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1 Policy Strategies for Overseas Grain Asset Acquisition and Domestic Supply Integration in 2 South Korea: A Review

4 Abstract

5 This study examines policy strategies to support overseas agricultural asset acquisition by domestic firms
6 and to promote their integration with domestic supply chains in South Korea. Amid increasing global food
7 demand, market volatility, and supply uncertainties driven by climate change and geopolitical risks,
8 ensuring stable grain supply has become a critical national priority. Given Korea's heavy dependence on
9 grain imports and low self-sufficiency rates, overseas agricultural development has emerged as a key
10 strategy to enhance food and feed security and industrial competitiveness.

11 This study analyzes current policy frameworks and identifies limitations in supporting domestic firms'
12 overseas expansion. It highlights the need to prioritize strategic commodities—such as wheat, soybeans,
13 maize, palm oil, and cassava—based on their significance to domestic food and feed systems. Furthermore,
14 the study emphasizes the importance of strengthening global value chains by expanding investment beyond
15 production to include processing, distribution, and logistics.

16 To enhance the effectiveness of overseas agricultural investments, this study proposes tailored policy
17 support based on firm size and investment type. For large-scale enterprises, integrated supply chain
18 development is essential, while for small and medium-sized enterprises, support should focus on local
19 settlement and gradual expansion. In addition, the study underscores the importance of linking overseas
20 production with domestic demand through institutional mechanisms, including consultative platforms and
21 preferential allocation systems.

22 A key contribution of this study is the proposal of a loss compensation system to facilitate stable domestic
23 importation during supply crises. By establishing clear operational guidelines and compensation
24 mechanisms, the government can encourage private sector participation and strengthen crisis response
25 capacity. Moreover, the study suggests long-term policy directions, including the integration of agricultural
26 ODA programs, promotion of youth participation, and the establishment of stable financial support
27 frameworks.

28 Overall, this study provides comprehensive policy recommendations to enhance the resilience and
29 sustainability of Korea's grain supply system by fostering stronger linkages between overseas agricultural
30 investments and domestic supply chains.

31
32 **Keywords:** Overseas agricultural investment; Food and feed security; Grain supply chain; Policy support;
33 Strategic commodities; South Korea

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Introduction

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Since the early 21st century, rapid population growth, coupled with urbanization and rising income levels, has led to a sustained increase in global food demand [1,2]. Grains, in particular, serve not only as staple foods for human consumption but also as essential inputs for livestock feed, bioenergy production, and various industrial applications. Consequently, they are widely recognized as strategic resources that are closely linked to national economic stability and industrial competitiveness [3-6]. In this context, ensuring a stable supply of grain resources has emerged as a critical challenge extending beyond firm-level strategies to encompass national food and feed security concerns [4, 6].

Despite these global trends, South Korea continues to exhibit a relatively low grain self-sufficiency rate, while the international grain market is increasingly characterized by price volatility and supply uncertainty driven by climate change, geopolitical tensions, and growing global demand [2, 6-9]. Such conditions pose persistent risks to the domestic grain industry, complicating efforts to secure stable raw material supplies and maintain price competitiveness. Given Korea's heavy reliance on grain imports, fluctuations in the global market directly influence firms' production planning and cost structures [10].

Domestic grain-specialized firms are developing strategies to mitigate these challenges through the acquisition of overseas production bases and grain-related assets. These strategies include direct investment in overseas farms and processing facilities, long-term supply agreements, and the development of global distribution networks and logistics infrastructure [11]. Such approaches not only enhance firm-level profitability but also contribute to stabilizing raw material supply across the domestic industry [11, 12]. Moreover, these overseas asset acquisition strategies go beyond mere investment, strengthening firms' risk management capabilities in response to uncertainties in the global grain market and creating synergistic effects by facilitating grain inflows through linkages with the domestic industrial ecosystem.

Recent studies further highlight that outward foreign direct investment (OFDI) aimed at securing raw materials can positively affect both domestic industrial competitiveness and supply chain resilience [13, 14]. The acquisition of overseas grain assets by domestic firms extends beyond mere raw material imports, carrying strategic significance by enabling the simultaneous acquisition of technology, information, and operational know-how through integration with global production networks. This strategic orientation is expected to play a pivotal role in enhancing the long-term sustainability and competitiveness of the domestic grain industry. Against this backdrop, this study aims to provide an in-depth analysis of overseas asset acquisition strategies employed by domestic grain-specialized firms and to propose practical measures for linking these strategies to the promotion of domestic grain inflow. In this review, domestic import integration is defined as the institutional, logistical, and commercial mechanism that connects grain volumes secured by Korean firms through overseas agricultural investment with domestic import, distribution, and utilization systems, thereby enabling their effective incorporation into Korea's food and feed supply chains.

71 To this end, this study evaluates the effectiveness of overseas grain asset acquisition and its integration
72 with domestic supply chains. It also discusses policy implications for strengthening food and feed supply
73 chain resilience, reducing feed supply risks, and supporting the stable development of Korea's livestock
74 production system.

