

## 1: Ireland's Foreign Aid in - [PDF Document]

*Helen Oneill. Download with Google Download with Facebook The Evolution of Ireland's Foreign Aid over the past 20 years: A 'Review of ISIA Reviews' since*

Irish Studies in International Affairs, Vol. JSTOR is a not-for-profit service that helps scholars, researchers, and students discover, use, and build upon a wide range of content in a trusted digital archive. We use information technology and tools to increase productivity and facilitate new forms of scholarship. It marked the twenty-fifth anniversary of the programme, which got a new logo and acquired a new name: The year was also special because the programme was the subject of a peer review by members of the Development Assistance Committee of the OECD. The external environment within which the Irish aid programme operates also saw some important developments. Negotiations between the European Union and the African, Caribbean and Pacific group on a successor agreement to the Lomé Convention were finally concluded in December. Global aid flows to developing countries, which had experienced some recovery in , increased again last year. It is with an overview of relevant developments at the global and European levels that this review of Irish aid in begins. The European Commission brings the membership to Thus, the challenge to return to levels is already huge, even before a renewed commitment to reach the UN target is attempted. The main influences on the overall size of global aid flows in any year are the contributions of the largest donors-which also happen to be the countries with the largest economies. Overall declines in aid between and were largely due to falling allocations by the G7 countries. Total aid provided by the fifteen DAC members outside the G7 group increased by 2. Aid provision in Belgium and Spain fell in It still does not speak with one coherent voice on the subject of aid. This content downloaded from This convention, initially signed in and renewed several times since then, is the most comprehensive agreement on aid and trade operating between a group of industrialised countries that has grown from 9 to 15 since and a group of developing countries that has grown from 46 to 71 over the same period. Agreement was reached on 10 December and formally signed in the capital of Benin on 23 June It will be known as the Cotonou Convention and will operate for a year period. However, when 9 billion euros that are still unspent from EDFs 6, 7 and 8 are added in, the total amount of aid available for the period up to will be A credit ceiling set by the European Investment Bank adds another 1. Negotiations on the trade part of the new agreement proved to be very difficult. Because the trade preferences currently exist, in effect, under a waiver from the WTO, new WTO-compatible arrangements will have to be put into effect after a transition period. However, not all ACP states-in particular many of those in sub-Saharan Africa-may feel capable of accommodating to free trade with the EU. However, the continuation of such preferential arrangements would have to be negotiated with the WTO. The failure to launch a new trade round in Seattle in December makes it unclear when or how such a negotiation might take place. Reductions in levels of tariff and non-tariff barriers, following the Uruguay round of multilateral trade negotiations, are continuing to erode the preferences agreed under the Lomé Convention. The size of the benefits that will be created for the ACPs from the new trade arrangements will also depend on the extent to which the EU makes progress under the heading of policy coherence, both at the level of the European Commission and at that of the individual EU member states. In the Irish aid programme celebrated its twenty-fifth anniversary. During the year, the programme got a new logo and its name was changed from Irish Aid to Ireland Aid. Towards the end of , the programme received a very high rating in the peer review carried out by the DAC. The main recommendations of the review team were as follows: Even a modest extension in the number of priority countries should be evaluated carefully. In the longer term, establishing an independent implementation agency is an appealing option from an operational point of view. The evaluation of area-based programmes should be given greater emphasis. It also provides information on the allocation for Targets and outturns The targets for the years , published in the Strategy Plan,<sup>10</sup> were: A subsidiary target of achieving a two- to-one ratio of bilateral to multilateral aid by was also set. The only target currently in place is an ODA target of 0. Table 1 shows that total ODA has been increasing strongly and steadily since and that the nominal targets for and were not only met but exceeded. A strategy plan Dublin, Indeed, if these forecasts were to be realised,

