Korea’s ODA Strategy in Global Education

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Executive Summary

Global education agenda in the last 15 years has focused on the quantitative expansion of primary education, well represented by Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). With the onset of Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), however, the trend has evolved into life-long education, which includes not only primary education but secondary and post-secondary level as well, and broader improvement of education, stressing both quantitative and qualitative advancement.

The Korea’s experience of education development provides a valid reference to Post-2015 Global education agenda. The country concentrated on expanding education opportunities in primary school level in the 1950s. After it reached the target of universal primary education, 96%, Korea began to focus on secondary education, particularly on Technical/Vocational Education and Training (TVET)-focused education instead of general education. Korea’s TVET development can be an interesting topic to discuss under the global education development trend, which emphasizes general education.

The close examination of Korea’s education concludes with several distinctive features. Unlike other OECD DAC countries, Korea has put higher focus on secondary and post-secondary education than primary education. Within secondary and post-secondary, TVET has been the major area. In addition, the country highlights advancing TVET through active Public-Private Partnership (PPP).

The education ODA strategy of Korea may seem irrelevant, or less suitable, with global education agenda under the last 15 years’ MDG framework. Under the Post-2015 global education agenda and SDG framework, however, reviewing Korea’s education ODA pathway can point out what global communities have overlooked and be a good starting point for further meaningful discussions.
I. Post-2015 Global Education Agenda

a. UNESCO’s Education for All (EFA) initiative

Through the international commitments made at the World Education Forum in Dakar, Senegal in 2000, the world has recognized the needs and importance of expanding basic education for all human beings. Based on the vision of the World Declaration on Education for All (UNESCO, 1990), which is that ‘all children, young people and adults have the human right to benefit from an education that will meet their basic learning needs in the best and fullest sense of the term, an education that includes learning to know, to do, to live together and to be’, the Education for All (EFA) initiative has laid a foundation for international commitment to meet the basic learning needs of all human beings.

The international community established 6 goals to improve the accessibility and quality of education in order to improve people’s lives and transform their societies (WEF, 2000). Through broad scope of EFA initiative, the world leaders attempted to lay the foundation for better education. Ranging from childhood to adult, from compulsory education to job skills, and from accessibility to quality, the EFA initiative does not put its emphasis on one particular area, but rather it sets off the cooperative discussion toward enhanced educational opportunities.

Noting the urgency and importance of achieving the EFA goals for widened educational opportunities, the Dakar Framework also established 12 strategies to provide concrete pathways for both meaningful and effective changes. The strategies state various perspectives regarding how to link EFA initiatives with other international commitments, including but not exhausted to poverty elimination, civil engagement, gender equality, and healthcare (WEF, 2000).

2 World Education Forum in Dakar, Senegal in 2000 established 6 goals for Education for All (EFA). Goal 1 (Early childhood care and education): Expanding and improving comprehensive early childhood care and education, especially for the most vulnerable and disadvantaged children. Goal 2 (Universal primary education): Ensuring that by 2015 all children, particularly girls, children in difficult circumstances and those belonging to ethnic minorities, have access to and complete free and compulsory primary education of good quality. Goal 3 (Youth and adult skills): Ensuring that the learning needs of all young people and adults are met through equitable access to appropriate learning and life skills programs. Goal 4 (Adult literacy): Achieving a 50 per cent improvement in levels of adult literacy by 2015, especially for women, and equitable access to basic and continuing education for all adults. Goal 5 (Gender equality): Eliminating gender disparities in primary and secondary education by 2005, and achieving gender equality in education by 2015, with a focus on ensuring girls’ full and equal access to and achievement in basic education of good quality. Goal 6 (Quality of education): Improving every aspect of the quality of education, and ensuring their excellence so that recognized and measurable learning outcomes are achieved by all, especially in literacy, numeracy and essential life skills.

3 12 strategies are as follows: 1) Mobilize strong national and international political commitment for education for all, develop national action plans and enhance significantly investment in basic education; 2) Promote EFA policies within a sustainable and well-integrated sector framework clearly linked to poverty elimination and development strategies; 3) Ensure the engagement and participation of civil society in the formulation, implementation and monitoring of strategies for educational development; 4) Develop responsive, participatory and accountable systems of educational governance and management; 5) Meet the needs of education systems affected by conflict, natural calamities and instability and conduct educational programs in ways that promote mutual understanding, peace and tolerance, and that help to prevent violence and conflict; 6) Implement integrated strategies for gender equality in education which recognize the need for changes in attitudes, values and practices; 7) Implement as a matter of urgency education programs and actions to combat the HIV/AIDS pandemic; 8) Create safe, healthy, inclusive and equitably resourced educational environments conducive to excellence in learning, with clearly defined levels of achievement for all; 9) Enhance the status, morale and professionalism of teachers; 10) Harness new information and communication technologies to help achieve EFA goals; 11) Systematically monitor progress towards EFA goals and strategies at the national, regional and international levels; and 12) Build on existing mechanisms to accelerate progress towards education for all.
b. Progress under Millennium Development Goals (MDG 2-3)

In that same year when the international community emphasized education as the basic human rights through EFA, the world encountered the new millennium. At the beginning of the new millennium, world leaders adopted UN Millennium Declaration and set out a series of time-bound targets to reduce extreme poverty, which constitute the Millennium Development Goals (MDG). The goals target eight areas – poverty, education, gender equality, child mortality, maternal health, disease, environment, and global partnership. EFA’s education development initiatives were incorporated to MDG agenda through two goals (UN, 2000):

- **MDG 2) Achieve universal primary education**
- **MDG 3) Promote gender equality and empower women**

After fifteen years of global cooperation, the world witnessed valuable improvements in providing education to broader range of children. Two MDGs effectively initiated international commitment toward educational development and set out foundational realm for further education initiatives, which will later be incorporated into Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and Post-2015 Global Education Agenda.

The target under the MDG 2, represented by ‘Target 2.A’, was to ensure that all boys and girls complete a full course of primary schooling by 2015. According to official report from UN (UN, 2015), the substantial progress has been made as illustrated in both the number of out-of-school children and the net enrolment rate of primary school. First of all, the worldwide number of out-of-school children of primary school age fell drastically from 100 million in 2000 to 57 million in 2015. In particular, Southern Asia witnessed impressive improvements, reducing the number by more than one-fourth, from 38 million to 9 million. In addition, the primary school net enrolment rate in the developing regions has increased from 83% in 2000 to 91% in 2015. Sub-Saharan Africa especially improved the enrolment rate better than other regions by reaching 80% in 2015 from 52% in 2000. In a similar sense, the literacy rate among youth, from age 15 to 24, increased globally to 91% from 83% in 2000.

In this regard, the MDG initiative with no doubt expanded the opportunities of primary education to more children across the world. Yet the progress was insufficient to bring about universal primary education for every child in the world. The numbers show the gap among different groups, suggesting that the progress was made unevenly and we need to give more attention to this less advantaged population in the future. The disparities were observed in terms of region, location, and wealth.

Although sub-Saharan Africa has shown big improvements in primary school enrolment rate, increasing from 52% to 80%, it has not yet reached to the threshold of universal enrolment,

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4 The net enrolment rate (NER) in primary education is the ratio of the number of children of official primary school age who are enrolled in primary education to the total population of children of official primary school age, expressed as a percentage
97%. While the rapid growth of primary-school-aged children in sub-Saharan Africa partly explains the unmet goal of universal enrolment, other social matters, including poverty and conflicts, also need to receive continuous attention in order to keep enhancing the provision of primary education. In addition, the determinants of accessing primary education, such as household location, wealth, and disability, still hinder strongly against narrowing the disparities in educational benefits.

Another lesson from reviewing the progress of the MDG 2 is that we need to give more attention to the completion rate in primary education. While both enrolment and completion rate have increased by far in average, if we look more closely to low income countries, only 64% of the children are expected to thoroughly complete primary school. Combining this figure with that of middle income countries leaves us to realize that one-sixth of the children in these regions still fail to receive the full primary education.

The ‘Target 3.A’ was to eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education, preferably by 2005, and in all levels of education no later than 2015. In sum, the MDG 3 was met partly in primary education, achieving gender parity in 64% of developing countries in 2012. The rate was 52% back in 2000. The biggest improvement has been made in Southern Asia, whose gender parity has risen by 30 percentage points in the last twenty years, from 74% in 1990 to 103% in 2015. In secondary and tertiary education, however, still remain large gender disparities. As of 2012, 36% of developing regions have achieved the gender parity target in secondary level and only 4% in tertiary level (UN, 2015).

While the MDG 3 brought substantial progress in providing equal base of education to all genders, we should be reminded that the achievement showed substantial discrepancies across education levels and countries. As previously noted, most progress was made in primary education, so more focus needs to be put on the higher levels in the future education agenda. In particular, such higher levels of education act as transitional bridge for women’s expanded access to paid employment and social engagement, thereby setting a strong foundation for the true realization of gender equality. In addition, as sub-Saharan takes more than half of the countries with gender disparity in primary education, where most countries achieved the parity, more attention should be put to narrow the gaps across the regions and countries (UN, 2015).