75

76 **1. Policy Measures to Support Domestic Firms in Overseas Asset Investment**

77 **1) Support for supply chain development to ensure the stable procurement of strategic** 78 **commodities**

79 This section examines policy measures to support domestic firms in securing strategic commodities
80 through overseas grain asset investment. In particular, it focuses on supply chain development, regional
81 diversification, and value-chain expansion as key conditions for stable procurement of food and feed grains.

82 The volume of overseas-secured strategic commodities by South Korea was estimated at 2.08 million
83 tons in 2021 and 2.14 million tons in 2022. The total area developed for overseas agricultural resources
84 reached 290,000 ha in 2021, and only seven firms possessed large-scale supply bases—defined as those
85 with over 10,000 ha of farming operations or large-scale distribution and processing facilities [15]. To
86 support domestic firms in overseas asset investment, policy support should be concentrated on strategic
87 commodities identified through analyses of import dependency, global and domestic market conditions,
88 supply chain dynamics, and potential impacts on domestic prices [14-17]. In this study, key food and feed
89 security commodities such as major grains (wheat, soybeans, and maize), along with essential food industry
90 inputs including oil palm (edible oils) and cassava (starch), are prioritized.

91 South Korea is the world's seventh-largest importer of major grains, importing approximately 17 million
92 tons annually, while its self-sufficiency rates for wheat, soybeans, and maize remain extremely low at 0.7%,
93 5.9%, and 0.8%, respectively [3, 12, 18]. Palm oil and cassava also depend entirely on imports, with global
94 supplies highly concentrated in a few exporting countries: Indonesia and Malaysia account for about 90%
95 of palm oil exports, while Thailand and Vietnam account for about 81% of cassava exports [19]. These
96 commodities are expected to remain strategically important due to their uses in food, bioenergy, industrial
97 materials, and feed [15, 16].

98 Given these conditions, priority support should be provided to firms entering sectors related to these
99 strategic commodities. When implementing overseas expansion support programs for the agri-food industry
100 (e.g., loans and subsidies), priority should be given to firms dealing with strategic commodities. Because
101 investment in strategic commodities requires substantial initial capital and involves supply-chain risks,
102 preferential interest rates can reduce entry barriers for private firms and encourage diversified overseas
103 procurement. Currently, preferential interest rates are applied only to grains (1.5% for grains vs. 2.0% for
104 other commodities), and there is a need to extend this preferential treatment to all designated strategic
105 commodities [12,15].

106 Strategic commodity development should also be closely linked to domestic demand. While a
107 consultative body among grain firms currently exists, it is necessary to establish commodity-specific
108 councils. These councils can facilitate demand–supply matching through field visits, explanatory meetings,
109 tariff-rate quota (TRQ) allocations, and demand-linked production support [12,15]. For firms seeking entry
110 into strategic commodity sectors, proactive information provision should be strengthened, along with the
111 expansion of advisory services in overseas investment, agricultural technologies, and management.
112 Platforms such as the Overseas Agriculture Forum and the Integrated Information Platform for Overseas
113 Agricultural Resource Development should be actively utilized to support firms engaged in overseas
114 agricultural expansion.

115 Securing a stable supply of strategic commodities requires the diversification of overseas investment
116 regions, the expansion of new strategic hubs, and the stabilization of existing operations. Currently,
117 overseas investment is concentrated in the Russian Far East and Southeast Asia; however, there is a need
118 to diversify into regions such as the Americas, the CIS (Commonwealth of Independent States), and
119 Oceania. Notably, 15 firms have already expanded into regions beyond these traditional areas [12]. Table
120 1 summarizes the current countries of operation, target regions for diversification, and market entry
121 strategies for each strategic commodity. In addition, supporting the diversification of supply bases beyond
122 farm establishment and operation—such as distribution, processing, refining, and bioenergy—can enhance
123 resilience to agricultural export restrictions and strengthen domestic import capacity. While previous
124 investments have primarily focused on production, future strategies should expand into value-chain
125 activities such as processing, refining, storage, export terminals, and inland and maritime logistics [15].

126 Policy efforts should strengthen forward and backward global value chains by expanding support beyond
127 overseas production to include storage, processing, export terminals, and inland and maritime logistics.
128 Figure 1 illustrates this value-chain approach, showing how overseas grain production should be linked
129 with distribution, logistics, and domestic importation. Government programs, including the Overseas Grain
130 Distribution Network Support Program and the Agri-Food Industry Overseas Expansion Support Program,
131 should be coordinated to support an integrated framework connecting overseas grain production,
132 distribution, and domestic import [12].

133 Stepwise expansion strategies should identify priority stages across the supply chain, such as export
134 elevators, production bases, aggregation and processing facilities, and logistics networks [12,20,21]. In
135 addition, government programs related to agricultural inputs, technology commercialization, and seed
136 development should be linked with firms expanding overseas. Relevant industry associations should jointly
137 establish a consultative platform to promote cooperation across upstream and downstream sectors, develop
138 expert pools in diversified regions, and provide integrated online and offline consulting services [12].

