500 scholarship recipients) from 42 countries, the majority of whom are from African countries. Following South Africa, which is the top investor in Africa, Morocco occupies second place.

The TC provided by the AMCI is to strengthen SSC in various areas through long-, medium-, and short-term training, study visits, dispatching experts, and implementation of joint programs. Partners of Morocco's SSC activities vary: countries of the South for bilateral cooperation, traditional donor countries for triangular cooperation, and international organizations and agencies for multilateral cooperation. The number of beneficiary countries increased from 6 in 2000 to 22 in 2006.

Morocco has also provided economic and financial cooperation since the mid-1990s to support micro-projects in education, health, and small hydro.

2.3 TrC and Sub-Saharan Africa

TrC has been increasingly recognized as a vital modality in support of SSC. Most TrC is delivered through technical cooperation (TCs) including training and dispatch of experts. Its main advantage derives from the opportunities it provides for combining the expertise of diverse development actors[28] – expertise likely to fit the needs of partner countries having similar development challenges. Traditional donors including DAC bilateral donors as well as multilateral development institutions can complement such endeavors through the provision of additional financing and knowledge. Hosono argues that "South and North can collaborate on knowledge creation, knowledge exchange,

28. More rigorous analysis regarding the effectiveness of TrC is a remaining challenge (McEwan 2012).

capacity development, and institution building to implement development solutions at scale."

Below we will have a brief look at TrC's development trends and current status. In fact, a significant part of SSC reviewed above has been conducted as part of the broader triangular partnership.

(1) The trend of TrC by major multilaterals and DAC donors

Globally, the most active bilateral donors in TrC are Japan, Germany and Spain, among which Japan has been widely recognized as the long-standing major actor for years (UN 2008; TT-SSC 2010). Regarding the multilateral institutions, UN specialized agencies including the UN Office of South-South Cooperation (UNOSSC), former Special Unit for South-South Cooperation, UNDP and World Bank are counted as the notable promoters of and contributors to TrC.

Aside from Japan, the details of whose TrC practices for SSA will be touched on in the next section, Germany has been the major TrC contributor mainly through GIZ. Though Latin America has been the main region for German TrC, it has also applied TrC to other regions including SSA (TT-SSC 2010). One example was the collaboration between Germany and Brazil to help strengthen the National Institute of Standardization and Quality (INNOQ) in Mozambique to improve the quality standards of products in Mozambique building on the capacity developed in the National Institute of Metrology, Standardization and Industrial Quality (INMETRO) in Brazil with past GIZ assistance (TT-SSC n.d.a).

As exemplified by the various declarations and guidelines illustrated in the preceding sections, the UN system has been a key promoter and actor in TrC for many years with UNOSSC as the focal point of the entire system. UNOSSC offers diverse modalities for the promotion and support of SSC/TrC to its partners. It manages the UN's major trust fund for SSC/TrC, namely the United Nations Fund for South-South Cooperation. Through a cost-sharing arrangement, it also cooperates with donor governments, including Japan, to support SSC/TrC initiatives. Some major events organized by UNOSSC are supported by this cost-sharing modality, one of which is the annual Global South-South Development EXPO to showcase successful Southern development solutions to the complex challenges facing the South.

UNOSSC also provides management services to various funds including the G-77's Perez-Gurrero Trust Fund for South-South Cooperation and the India, Brazil and South Africa Facility for Poverty and Hunger Alleviation. It has recently established other new mechanisms such as the South-South Global Assets and Technological Exchange (SS-GATE), which supports the South-South public-private partnership through the provision of financial and other knowledge facilitation support.

Other UN specialized agencies such as UNEP, UNIDO and ILO have long engaged in TrC. For instance, in the furtherance of its TrC, UNEP has recently launched the South-South Cooperation Exchange Mechanism for capacity development and technology transfer in the environmental and sustainable development field, which is the online platform to exchange cases of innovative field practices in addition to its more traditional support to SSC through training, workshops and forums (UNEP n.d.).