Overall, the MDG 2 and 3 have achieved large improvements in expanding the access of primary education to broader range of children. The results, however, showed that there still remain many gaps both among the levels of education and across the countries.

c. Perspectives under Sustainable Development Goals (SDG 4)

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5 The gender parity index is defined as the ratio of the female gross enrolment ratio to the male gross enrolment ratio for each level of education; the threshold of the parity is from 0.97 to 1.03.
Faced with the deadline year of the MDGs, the global community initiated a new set of agenda for education and integrated them into the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). As UNESCO states in the ‘Concept note on the Post-2015 education agenda’ in 2013, new education agenda were established based on reviewing the achievements and challenges of EFA and the relevant MDGs (MDG 2 and MDG 3). While maintaining the ‘rights-based approach’, which states that education is basic human rights, the SDGs both broadened and specified the global commitments toward better education throughout the world.

By examining the past progress of EFA and the MDGs, we have two valuable lessons. The first is that it is time to pay attention to broader levels of education. As the MDGs focused on expanding primary educational opportunities primarily, other levels of education, including secondary, tertiary, and vocational education, were relatively neglected. If education is a fundamental human right, as the foundational philosophy of global education agenda states, such opportunities should not be limited to a narrow scope of schooling but expanded to a lifelong experience. In addition, a focus on primary schooling inadvertently resulted in concentrated efforts toward the poorest countries and diminished attention toward the other parts, such as middle income countries.

The second is the importance of educational quality – in other words, the quality of learning. Although EFA had its emphasis on the quality of education through the goal 6, as the education-related MDGs highlighted more on the access of education by looking primarily at enrolment ratio, we have not put sufficient focus and efforts on the quality of education and learning outcomes (Kremer & Holla, 2009). UNESCO pointed out the issue by highlighting the insufficient numbers of teachers. Such problem existed in the case of primary education, not to mention in the higher levels.

The post-2015 education agenda, thus, incorporates the aforementioned lessons on top of the fundamental principles of EFA’s rights-based approach. They commit to bring holistic development in global education by including lifelong stages of education and adding the measure of quality. The overarching goal for education in the post-2015 period is, thus, “Equitable, Quality Education and Lifelong Learning for All,” and here are the imperatives of education for the agenda by UNESCO from its concept note (UNESCO, 2013):

(a) Increased equitable access to quality education for children, youth and adults should be provided for all from early childhood to higher education.
(b) Quality education and learning at all levels should be at the core of the post-2015 education agenda.
(c) A focus on equity is paramount and particular attention should be given to marginalized groups.
(d) Gender equality requires continued attention.

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Kremer and Holla (2009) states that various education development programs effectively boost school participation but are limited to improving the quality of learning in school. The reviewed programs include, but are not limited to, conditional cash transfers, merit scholarships, school health programs, and information provision.
(e) Lifelong learning is a central principle for the post-2015 education agenda, providing flexible life-long and life-wide learning opportunities through formal, non-formal and informal pathways including through harnessing the potential of ICTs of creating a new culture of learning.

The idea of providing “Equitable, Quality Education and Lifelong Learning for All” was inserted into the SDG as its fourth goal. The SDGs incorporate the education agenda through the goal 4 and its ten targets\(^7\) that appear as follows (UN, 2015):

- **Goal 4. Ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all**

  4.1 By 2030, ensure that all girls and boys complete free, equitable and quality primary and secondary education leading to relevant and effective learning outcomes
  4.2 By 2030, ensure that all girls and boys have access to quality early childhood development, care and pre-primary education so that they are ready for primary education
  4.3 By 2030, ensure equal access for all women and men to affordable and quality technical, vocational and tertiary education, including university
  4.4 By 2030, substantially increase the number of youth and adults who have relevant skills, including technical and vocational skills, for employment, decent jobs and entrepreneurship
  4.5 By 2030, eliminate gender disparities in education and ensure equal access to all levels of education and vocational training for the vulnerable, including persons with disabilities, indigenous peoples and children in vulnerable situations
  4.6 By 2030, ensure that all youth and a substantial proportion of adults, both men and women, achieve literacy and numeracy
  4.7 By 2030, ensure that all learners acquire the knowledge and skills needed to promote sustainable development, including, among others, through education for sustainable development and sustainable lifestyles, human rights, gender equality, promotion of a culture of peace and non-violence, global citizenship and appreciation of cultural diversity and of culture’s contribution to sustainable development

  4.a Build and upgrade education facilities that are child, disability and gender sensitive and provide safe, non-violent, inclusive and effective learning environments for all
  4.b By 2020, substantially expand globally the number of scholarships available to developing countries, in particular least developed countries, small island developing States and African countries, for enrolment in higher education, including vocational training and information and communications technology, technical, engineering and scientific programmes, in developed countries and other developing countries

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\(^7\) The targets identified with letters (the last three targets) state international cooperation and the development assistance responsibilities while the numeral targets represent domestic agendas.
4.c By 2030, substantially increase the supply of qualified teachers, including through international cooperation for teacher training in developing countries, especially least developed countries and small island developing States
II. Korea’s ODA strategy in Domestic Education (1950-1980)

As the previous chapter thoroughly explores, the global education development initiative has deepened the scope of discussion in terms of education level and improvement area. The focus on primary education evolved into increased emphasis on secondary, post-secondary and lifelong education. More importantly, post-2015 agenda highlights the significance of education quality improvement on top of the existing efforts toward quantitative expansion. Korea has experienced the similar transition in education development priorities. It had once focused its resources on primary education and quantitative expansion of education opportunities in 1950s. In 1970s, however, the country shifted the focus of investment toward secondary and post-secondary education. In this sense, looking at Korea’s history of education development will provide meaningful implications for the ongoing global discussion on education development.

After experiencing the Japanese colonial rule and the Korean War, Korea had to start from scratch to develop education in the country. Since 1950s, Korea has focused its policies and resources to one stage of education at a time, starting from establishing compulsory primary education. The country initiated the reconstruction and expansion of primary education in the 1950s, followed by developing secondary vocational education in the 60s and 70s and higher education afterwards (KDI 1997). In particular, the universal primary education development in the 1950s and TVET-focused secondary education development in the 1970s are evaluated to be critical periods for Korean education development.

a. Universal Primary Education in the 1950s

The education development in the 1950s can be summed up as the rapid quantitative expansion of primary educational opportunities. The focus on primary education was established under the strong will to clear away the Japanese colonial education and reconstruct educational infrastructure after the war (Kim et al., 1996). As a measure to reach a general education system, Korea set up the goal of realizing compulsory primary education, and this goal guided basic direction of education development policies in the 1950s.

[GOVERNMENT-LED CENTRALIZED APPROACH]
The primary education was developed through Korea’s government-led centralized approach. From building school facilities, training teachers, and developing curriculum to publishing textbooks, the Korean government took strong initiative and implementation. The legalized and universal education system was effective driving force for rapid provision of equal access to primary education.
While the Korean government attempted to establish a compulsory primary education system based on the Education Law in 1949 and the Constitution in 1950, it was not until after the war that the country genuinely began the strong drive to expand the universal educational opportunities. The 6-year Compulsory Education Improvement Plan, implemented in 1954, set the goal of 96% enrollment rate of all school-age children to be reached by 1959 and laid out the development plan for the goal. The plan calculated the necessary educational infrastructure, including classrooms and teacher training institutions, and arranged the national budget to fill in the gap.

In addition, foreign assistance provided global standard of education development and advanced resources to improve the system. One is American education delegation which visited Korea in 1952. The American delegation not only introduced 6-3-3-4 system, which constitutes the backbone of education system until now, but revived the educational research spirit by holding lectures for Korean teachers (KEDI, 2011). In addition, the UNESCO-UNKRA9 Educational Planning Mission helped to restore the overall education system. The Mission offered 148.5 million dollars10 in aid for Korea’s overall rehabilitation, one of which is education industry, and submitted the guideline report to the government (Cho, 2008). These global movements and cooperation greatly contributed to lay strong foundation for Korea’s education development.

[COMPULSORY PRIMARY EDUCATION POLICIES]
Expansion of primary education was the top priority of Korean education development. The Korean government with assistance from United States military governance recognized the importance of reconstructing the education system and decided the universal provision of primary education as its starting point (KEDI, 2011). Such move was suspended at the outbreak of the Korean War, and the 6-year Compulsory Education Improvement Plan in 1954 restarted the initiative for such direction. The education development policy was guided by the plan’s goal to achieve the 96% enrollment rate among school-age children, including primary school students, by 1959 (Lee, 2008).

The biggest challenge for such quantitative expansion was to provide sufficient school facilities to accommodate the increasing number of students. Thus the 6-year Compulsory Education Improvement Plan detailed classroom construction plan by yearly-basis and secured the finance to achieve the goal. According to the classroom construction plan, around five to six thousands classrooms were scheduled to be built every year from 1954 to 1959 (KEDI, 2011). The plan, however, failed to achieve the construction goal, resulting in the shortage of classrooms and poor educational condition, or so-called ‘low-cost approach’, which will be discussed more in detail again.