139

140 **2) Tailored Investment Support by Scale and Mode of Overseas Expansion**

141 Policy support should prioritize key sectors according to the scale of overseas expansion in order to
142 strengthen Korea's still-developing grain and feed procurement system. In particular, large-scale firms
143 should be supported in rapidly developing integrated production and distribution networks for strategic
144 commodities, while simultaneously strengthening domestic supply chains. Initial entry should be directed
145 toward strategic commodities, particularly grains, while the selection of support beneficiaries for large-
146 scale investments should be contingent upon alignment with designated strategic commodities. In addition,
147 policy efforts should promote the development of new supply bases for strategic commodities by supporting
148 capital-intensive segments across the entire supply chain, including storage, distribution, and processing,
149 beyond primary agricultural production [3, 4, 16].

150 According to the Fourth Comprehensive Plan for Overseas Agricultural Resource Development, the
151 settlement rate of overseas-investing firms (active firms relative to registered firms) is targeted to increase
152 from 30.1% in 2021 and 29.7% in 2022 to 40% by 2027. The government plans to strengthen overseas
153 expansion support programs—including land and facility acquisition, pre-investment assessments, and
154 consulting services—to facilitate the stable establishment of firms abroad [16]. These measures should be
155 linked with domestic demand to facilitate routine imports, secure emergency import channels, and support
156 inspection and quarantine procedures [12, 16]. In addition, loan-related constraints, such as the cap on
157 application frequency and restrictions on large firms' first-quarter participation, should be eased to support
158 large-scale facility investments [16].

159 Policy support for small- and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) should prioritize stable local
160 establishment while promoting gradual entry into strategic commodity sectors and domestic supply
161 integration. For SMEs, support should focus on locally adapted varieties, agricultural technology assistance,
162 long-term contract farming with domestic firms, and stable market access. Government programs should
163 also actively support entry into non-strategic sectors—such as fruit, horticulture, and livestock—as part of
164 preferential measures to promote SME participation [12, 16].

165 Given that many domestic firms are still in the early stages of overseas expansion and exhibit diverse
166 operational models, tailored support based on the mode of entry is required.

167 For production-oriented investments, local adaptation technologies should be supported through
168 institutions such as the Korea Program on International Agriculture (KOPIA), alongside efforts to link
169 overseas production with domestic demand to ensure stable business operations [16, 22]. Technical support
170 should prioritize the dissemination of locally adaptable high-quality varieties, the enhancement of
171 productivity through advanced technologies (e.g., IT-based smart farming systems), and the development
172 of locally appropriate cultivation, storage, and post-harvest practices [23, 24].

173 For distribution- and processing-oriented investments, policy support should focus on expanding pre-
174 investment assessments and expert consulting, while actively promoting linkages with domestic demand to
175 facilitate the smooth importation of secured volumes [25]. Because these investments involve complex
176 infrastructure decisions, such as storage facilities, export elevators, logistics hubs, and port access,

177 sufficient feasibility assessment is essential before investment. The current support ceiling for pre-
178 investment assessments should be increased from KRW 100 million to KRW 200 million, and the allowable
179 assessment period extended from six to nine months. This adjustment is necessary because distribution-
180 and processing-oriented investments require detailed feasibility assessments of storage capacity, logistics
181 routes, port access, local regulations, quarantine requirements, and domestic demand linkages. To translate
182 these assessments into actual import flows, consultative platforms with domestic food and feed companies
183 should be established to improve demand matching and facilitate the absorption of imported volumes. Low-
184 interest financing under the Overseas Grain Distribution Network Support Program, which aims to secure
185 five overseas grain distribution sites by 2027, can further reduce logistical bottlenecks and strengthen the
186 linkage between overseas procurement and domestic food and feed supply chains [12].

187

188 **2. Policy Measures to Promote Domestic Import Integration**

189 The Fourth Comprehensive Plan for Overseas Agricultural Resource Development outlines a phased
190 approach to strengthening domestic import integration, including the establishment of a loss compensation
191 system, consultative platforms with domestic demand-side firms, and legislative revisions for strategic
192 commodities such as oil palm and cassava [12,16].

193

194 **1) Implications for Livestock Feed Security and Animal Production**

195 A substantial share of South Korea's imported grains is used as livestock feed, making overseas grain
196 supply disruptions directly relevant to animal production [12, 18]. Price increases in maize, wheat, and
197 soybean meal can raise compound feed costs, thereby affecting livestock production costs, farm profitability,
198 and the stability of meat, milk, and egg supply [10, 26]. In Korea's livestock sector, maize and soybean
199 meal are major components of compound feed, and changes in their import prices can directly affect feed
200 formulation costs and production margins. Therefore, securing overseas grain supplies and linking them to
201 domestic feed demand can help stabilize livestock production under international market disruptions.
202 Accordingly, overseas grain asset acquisition and domestic import integration should be understood not
203 only as food and feed security measures, but also as strategic instruments for strengthening feed security
204 and stabilizing livestock production. From this perspective, policy measures such as loss compensation,
205 minimum stockholding requirements, and coordination platforms with domestic feed companies are
206 important for reducing feed supply risks and improving the resilience of Korea's livestock sector. Table 2
207 summarizes the linkages between key imported feed-related commodities, livestock production, and policy
208 responses.