The World Bank Institute (WBI), the training and knowledge exchange arm of the Bank, is also in the process of further strengthening its function as the support organ for south-south knowledge exchange and capacity development. WBI is using a broad range of SS exchange instruments including the South-South Experience Exchange Trust Fund (SSEETF), a catalytic funding mechanism launched in 2008 for demand-driven SSC initiatives, the Global Development Learning Network (GDLN), a mechanism to promote learning by linking affiliated institutions with ICT such as video-conferencing systems, and also support to regional centers of excellence such as the Zimbabwe-based African Capacity Building Foundation (ACBF), a multi-lateral foundation to support capacity development in policy formulation and public management.

(2) JICA's triangular practice for SSA[29]

Japan has been widely recognized as the long-standing major bilateral actor in triangular cooperation (UN 2008, Fordelone 2009, TT-SSC 2010). The advent of JICA's TrC dates back to 1975, the early days of SSC. Japan has been noted for the advancement of institutionalization regarding its engagement in SSC/TrC, which is still rare among DAC bilateral donors. The SSC/TrC has been clearly stated as one of the central approaches of Japan's ODA in its ODA charter (Government of Japan 2003), mid-term

29. This section draws on JICA's internal documents.

policy (Government of Japan 2005) and JICA's thematic guideline of SSC (JICA 2005).

Over the years, the volume and regional coverage of Japan's TrC has been expanded and diversified for greater impact. The major form of Japan's TrC has been what is called third-country training, or triangular training programs (JICA 2011). Many of these training programs in various fields are offered by the organizations in developing countries, which have built up their expertise and capacity in their respective areas through prior bilateral technical cooperation with JICA and other bilateral and multilateral aid agencies.

Among the regions, participants from SSA have steadily increased, especially since the second half of the 1990s following the launch of the first TICAD in 1993. In 1993, the number of participants from SSA was below 200, which is around 11% of the total beneficiaries in the year. By 2011, the number increased to 1,228 participants; the equivalent of 34% of the total participants (3,780). Also, it is noteworthy that several SSA countries like Ghana, Kenya, Senegal and Tanzania have become active in providing training for other SSA countries, the beneficiaries of which amounted to 381 participants in 2011. This implies that regional centers of excellence, which have knowledge and experiences to share with fellow countries, can be nurtured whatever the level of national income. Other than triangular training programs, JICA also helped dispatch experts from pivotal countries, though its size remains modest, with 23 experts in 2011.

To improve the impact, many of these training and expert dispatch programs have been combined with other aid instruments such as financial assistance within the broader program and project packages including the case of the African Institute of Capacity Development (AICAD), which we will look at shortly. New types of TrC approaches such as the establishment of a regional network as the community of practice, the increased use of ICT including videoconferencing and Internet-based information sharing have also been increasingly adopted, which will also be illustrated later.

To institutionalize TrC, Japan has adopted a system called partnership programs. Over the years, Japan has built up a framework to support SSC by partnering with countries with substantial capabilities for and

willingness to promote SSC (JICA 2009). On the African continent, Japan has partnership programs with three countries: Egypt, Tunisia and Morocco.

In cooperation with the EFTCA in Egypt, JICA started implementing triangular training programs in 1985. In 1998, as an output of TICAD II, Egypt and Japan signed a partnership program, namely the Japan-Egypt Triangular Technical Cooperation Programme for the Promotion of South-South Cooperation in Africa. By 2012, Japan and Egypt cooperated in organizing more than 20 training programs on various themes such as rice cultivation and infectious disease prevention, and accepted about 2,200 participants from 49 SSA countries. The idea of cost-sharing was also introduced. Under the Programme, the two countries have been jointly implementing TC activities to support the socio-economic development of African countries by organizing international training and dispatching experts.

Tunisia entered into partnership with Japan in 1999, when the two governments signed the Japan-Tunisia Triangular Technical Cooperation Programme for the Promotion of South-South Cooperation in Africa. Many activities under the framework focus on areas that contribute to the achievement of the MDGs, such as agriculture, water, and health/medical. By 2012, Japan and Tunisia had cooperated in organizing 17 training programs for about 900 participants and dispatching 20 Tunisian experts.