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8 The supplementary provision of Article 16 in the Constitution states that ‘every citizen has an equal right to receive education according to his or her own capacity and primary education is compulsory for all children.’
9 United Nations Korean Reconstruction Agency
10 34 UN member countries and 5 non-member countries provided 148.5 million dollars through UNKRA following the launch of UNKRA in 1950. This amount approximates to 1.5 billion dollars today considering the US dollar inflation (in CPI).
Supplying primary school teachers was another crucial mission. The mission included two separate parts: quantitative expansion of teacher training system and management of teacher qualification. First, in order to provide sufficient amount of teachers, the government established additional colleges for primary school teachers. The expansion in total of 8 institutions\textsuperscript{11} was, however, not enough to match the increasing demand. The government operated temporary primary teacher training schools in order to fill in the shortage until 1958, when the temporary institutions\textsuperscript{12} were abolished and consolidated into the colleges of education. In addition, the official standards for primary school teachers were established by the Public Educational Officials Act in 1953. Until then, during the US military government period, there were no strict qualifications for primary school teachers due to the lacking number. Under the Act, however, the government installed the qualification of teachers in all public education stages – elementary, middle, and high school, and issued the national certificate to eligible teachers, either without or with examination (KEDI, 2011).

Last but not least, in order to rapidly produce the necessary amount of textbooks for primary school students, the government centralized the textbook system. As the government unified the curriculum, manufactured and distributed textbooks by its own system, the quality of education was maintained. In addition, the rapid and universal settlement of academic resources helped the effective expansion of primary education opportunities (KEDI, 2011).

\textbf{[ACHIEVEMENTS \& CHALLENGES]}

The education development policy in the 1950s can be evaluated as successful in terms of expanding the primary education opportunities to broader range of children. Since the establishment of the 6-year Compulsory Education Improvement Plan in 1954, the Korean education development policy was centered on increasing the enrollment rate of school-age children. The enrollment rate by the end of 1959 was 96.4\%, exceeding the previous goal. During the 5-year period, Korea experienced more than 10-percentage-point increase in the enrollment rate, from 82.5\% in 1954 to 96.4\% in 1959 (MOEST, 1988). The effective education system development and standardized contents, thanks to the government’s strong centralized policy, provided equal access to primary education for children.

The large increase in the number of student enrollment, however, was achieved at the expense of quality condition of education system. This is the reason why the Korean education policy in the 50s is usually called the ‘low-cost approach’ (Lee, 2008). This approach can be summarized by two aspects: lack of school facilities and teacher quality condition. While the number of students enrolled at school increased rapidly, the supply of schools failed to match the demand. According to the 6-year Compulsory Education Improvement Plan, more than five to six thousands of classrooms were to be built every year, but it failed to achieve the target number. This resulted in over-crowded classes and multiple-shift classroom system (Lee, 2008). Moreover, in order to supply enough teachers for primary education expansion, the government operated temporary teacher training institutes because of their shorter terms and lower costs.

\textsuperscript{11} 6 in 1946, 1 in 1947, and 1 in 1951
\textsuperscript{12} They had shorter terms and cheaper tuitions.
While these measures helped to meet the rising demand for educational infrastructure, both classrooms and teachers, they deteriorated education quality.

b. TVET-focused Secondary Education in the 1970s

The 1960s and 1970s witnessed the rapid industrialization. After realizing the importance of supplying adequate labor force to boost the industrial development, the government began to put emphasis on manpower development plan as a part of its economic development plan (KDIS, 2014). In particular, the 1970s was the period of transition from labor-intensive light industries to technology-intensive heavy and chemical industries. In order to foster heavy and chemical industries, the government adopted twin policies, composed of industrial policy and vocational education policy. Overcoming the Korea’s preconceived attitude in favor of general academic education and against vocational education, the government successfully strengthened the base for self-sustaining industrial development through thorough support for technical vocational education and training (TVET).

[INDUSTRY-EDUCATION COOPERATION APPROACH]
The main characteristic of the manpower development policy in the 1970s is strong cooperation between industry sector and education sector. The relationship between two sectors was established and maintained under the government’s high interest and sustained guidance. Schools provided proper technicians to industries; industries supplied financial assistance, through funds to schools and scholarships to students, and field experience opportunities. In practice, the government obligated vocational high school students to engage in field training for a certain period of time to guarantee that they are ready-to-work right after graduation by modifying the Promotion of Industrial Education Act in 1973.

[TVET-FOCUSED EDUCATION DEVELOPMENT POLICIES]
Korea’s TVET-focused education development policy in the 1970s can be represented by the Specialization Initiatives for Technical High School (SITHS) which was enforced in 1973. SITHS divided technical high schools into four types and differentiated investments according to each type’s importance and effectiveness. The aim was to promote efficient development of technical vocational education under limited time and budget (KDIS, 2014).

There were four types of technical high schools under SITHS: mechanical, experimental, specialized and general technical high schools. Mechanical technical high schools supplied education focused on machinery and defense industry; experimental technical high schools taught primarily the skills to be sent overseas; specialized technical high schools responded to provide manpower toward electronics, petrochemical, construction, iron, railroad, electricity, and metal; general technical high schools promoted various technical education for other general industries (Kim, 1992; Kim, 1990; Kim, 2002; MOEST, 1980).

The government was able to establish clear priorities among various technical schools based on its policy focus and maximize the efficiency of education development. First, each
school had different curriculums that would reflect each type’s different purpose. For instance, mechanical technical high schools had high ratio of practice skills compared to theoretical – students had at least 2,400 hours of field training at the time of graduation. In addition, each received different amount of attention and investment as well. While various forms of financial benefits were given to machinery technical high school students, through tuition discounts and scholarships, general technical high schools failed to receive government’s attention with very low financial support (Kim, 1992; Kim, 1990; Kim, 2002; MOEST, 1980).

Along with systematizing technical high school system, the government standardized the quality of TVET through National Technical Qualifications system. The National Technical Qualification Act was enacted in 1973 as part of the 4th Manpower Development Plan in order to “establish an appropriate qualification system by unifying standards and the names of technical qualification, and contribute to improving the social status and quality of technical manpower who can contribute to economic development by creating sound management and operation of the system.” The system provided a ground for strong infrastructure for vocational education and attracted more students by benefiting those with qualification certificates. In addition, as its stated purpose aimed, the system transformed the public view toward TVET into more positive direction (KDIS, 2014).

FINANCING
The budget for vocational education increased radically during the 1970s. Since the end of the Korean War, the Korean government allocated different priorities onto the stage of education throughout a series of education development policies. The foremost target was, at first, primary and secondary school and transitioned to vocational education and to higher education in later times. During the 1970s, under the strong push toward supplying labor force for heavy and chemical industry, the budget allocated for vocational education more than tripled in terms of the portion in the government’s educational budget. It raised from 1.9% in 1969 to 6.0% in 1979. Clearly, vocational education was a top priority.

The rest of financial support was supplemented by private schools and foreign aids. More than 40% of technical high schools and 60% of commercial high schools were established as private entities, reflecting active engagement from entrepreneurs. Moreover, the Korean government received loans for education development project from International Development Association (IDA) and United States Agency for International Development (USAID). In 1969, IDA provided Korea with 1.5 million dollars under the Development Credit Agreement – Education Project. The agreement details out a plan for establishment and reconstruction of schools, and Korea implemented eleven education development projects, five of which were for constructing vocational technical schools (IDA, 1969). The Korean government also received educational development loan of 2.5 million dollars from USAID in 1972. The loan was used for developing school curriculum, teaching methods, and school management (KDIS, 2014).

13 The aid amount approximates to 9.7 million dollars today considering the US dollar inflation (in CPI).
14 The aid amount approximates to 14.2 million dollars today considering the US dollar inflation (in CPI).
[ACHIEVEMENTS]
Korea’s TVET-focused secondary education development policy in the 1970s made a huge contribution to the supply of industrial manpower during the industrialization period. Active cooperation between education and industry backed by the government’s centralized initiative and strong financial support increased the number of vocational education graduates. The figure jumped from 47,000 in 1965 to 201,000 in 1980. In addition, such increase in the number of TVET graduates was successfully linked to increased inflow of qualified labor force into industries; the employment share of vocational education graduates reached 51.1% in 1980 from 35.5% in 1965. The education policy centered on practical application of skills deserves an appreciation for Korea’s historical economic growth.

Korea’s transition from primary education to TVET-focused secondary education, instead of general secondary and post-secondary education, casts meaningful reference on the post-2015 global education development discussion. The global discussion of education development strategy had centered around general education, especially in MDG 2 and 3, until SDG began to shed a light on TVET in SDG 4.3 and 4.4 (Malamud & Pop-Eleches, 2010)\textsuperscript{15}.