209

210 **2) Establishment and Effectiveness of a Loss Compensation System**

211 South Korea imports over 17 million tons of grain annually, with more than 80% of imports handled by
212 global grain majors and Japanese trading firms [15,18]. South Korea's total grain import value exceeds

213 KRW 5 trillion, with 33% for food use and 67% for feed, accounting for approximately 10% of agricultural
214 output and 18% of agricultural value added. In 2021, amid rising global grain prices driven by COVID-19
215 and poor harvests in South America, total grain imports increased to KRW 6.9 trillion, representing a 30.7%
216 increase compared to 2019. In particular, Kim et al. (2022) reported that, based on an analysis of the impact
217 of imported grain price fluctuations on domestic consumer prices, maintaining the elevated global grain
218 price levels observed in March 2022—following the Ukraine war—would lead to price increases relative
219 to March 2021 of 23% for feed, 10% for livestock products, 15% for processed foods, and 2.6% for food
220 services [26, 27]. Although this estimate reflects the 2022 price shock, it provides an illustrative case of
221 how geopolitical disruptions can increase international grain market volatility and transmit risks to Korea's
222 food and feed supply chains. To address such volatility and ensure compliance with mandatory domestic
223 import requirements during crises, loss compensation for firms is essential for establishing a stable,
224 privately driven national grain and feed procurement system.

225 In response to a legislative reform recommendation issued by the Ministry of Government Legislation in
226 August 2020, the government amended the Overseas Agricultural and Forestry Resources Act in October
227 2024, to establish a legal basis for loss compensation to facilitate the smooth domestic importation of
228 overseas agricultural resources during emergencies, and has implemented corresponding revisions to
229 subordinate regulations (enforcement decree and rules). However, additional guidelines are still needed to
230 define compensation criteria, eligible entities, covered losses, and procedures for emergency import orders
231 [28, 29].

232 Under the international grain crisis warning system, MAFRA, KRCC, and KOARDA coordinate import
233 preparation, review, and execution according to crisis stages. Supplementary Table 1 summarizes the
234 current procedure for import orders related to loss compensation, including preparation, review, issuance
235 and execution, compensation assessment, objection procedures, and payment. However, the effectiveness
236 of emergency import orders has been limited by the absence of detailed compensation criteria and
237 operational guidelines [12,15].

238 Accordingly, a Loss Compensation Review Committee should be established to assess eligibility,
239 calculate direct and indirect losses, and determine compensation amounts based on clear criteria and
240 supporting documentation [6,29,30].

241

242 **3) Strengthening Linkages Between Importing Firms and Overseas Agricultural Enterprises**

243 Although current guidelines focus on coordination for emergency imports, consultative mechanisms
244 between domestic demand-side firms and overseas agricultural enterprises should be institutionalized to
245 expand transactions under normal conditions and strengthen their role. In addition, linkages should be
246 reinforced by supporting producers with suitable seeds and cultivation technologies, while granting
247 preferential TRQ allocations to demand-side firms. In the long term, domestic end-users should be
248 encouraged to participate in overseas agricultural development to strengthen integration and alignment

249 between grain procurement and domestic demand. The Japanese experience provides a relevant benchmark,
250 wherein Zen-Noh—the largest feed grain end-user—established the Zen-Noh Grain Corporation (ZGC) in
251 the United States in 1979 to engage in grain distribution activities [31].

252

253 **4) Review of Stockpiling and Maintenance Measures to Address Supply Instability During** 254 **Emergencies**

255 The international grain crisis response manual defines the Alert stage based on a set of detailed criteria,
256 including domestic production shocks, import disruptions arising from poor harvests or export restrictions
257 in major exporting countries, and logistical constraints. The threshold is met when the price of a single
258 major grain commodity exceeds the previous year's or five-year average by more than 50%, or when two
259 or more commodities increase by more than 30%. At this stage, stockpiling priorities are established, and
260 the implications for domestic food supply and price stability are evaluated. Unlike rice, which has a
261 relatively high self-sufficiency rate and is already managed under a public stockpiling system, import-
262 dependent grains such as maize, wheat, and soybeans require a separate stockpiling and emergency
263 utilization framework because they are essential for food processing and compound feed production [4,32].

264 Overseas agricultural development firms involved in major grains should be granted priority access and
265 preferential treatment across all agri-food overseas expansion support programs. To stabilize domestic
266 supply during emergencies, these firms should also be encouraged to maintain minimum stock levels under
267 normal conditions. In addition, policy measures should examine whether grains used for bioenergy
268 feedstocks can be redirected to food and feed uses during crises [1,32,33].