ODA that was equal to 0. A more long-term target for the Irish government is the one established by the UN in 2000, under which most donors, including Ireland, aim to spend 0.7% of GDP by 2015. On 6 September 2000, at the UN Millennium Summit, the taoiseach, Bertie Ahern, formally and for the first time committed the Irish government to reaching the UN target by the end of 2015. In the government began to consider various options, within both the bilateral and the multilateral programmes, through which progress towards the target of 0.7% of GDP. Finally, although the target of achieving a two-to-one ratio of bilateral to multilateral aid was not reached by 2005, considerable progress had been made by that date, as can be seen in Table 1. However, the ratio fell to 1.5:1 by 2006. Administration costs and tax deductibility The annual costs of administering the Irish aid programme have risen only marginally since 2000. If the programme increases significantly there will have to be a corresponding expansion in personnel. The great value of the scheme lies in its creation of a culture that encourages individuals and corporations to make contributions to development NGOs, thereby providing them with more resources to enable them to expand their programmes. The amounts of the tax deductions claimed in the three years 2000-2002 This content downloaded from 129.173.255.100 At first glance, as Table 1 shows, the scheme appears to be having very positive results at this stage. It is simply an estimate, made by the Department of Finance when the tax relief was introduced, of the likely size of such tax deductions in a full year. There are two reasons why it is likely to be an overstatement. The bilateral aid programme Data extracted from the annual reports published in 2000 and 2001, together with information supplied by Ireland Aid in June 2002, provided the basis for compiling Tables 2 and 3. These tables enable comparisons to be made between budgeted figures and provisional outturn figures for 2000, for both the bilateral and the multilateral aid programmes. They also include allocations for 2001. One reason for the underspending in 2000 was that funds intended for sectoral budgets in Ethiopia and Tanzania were not disbursed that year because the required conditions, including administrative capability and auditing procedures, had not been put in place before the end of that year. Under SWAPs, Ireland Aid has begun to provide assistance to some of the priority countries in the form of general budgetary support in sectors such as health and education. The administrative requirements were perceived to be in place by 2000. Thus, the budget line for SWAPs is omitted in the outturn figures. The Irish aid programme is firmly focused on poverty reduction and helping poor people in poor countries. This is not a recent fad. Ireland Aid spends a significant part of its aid budget through the development NGOs, which implement their own projects in developing countries. Irish NGOs are also able to provide assistance to developing countries where Ireland has no official representation and no official aid programme. Many projects undertaken by Irish NGOs are of a long-term developmental nature, but in recent years many NGOs are increasingly involved in providing emergency humanitarian assistance in territories affected by conflicts, as well as in helping communities in these areas to rehabilitate their societies and infrastructures in the post-conflict period. The block grants were first introduced in 2000. They allow both the NGO recipients and Ireland Aid greater administrative flexibility and allow the recipients freedom to select projects within agreed criteria. NGOs in receipt of block grants are precluded from submitting individual project proposals to Ireland Aid under the main NGO co-financing scheme. As regards emergency relief and rehabilitation, an examination of Table 2 shows that total expenditure by Ireland Aid under these headings in 2000 was exactly in line with budgets. Total expenditure by Ireland Aid on rehabilitation is budgeted to rise by one-third in 2001. Development education is a process designed to increase public awareness and to promote educational and research activities in Ireland that increase knowledge and understanding about development issues. The National Committee for Development Education was established by the government in 1999. Although asylum-seekers are arriving in Ireland from a number of countries, the main group in 2000 were refugees from Kosovo. The multilateral side of the aid programme Compared to the bilateral programme-over which Ireland Aid has control once it has been given its budget by the Department of Finance-expenditure on the multilateral side, which is channelled through the EU, the World Bank and the UN, is less predictable from one year to the next. The amounts are assessed and determined by the individual organisations and presented by them to their members. It also provides similar information for 2001, and the allocation for 2002. Each EU member state is assessed under two headings. The first is its contribution to the part of the overall EU budget that is spent on development cooperation. The development cooperation part of the EU budget is spent on food aid, humanitarian emergencies; and aid to the Mediterranean area, Latin America and Asia, and other non-ACP

states. Individual member states are not informed by the Commission of assessments for any one year until early in the following year. The Department of Foreign Affairs has to make a judgement about the likely size of the assessment for Ireland so far in advance of its announcement that it has usually been well out of line with the actual assessment. Moreover, the money is paid not by Ireland Aid but by the Department of Finance out of the Central Fund-or, more correctly, it is netted out by the Commission from the total inflows and outflows of annual payments between Ireland and the EU. As Table 3 shows, there were significant differences between budgeted and outturn figures in both and However, in , the budgeted and outturn figures were identical. In the case of these payments, a financial package for a five-year period is agreed by the EU member states. It was established, in principle, for a five-year period with a financial package amounting to The annual contribution is not necessarily divided evenly over the period. The Commission makes annual assessments and sends these assessed bills to each member state in advance. Thus, the five-year time-frame for EDF 8 began only in and not in The IDA is able to make such soft loans because it obtains its capital from the better-off World Bank members in the form of grants. These contributors, of which Ireland is one, make annual contributions to the IDA, according to an agreed schedule, based on the commitments they have made under the various replenishments. As a result of the asymmetry in the replenishment and payment schedules, annual contributions to the IDA come out of overlapping replenishments to the fund. In Ireland paid IRf4. This payment actually drew on commitments made under replenishments 9 through The thirteenth replenishment will be negotiated in This link is to be achieved by using resources released from debt servicing for support of poverty reduction strategies. These strategies, in turn, are to be elaborated in a poverty reduction strategies paper designed by the government of the HIPC in consultation with civil society actors, including the poor.