Morocco and Japan signed the Japan-Morocco Triangular Technical Cooperation Programme for the Promotion of South-South Cooperation in Africa in 2003. Under the program, Morocco has been conducting international training related to such fields as road maintenance, fisheries, and maternal and child health. By 2012, Morocco had implemented nine international training courses for 1,009 participants from 26 SSA countries. One example is a training program for road maintenance engineers of Francophone SSA countries offered by the Institute of Training on Road Maintenance and Construction Machines (IFEER).[30] Using inputs from Japan as appropriate, including Japanese

30. IFEER was established in 1993 with the support of the Japanese government including the capital grant aid for its facility construction as well as technical cooperation for capacity development. The institute has become a sub-regional training center for road maintenance engineers of Francophone SSA countries.

road maintenance equipment widely in use in Francophone SSA countries, the course has been providing training fitted to the local needs.

Though not having signed a partnership program, South Africa is a major partner for Japan in supporting SSC for SSA. One of the notable triangular cooperation activities between Japan and South Africa is the support for the NEPAD initiative, in which South Africa has been one of the major players, hosting its secretariat. As an integral part of NEPAD support activities, South Africa's Public Administration Leadership and Management Academy (PALMS) and JICA have been collaborating to organize triangular programs for the training of trainers for public sector development. Since its start, the program has accepted the trainers of management development institutes (MDI) all over SSA countries.

As illustrated by the examples above, Japan's strength in TrC may lie in its accumulated experiences and the wealth of relationships of mutual trust it has developed with a number of Southern partners through its long commitment in TrC. In recent years, it has been trying to diversify its modes of delivery. The remaining task for Japan may be to take stocks of its vast past achievements, review them, and come up with innovative models fitted to the needs of the 21st century.

Though sketchy, our overview presented above of SSC and TrC for SSA shows that over a long period, starting from the 1950s, there has been steady progress in the promotion of SSC and TrC, involving more actors and increasing amounts of resources, accompanied by various institutional developments.

3. Case Studies of Triangular Cooperation for Knowledge Exchanges in SSA

So far, we have looked at the history, current state, and major actors and magnitude of SSC/TrC for SSA. We will now look at specific cases, focusing particularly on knowledge sharing and co-creation. The following five cases have been chosen to illustrate the wide variety of forms and contents of TrC.

3.1 Cases

(1) Transferring localized knowledge to neighboring countries: Vocational and technical Training[31]

Senegal's Vocational Training Center (CFPT) has been playing the role of a center of excellence among French-speaking African countries to increase human resources for industrial development.

The CFPT was established in 1984 with the support of Japan to meet the shortage of entry- and middle-level technical workers, which was an important target in the country's 6th four-year economic development plan (81/82-84/85). The center was designed from the outset with the idea that Senegalese human resources would be nurtured by Senegalese instructors. Since its establishment, the institute has trained about 2,300 technicians and engineers who completed its two- or three-year programs (JICA n.d.).[32] These courses have come to be recognized as the country's top level programs, with their completion being treated as a certified qualification for studies in France and Canada. In addition, CFPT has been providing training and retraining to workers in both formal and informal sectors as an implementing organization of the Office National de Formation Professonnelle (ONFP)[33] since the ONFP's establishment in 1984.

Over the years, the CFPT gradually developed its own knowledge and skills best suited to the country's needs. At first, the training content was heavily influenced by what was brought by Japanese experts. With time, however, various innovations were made to produce locally adjusted technical training systems. One small example of such adaptation is that at the CFPT, the students—future leaders in the workplace—are expected to maintain the workshop (work place) in an orderly, safe and clean fashion, according to the key lessons of the 5S doctrines—Sorting, Set in order, Systematic cleaning, Standardizing, and Sustaining. While maintaining its original message, this principle was localized and introduced into the Senegalese context with due modifications to make it suit local labor customs.

31. This section draws on JICA 2012a.

32. Various qualifications obtained through Senegal's education system are valid not only in neighboring countries, but also in France (JICA 2000, p. 324).

33. ONFP is funded by corporate employment insurance, donors, and international organizations that provide financial support for vocational training.