\textsuperscript{15} Malamud and Pop-Eleches (2010) analyzes the benefits of general education and TVET during Romania’s transition to a market economy; however comparing the relative benefits is limited due to selection bias.
III. From Recipient to DAC Donor: Korea’s ODA Overview

a. Review Korea’s experience of moving from aid recipient to OECD DAC donor

Korea illustrates the first case of aid recipient country having transitioned successfully into a significant donor country in less than a half century period (Chun et al., 2010). After the Korean War ended in 1953, the international community provided substantial amount of aid for Korea’s recovery. The country received USD 12.7 billion between 1945 and the late 1990s for economic development, and the main donors were the United States, Japan, and the European DAC members (Marx & Soares, 2013; OECD, 2008).

Large portion of foreign aid was contributed toward industrialization of Korean economy. As we could realize from the case of education development policies, Korea underwent strong state-led programs for its recovery and development. Along with multiple Five-Year Economic Plans by the Korean government, much of the aid was granted to infrastructure investments. In particular, almost half of the loans were allocated toward Social Overhead Capital (SOC) under Second Five-Year Economic Plan and the Heavy and Chemical Industrialization (HCI) drive during the 1970s (Chun et al., 2010). The government’s high and consistent commitment resulted in efficient usage and tight management of foreign aid, which describes the successful case of international development aid and, as a result, the rapid development of Korean economy. The case of Korea’s development is meaningful in that the international assistance not only produced miraculous growth but also self-sustaining economic development mechanism within the recipient country itself (Kim, 2011).

While Korea was officially recognized as a donor country by joining OECD-DAC in 2009, the country began to provide assistance to neighboring developing countries earlier when it provided technical cooperation in the late 1970s (Chun et al., 2010). Afterwards, Korea established two aid-implementation agencies, Economic Development and Co-operation Fund (EDCF) and the Korea International Co-operation Agency (KOICA) respectively in 1987 and 1991. EDCF is in charge of loans, and KOICA grants. Following the launch of two aid agencies, the country made concrete progress toward active foreign assistance contributor. Following its sustained economic growth and OECD membership in 1996, Korea was finally welcomed as a DAC member in 2009 (Marx & Soares, 2013). Figure 1 shows a continuous increase in net ODA disbursements by Korea. Increasing curve of net ODA disbursements refers to increasing role of Korea in global development cooperation.
After joining the OECD DAC Group in 2009, Korea exercised the leadership in global development cooperation by hosting the Fourth High-Level Forum on Aid Effectiveness. Held in Busan, Korea, the forum resulted in the Busan Partnership Agreement. Following the Paris Declaration and Accra Agenda for Action, from second and third forum respectively, the Busan Agreement is appreciated for concrete action plans toward effective development. While the previous agreements established global commitments for better aid, more could be done to put the commitments into practice. The Busan Forum filled this gap by providing a concrete action plans for the implementation. It is also meaningful in its wide range of signatory participants, in terms of entities and nations (OECD, 2012).

Korea not only led the productive discussion on better development paradigm among the global society but successfully pushed the participant countries ahead toward the agreement as well. Moreover, Korea has been actively participating in the Global Partnership for Effective Development Co-operation (GPEDC), a supervisory forum for Busan agreement, serving as the policy center of the GPEDC – the UNDP Seoul Policy Centre. The center collaborates with the Joint OECD-UNDP support team and the Korean government to support the country-level implementation review and regional meetings (UNDP). The Busan Forum and post-Busan global partnership again show the valid transition of Korea from aid recipient to aid donor.

b. Korea’s ODA framework

[LEGAL & INSTITUTIONAL FRAMEWORK]

Korea’s current ODA lays legal basis upon the Framework Act on International Development Cooperation (Framework Act) and the Presidential Decree on International Development Co-operation, both which came into force in July 2010. The laws introduce the main direction of Korea’s international development cooperation by defining the Mid-term ODA Policy and roles of ODA supervising agencies. The Korea ODA website states the five basic principles of the Korea’s international development cooperation, written in the Framework Act (Article 3): (i) reduce poverty in developing countries; (ii) improve the human rights of women and children,
and achieve gender equality; (iii) realize sustainable development and humanitarianism; (iv) promote cooperative economic relations with developing partners; and (v) pursue peace and prosperity in the international community. Accordingly, Korea could solidify its vision for the country’s role within international development cooperation and continue to carry out detailed ODA policies.¹⁶

Korea’s ODA is organized by the Committee for International Development Cooperation (CIDC), which oversees ODA policy, strategy, co-ordination, evaluation, and other development-related issues (OECD, 2012). Under the overall guidance by CIDC and Prime Minister’s Office, as CIDC’s secretariat, the Ministry of Strategy and Finance (MOSF) and the Ministry of Foreign Affairs (MOFA) coordinate loans and grants, respectively, of Korea’s ODA. MOSF supervises the Economic Development Co-operation Fund (EDCF), which provides concessional loans, and MOFA supervises the Korea International Cooperation Agency (KOICA), which disburses grants aid and technical cooperation (Chun et al. 2010).

[aid volume]
As illustrated in Figure 1, Korea’s volume of ODA increased constantly since its inception and notably accelerated the growth from the late 2000s. The net amount of ODA disbursements by Korea has reached USD 1856.7 million in 2014, which estimates the annual growth rate of 16% in the past 10 years. This growth rate is impressive in that the average growth rate of ODA net disbursements of DAC countries group is 6%. Despite the rapid growth, Korea still faces a long way to go to achieve the target amount of ODA, to reach 0.25% of ODA/GNI ratio by 2015, in terms of net disbursements. Currently, as of 2014, Korea’s ODA/GNI ratio is 0.13%. The DAC average is 0.3% (OECD).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DAC country</th>
<th>ODA/GNI (%)</th>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>DAC country</th>
<th>ODA/GNI (%)</th>
<th>Rank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>New Zealand</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Luxembourg</td>
<td>1.06</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>0.24</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Norway</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Iceland</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denmark</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>0.19</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
<td>0.70</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>0.19</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Netherlands</td>
<td>0.64</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Portugal</td>
<td>0.19</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finland</td>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>United States</td>
<td>0.19</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Switzerland</td>
<td>0.51</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>Korea</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belgium</td>
<td>0.46</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>Slovenia</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ireland</td>
<td>0.38</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>Czech Republic</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>0.37</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>Greece</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>0.31</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>Poland</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Austria</td>
<td>0.28</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>Slovak Republic</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

¹⁶ http://www.odakorea.go.kr/oz.main.ODAMain.do
Table 1. ODA/GNI ratio – Net Disbursements (2014) (Source: International Development Statistics DB, OECD)

[AID BY SECTOR]

In terms of sector, Korea has put high attention on ODA toward both social infrastructure and economic infrastructure. Figure 2 shows the historical trend of Korea’s ODA commitments by sector (OECD). It is not unnatural that huge investments are put into two infrastructure & service areas as they constitute the foundation for a country’s recovery and development. It is notable, however, that Korea’s case shows even higher proportion of the two areas compared to the average of DAC countries in general. As of 2014, ODA flows toward social infrastructure and services take up 41%, and economic infrastructure and services 34%, which adds up to be 75% of total ODA volume. This is notably comparable to DAC group’s average of 57%. The rest sectors, including commodity aid and humanitarian aid, were given relatively less attention by Korea.

Figure 2. Korea’s ODA by Sector – Gross Disbursements (Source: International Development Statistics DB, OECD)

Among several types of social infrastructure and services, Korea has intensified the assistance on education and health. Two areas are included Korea’s ‘division of labour,’ which describes the areas that each DAC countries had promised to focus on their assistance for better aid efficiency (OECD, 2008). Figure 3 shows Korea’s clear focus on education and health, higher than that of the average of DAC members. Note that water supply and sanitation has

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17 ODA hereby is defined, by OECD, as the following:
Official Development Assistance (ODA) is defined as those flows to developing countries and multilateral institutions provided by official agencies, including state and local governments, or by their executive agencies, each transaction of which meets the following tests: i) it is administered with the promotion of the economic development and welfare of developing countries as its main objective; and ii) it is concessional in character and conveys a grant element of at least 25 per cent. This definition leads to slight difference in the measure of ODA from other types of measures, such as gross disbursements, net disbursements, and total commitments.
received high amount of ODA from Korea too, and it is, in part, highly related to health-related infrastructure development by nature.

Korea’s particular emphasis on economic infrastructure development may have come from the country’s own experience of development – Korea believes that economic infrastructure and economic development are mutually reinforcing (Kim S., 2011; Marx & Soares, 2013). Figure 4 shows the comparison of ODA share toward economic infrastructure and services between Korea and DAC countries in general during the last 10 years. While DAC countries in average have put 15% of their total ODA commitments toward building economic infrastructure, Korea has put 34% into the area. Within economic infrastructure and services sector, Korea has shown clear priorities on transport and storage to other types of infrastructure, reaching 23% of its total ODA. The counterpart number of DAC average is 7%.