*Helen O'Neill. Centre for 24 See O'Neill, 'Ireland's foreign aid in ', , where it was stated: Its officials prepare and co-ordinate Irish policy positions for major.*

Irish Studies in International Affairs, Vol. JSTOR is a not-for-profit service that helps scholars, researchers, and students discover, use, and build upon a wide range of content in a trusted digital archive. We use information technology and tools to increase productivity and facilitate new forms of scholarship. In also Irish aid increased; however, part of the budget was unspent by the end of the year. Consequently, when measured in terms of percentage of GNP, it registered a slight decline compared with It is now 25 years since Ireland launched its bilateral aid programme. Despite occasional slippages, the quarter-century has been one during which Irish aid has increased steadily both in nominal terms and as a percentage of GNP. To mark this important anniversary the third section of this paper is devoted to a retrospective review of the first 25 years of the Irish aid programme. Does the increase in global aid, small as it is, suggest that the great contraction that began shortly after the end of the Cold War is now on the point of being reversed? Just as one swallow does not make a summer, one upward movement in a curve does not guarantee the beginning of a long-term positive trend. In the event, it turned out to be the beginning of a five-year decline. In relation to the most recent turnaround, the DAC states that, while the recovery was due in part to the timing of contributions to multilateral agencies and to short-term measures to deal with the Asian financial crisis, a number of members have made firm commitments to maintain or even increase their aid flows. Of course, the main influences on the overall size of global aid flows in any year are the contributions of the largest donors-who also happen to be the countries with the largest economies. Overall declines in aid between and were largely due to falling allocations by G7 countries. The preliminary data for reveal a number of interesting features about the aid flows of this group. In the case of the former, it reflected a surge in loans to countries affected by the Asian financial crisis; in the latter case, it was because of increased deposits of promissory notes with multilateral development banks as well as increases in food and emergency aid, especially to Africa. Such increases may or may not be sustainable in the long term. In the case of UK aid, however, a rise of 7. As regards the remaining G7 countries Canada, France and Germany , all registered declines in real terms Total aid provided by DAC members outside the G7 group increased by 3. Ireland is among those that recorded the largest percentage increases in their aid budgets compared with Measured in terms of volume of aid, the rankings among DAC donors remained rather similar to those of the previous year. There were a few changes within the next group of six countries; Italy moved up to seventh place overall, Denmark jumped ahead of Canada and Sweden, while Spain eased past Norway to take eleventh place. In addition to aid flows, developing countries also rely on private flows to help finance their investment needs. The total of these flows, which include foreign direct investment, commercial bank lending, bonds, equities and contributions from non-governmental organisations NGOs , fell dramatically in According to the DAC OECD , 2 , the main explanation for the collapse in private flows last year was the crisis of confidence in emerging markets, which started in Asia in and later affected Russia and Latin America. Commercial banks reduced lending, institutional investors retreated from equity markets, and bonds issued by developing countries were less successful than in previous years. Interestingly, foreign direct investment rose marginally in these emerging markets. Of course, for the countries that are assisted by Irish aid, private flows are of little importance. Table 4, in the retrospective section of this paper, provides similar information for selected years since the launch of the bilateral aid programme in These two tables also provide information on the budgets for An additional sub-target of achieving a two- to-one ratio of bilateral to multilateral aid by was also set. The current ODA target is 0. Irish aid, selected years As Table 1 shows, total ODA has been increasing very strongly and steadily since , and the nominal targets for and were not only met but actually exceeded. For this reason, and also because GNP grew much more strongly than had been anticipated in the early s, the outturn of 0. On present trends, and based on current estimates, it is difficult to see how it could be achieved. In the outturn was 0. Of course, the estimate for this year is 0. However, in the event of ODA being increased significantly above