269

270 **5) Establishing a Stable Support Framework for Overseas Agricultural Development and** 271 **Domestic Import Enterprises**

272 Given the long-term nature of overseas agricultural development, sustained and stable support is essential
273 for achieving tangible outcomes. However, government funding has fluctuated considerably, increasing
274 from KRW 24 billion in 2009 to KRW 35.5 billion in 2013, before declining to KRW 7.4 billion in 2020
275 [12,15,16]. This volatility indicates the need for stable financing mechanisms that go beyond annual public
276 budget allocations.

277 As an alternative, a public–private agri-food fund or other sustainable financing mechanisms should be
278 considered to support overseas grain infrastructure [15,16]. In addition, the Supply Chain Stabilization Fund,
279 established under the Supply Chain Basic Act, could be used to provide financial support, such as loans, to
280 firms engaged in overseas agricultural development.

281 Policy measures should focus on strengthening the capacity of implementing organizations and
282 enhancing inter-agency coordination. In particular, the capacity of organizations such as OARDA and
283 KRCC should be reinforced through staff training in finance, global grain markets, and corporate consulting.
284 Specialized institutions with expertise in fund and financial management, such as the Korea Agricultural

285 Policy Insurance and Finance Service, should also be incorporated into future financing mechanisms
286 [12,16].

287

288 **3. Lessons from Past Experiences and International Benchmarks**

289 Previous overseas agricultural development efforts in South Korea have produced limited outcomes
290 despite repeated policy plans. The settlement rate of overseas agricultural development firms remained
291 around 30.1% in 2021 and 29.7% in 2022, and the government aims to increase the firm settlement rate to
292 40% by 2027 [16]. In addition, overseas-secured strategic commodities were estimated at 2.08 million tons
293 in 2021 and 2.14 million tons in 2022 [15]. These indicators suggest that past policies have not yet fully
294 resolved challenges related to local settlement, stable procurement, and effective linkage with domestic
295 food and feed demand [15,16].

296 International benchmarks indicate that overseas grain asset acquisition is effective only when production,
297 storage, logistics, and domestic food and feed demand are institutionally connected [11,33]. The Japanese
298 case shows that ODA, diplomatic negotiation, infrastructure support, and private-sector participation can
299 be linked to long-term food and feed security [30,31]. However, given South Korea's relatively limited
300 overseas grain trading and logistics base, such models should be selectively adapted rather than directly
301 replicated. Therefore, future policy should move beyond the expansion of overseas investment itself and
302 focus on measurable outcomes, including firm settlement rates, repatriation volumes, crisis-period import
303 execution, and linkages with domestic food and feed demand.

304

305 **4. Strategies for Establishing a Long-Term and Stable Support Framework**

306 Beyond domestic import integration, a stable institutional foundation is required to sustain overseas
307 agricultural development and ensure the long-term use of overseas-secured grain resources within domestic
308 supply chains.

309 **1) Enhancing Linkages and Cooperation with Agricultural ODA (Official Development 310 Assistance) Programs**

311 Japan has recognized the strategic importance of agriculture and adopted a long-term “global supply”
312 vision, securing overseas farmland to ensure domestic food supply stability while extending its reach into
313 international markets. In 2009, the Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries and the Ministry of
314 Foreign Affairs established the Overseas Investment Promotion Committee for Food and feed security,
315 which has since facilitated intergovernmental investment agreements, improvements in host-country
316 investment conditions, infrastructure development, and technical assistance in coordination with ODA
317 programs [34,35]. In particular, Japan places emphasis on negotiating with exporting countries to secure
318 exemptions from export bans and restrictions. This case is relevant to South Korea because it shows how
319 ODA, diplomatic negotiation, and infrastructure support can be linked to long-term food and feed security.

320 However, given South Korea’s relatively limited overseas grain trading and logistics base, this model
321 should be adapted selectively to support local partnerships and grain logistics infrastructure.

322 In parallel, South Korea should form an inter-agency coordination platform involving major agricultural
323 ODA institutions—such as MAFRA, RDA, KOPIA, the Korea Forest Service, the Korea Rural Economic
324 Institute, and KRCC—along with the OARDA, to enhance information exchange and integrate stakeholder
325 perspectives. In addition, the potential for linking ODA programs with overseas agricultural development
326 firms should be explored [35]. Over the long term, ODA frameworks should incorporate public–private
327 partnership (PPP) mechanisms to develop integrated collaboration models among government, public
328 institutions, and private enterprises [35,36]. A cooperative framework should be established by leveraging
329 overseas public institutions, such as KOPIA centers, to facilitate collaboration in overseas agricultural
330 development and enable the sharing of local information, market conditions, and locally adapted farming
331 technologies.