While building up its own capacity, the CFPT started supporting a large number of countries—more than 20 of them—in their human resource development; in 1999, in cooperation with JICA, it started providing 16 French-speaking countries with international training programs (JICA 2012b). Eventually, the Institute came to have about 15% of their BTI and BTS trainees coming from other countries.[34] Cultural and socio-economic similarities with the neighboring French-speaking countries certainly facilitated the transfer and sharing of technologies and knowledge. This has resulted in making CFPT one of the core institutions for the development of human resources in West Africa.

One major beneficiary of such cooperation is the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC). Concurrently with the CFPT project, preparations for a JICA-supported project in DRC were under way. The project aimed to develop the capacity of the DRC's National Institute of Professional Preparation (INPP),[35] in which a group of core instructors had to be trained. Since CFPT seemed an ideal resource to support INPP, in 2010, discussions between INPP and CFPT began, facilitated by JICA; the two institutions worked out cooperation plans to meet the needs of the PP with the available resources at CFPT, and cooperation between the two started.

(2) Seeking relevant knowledge from around the world: Civil Service Training Centre in Ghana

The Ghanaian case presented below illustrates an interesting case where a wide range of knowledge was sought and accumulated from a variety of sources, and once internalized, such knowledge was shared more widely with others. Such knowledge exchange happened in a TC project assisted by JICA titled "Capacity Development of Public Administration," launched in 2007. Its aim was to improve the capacity of the Ghanaian Civil Service Training Center (CSTC). The project focused on two key cross-cutting themes: Ethical Leadership (EL) and Quality and Productivity Improvement (QPI).

From the onset, the project tried to seek knowledge and experience not

34. The number of overseas trainees is limited to 15% of the total due to prioritizing Senegalese citizens (JICA 2000, p. 326).

35. The INPP was awarded the International Star Award for Quality (ISAQ) in the Gold Category at the 2012 International Quality Awards in Geneva, Switzerland. The ISAQ is an award for those who are recognized for investing in the improvement of their products and services (ISAQ 2010).

only from Japan but also from other Asian and Sub-Sahara African countries including Singapore, Malaysia, Bangladesh, Tanzania and South Africa, which are the members of the Commonwealth and share many common features in their civil service. In particular, the Civil Service College (CSC) in Singapore played a central role. JICA, with its close ties with these partners,[36] played the dual role of catalyst and knowledge actor.

During the project, the Ghanaian CSTC acquired relevant knowledge resources from partner countries through diverse modes of triangular cooperation, including face-to-face training sessions as well as video-conferencing. Extensive and intensive exchanges were promoted between Ghanaian officials and their Southern counterparts.

All through these programs, CSTC applied a systematic approach to planning, execution and evaluation of training. Complemented by the improvement of training facilities, the annual number of training programs offered at CSTC has increased from 15 courses to 54 a year, which reflects the improved capacity of CSTC in organizing training provisions.[37]

With these achievements, CSTC is now moving toward becoming a regional center of excellence in civil service training. Assisted by JICA, the center has started offering training opportunities to Liberia and Sierra Leone. CSTC undertook training needs assessments in the two countries to adjust the training content to suit the needs. The first training was successfully launched in September 2011 and will provide training opportunities to civil servants from the neighboring two countries, with the aim of making them facilitators for future training programs in their respective countries.

(3) Establishing a regional knowledge platform for poverty reduction: AICAD[38]

The Project of the African Institute for Capacity Development (AICAD) is a cooperation project focusing on regional cooperation in human

36. Japan and Singapore had established close ties, and to facilitate collaboration for TrC, they introduced the Japan-Singapore Partnership Programme for the 21st Century (JSPP21) in 1994.

37. This number includes training programs undertaken outside the project.

38. This section draws on JICA 2012c.

resource development at the higher education level in East Africa. The project is the brainchild of TICAD II, where the idea of establishing a human capacity development base for poverty reduction was discussed. Later, in 2000, in collaboration with Japan, Kenya, Tanzania, and Uganda reached an agreement to establish AICAD. AICAD was expected to work toward poverty reduction in East Africa through cooperation of the three countries; it highlighted three functions for community-level development activities: 1) research and development, 2) training and extension, and 3) information network and documentation.