these current estimates, the most obvious headings under which budgets might be increased would be emergency humanitarian assistance on the bilateral side and debt relief on the multilateral side. Another way in which the 0. Based on current information and prospects, this seems unlikely. This underspending in and corresponding carry-over to also helps to explain the fall in the percent-of-GNP figure from 0. The bilateral-multilateral distribution should have been 2: Although it was not reached then, significant progress had been made by that date in relation to this target. These amounts are small, of course, in relation to the size of the total ODA budget. The bilateral aid programme Data extracted from the annual reports for and the two previous years, together with information supplied by Irish Aid in June , provided the basis for compiling Tables 2 and 3. These tables enable comparisons to be made between budgeted figures and provisional outturn figures for for both the bilateral and multilateral aid programmes. They also include similar information for and as well as amounts available to be spent in This general heading includes block grants to the large Irish NGOs as well This content downloaded from It was under the latter heading that expenditure was less than the budget during It should be noted, however, that overall spending through the NGOs kept well up last year. One of the main headings under which NGOs receive funding from Irish Aid is emergencies and post-emergencies rehabilitation. Expenditure under these headings was very high during , as Table 2 shows. The second major reason for the underspending in was that funds intended for support for sectoral budgets in Ethiopia and Tanzania were not disbursed in because the required conditions administrative capability and auditing procedures This content downloaded from Under sector-wide approaches SWAPs Irish Aid has very recently begun to provide assistance to some priority countries in the form of general budgetary support to sectors such as health and education. However, by the administrative requirements were perceived to be in place and the SWAPs funds were disbursed earlier in They will appear under expenditures within the individual priority countries in the outturn figures. Table 2 shows that the expenditure outturns for most of the other headings within the bilateral aid programme were fairly close to their budgets. Looking at the budgets, however, it can be remarked that, in general, whereas outturns in were less than budgets, there has been a tendency to reduce the budgets to less than those of Another notable instance where the budget for has been increased very significantly compared with is under the heading of Refugees. The multilateral aid programme In contrast to the bilateral programme-over which Irish Aid has control once it has been given its budget by the Department of Finance-expenditure on the multilateral side, which is channelled through the EU, the World Bank and the UN, is much less predictable from one year to the next. The amounts are assessed and determined by the individual organisations and presented by them to their members. In the case of the EU, member states are assessed under two headings. Individual member states are not informed by the Commission what their assessments are for any one year until early in the following year. The Department of Foreign Affairs has to make a judgment about the likely size of the assessment for Ireland so far in advance of its announcement that it is always well out of line with the actual assessment. Moreover, the money is paid not by the DFA but by the Department of Finance out of the Central Fund-or, more correctly, it is netted out by the Commission from the total of inflows and outflows of annual payments between Ireland and the EU. In the case of these payments, a financial package for a five-year period is agreed by the EU member states. The annual contribution is not necessarily divided evenly over the period. The Commission makes annual assessments and sends these assessed bills to each member state in advance. To the extent that there is an uncalled portion, Irish Aid will get permission from the Department of Finance to spend it elsewhere on its aid programme. This is normally done on the bilateral side, and it has in recent years been spent in the main on humanitarian emergencies. A similar amount has been budgeted for No contribution has been paid recently to the International Finance Corporation IFC , which lends for private-sector development in developing countries. Ireland provides no official loans to developing countries. Irish Aid makes all its ODA contributions in grant form. As a result, no developing country owes any official debts to the Irish government. Nevertheless, the ministers of finance and foreign affairs decided in that it would be appropriate for Ireland to become involved in debt-relief programmes for the most heavily indebted poor countries HIPC , whose development programmes are very clearly being severely constrained by their debt-servicing obligations. Contributions to the UN agencies-which are all voluntary-rose from This content downloaded from Ireland

also makes contributions to a number of UN organisations whose work is focused on promoting agricultural development and food security in developing countries and providing food aid in times of emergency. Related to GNP, the aid figure represented 0. Admittedly, this falls far short of the UN aid target of 0. In the intervening 25 years the world economy and polity have changed dramatically, and the global context within which aid programmes operate today is very different from what it was when the Irish aid programme was launched in 1973. The global environment for aid in the 1970s had been a period of unprecedented growth and strong commodity prices in the world economy. As a result, the 1970s began with great hopes on both economic and political fronts. In 1974, at a Special Session of the UN General Assembly, developing countries as a group called for restructuring of international economic institutions and a new international economic order NIEO. Indeed, the seeds of the Third World debt problem were sown during the 1970s as developing countries borrowed heavily in an effort to maintain their development programmes. Interestingly, despite the world economic downturn of the 1980s, aid flows from DAC member states rose in 1989, finally reversing a five-year period of decline. More intensive efforts, including the Jubilee initiative and improvements in the HIPC initiative, are being undertaken to tackle the debt problems of the poorest countries. Donor and host governments are forging more equal partnerships within their aid relationships. Inside developing countries greater efforts are being made to promote more participatory development strategies designed to eliminate absolute poverty within these developing countries. There is an increasing focus on promotion of human rights, democracy, gender equality and environmental and socio-economic sustainability. Interestingly, promotion of human rights-a huge issue at the global level today-was included in the aims of the Irish aid programme as early as 1973.