332

333 **2) Promoting Youth Participation in Overseas Agricultural Development**

334 Higher education programs should integrate field-based training at overseas agricultural development
335 enterprises into their curricula, while, over the medium to long term, establishing dedicated courses
336 addressing overseas agricultural investment, including corporate establishment, land acquisition, and
337 human resource management [16]. To support young farmers and professionals, structured programs should
338 combine university education, field training, expert-led instruction, and consulting on pre-investment
339 assessments. These programs can facilitate overseas entry and help generate successful cases of youth-led
340 agricultural development [16].

341 Overseas youth support programs should prioritize the selection of candidates who have completed
342 specialized training under initiatives such as the “Overseas Agricultural Internship Program” to enhance
343 success rates. Training should cover all stages of overseas expansion, including pre-entry assessment,
344 localization, management, distribution, reinvestment, capital recovery, and exit strategies, as well as
345 international grain market analysis. Participation should also be extended to employees of overseas
346 agricultural development firms.

347

348 **3) Strengthening Information Provision, Consulting and Outreach**

349 An information platform should be established to support overseas expansion by providing
350 comprehensive data on local legal, institutional, and policy frameworks, as well as market conditions, best
351 practices, and operational challenges. To this end, the existing “Overseas Agricultural Resource
352 Development Integrated Information Platform,” established in 2022, should be upgraded to incorporate up-
353 to-date information from local public institutions, embassies, and established firms, while being integrated
354 with other support programs such as online consulting and remote technical assistance [12,16].

355 A comprehensive online–offline consulting support system should be established to address practical
356 challenges faced by overseas-entering firms. This system should include regularly updated manuals
357 covering production, distribution, management, administration, and legal procedures, as well as real-time
358 consulting and remote technical support.

359 To build social understanding and encourage firm participation in overseas agricultural development, a
360 two-stage outreach strategy should be implemented—comprising (i) an awareness-raising phase and (ii) an
361 engagement phase—as outlined below [16]. Table 3 summarizes this two-stage communication strategy,
362 while Table 4 provides examples of Japan’s public education and outreach materials on food and feed
363 security. In the first stage, public communication efforts should focus on disseminating information on food
364 self-sufficiency and food and feed security through media and social networking platforms. In the second
365 stage, successful overseas agricultural cases, support programs, and practical limitations should be shared
366 with current and prospective firms through briefing sessions and mobile-based information channels linked
367 with KOARDA.

368

369 4) Strengthening Post-entry Monitoring and Performance Management

370 To improve the settlement rate and long-term sustainability of overseas-entering firms, post-entry
371 monitoring and performance management should be strengthened. Systematic monitoring should begin at
372 the pre-entry evaluation stage and continue after overseas establishment through business plan reviews,
373 field inspections, and cooperation with relevant associations. When operational constraints are identified,
374 targeted consulting and technical support should be provided to improve firm performance and business
375 continuity [15,16].

376 Reporting requirements for participating firms, including initial business plans and reports on suspension
377 or withdrawal, should also be refined to support more effective long-term management. In addition, regular
378 refresher training on ESG, performance management, and overseas business operations should be
379 introduced to enhance firm capabilities and ensure effective post-entry oversight [16,37].

380

381 5) Institutional Reforms to Address Emerging Areas in Overseas Agricultural Development

382 Institutional frameworks should be updated to reflect recent developments in overseas investment and to
383 promote greater private sector participation. For example, although provisions exist under Chapter 3 of the
384 Overseas Agricultural and Forestry Resources Development Act regarding overseas agricultural investment
385 companies, these have become largely inactive due to the absence of actual investment entities and the lack
386 of regulatory updates since the 2015 revision. Given the need for large-scale and long-term capital
387 investment in overseas agricultural development, investment trusts could help mobilize private capital and
388 distribute investment risks among multiple investors. Accordingly, revisions are required, including the
389 introduction of provisions related to investment trusts and the clarification of definitions for dedicated
390 investment companies.

391 Furthermore, legislative reforms should be pursued to support entry into emerging areas of overseas
392 agricultural development, such as food processing and bioenergy [28,38]. While current regulations limit
393 target resources to agricultural and livestock products (e.g., soybeans, bioenergy feedstocks), consideration
394 should be given to expanding the scope to include processed agricultural products and food items (e.g.,
395 soybean flour, soybean meal, soybean oil, and other processed soybean products) [38].
396

397 **Conclusion**

398 Global food and feed grain supply chains have become increasingly vulnerable to geopolitical shocks,
399 climate-related disruptions, export restrictions, and international price volatility [2,4,7-9,39,40]. For South
400 Korea, where a large share of grain demand depends on imports, these disruptions are not limited to the
401 food sector but directly affect compound feed costs, livestock production, farm profitability, and the
402 stability of animal-source food supply [10,41].

403 This review examined policy strategies for linking overseas grain asset acquisition with domestic supply
404 chains in South Korea. Although overseas agricultural development policies have been implemented
405 through successive government plans, the current system still lacks a fully integrated framework linking
406 overseas procurement, domestic importation, stockpiling, and crisis response [15,16,32]. This limitation
407 reduces the practical effectiveness of overseas grain asset acquisition, particularly when secured volumes
408 are not effectively connected to domestic food and feed demand [11,15,20,33].