Since its establishment, AICAD's functions and organizational structure have been steadily developed. Headquartered at the Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology (JKUAT) in Kenya,[39] it had three country offices: at the Egerton University in Kenya, the Makerere University in Uganda, and the Sokoine University of Agriculture in Tanzania. Biannually, Governing Board meetings are held to discuss important issues of AICAD's management among the three countries' ministries related to finance and education, science and technology, and representatives of the member universities.[40]

With poverty reduction as its ultimate goal, AICAD and its members have been promoting a wide variety of activities. They include, for example, in-country training programs and comprehensive multiple-level "Community Empowerment Programmes" for communities, a "Knowledge and Technology Dissemination Programme" for livelihood improvement, East African region-wide training,[41] and the New Rice for Africa (NERICA) dissemination project. These activities resulted in enhancing social cohesion of target communities and women's empowerment. Skills and knowledge obtained through these activities have also been being disseminated by the participants to communities, supporting poverty reduction in member countries.

AICAD's function of networking with other organizations has also been developing. Since 2010, AICAD has been expanding its activities in the area of university outreach activities. It has conducted four regional training sessions in collaboration with the World Bank Institute (WBI)

39. JICA had supported the establishment and development of JKUAT since 1980.

40. As of 2012, the participating universities from the three countries amount to 19 (seven from Kenya, seven from Tanzania, and five from Uganda).

41. Some of the regional training was organized in collaboration with WBI and WIA.

and the Wetlands International Africa (WIA). Also, AICAD's three country offices have been constructing good partnerships with various organizations from national/local governments to NGOs.

Cooperating with Asia played an important role in AICAD's development. Starting in 2002, various professional knowledge exchanges were conducted between educators of the three East African countries and those of Asia, namely Indonesia, Thailand and Japan.

The project had a system of sharing and spreading knowledge and skills. For instance, in 2007, a regional training program for export promotion was held in collaboration with Indonesia's Export Trade Center. Subsequently, in Tanzania, the knowledge and skills shared from Indonesia at the training program spread into society through a cascade system of training: to community leaders and then from them to local community members.

(4) Networking for knowledge exchange: Coalition for African Rice Development (CARD)

The "Coalition for African Rice Development", or CARD,[42] is an example of a network-based initiative for knowledge exchange and co-creation. Launched on the occasion of the 2008 TICAD IV, it is a multi-stakeholder platform with a well-established management structure "to support the efforts of African countries to increase rice production (CARD 2011)." Providing complementary support for capacity development of SSA governments in effectively managing rice sector development, it has helped interested SSA governments in developing National Rice Development Strategies (NRDS) within the framework of Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (PRSPs), agricultural development strategies as well as the country framework for the Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme (CAADP). So far, 21 out of 23 African member countries have successfully formulated NRDS through broad multi-stakeholders consultation process (CARD 2013). It has also provided other kinds of support for creating an environment for rice-related investment.

One of the hallmarks of CARD is its engagement of diverse actors. The steering committee is represented by a broad range of stakeholders

42. For a general description of CARD and a discussion from an agricultural technology's point of view, see, respectively, Chapters 2 and 3 of this volume.

including multi- and bilateral-organs, rice producing partner countries in SSA as well as Africa-based regional organs and initiatives. They include NEPAD, AGRA, FARA, WB, CGIAR, FAO, IRRI and JICA other than for SSA countries (JICA / AGRA 2008; CARD 2011).

With such broad engagement, CARD has tried to act as the forum among international and local knowledge organs like research institutions and donors. In other words, the CARD network is in itself an initiative and mechanism for multi-stakeholder knowledge exchange.

Another notable feature is its demand-driven approach. As the needs and priorities for rice production promotion widely differ from country to country, CARD specialists assist partner countries to identify the bottlenecks in rice production development and then extend the necessary support to address the bottlenecks by inviting specialists from knowledge partners in the CARD network.