Figure 3. ODA (%) on Social Infrastructure (‘06-‘14) – Gross Disbursements (Source: International Development Statistics DB, OECD)

Figure 4. ODA (%) on Economic Infrastructure (‘06-‘14) – Gross Disbursements (Source: International Development Statistics DB, OECD)

[AID RECIPIENTS]
During the initial stages of Korea’s ODA, the country highly depended on multilateral channel, such as multilateral development banks and UN systems. Figure 5 features the portion of bilateral ODA, in terms of gross disbursements, since the inception of Korea’s ODA outflows. From below 10% in 1987, the bilateral proportion has climbed up to 76% in 2014. This is close to that of DAC members in average, 72%.

![Figure 5. Bilateral Aid Share - Gross Disbursements](Source: International Development Statistics DB, OECD)

Among bilateral recipients of Korea’s ODA, Asia and Africa by far take up the biggest portion. The Korean government selected 26 priority partner countries to concentrate the resources and maximize its ODA effectiveness through the Country Partnership Strategies (CPS) in 2010. Table 2 shows the list of 26 priority partner countries and focus sectors for each partner. As shown, Korea has 11 Asian countries and 8 African countries for their high-priority partners. In addition, we can note again Korea’s active ODA focus toward education and health sectors from this table.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Focus Sectors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Asia</td>
<td>Nepal</td>
<td>Vocational Training / Health and Medical Care / Agriculture / Electricity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(11 countries)</td>
<td>East-Timor</td>
<td>Education Training / Health and Medical Care / Social Infrastructure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Laos</td>
<td>Water Resources and Electricity / Human Resource Development / Health and Medical Care</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mongolia</td>
<td>ICT-based Public Administration / Urban Development / Agriculture Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Bangladesh</td>
<td>Water Resources and Electricity / Health / Education / Public Administration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Vietnam</td>
<td>Environment and Green Growth / Vocational Training / Transportation Infrastructure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sri Lanka</td>
<td>Basic Infrastructure / Human Resource Development / Public Administration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Indonesia</td>
<td>Public Administration / Economic Infrastructure / Environment and Resource Management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cambodia</td>
<td>Rural and Agriculture Development / Transportation and Green Energy / Human Resource Development / Health and Medical Care</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pakistan</td>
<td>Industrial Energy / Education / Health and Medical Care</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>Transportation Infrastructure / Agriculture and Water Resources / Health and Medical Care</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oceania</td>
<td>Solomon Islands</td>
<td>Fisheries / Forestation / Health and Medical Care</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(5 countries)</td>
<td>Bolivia</td>
<td>Transportation / Agriculture / Health and Medical Care</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Colombia</td>
<td>Rural Community Development / Productivity and Competitiveness of Small and Medium-sized Enterprises / Public Administration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Paraguay</td>
<td>Basic Social Services / Productivity Improvement and Capacity Building for Vulnerable Social Groups Transportation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Peru</td>
<td>Health and Medical Care / Rural Development / Information and Communication</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Middle East and CIS (2 countries)</th>
<th>Azerbaijan</th>
<th>Industrial Energy / Public Administration</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Uzbekistan</td>
<td>Human Resource Development / Health and Medical Care / Administration Informatization and Improvement of Economic Institutions</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Africa (8 countries)</th>
<th>Ghana</th>
<th>Expansion of Strategic Infrastructure / Improvement of Health and Sanitation, and Medical Environment / Improvement of Vocational Training Environment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Nigeria</td>
<td>Human Resource Development / Public Administration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rwanda</td>
<td>ICT / Human Resource Development / Rural Community Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mozambique</td>
<td>Electricity and Transportation / Agriculture Development / Human Resource Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ethiopia</td>
<td>Material and Child Health Care/ Drinking Water Supplementation / Agriculture and Rural Community Development, Vocational Training for Farmers / Technical Education and Vocational Training / Electricity and Road Infrastructure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Uganda</td>
<td>Agriculture / ICT / Economic Infrastructure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cameroon</td>
<td>Human Resource Development / Social and Industrial Infrastructure / Rural Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>DR Congo</td>
<td>Health Environment and Medical Care / Rural Development</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

|                          | **Table 2. Focus Sectors of 26 priority partner countries (Source: ODA Korea)** |

The historical statistics support such Korea’s high focus on Asia and Africa; Figure 6 shows the gross disbursements from Korea to each recipient continent. Korea has historically focused on Asia in particular, ranging from around 50% to exceeding 80%. Marx and Soares (2013) attribute such focus to Korea’s own geographical location primarily. Korea’s ODA provision toward Africa has started to increase in recent years. In 2005, Africa received 9% of gross ODA disbursements from Korea. This has climbed up to 23% in 2014. Table 3 shows the countries that receive the highest ODA disbursements from Korea within their continent. The number is based on Korea’s gross disbursements from 2005 to 2014. For most part, Korea has provided assistance according to its list of priority partner countries; however, we can observe some countries that are not part of priority partners but still receive the high amount of Korea’s ODA – Afghanistan, Tanzania, Angola, and so on.
Figure 6. Korea’s ODA (%)\textsuperscript{18} by Recipient Continent – Gross Disbursements (Source: International Development Statistics DB, OECD)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Gross disbursements (USD mn, Current)</th>
<th>(%)</th>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Gross disbursements (USD mn, Current)</th>
<th>(%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Vietnam</td>
<td>1066.39</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>Tanzania</td>
<td>261.74</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Afghanistan</td>
<td>428.67</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>Mozambique</td>
<td>148.06</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cambodia</td>
<td>412.64</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>Angola</td>
<td>143.2</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sri Lanka</td>
<td>402.67</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>Ethiopia</td>
<td>129.01</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bangladesh</td>
<td>399.73</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>Senegal</td>
<td>112.12</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3. Top 5 Countries for Korea’s ODA – Gross Disbursements (Sum of ’05-’14) (Source: International Development Statistics DB, OECD)

c. OECD DAC Peer Review for Korea

OECD DAC proceeds periodic reviews of the development cooperation of member countries and publishes the Peer Review. The DAC evaluated ODA by Korea and published the peer review of Korea in 2008, before joining DAC, and in 2012, after joining the group. The review covers Korea’s aid strategic orientation, allocations, organization and management, and effectiveness. The first points out the country’s lack of legal and institutional foundation for ODA. The second review concludes that Korea had shown substantial improvement in the areas pointed out in the previous review by establishing relevant legal basis and agencies. In overall, the report concludes that Korea ‘has worked hard to strengthen its aid and to contribute to global development efforts’ (OECD, 2012).

The 2008 review identifies the Korean government’s lack of general legal and institutional foundation for ODA. It points out that the country has ‘no overall legislation to govern its development co-operation’ to ‘clearly set out Korea’s overall ODA objectives and provide the legal basis for a consolidated aid system.’ In addition, DAC suggested reducing debt and ensuring debt sustainability of the recipient countries, consolidating ODA framework from

\textsuperscript{18} Share of ODA toward each region among the total ODA toward developing countries
two-pillar system, increasing the proportion of untied aid, strengthening ODA-related personnel and evaluation system, and improving the public awareness to activate their engagement in ODA. To sum up, the first peer review on Korea’s ODA recommends a set of actions that can enable the country to begin the full-fledged commitment in its development assistance programs (OECD, 2008).

The 2012 Peer Review, meaningful in that it is the first evaluation after joining DAC, acknowledges the enhancement of Korea’s ODA system but at the same time mentions several areas for further improvement. In terms of overall framework and strategic direction of Korea’s ODA, the 2012 review team notes an improvement based on the new aid legislation, the Framework Act, and strategic planning, Strategic Plan for International Development Cooperation and Mid-term ODA Policy for 2011-2015. The review acknowledges that such legislative framework provides a clear direction for developing and managing the country’s development budget. The aid framework, however, still needs to improve in several areas. First, the country yet lacks sufficient criteria for decision-making procedures and clear guideline regarding thematic focus areas and priority partner countries. In other words, Korea needs to ‘set out clear aims, priorities, objectives and intended outcomes’ for its development cooperation strategies, detailed for each focus sector and partner country. Second, the review points out that Korea needs to improve the integration, co-ordination and management of ODA-funded activities in order to handle increasing ODA in the future. In particular, the peer review group recommends that Korea attempt to integrate all ODA into a unified strategy and ensure that its aid is effectively coordinated and implemented effectively. Moreover, the review suggests Korea to strengthen its evaluation process and adopts measures to improve aid effectiveness. In a nutshell, the DAC peer review agrees that Korea has strengthened its legal and institutional foundation for development cooperation but urges to establish more concrete system for integrated aid activities in the future (OECD, 2012).