## 3: Paul Hoebink: Private Development Aid in Europe (PDF) - ebook download - english

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Experience, they implied, was vital – not least in building brand longevity. But also implicit in their comments was a conviction that the lessons of the past were important in informing decision-making in the present. The message of the conclusion was simple: Yet the question remains: It is divided into four parts. The article begins with an outline of the rapid expansion in the study of aid history over the past decade, before briefly analysing how history contributes to contemporary policy-making and society. The final two sections document the practical uses of historical insight: But the Taoiseach was simply the latest in a long line to make this assertion. In spite of these consistent references to the past, however, the study of aid history in Ireland has received limited attention. When economic historian Richard T. Griffiths reflected on almost a decade of international research into the history of foreign aid in , he accompanied it with a call for the rapid – and necessary – expansion of the sub-discipline His comments came at a time of transition for academic histories of foreign aid. At the turn of the twenty-first century, it had been left to social scientists like David Lumsdaine , Terje Tvedt and Alex de Waal to provide the narrative and theoretical frameworks for mapping the evolution of the development sector. Others were quick to follow. The prominent role taken by non-state actors in an increasingly globalised aid environment since the late s sparked further research into the rise of the NGO sector. Scholars like Matthew Connelly , Gilbert Rist and James Vernon traced the evolving norms of development and human rights in the twentieth century. History, society and policy-making At the end of his article, Griffiths was clear about the potential for this body of work to contribute strongly to contemporary debate. Now that we have begun to write these histories and make them available to a wider audience, what are they to do with them? What use is history to the aid practitioner or policy-maker? A number of patterns present themselves easily from the histories of official aid completed to date. Comparing the evolution of the aid sector in Ireland and Finland, for example, with post-imperial donors like Britain and France, and even with non-aligned states in Scandinavia, it is abundantly clear that memories of foreign rule and late industrial development elicit a particular response to the needs of the developing world. Ireland has always – apart from a brief spurt in the early s – lagged behind more affluent, if politically like-minded, states like Denmark, the Netherlands, Norway and Sweden in the level of its official development assistance ODA. Foreign policy concerns are also a determining factor, whether as part of an attempt to extend American or Soviet influence in the Cold War; as part of Chinese and Indian soft power in the post-September 11 period; or as part of Irish, Danish, Dutch, Finnish, Norwegian or Swedish attempts to link aid to international justice and co-operation through the United Nations UN. How to make the leap from these broad conclusions to the practical world of foreign aid is another issue. How we apply the lessons of history in contemporary practice is a subject of continued conjecture among academic historians. Historian Ruth Harris commented in on the difficulty of untangling the message from the medium: It is not, however, impossible to do so. At its most basic level, history contributes to the development of institutional memory, with a positive knock-on effect for contemporary decision-making. History also provides us with the tools to analyse and appreciate how we arrived at our present state. At the heart of this assertion is the emphasis placed on context. Context does away with an over-emphasis on precedent, allowing us to appreciate that familiar-looking opportunities or problems require a response shaped to suit the situation. Importantly, however, this emphasis on context does not preclude the historian from pointing out possible sequences of events based on our knowledge of the circumstances that have brought us to our present position. Leading by example The remainder of this article explores the uses of history in explaining the contemporary aid environment. It focuses on one important case study: In an unusual interpretation the comparison begins with a practical discussion of precedent and the lessons of history. Over the following two years officials from Lithuania, Hungary, Poland, Czech Republic, Cyprus, Slovakia and Malta visited Ireland for separate two-and-a-half day periods, during which they met

with representatives from the Irish government and a number of Irish NGOs and discussed problems and solutions in the structure and direction of their own aid programmes. For the NMS, the most useful lessons of the Irish experience were in building a development aid programme almost from scratch and, at the same time, responding to institutional pressures at European level. Yet the essential lessons of the Irish experience were undeniably salient for the NMS. On accession, Ireland had been marked out as the only member state without an official aid programme, at a time when the EEC had just begun to seek out the means of living up to its responsibilities as a global economic power. The unfavourable contrast between Ireland and its European counterparts placed considerable pressure on Irish policy-makers to conform. Membership of the Community also exposed Irish policy-makers to issues on which they had little or no prior experience. Austrian accession in brought a visible and immediate increase in multilateral spending mainly through the EU, accompanied by a concurrent expansion in its development horizons Obrovsky, In Finland, a recession-induced fall in overseas development assistance ODA in the early s was reversed only after the country joined the EU and pressures from that source became too vociferous to ignore Koponen with Siitonen, It did not stop there: EU security concerns, trade agreements and foreign policy goals all exerted a considerable influence on the direction and extent of aid. For the NMS, the lesson was to recognise the enduring power of international institutions in setting norms of behaviour in the field of development aid. The parallel experiences of Ireland in the s and the NMS in more recent years – particularly the attempt to maintain ODA levels at a time of economic recession – underline a simple, though no less compelling, lesson from the history of foreign aid: Irish ODA levels rose from 0. Allowing for national and regional disparities, the NMS experience has proven remarkably similar. Yet the slow pace of that growth indicated that political and economic priorities remained elsewhere. Although it is difficult to compare Irish economic development in the s with the current situation in the NMS, it is possible to point to one important parallel in the link between economic under-development and ODA: Yet the fundamental difference between the Irish and NMS experience of recession – the continuing strong public support for, and interest in aid, particularly non-governmental aid, that existed in Ireland in the s – carries important lessons for the survival of the aid sector in each of these countries. The absence of any significant links between the NMS and the developing world, along with their largely under-developed NGO sectors has further limited public support in those countries for development aid. In spite of considerable pressure from the European Commission and visible improvements in their aid policies, this lack of public support resulted in limited political will to expand aid or to reach targets set for them by the EU. In Ireland, by contrast, public interest in, and support for aid – fuelled by a long history of Catholic missionary activity, together with the frequent references to a shared colonial past with the developing world – remained strongly in evidence: There were, admittedly, some caveats to that picture. Public support for NGOs and aid in times of emergency proved difficult to translate into support for long-term development aid in Ireland. The argument that Ireland was itself under-developed and so could not afford to donate its much-needed resources to external problems was also openly in evidence. The picture it painted reflected the priorities of many in Irish society in the middle of that decade. Whether these arguments will have any additional gravitas in our new recession is difficult to tell. Context, history teaches us, is important. Conclusion This article began by posing the question: It showed that aid history – in the academic sense – is still in its relative infancy. Yet its contributions are already being felt. Bureaucrats have also got in on the act: But it is in the less tangible – though no less potent – understanding of process and context that history provides where the influence of the discipline is most keenly felt. Economic crises may have a similar limiting effect across time, but the depth of their impact on official aid depends very much on individual social, political and cultural factors. Comparing the history of Ireland with the present-day trials of the NMS, for example, reminds us that self-perceptions of wealth and obligation are vital in determining individual generosity towards the developing world. But it also reminds us of the complexity of these identities. What then of Ireland and the future of aid in these uncertain economic times? History teaches us that, in contrast to the s, Ireland has a lot to fall back on: By Finnish ODA had dropped by more than half, to just 0. Yet the institutions created in that decade-and-a-half of growth, along with pressures from the EU which Finland joined in and its Nordic neighbours reduced the scope for the complete collapse of the aid industry. The Evaluation Process, Dublin:

Oxfam, the First Fifty Years, Oxford: Commission of the European Communities. Connelly, M Fatal Misconception: Perspectives on European Development Co-operation: Annual Report , Dublin: An Irish Quarterly Review, Vol. Links and Lessons, Dublin: Diplomacy, Development, Domestic Politics, London: University of Chicago Press. The Foreign Aid Regime, , Princeton: A Study of Government Aid, Dublin: Irish Commission for Justice and Peace. Olesen, T B and Pharo, H eds. Interests, Institutions and Identities, Dublin: NGOs in Contemporary Britain: Non-state Actors and Politics Since , London: Schmidt, H I and Pharo, H eds. His research focuses on the myriad links between the West and the developing world, in particular the role played by empire in defining contemporary European identities, the history of foreign aid, and the history of non-governmental organisations. A Development Education Review, Vol.

### 4: History and the development aid debate in the Republic of Ireland | Development Education Review

*Ireland's Foreign Aid in Helen O'Neill Last year was a momentous one in terms of events and policy initiatives*  
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Irish Studies in International Affairs, Vol. JSTOR is a not-for-profit service that helps scholars, researchers, and students discover, use, and build upon a wide range of content in a trusted digital archive. We use information technology and tools to increase productivity and facilitate new forms of scholarship. Last year was a momentous one in terms of events and policy initiatives relating to development cooperation. The paper opens with an overview of these developments at UN level and at EU level. Thus, the section on the bilateral side of the Irish aid programme focuses on three topics only: Since more data were available on the multilateral side of the programme, expenditure through the Bretton Woods institutions, the UN and the EU are examined in somewhat greater detail. That process began in and the White Paper will be published this year. For the first time in many years, concerns about sub-Saharan Africa were placed high up on the international agenda. This content downloaded from Despite the very limited progress on trade, overall produced a number of positive initiatives. These included a deal to write off the debts owed by many of the poorest countries to the World Bank, the International Monetary Fund and the African Development Bank. Ambitious new pledges were also made to increase aid, with half the increase promised to Africa. These increased aid pledges will have to be matched by increased aid expenditures over the rest of the decade. The December WTO ministerial meeting was part of the continuing Doha Development Round of multilateral trade negotiations MTNs that had been launched in Doha, Qatar in and were originally scheduled for completion by the end of At the start of the round, WTO members agreed that development issues and improved access for developing countries in industrialised-country markets were to be placed at the heart of the negotiations. Issues under consideration included dismantling tariff and non-tariff barriers in the agriculture, services and industry sectors including textiles and clothing ; trade-related intellectual property measures TRIPS ; and trade-related investment measures TRIMs. In previous MTN rounds, the interests of industrialised countries and blocs, especially the US and the EU, dominated the agenda and thus tended to sideline the interests of developing countries. Many developing countries have also been constrained by weak negotiating capacity. Some progress was made. It was agreed to abolish agricultural export subsidies by The EU, particularly Ireland and France, had great difficulty with this decision, especially in relation to the timing. Of most interest to the 32 LDCs represented at the negotiations was the agreement by rich countries to provide duty-free and quota-free access to their markets for all LDC products on a lasting basis. Industrialised countries are demanding substantial offers from the relatively big and better-off developing countries to open their markets to services and manufacturers, in return for improved market access in agricultural products. As already mentioned, Ireland, in common with a number of EU member states, had difficulties in relation to the date by which agricultural export subsidies would be abolished. However, the presence of an Irish minister for agriculture and food at WTO negotiations for the first time-along with the minister of state for development cooperation and the minister for enterprise, trade and employment-worked in favour of a coherent Irish approach, whereby the development dimension was kept on board. Speaking at the end of the negotiations, Minister for Agriculture and Food Mary Coughlan, TD, welcomed the agreement, which she said would promote growth in developing countries while, at the same time, protecting her primary interests at the negotiations. We won support for displaying a willingness to take the lead in finding a solution that will enhance the lives of people in developing countries while defending the legitimate interests of the agriculture and the agri-food industry in the EU where the multifunctional model of agriculture takes into account such factors as environmental protection, animal health and welfare and rural development. One way was reform and revitalisation, the other, growing irrelevance. Minister Ahern expressed some disappointment with the results, especially since the agreement contained nothing on disarmament and non-proliferation, or on the need to strengthen the Nuclear Non-Proliferation Treaty. As the first signatory to this treaty, this was a matter of deep regret to Ireland. The new date for achieving this target is and, as the first milestone on the way to that