CARD has also started to consciously promote intra-regional as well as inter-regional South-South and Triangular learning.[43] SSC / TrC has been set as one of four pillars of the CARD programs. Lately, CARD has embarked on a sub-program of linking Asian partners with SSA counterparts. In late 2012, it organized three video conferences for the promotion of the South-South learning process with ASEAN partners including the Philippines, Thailand, Vietnam, and Japan (CARD 2011, 2012). Also included were government officials and private companies like seed sellers and rice millers, as well as farmers' groups. The participants are now in the process of feeding back what they have learned from the conference into the implementation process of their NRDSs.

As seen from the above, CARD is a dynamic and broad network and platform for promoting intra- and inter-regional knowledge exchange aiming at higher productivity and more profitable rice production.

(5) Creating solutions to shared challenges: cross-border road transport

Triangular cooperation (TrC) can be an effective way of addressing

43. As part of the action for promoting information sharing on rice development, CARD is now developing a dedicated webpage with ample space for storing relevant information with links to all the key African initiatives in rice development (CARD 2011).

regionally-shared issues among countries. One such example is the initiative of promoting One Stop Border Post (OSBP).[44]

OSBP is a trade facilitation approach through the promotion of harmonization and alignment of legal, institutional and procedural aspects of trade at borders with concomitant infrastructure development. With complementary financial and technical support from international donors including JICA, an OSBP for road transport was first introduced at the Chirundu border between Zimbabwe and Zambia in December 2009 with tangible impacts on smoother and more efficient border management. Even though the OSBP's inauguration has been relatively recent, it has already produced significant improvements including the reduction of waiting times for border formalities.[45] The successful launch of Africa's first OSBP at Chirundu was a case where the concept of integrated border management was put into practice. The OSBP at Chirundu itself was the South-South partnership between Zimbabwe and Zambia assisted by both multilateral and bilateral donors including the World Bank, UK DFID and JICA. Right after the launch, a workshop on the OSBP for road transport was organized with invitees from RECs and representatives of five East African countries, which had planned to introduce OSBPs under the coordination of the East African Community (EAC).

Following the success at Chirundu, the OSBP practice is now being replicated on other borders such as Maraba between Kenya and Uganda and Namanga between Kenya and Tanzania as an integral part of the regional infrastructure initiative. Recognizing an increasing role of regional organizations such as the Southern African Development Community (SADC) and the East Africa Community (EAC) in catalyzing exchanges of knowledge and experience of development practices as well as for the harmonization of cross-border activities, JICA, with other development partners, has helped these regional organs in support of their stronger coordination and regulatory capacity in scaling-up the OSBP approach.

44. For more details, see Chapter 8 of this volume.

45. It is reported that the required time for completing the border control has been reduced from 1–2 hours to 20 minutes for passenger cars, from 2 hours to 1 hour for buses, and from 1–2 days to less than one day for trucks, respectively (See Chapter 8 of this volume).

3.2. Modes of SSC/TrC for knowledge exchange and co-creation

(1) Modes of knowledge exchange

Knowledge sharing and co-creation through SSC/TrC can take a wide variety of forms, depending on the kind of knowledge being dealt with, and the environment in which the exchange takes place. Below is a simple typology of the forms. It should be noted here, however, that the types below are not mutually exclusive and an initiative could evolve from one type to the other with time.

Hub-and-spokes with centers of excellence

In recent years, knowledge exchange through networks has come to draw increasing attention as promising architecture. Among the varied forms of networks, the first is what can be described as the hub-and-spokes-type knowledge exchange. This is a simple form of network relying, at least initially, on an established central institution as a hub of the knowledge sharing activities. And as the network develops, spontaneous exchanges and interactions among the network members often occur, with which the process of a virtuous cycle could kick in. Among the cases presented above, the Senegalese and the Ghanaian ones represent this model, where the CFPT in Senegal and the CSTC in Ghana played central roles. The effectiveness of having these kinds of "centers of excellence" has been proven through a number of cases (Hosono 2013). Examples abound worldwide; to cite a few from Africa: Tanzania as a hub of quality control in hospital management (Honda 2012), Kenya as a hub of strengthening science and mathematics education (Ishihara 2012), and Egypt as a hub of infectious disease prevention and surveillance (TT-SSC n.d.b).