In addition, the peer review report puts on recommendations for the volume and allocations of ODA by Korea. Korea had committed to reach 0.25% of ODA/GNI ratio by 2015. While the review recommends that Korea maintains its commitment in aid increase, it also emphasizes the importance of managing appropriate balances within channels and sectors. For instance, Korea has been assisting developing countries through loans, taking up to 40% of ODA net disbursements. While loans are valid instrument to finance development, as Korea had achieved strong development as a recipient of loan in the past, this type of aid can impose fiscal discipline on the recipient developing countries. In this sense, the review suggests that Korea puts more careful attention to the impact of its loan program, including the recipient countries’ debt sustainability. Secondly, the review recommends Korea to strengthen its commitment to thematic focus areas and priority partner countries. While Korea has shown great progress in narrowing down its aid activities in terms of areas and recipients, the review suggests the country to set clear objectives and achieve greater focus in development aid provision. In this sense, Korea’s particular focus on health, education and basic infrastructure, such as transport and storage, needs be further narrowed down. Lastly, the review urges Korea to scale up the humanitarian program. While Korea constituted a legislative mandate for humanitarian donorship, the country is said to lack a policy to focus and guide its humanitarian
aid activities. In order to provide a clear strategy, the DAC suggests Korea to further develop accountable and effective systems to apply humanitarian principles. Such measures may include identifying clear strategic directions, defining the scope, and solidifying learning and evaluating processes of the program (OECD, 2012).

In general, the review agrees that Korea has successfully positioned itself into DAC membership and laid down its own differentiated approach and particular comparative advantage for international development cooperation.

The main findings of 2008 and 2012 DAC Peer Review centered on establishing legal and institutional basis for Korea’s development cooperation strategy. Accounting to the point, the Korean government strengthened its ODA framework by putting in place a Framework Act and Presidential Decree on International Development Co-operation (Framework Act), which provides a legal foundation for a more integrated system for aiding the developing countries. In addition, Korea has formulated Mid-term ODA Policy, 1st policy for 2011-2015 and 2nd policy for 2016-2020, to clarify the country’s aim of ODA. In particular, it states the focus area and main partnership for ODA allocation. Through these advancements, the country has developed the legal and institutional ground. However, more is needed to be done in order to solve the issue of disintegrated ODA activities rising from fragmented system (KOICA, 2015f).
IV. Korea’s ODA strategy in Global Education

a. Trend on Education ODA volume and allocation

Korea has put high importance on education development. As illustrated in Section II, Korea had invested heavily on education, engaging manpower development as part of economic development. This experience led the Korean government to be active in assisting developing countries’ education as well. Figure 7 shows the amount of Korea’s ODA disbursements toward education. Although there were some ups and downs in the last 10 years, the Korean government has steadily maintained the increasing trend in the volume of ODA on education. We can also note that the proportion of education ODA out of the total ODA has been mostly higher for Korea’s case than the average DAC countries’ case. DAC countries, in average, have maintained less than 10% of ODA disbursements toward education development while Korea has contributed more between 10-20% for most years.

Figure 7. Korea's ODA on Education - Gross Disbursements (Source: International Development Statistics DB, OECD)

b. Major Players in Education ODA in Korea

Korea International Cooperation Agency (KOICA), Ministry or Education, Science, and Technology (MOEST), and Economic Development Co-operation Fund (EDCF) have been the three biggest contributors of education ODA in Korea. As Table 4, Korea’s education ODA statistics by institution from 2010 to 2014, the three agencies take 96% of the amount of aid that flowed toward developing countries’ education. While KOICA and MOEST mostly provide grants, EDCF provides concessional loans to developing countries. Apart from the three institutions, others include various types of institutions such as education offices, universities, and research agencies (MOEST, 2016a).
KOICA have been the center of Korea’s aid activities toward education sector – its share has been up to over the half of the country’s contribution to education development. In fact, education has been a major part for KOICA’s ODA strategy. Figure 8 shows the share of KOICA’s ODA by sector since its inception. If we look at the share of education ODA out of the total ODA, the number has mostly been over 20% except for the initial few years. It has even once reached over 30% in 2000. This shows KOICA’s high and consistent emphasis on education development as a cornerstone for nation’s development. Therefore, under the vision of providing human development to achieve the country’s own sustainable development, KOICA has been trying to provide quality education opportunities to all of those who need education. It has concentrated on expanding the access to education, enhancing the quality of education, and improving the relevant policies (KOICA, 2010).

Table 4. Korea’s Education ODA by Institution (USD mn, %) – Gross Disbursements (Source: Korea’s ODA Statistics, KEXIM)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institution</th>
<th>2010</th>
<th>2011</th>
<th>2012</th>
<th>2013</th>
<th>2014</th>
<th>Sum (’10-’14)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>KOICA (%)</td>
<td>76.7</td>
<td>90.7</td>
<td>108.4</td>
<td>122.2</td>
<td>111.2</td>
<td>509.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MOEST (%)</td>
<td>28.8</td>
<td>32.0</td>
<td>40.2</td>
<td>47.7</td>
<td>46.2</td>
<td>194.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EDCF (%)</td>
<td>39.7</td>
<td>55.9</td>
<td>52.3</td>
<td>34.8</td>
<td>60.2</td>
<td>242.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others (%)</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>9.0</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>9.8</td>
<td>36.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>146.6</td>
<td>183.4</td>
<td>209.9</td>
<td>215.8</td>
<td>227.4</td>
<td>983.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 8. KOICA’s ODA by Sector (%) – Gross Disbursements (Source: Korea’s ODA Statistics, KEXIM)

Table 5 shows the bilateral contribution of KOICA toward education sector by aid type. Out of the total amount of KOICA’s education bilateral ODA, 509.3 million dollars from 2010 to 2014, project assistance’s share is 61% and technical assistance 32%. Through project-based

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19 We can only look at area-specific usage of ODA within bilateral ODA; multilateral ODA is provided in bulk.
assistance, especially, KOICA can provide education development aid based on each recipient country’s own needs and circumstances. The examples of such projects include building vocational training centers in Myanmar, repairing ICT facilities for a technical college in Tanzania, and establishing a qualifying examination for Kazakhstan (KOICA, 2014).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Channel</th>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Total (USD mn)</th>
<th>Share (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total Bilateral ODA in Education</td>
<td>509.3</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assistance for NGO, PPP, and other programs</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Project Assistance</td>
<td>309.5</td>
<td>61%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Studying-abroad &amp; Trainee Assistance</td>
<td>38.2</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technical Assistance</td>
<td>161.4</td>
<td>32%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5. KOICA’s Education ODA by Aid Type (‘10-‘14 Sum) – Gross Disbursements (Source: Korea’s ODA Statistics, KEXIM)

MOEST’s educational assistance, however, looks quite different from that of KOICA. Nearly 80% of bilateral ODA has flowed toward assisting students and trainees who are invited to study in Korea. In particular, MOEST is an operating organization for the Global Korea Scholarship (GKS), a scholarship program supported by the Korean government. The program began as Korean Government Scholarship Program (KGSP) in 1967, which provides the students from developing countries with support for either undergraduate or graduate degree. This has evolved into GKS, whose objective is to ‘generate deeper mutual understanding between world countries by facilitating educational exchange human resource mobility, thereby contribute to the development of international education peace.’

The program does not necessarily limit the eligibility into those from developing countries, but it maintains substantial share dedicated to inviting the students from developing world. GKS has been the main agenda for MOEST’s educational aid while other programs, such as multicultural family support and BEAR program, have recently been increasing the proportion (MOEST, 2015).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Channel</th>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Total (USD mn)</th>
<th>Share (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total Bilateral ODA in Education</td>
<td>194.9</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administration</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assistance for NGO, PPP, and other programs</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Project Assistance</td>
<td>13.4</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Studying-abroad &amp; Trainee Assistance</td>
<td>154.6</td>
<td>79%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technical Assistance</td>
<td>25.9</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6. MOEST’s Education ODA by Aid Type (‘10-‘14 Sum) – Gross Disbursements (Source: Korea’s ODA Statistics, KEXIM)

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20 www.studyinkorea.go.kr
EDCF’s education ODA by aid type is illustrated in Table 7. The fund provides all aids in project assistance. This is similar with KOICA only that the fund provides concessional loans, not grants. In 2014, for instance, EDCF approved a loan to the Uzbekistan government for the project of establishing a national educational electronic library (EDCF, 2015).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Channel</th>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Total (USD mn)</th>
<th>Share (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total Bilateral ODA in Education</td>
<td>242.8</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Project Assistance</td>
<td>242.8</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7. EDCF’s Education ODA by Aid Type (’10-’14 Sum) – Gross Disbursements (Source: Korea’s ODA Statistics, KEXIM)

c. Target Level of Education: Primary, Secondary, and Post-secondary

Korea’s allocation of education ODA looks dissimilar from that of DAC members in general. Figure 9 shows the education ODA allocation by each education level, summed up from 2005 to 2014. It shows a clear comparison between Korea and DAC countries in average. While the high portion of post-secondary education development is common between the two, the rest two education levels, basic and secondary, show the obvious contrast. DAC countries have put 25% of ODA resources toward basic-level education in the last 10 years. Korea has only contributed 8% for the same area. The strong push toward basic-level education primarily has resulted from the emphasis on primary education under UNESCO’s Education for All (EFA) Initiative and UN’s Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). DAC members, on other hand, have shown relatively less commitment on secondary-level education – 10% of total education ODA.