409 To address this gap, three policy directions are particularly important. First, support for overseas
410 investment should prioritize strategic commodities essential for domestic food and feed supply, including
411 wheat, soybeans, maize, oil palm, and cassava [3,12,15,16]. Policy support should extend beyond
412 production to include storage, processing, logistics, export terminals, and transportation networks, thereby
413 strengthening the linkage between overseas-secured grain and domestic demand [11,15,33].

414 Second, domestic import integration should be strengthened through institutional mechanisms that
415 reduce firm-level risks during supply crises. A practical loss compensation system is needed to encourage
416 firms to comply with emergency import requirements when international grain markets are disrupted. In
417 addition, coordination platforms between overseas-investing firms and domestic food and feed companies,
418 preferential support for firms maintaining minimum stock levels, and clear crisis-response guidelines would
419 improve the stability of domestic grain inflows [15,32].

420 Third, a long-term support framework should be established by linking agricultural ODA, public-private
421 partnerships, information systems, post-entry monitoring, and legal reforms [16,35,36]. These measures
422 can improve local settlement, enhance firm capabilities, and support the development of overseas grain
423 logistics infrastructure. Institutional reforms should also reflect emerging areas such as food processing and
424 bioenergy, as well as financing mechanisms that mobilize private capital and distribute investment risks
425 [28,38,42].

426 Overall, this review contributes by reframing overseas grain asset acquisition not merely as an overseas
427 agricultural investment policy, but as a strategic mechanism for strengthening food and feed supply
428 resilience and stabilizing livestock production in South Korea. Future policy should focus on consistent
429 implementation, stronger private-sector engagement, and institutional arrangements that ensure overseas-
430 secured grain resources are effectively utilized within domestic food and livestock feed supply chains.
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Tables and Figures

550

551 Table 1. Diversification strategies of entry regions for strategic commodities

Strategic Commodities	Current Countries of Operation	Target Regions for Diversification	Market Entry Strategies
Wheat, Soybean, Maize (Corn)	United States, Russia, Ukraine, etc.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Northeast Asia: Russian Far East, etc. • Europe: Ukraine, CIS countries, etc. • North America: United States, Canada, etc. • South America: Brazil, Argentina, etc. • Oceania: Australia, etc. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Northeast Asia, Oceania: Expansion of support for large-scale production-oriented enterprises • North America, South America, Europe, Oceania: Entry centered on distribution-oriented enterprises and establishment of strategic partnerships with global grain majors
Oil Palm	Indonesia	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Southeast Asia: Indonesia, Malaysia, etc. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Southeast Asia: Expansion of support for production-oriented overseas agricultural development enterprises; support for entry into palm oil refining and processing sectors
Cassava	Cambodia, Vietnam	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Southeast Asia: Cambodia, Vietnam, Thailand, Myanmar, etc. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Southeast Asia: Formation of production-oriented overseas agricultural development enterprise consortia; support for distribution and processing businesses linked to actual domestic demand

552 Source: Ministry of Agriculture, Food and Rural Affairs (2023), The 4th Comprehensive Plan for

553 Overseas Agricultural Resource Development

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556 Table 2. Linkages between imported feed-related commodities, livestock production, and policy responses

Feed-related commodity	Main livestock relevance	Potential impact of supply disruption	Policy implication
Maize	Major energy source in compound feed	Higher feed formulation costs and increased production costs	Stable overseas procurement and minimum stockholding
Soybean meal	Major protein source in compound feed	Increased protein feed costs and reduced farm margins	Securing overseas supply and linking with feed companies
Wheat	Feed ingredient and food-processing grain	Competition between food and feed uses during crises	Emergency allocation and import coordination
Cassava	Alternative starch and feed ingredient	Increased pressure on substitute feed resources	Diversified sourcing and demand-linked procurement
Oil palm / palm oil by-products	Food industry input and possible feed-related by-products	Indirect effects on feed and food industry costs	Strategic commodity support and processing linkage

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559 Table 3. Two-stage public communication strategy for overseas agricultural development

Stage	Key Communication Content
Awareness Stage (Stage 1)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Production and dissemination of card news and infographics on food self-sufficiency and food security via media and SNS • Hosting UCC contests related to the necessity and ideas of overseas agricultural development
Engagement Stage (Stage 2)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Enhancing domestic firms' interest through media and SNS by sharing successful overseas agricultural development cases, support programs, achievements, and limitations • Holding briefings on overseas expansion and support programs for (prospective) overseas agricultural firms • Operation of a mobile promotional channel for overseas agricultural development information* <p>* Operated in cooperation with the KOARDA; providing information, consulting services, and support for identifying ADSF.</p>