Complex form of network/platform for knowledge exchange and sharing

Increasingly, more complex network forms of knowledge exchange and sharing are being applied in recent initiatives. For this, unlike the case of the above hub-and-spokes, no single institution is assumed to be a central knowledge organ; rather, the alliance comprised a number of interested parties interacting among themselves.

AICAD links up multiple regional research and training organs such as the universities and NGOs. The AICAD headquarters in Kenya plays a facilitating role for knowledge exchanges among the members. CARD, as its name (the "Coalition") indicates, is essentially "a consultative group of donors, research institutions and other relevant organizations

that aims to promote rice cultivation in Africa via information sharing, harmonization of existing initiatives and projects and advocacy for further investment" (JICA/AGRA 2008; CARD 2011). Within the network, these diverse actors, each having specific expertise, share and learn a broad range of knowledge, including the formulation of national rice development strategies, agricultural extension methods and the knowledge on new high-yielding rice varieties. The CARD secretariat then plays the role of catalyzing and helps promote such multi-actor exchanges. With its expanding stakeholders and increasingly active knowledge exchanges, AICAD and CARD now evolve into more like a "platform" for knowledge sharing and exchange.

Partnership for knowledge sharing and joint problem solving

In contrast to the above two types of knowledge exchange based on networks, the OSBP cases exemplify a tighter partnership among the members seeking solutions to their shared or similar development challenges. This process can, however, develop further, once the knowledge created proves useful. As illustrated in the OSBP's case, the knowledge and experience created through the tight-knit collaboration between Zimbabwe and Zambia are being shared with countries in eastern and southern Africa. The case of Ghana in civil service training also illustrates the process of a problem-driven partnership for knowledge exchange: starting from the core partnership with a few commonwealth countries including Singapore, Ghana now further disseminates a locally adapted approach for civil service training to Sierra Leone.

(2) Institutional arrangement

Different knowledge exchange requires different institutions. In some cases, as in CARD and AICAD, strong institutional arrangements were introduced from the very beginning; being large-scale projects involving multiple layers of actors, obviously these two projects needed to have a solid institutional base, such as organizational structures and governing bodies; in the case of CARD, the Steering Committee and other structures were put in place, and, for AICAD, networking systems connecting the three countries under the Governing Board as the highest decision making body were set up.

In contrast, the institutional building process took a quite different path in the case of the Senegalese and Ghanaian projects; it was a process of

spontaneous and gradual development: the linkages between the core organizations (i.e., CFPT in Senegal and CSTC in Ghana) and their partner organizations were developed gradually as the knowledge sharing expanded by means of workshops and training courses.

These spontaneously developed institutions, however, can sometimes grow into more formalized organizations. For example, in a project concerning science and mathematics education, a knowledge sharing movement started with an initiative by Kenya, and over the years it gradually developed into a more formalized organization, comprising 27 African countries and regions, with well-articulated mechanisms for the network's governance (Ishihara 2012). A similar experience can be found in a case of hospital management where, with Tanzania as a pivotal country, gradual networking progressed, which eventually grew into an organization of mutual learning involving 15 countries (Honda 2012).

The OSBP's case illustrates another promising pattern. It is a case where the function of regional knowledge sharing on OSBP was strategically incorporated into well-established regional economic organizations such as SADC and EAC. Such approach of using regional organs in knowledge sharing would lead to more harmonized and less fragmented SSC/TrC in the region.

(3) The medium of exchange

As preceding sections have demonstrated, effective knowledge sharing requires the strategic and timely applications of diverse instruments; they could include face-to-face training sessions, dispatch of technical experts, workshops and seminars, and the use of ICT-based information platforms. Especially, more and more opportunities have become available, taking advantage of ICT for knowledge exchange, as exemplified by the WBI's GDLN, APDev's Internet-based communities of practice, as well as the use of video-conferencing in the case of Ghana's Civil Service Training.