![Figure 9. Education ODA Allocation (%) by Level (’06-’14 Sum) - Gross Disbursements](Source: International Development Statistics DB, OECD)

Korea’s main focus in education ODA has been on secondary education until the late 2000s. As illustrated in Figure 10, the Korean government has provided over 50% of its total education ODA toward improving secondary-level education in 2008. Such emphasis on secondary education may be related to Korea’s own experience of utilizing secondary-level
manpower adequately to meet the increasing labor demand from rapidly expanding economy. Basic education relatively has received lower contribution, less than or around 10%.

![Figure 10. Korea’s ODA (%) on Education by Level – Gross Disbursements (Source: International Development Statistics DB, OECD)](image)

It is, however, more important to look at how each major player is providing education ODA by level. The distribution and focus of education ODA has been differentiated among each contributor institution. Table 8 explains the education ODA by KOICA based on education level. As illustrated, KOICA’s main area has been secondary education, especially vocational training. During the period from 2010 to 2014, KOICA contributed 37% of its education ODA toward improving secondary-level education. Among them, 29% of total went to vocational training.

MOEST (Ministry of Education, Science, and Technology) shows a different picture in terms of the focused level and area of its education ODA. As Table 9 shows, MOEST has put high emphasis on post-secondary level. It takes more than four-fifths of total education ODA from 2010 to 2014. 81% from 83% of ODA amount dedicated to post-secondary education development was intended for more general education than technical or managerial training. In addition to GKS (Global Korea Scholarship) program, discussed in the previous chapter, the ministry’s another main ODA program is International Cooperation Leading University Program (ICLUP). The program aims to promote Korean-style development assistance through cooperation between universities in Korea and developing countries. MOEST supports the selected Korean universities to establish a new academic department, which can best respond to the local economy’s demand and contribute to the region’s development. The program targets to provide a holistic aid by providing curriculum, dispatching experts and instructors, and supporting educational equipment necessary for initiating new academic courses. ICLUP is also run in collaboration with GKS, so the students from the local school can study abroad in Korea for higher degrees and go back to their alma mater to work as professor. In this regard, it aims to raise the independence and self-supporting capacity of the partner schools in developing countries. MOEST is currently supporting six partnership projects (MOEST, 2016b).
EDCF has shown similar focus on both secondary and post-secondary education. Table 10 is the distribution of EDCF’s education ODA by level and area. In terms of education level, EDCF can be said to have been more concentrating on secondary education, 62% of total during the past 5 years from 2010 to 2014. Advanced technical and managerial training from post-secondary level, however, has received high contribution as well. What is clear is that basic level of education was not in EDCF’s basket.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Area</th>
<th>Total (USD mn)</th>
<th>Share (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>509.3</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basic</td>
<td>Basic life skills</td>
<td>76.4</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>48.7</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Early childhood</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>General secondary</td>
<td>41.2</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Vocational training</td>
<td>146.0</td>
<td>29%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-secondary</td>
<td>Advanced technical and managerial training</td>
<td>107.2</td>
<td>21%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>High (specialized college, university, etc)</td>
<td>90.6</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unspecified</td>
<td>Teacher training</td>
<td>138.6</td>
<td>27%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Facilities and training</td>
<td>105.7</td>
<td>21%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Research</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Policy and administrative management</td>
<td>23.3</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 8. KOICA's Education ODA by Level ('10-'14, Sum) (Source: Korea’s ODA Statistics, KEXIM)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Area</th>
<th>Total (USD mn)</th>
<th>Share (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>194.9</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basic</td>
<td>Basic life skills</td>
<td>5.8</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>5.8</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>General secondary</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Vocational training</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-secondary</td>
<td>Indirect trainee support</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Advanced technical and managerial training</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>High (specialized college, university, etc)</td>
<td>158.8</td>
<td>81%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unspecified</td>
<td>Teacher training</td>
<td>24.1</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Facilities and training</td>
<td>10.8</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Research</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Policy and administrative management</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 9. MOEST's Education ODA by Level ('10-'14, Sum) (Source: Korea’s ODA Statistics, KEXIM)
Table 10. EDCF’s Education ODA by Level (’10-’14, Sum) (Source: Korea’s ODA Statistics, KEXIM)

d. General Education vs. Technical Vocational Education Training (TVET)

The previous section showed the importance of secondary and post-secondary education in Korea’s education ODA policy, both as a whole and by institution. Another significant characteristic of Korea’s education ODA is its emphasis on technical vocational education training (TVET). Korea, from its own experience, had realized the importance of raising strong manpower that can meet industrial needs and boost economic development. The country by itself has learned and proved the significant role of practical education and has begun to spread the lesson to neighboring developing countries ever since it began international development cooperation activities.

Table 11 shows the distribution of education ODA from Korea in the last 5 years. During the period, Korea has steadily maintained the share of TVET ODA among total education ODA at around 30%. Furthermore, if we exclude the development of education infrastructure, categorized under the ‘Unspecified’ in the table, from calculation, the ratio between general education ODA and TVET ODA remains approximately 1.5 to 1. Korea’s heavy commitment on vocational education stands out when it is compared to DAC members’ overall contribution. Figure 11 illustrates the share of TVET ODA of Korea and DAC countries in average. The portion of TVET has never exceeded 10% in DAC average. Such relatively low commitment toward TVET may have stemmed from the global development initiative centered on basic education through EFA, MDG, and SDG.

Table 11. Korea’s Education ODA by Category – Gross Disbursements (Source: KEXIM)
KOICA has been the main contributor of Korea’s TVET ODA. As Figure 12 displays, KOICA has taken more than half of Korea’s ODA disbursements toward vocational training. The rest amount comes from EDCF, mainly, and some other institutions including MOSF (Ministry of Strategy and Finance) and Office for Government Policy Coordination (OPC).

Among 478 education development programs implemented by KOICA between 1991 and 2015, as Table 12 shows, 167 programs were intended for TVET development, accounting for 35%. This share is along the line with the share of 33% in education disbursements, TVET ODA share in KOICA’s entire education ODA between 2010 and 2014, illustrated in Table 8 above. KOICA’s TVET aid programs can be classified into 7 types: project-type intervention, financing of commodities, development study, invitation training, expert dispatch, volunteer dispatch, and NGO support, as shown in Table 13. Note the difference between the total number of TVET programs in table 12 and table 13; this may arise from the fact that some programs can be classified under multiple types.
Table 12. KOICA’s Education ODA (’91-’15, Sum) (Source: Created by author, using KOICA’s data)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>No. of programs</th>
<th>Share (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TVET</td>
<td>167</td>
<td>35%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General</td>
<td>311</td>
<td>65%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>478</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 13. KOICA’s TVET ODA by Program Type (’91-’15, Sum) (Source: Created by author, using KOICA’s data)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Program Type</th>
<th>No. of programs</th>
<th>Share (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Project-type Intervention</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>31%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financing of Commodities</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Development Study</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Invitation Training</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>37%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expert Dispatch</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volunteer Dispatch</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NGO Support</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>354</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Invitation training and project-type intervention are two biggest types of KOICA’s TVET development assistance programs, respectively accounting for 37% and 31% of the total. Financing of commodities and NGO support also take significant share of KOICA’s TVET aid, reflecting the institution’s active PPP activities. Although volunteer dispatch is counted as a single program, this should not be neglected, for KOICA has annually sent over a hundred volunteers to developing countries through a single program called ‘World Friends Korea.’ The program has dispatched 5,225 volunteers to 45 countries in total (KOICA, 2015e).

The aim of KOICA’s TVET ODA has been to support the recipient countries’ economic development and raise employment opportunities through fostering industrial manpower (KOICA, 2015a). In order to achieve this goal, KOICA has endeavored to provide education that can properly serve the industrial needs of recipient countries. For instance, KOICA has more focused on basic vocational skills and aimed for income increase in the poorest countries in African region while it fostered more advanced skills in Asian countries in order to meet the rising industrial demands from neighboring ASEAN markets. Through such customized approach of TVET aid, KOICA has enabled to maximize the growth potential of recipient countries and effectiveness of ODA programs (KOICA, 2015a).

e. Public-Private Partnership (PPP) in Global Education

Cooperation between the government and private sectors for international development aid has been substantial for Korea – from its own development experience in the past. Throughout

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21 Programs could be double-counted for different categories in Table 13.
22 Updated the existing classification of KOICA’s education ODA (KOICA, 2013) by adding KOICA’s recent program list from 2014 to 2015 – Some programs were counted in multiple types thus the total number of TVET ODA programs may differ from that of Table 12; non-NGO PPP ODA programs were classified under both ‘financing of commodities’ and ‘expert dispatch.’
multiple Five-Year Development Plans, the Korean government has arranged active cooperation with private sectors to provide TVET education and foster industrial manpower, which can be put into application right away. Such immediate employment after graduation was facilitated by companies’ on-the-job training and internship programs.