560 KOARDA: Korea Overseas Agro-Resources-Development Association; ADSF: Actual Demand-Side

561 Firms

562

563

564 Table 4. Example of major public education and outreach materials on food and feed security in Japan

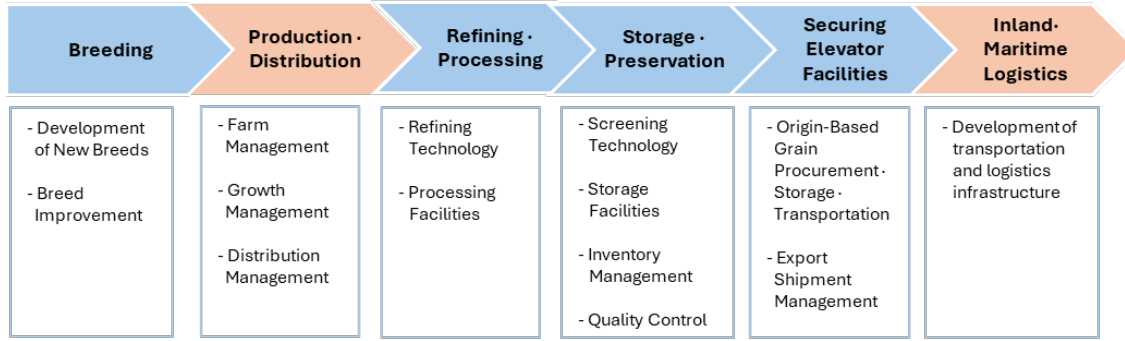
Method	Title	Key Educational Content
Pamphlet	“Do You Know Japan’s Food Situation?”	Information on food self-sufficiency and food and feed security that the general public should be aware of
Pamphlet	“The Strength of Japanese Food”	Easy-to-understand educational material on Japan’s food self-sufficiency and food and feed security, specifically designed for elementary school students
Video	“What Is Food Self-Sufficiency?”	An explanatory video that presents food self-sufficiency indicators in an accessible manner by assessing Japan’s potential food production capacity

565 Source: Ministry of Agriculture, Food and Rural Affairs (2023), The 4th Comprehensive Plan for
 566 Overseas Agricultural Resource Development

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Figure 1. Example of enhancing the global value chain

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573 **Supplementary Table 1. Current Procedure for Implementing Import Orders Related to Loss Compensation**

Stage	Responsible authority	Timing of implementation	Key actions
Import "Preparation"	MAFRA (KRCC and KOARDA)	International Grain Crisis Alert: "Caution" level	Establish the Import Consultation Committee, including government, relevant agencies, demand-side firms, and suppliers. Assess supply–demand conditions, including available supply volumes and domestic demand.
Import "Review"	MAFRA (Import Consultation Committee)	International Grain Crisis Alert: "Warning" level	Convene the Import Consultation Committee. Assess the necessity of issuing an import order. Deliberate on import targets, volumes, prices, timing, and loss compensation. Finalize the import order, including target commodities, volumes, prices, and timing.
Issuance and execution of import order	MAFRA (KRCC and KOARDA)	International Grain Crisis Alert: "Warning" or "Severe" level	Decide whether to implement the import order. Issue and deliver the import order. Provide necessary support for implementation.
Issuance and execution of import order	OADO, ADSF	Upon issuance and receipt of the order	Conclude export–import contracts in accordance with the import order. Conduct shipment and receipt procedures. Submit implementation reports.
Issuance and execution of import order	OADO, etc.	Application for loss compensation	Terminate the emergency import order immediately upon resolution of the crisis. Provide fair compensation for losses incurred by complying with the import order, including differences between international market prices at the time of order issuance and actual import prices, as well as costs incurred from cancellation or termination of pre-existing contracts. Submit claims for loss compensation with claim forms and supporting documentation.
Loss compensation framework	MAFRA (Loss Compensation Review Committee)	Assessment of loss compensation	Calculate and assess loss compensation amounts. If necessary, request expert appraisal, evaluation, and investigation of compensation items related to commodities, trade, and logistics. Determine compensation criteria, eligible entities, and compensation amounts, including direct and indirect losses. Convene the Overseas Agricultural and Forestry Resource Development Deliberation Committee, if necessary.
Loss compensation framework	MAFRA	Notification of decision	Determine and notify eligibility for loss compensation and the compensation amount within 60 days.
Loss compensation framework	OADO, etc.	Objection procedure	Submit objections within 30 days from the date of notification. Reassess, decide, and notify the result within 14 days from the date of application.
Loss compensation framework	MAFRA	Payment of compensation	Pay loss compensation within 30 days from the date of notification.

574
 575 Source: Ministry of Agriculture, Food and Rural Affairs (2025). MAFRA: Ministry of Agriculture, Food and Rural
 576 Affairs; KRCC: Korea Rural Community Corporation; KOARDA: Korea Overseas Agro-Resources-Development
 577 Association; OADO: Overseas Agricultural Development Operators; ADSF: Actual Demand-Side Firms
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