On the other hand, it has also been widely recognized that face-to-face learning opportunities continue to be critical in knowledge sharing, particularly with regard to the sharing of tacit knowledge (World Bank and Korea Development Institute 2012; Nonaka 2008). To further improve the impact of SSC/TrC in coming years, strategic and creative

use of these multiple instruments should be explored through the sharing of good practices among stakeholders of SSC/TrC.

(4) Capacity development for more effective SSC/TrC

As an increasing number of countries expand their development cooperation activities, they are also strengthening their capacity as effective SSC performers. As shown above, the ongoing preparation towards the establishment of SADPA in South Africa is an example of such endeavor. Capacity development is also critical on the other side of SSC/TrC, the beneficiaries.

An example of systematic joint efforts for the development of the capacity as SSC partners is the one by the Brazilian Cooperation Agency of the Ministry of External Relations (ABC), UNOSSC and JICA. They have recently embarked on an innovative joint capacity development program in the management aspect of SSC/TrC planning and operations. It is an initiative to provide opportunities for knowledge and experience sharing among the government staff in charge of SSC/TrC technical cooperation. The target countries include both middle-income countries including Brazil mainly as SSC/TrC providers as well as low-income countries, which are mainly beneficiaries. In March 2013, its inaugural "international training course on management of South-South and Triangular Technical Cooperation" was organized in Brasília as part of the program; the program will span the next three years.[46] The participants of the first training comprised 39 practitioners from 36 countries, including 17 African countries.

Lastly, we maintain that the opportunity for being an SSC cooperation provider is open to any country or organization beyond prominent emerging economies. As illustrated in the Senegalese and Ghanaian cases above, with capacity development, organizations can grow into regional centers of excellence for knowledge sharing, as long as the countries and/or organizations have strong ownership and a persistent will to develop such capacity. Perhaps traditional North-South cooperation by means of TrC can have a role to play in facilitating such capacity development processes, as exemplified in the above cases. In fact, there are countless cases of such capacity development of

46. In addition to the training opportunities, the program also includes other complementary support for SSC/TrC management including online consultation services and advisory missions especially for selected focus countries.

institutions supported by traditional partners. The international community should continue to offer support, by means of appropriate TrC and others, as such countries and organizations that wish to develop their capacities to grow into cooperation providers.

4. Summary and Some Concluding Remarks and Implications

The discussion in Section 2.1 showed that Africa has been a central actor as the promoter and beneficiary of SSC. We also noted that the TICAD process has been playing an important role in promoting the momentum toward more and better SSC for African development. Though sketchy, our discussion in sections 2.2 and 2.3 has revealed that a wide variety of actors have long been and are acting as SSC partners for the development of SSA including regional organs and North African countries, in addition to the oft-cited emerging economies. The lack of data on the activities of emerging and other actors is a serious obstacle in understanding the whole picture, and more effort is called for in data collection and information sharing.

And in Section 3, we argued, based on the experiences we at JICA have accumulated, that knowledge sharing and co-creation through SSC and TrC can take a variety of forms with diverse instruments, depending on the types of knowledge creation and solutions needed. We also argued that knowledge sharing and co-creation should not be monopolized by a small number of actors but is a possibility for all aspiring countries and organizations. In that regards, the North donors with their extensive field office network and long history of close collaboration with counterpart organs in SSA countries are well-positioned to provide support. It is thus expected that the TICAD process will continue to provide space and opportunities for experience sharing and open dialogue among broad stakeholders on the furtherance of SSC/TrC towards inclusive and dynamic development in Africa.

Finally, having attempted to provide an overview of SSC/TrC for Sub-Saharan Africa's development, the authors renewed their recognition of the multi-faceted and complex nature of SSC/TrC; a plethora of issues surrounding SSC/TrC remain uninvestigated, such as their geopolitical nature and the measurement and evaluation of their impact in the

beneficiary countries.[47] These remaining but critical questions require further research.

47. McEwan and Mawdsley 2012 argues for the need of more critical analysis of triangular or trilateral cooperation beyond the managerial/technical discussions, which most currently available papers including this one are limited to.

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