date, he committed the government to reach 0. Ireland joined the UN in December. Developments at EU level. Last year was an exceptionally busy year in relation to advancing development policy issues at European level. A new development policy statement was published; a major scaling-up of European aid was announced, as was a new EU strategy for Africa. The process of producing a new statement got underway in December. A draft discussion document, circulated in July, was the subject of intense debate among the various actors: European Commission EC, European parliament EP, and member states MSs before the final document was agreed. The first development policy statement DPS had been a milestone, in that it added substance to the development section of the Maastricht treaty in the first time development had been included in the EU treaties. The new development policy will cover all developing countries and will be implemented within a single framework of principles for the 25 member states and the Commission. The DPS begins by declaring that the MSs and the European Community are equally committed to basic principles, fundamental values and the development objectives agreed at multilateral level. The second important development at EU level in was the announcement of a major scaling-up of EU aid between and . This planned expansion can be traced back to the commitment to collectively increase ODA to 0. This had been coupled with an individual commitment, for member states that had not yet reached the UN target of 0. In Rome, February, available at <http://> In , the EU25 including the ten countries that joined the Union in made a number of new commitments. First, they committed themselves to reaching the UN target of 0. Second, as an interim step toward reaching that target, the EU15 member states promised to reach, by , an individual baseline of 0. The acceding countries-Bulgaria and Romania- aligned themselves with these commitments. Finally, the EU also undertook to raise aid to sub-Saharan Africa and to ensure that half of the envisaged collective aid increases as of will be allocated to Africa. In addition, it was agreed that C They also promised to provide more trade-related assistance TRA. The combined EU contribution should thus reach C2 billion. It is innovative in the sense that it is for the whole of the continent and that it seeks to place the various Africa strategies and policies of the Commission and the member states within a single framework. The main aim is to help Africa achieve the millennium development goals MDGs by . The strategy focuses on key requirements for sustainable development, such as peace and security, good and effective governance, trade, improved infrastructure roads, railways, water, energy and information and communication technologies, social cohesion and environmental sustainability. In the context of the partnership for infrastructure, the EU will support programmes that promote regional trade, integration, stability and development at continental level. Global ODA flows Data on official development assistance during had not been published at the time of writing March. ODA has continued to rise in real terms each year since the Monterrey FfD conference in March, but at a rate below that needed to reach what donors have promised for. The rate of increase needs to double between to reach the projections. ODA is the main source of external financing for low-income countries, nearly double their export earnings excluding oil. Small countries receive far more aid per head than large countries. Annual nominal target increases were also announced. However, it became clear after a few years that very little progress toward reaching the target had actually been made. In October, the newly appointed minister of state for development cooperation, Conor Lenihan, TD, formally conceded that the target would not be reached by. However, she expressed concern that binding increases had been specified only for and and thus that progress toward the new target could be influenced by budgetary constraints, such as a slowdown in economic growth. In a Dail statement the next day, minister of state Lenihan said that the reason the and ODA figures were lower than hoped was because of "the economic slowdown". To compound the confusion, the minister for finance, Brian Cowen, TD, stated on an RTE programme on 1 December, that he was sorry Ireland was not going to be able to meet the 0. Such a major scaling-up of Irish aid will require more staff. At present, the entire ODA programme is operated with only people: Decentralisation of DCI to Limerick, scheduled for late, will create further pressure on existing staff, especially specialist personnel, most of whom have indicated they do not intend moving to Limerick. Aid modalities and Irish aid to programme countries Aid architecture-the way aid is delivered-has been changing significantly in recent years. In the s and s, most Irish aid was delivered through projects. While they have their advantages, these projects tended to be donor-driven and were not co-ordinated with the projects of other donors. Gradually, other modalities were introduced. They