In a similar sense, the Korean government has emphasized the importance of engaging private sectors in development aid to maximize both efficiency and effectiveness. At the development aid master plan, which was recently established to identify the country’s role toward the achievement of SDGs in the future, Korea appointed forming a strong ODA network as an essential strategy to carry forward ODA programs. Partnership with private enterprises, it claimed, will enable effective development aid as it utilizes participating companies’ valuable resources, such as R&D capacities, entrepreneurial experiences and financial support. In addition, as many companies have already entered and expanded businesses in different developing countries, the collaboration with private entities allows easier access to local networks and, thus, more effective implementation of ODA (Korea Government, 2016).

Among all, the collaboration between public and private sector in education ODA can be much observed considerably from KOICA. The high portion of TVET in KOICA’s education ODA explains the organization’s strong partnership with private companies – not a surprise if we consider the fact that TVET is where private entities can play more relevant role than in general education development. The steadily increasing number of TVET ODA in the form of PPP, represented as the blue line in Figure 13, shows KOICA’s increasing interest in making ties with private sector. Moreover, the average amount of KOICA’s ODA amount in each PPP program has also been increasing continuously.

![Figure 13. KOICA’s PPP in TVET ODA (Source: KOICA)](source)

One example of PPP is Hyundai-KOICA Dream Center in Cambodia. This project, which takes place from 2016 to 2017, aims to provide the youth with technical foundation for self-reliance by teaching them car mechanic skills. Hyundai Motors has been operating assembly plants in Phnom Penh since 2014, and the company decided to expand education and employment opportunities to the local students who would otherwise have not been able to learn the useful technical skills – useful in that they directly respond to growing automobile
industry in the country. In the project, 100 students learn car maintenance techniques, through either 2-year-long course or shorter-term course, and continue onto internships and on-the-job trainings so that they acquire immediate vocational competencies. The budget for this project is 300 thousand dollars, and it will be equally shared between KOICA and Hyundai (KOICA, 2016b).

Another example is KOICA-GIZ\textsuperscript{23}-Samsung PPP project to build female professional capacities in Ghana. This four-year-long project, implemented from 2014 to 2017, aims to empower female students by teaching various skills in electronics business, such as maintenance, sales, installation, and service-related skills. The project includes building four vocational training centers and establishing training curriculums. In addition, the project attempts to raise the sustainability of program by building a separate education curriculum for instructor training. The project expects over a hundred graduates from each center every year and 70\% of them directly into employment in electronic industry. Moreover, it aims to increase the portion of female students among electronic-related TVET graduates to 30\% in 2017 from only 4\% in 2012 (KOICA, 2016a).

f. Gender Priority: Girls Education (Better Life for Girls Initiative)

Education for girls has been addressed as one of the four important directions of Korea’s development over the near future. President Park Geun-hye addressed four main initiatives that Korea will concentrate in the next five years in order to cooperate with international efforts toward SDGs. They are ‘Better Life for Girls,’ ‘Safe Life for All,’ ‘Science, Technology and Innovation for Better Life,’ and ‘Better Education for Africa Rise.’ These four agenda constitute the major pillars for Korea’s contribution to SDGs achievement as a leading ODA donor country (Korea Government, 2016).

The need for girls’ empowerment rises from the understanding that girls are still positioned in the more vulnerable group throughout society. Take education, for instance. Although MDGs have brought about better access to education, to both boys and girls, the obvious discrepancy between the two still exists due to unfavorable sociocultural beliefs and awareness. In particular, the completion rate of secondary education of boys and girls is, respectively, 37.8\% and 28.4\%. These rates had risen from 23.5\% and 15.2\%, so there has been clearly a meaningful improvement from the past; however, this should not keep us from paying attention to inferior education condition of girls. Similar situation is observed in girls’ health and profession (KOICA, 2015b; KOICA, 2016c). Therefore, in order to “tackle gender inequality in learning and help girls in developing countries unlock their full potential,” the Korean government has committed to push forward the Better Life for Girls Initiative (BLG) over the next five years.

BLG aims for better education (Girls’ Right to Education), better health (Girls’ Right to Health), and better profession (Girls’ Right to Profession) for girls. Combining three sectors altogether, BLG takes a holistic approach to empower girls and reinforce their positions. Korea

\textsuperscript{23} German Society for International Cooperation
pledged to contribute 200 million dollars, in grants, between 2016 and 2020 for girls’ development under BLG (KOICA, 2015b). KOICA will play a key role in implementing the initiatives in cooperation with multiple government entities, including MOSF, MOEST and MOFA, and various NGOs. The government has selected 7 countries, out of their 26 priority partners, that will be the recipient countries of this initiative. They are Laos, Myanmar, Cambodia and Nepal in Asia, and Ethiopia, Tanzania and Mozambique in Africa. Among them, Laos and Myanmar are currently implementing trial programs (Korea Government, 2016).

Education development programs under BLG are comprised of general education (Girls’ Right to Education) and vocational education (Girls’ Right to Profession) development. **Girls’ Right to Education** aims for providing quality education for learning outcomes and providing inclusive education for disadvantaged groups. In order to improve the quality of education, Korea plans to build stronger education capacity through promoting teacher training and developing curriculums, instructional materials and textbooks. Under such goal, KOICA will dispatch experts and WFK volunteers and invite developing countries’ teachers for training in Korea. To provide inclusive education for those out of the reach, especially the girls in crisis and post-conflict conditions, the Korean government plans to arrange better educational environments through building infrastructures and providing financial support. These programs will be mainly held through NGOs and PPPs (KOICA, 2015 b; KOICA, 2016c).

**Girls’ Right to Profession**, which focuses on TVET education for girls, aims to broaden girls’ opportunities for socio-economic empowerment. As the girls equipped with right skills are more likely to achieve self-reliance in the future, Korea will concentrate on providing proper curriculums and resources that will best respond to market demands of the recipient countries. Girls will be able to receive training of various life skills such as baking, production, livestock, and ICT. In order to provide diverse coaching and mentorship opportunities, the Korean government plans to cooperate with both private entities and NGOs. In addition, girls and young women will be able to enhance their employability as BLG plans to train and employ relevant manpower to operate their new infrastructures, such as schools and hospitals, which will be built throughout the BLG programs (KOICA, 2015b; KOICA, 2016c).

BLG programs for Laos, for example, are composed of six projects below, three of which are for girls’ education – 1), 3), and 4) (Korea Government, 2016).

1) Training female teachers in minority town [KOICA, 340k USD]
2) Training health personnel for mother-and-child and children’s care [KOICA, 9.5 mn USD]
3) Enhancing education capacities of Souphnouvong University [KOICA, 3mn USD]
4) Teaching computer and IT skills [KOICA, 3mn USD]
5) Establishing modern hospitals [EDCF, 65mn USD]
6) Improving girl’s health care system [MOHW24, 15mn USD]

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24 Ministry of Health and Welfare
In summary, Korea has shown a meaningful transition from aid recipient to donor country and successfully joined OECD DAC. In particular, the country has maintained high proportion of ODA on education development. Korea’s education ODA stands out in its focus on secondary and post-secondary education unlike other OECD DAC countries’ consistent interest in primary education. Moreover, the country has pursued strengthening TVET-focused education in secondary and post-secondary level, more than general secondary education. In a nutshell, the TVET-focused secondary and post-secondary education development has been a key in Korea’s education ODA. In addition, the government has emphasized public-private partnership (PPP) strategy. This is noteworthy as TVET calls for active collaboration with private sector and, thus, PPP and TVET are complementary to each other. The highlight on TVET is also maintained in the President Park Geun-hye’s recent initiative of gender priority, “Better Life for Girls.”
V. Implications for Post-2015 Global Education

Global education agenda in the last 15 years has centered around the quantitative expansion of primary education, well represented by MDG. With the onset of SDG, however, the trend has evolved into life-long education, which includes not only primary education but secondary and post-secondary level as well, and broader improvement of education, stressing both quantitative and qualitative advancement.

The Korea’s experience of education development provides a valid reference to Post-2015 Global education agenda. The country concentrated on expanding education opportunities in primary school level in the 1950s. After it reached the target of universal primary education, 96%, Korea began to focus on secondary education, particularly on TVET-focused education instead of general education. Korea’s TVET development can be an interesting topic to discuss under the global education development trend, which emphasizes general education.

Korea is the only country that has successfully transitioned from recipient to DAC donor country. It has shown the highest increase in the volume of ODA among OECD DAC countries. Education and health are the two biggest areas.

The close examination of Korea’s education concludes with several distinctive features. Unlike other OECD DAC countries, Korea has put higher focus on secondary and post-secondary education than primary education. Within secondary and post-secondary, TVET has been the major area. In addition, the country highlights advancing TVET through active PPP. The BLG agenda, which represents gender priority initiative, also shows strong commitment on TVET. In a nutshell, Korea’s main idea for education ODA can be summarized with secondary education than primary, TVET education than general, active PPP and gender priority.

The education ODA strategy of Korea may seem irrelevant, or less suitable, with global education agenda under the last 15 years’ MDG framework. Under the Post-2015 global education agenda and SDG framework, however, reviewing Korea’s education ODA pathway can point out what global communities have overlooked and be a good starting point for further meaningful discussions.
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