include area-based programmes ABPs , where donors assist local communities by delivering part of their aid through local governments; and sector- wide approaches SWAps , which put the government of the programme country PC in the driving seat. The PC government prepares policy for a sector and a number of donors pool their aid to that sector and adopt one set of accounts, one audit and one evaluation. A relatively new modality is general budget support GBS. This involves a transfer of funds from a donor government directly into the government budget of a PC to allow the latter to increase public expenditure or reduce borrowing. A precondition for HIPC support was the preparation by the indebted country of a poverty reduction strategy paper PRSP that provided a benchmark against which the budget could be judged when appraising the viability of GBS. It also provides aid through civil society organisations. In , the eight PCs received In order of individual amounts, they received the following: Uganda million; Ethiopia million; Mozambique million; Tanzania million; Zambia million; Lesotho South Africa, although not officially a PC, received Aid architecture will continue to evolve. The Paris declaration on aid effectiveness calls for eliminating duplication of efforts and rationalising donor activities to make them as cost effective as possible. Specialisation and the avoidance of duplication at sector level could mean withdrawing from some sectors in some partner countries to which Ireland has been providing assistance for some years. Eventually, donor efforts to achieve coherence and consolidation will result in a more rational division of labour and in some donors giving up some sectors. They have to be non-profit organisations but they can be involved in economic development provided it is on a cooperative basis and any surpluses are invested back into the organisation. They should be voluntary in nature and have sound governance structures. A dedicated civil society section was created inside DCI in Around three-quarters of this sum are provided to NGOs based in Ireland. There is a separate programme for Central America where the focus has been on strengthening civil society; the new policy being developed for the region will focus on governance issues and on the promotion of fair trade. Another scheme promotes human rights and democratisation worldwide. The overall budget of C87 million spent through NGOs in supported a wide variety of schemes. A final scheme provides support for the Irish missionary resource service IMRS , established in , which manages funding for Catholic missionary organisations working in developing countries. Although the number of Irish missionaries has been decreasing steadily in recent years, the work of the remainder has broadened out from a major focus on education to include work on water projects and livelihoods. In drought- prone Turkana in northern Kenya, for example, missionaries have been working with local communities building dams. With a view to rationalising the various existing schemes in support of civil society groups and also to promote cooperation among them, DCI has established a civil society fund with a budget of C

### 5: Helen Oneill | University College Dublin - [www.enganchecubano.com](http://www.enganchecubano.com)

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### 6: Private Development Aid in Europe (ebook) by Paul Hoebink |

*Ireland's Foreign Aid in Author(s): Helen O'Neill Source: Irish Studies in International Affairs, Vol. 11 (), pp. Published by: Royal Irish Academy.*

*Appendix A. Time line Feminism and sociological theory The four mistakes One Hundred Years of Phenomenology Black beauty and Black power: internalized racism The Healing Moment Automobility : the animal capital of cars, films, and abattoirs Designing the seaside fred grey Communications programming for Windows 95 Archaeological Museum, Khajuraho Leading Issues in Competition, Regulation and Development (The Crc Series on Competition, Regulation and Do-It-Yourself Designs Internet Research Annual, V.3, 2004 Preimplantation genetic testing : normative reflections Guido de Wert Sallust on the Gods Mr. Kennedy and the Negroes. The Ruined Cottage Boom towns, human and administrative aspects Owl in Love, Homework Set Why evolution is true When you take control of your own life Economic Scarcity and Healthcare Quality V.5. Prevailing prayer. Sex jumpstarts a new conversation Lauren Winner Economics of climate change Asthall, Oxfordshire Giant and the Spring/EI Gigante Y El Nino Primavera Dinosaurs, Dinosaurs Big Book Citizenship, rights, and Tony Blairs doctrine of international community Colin Tyler Optimal Reliability Design Address to the National Cartoonists Society Convention In the Hollow of Gods Hand Instruction and technology English patterns and structure, with exercises Alexander, R. J. Impact of the Sino-Soviet split on Latin-American Communism. U.S. Geological Survey National Computer Technology Meeting Intro to web design Analysis and Simulation of Chaotic Systems (Applied Mathematical Sciences) Art, Asian America, and the social imaginary: a poetics of positionality Almanac of Baseball Cards and Collectables*