

DEVELOPMENT EDUCATION IN THEORY AND PRACTICE

An educator's resource

Edited by:

*Michal Cenker,
Louiza Hadjivasiliou,
Patrick Marren and
Niamh Rooney*



www.unidev.info

Published by: UNIDEV – NGO Support Centre (Cyprus),
Pontis Foundation (Slovakia), Kimmage Development
Studies Centre (Ireland)

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Design by: Kristy Eliades

First published in 2016

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About the Project

UNIDEV - Bridging the Gap Between Theory and Practice is a three-year project (2013-2016) funded by the European Commission and implemented by the NGO Support Centre in Cyprus, the Pontis Foundation in Slovakia and Kimmage Development Studies Centre in Ireland.

The project aims at increasing the awareness and understanding of young people in partner countries about poverty and the MDG (Millenium Development Goals) agenda in order to stimulate debate and action in support of fairer relations between the Global North and the Global South. More specifically, UNIDEV aims at stimulating greater levels of theoretical and practical teaching, learning and knowledge about the MDG agenda and post-2015 to academics and students in the three countries, and fostering cross-sector and professional debate about global justice and poverty between academics in partner countries and NGOs in Sub-Saharan Africa.

As part of the project, the partners have produced this publication in order to provide a new teaching resource for academics and educators in Development Education and related disciplines.

More information: www.unidev.info

About the Organisations

The **NGO Support Centre** is a non-governmental, non-profit organisation that was founded in 1999 in Nicosia, Cyprus. The vision of the Centre is to support the development of emerging civil society in Cyprus and internationally, and promote active citizenship. The NGO SC has a long background in partnering with CSOs in Cyprus and internationally. It is a member of the following networks: the Cypriot NGDO Platform, CYINDEP – Cyprus Islandwide NGO Development Platform, CIVICUS – World Alliance for Citizen Participation, EPLO – European Peacebuilding Liaison Office, and the Anna Lindh Foundation. The Centre has an extensive record in project management and has implemented a number of projects in the fields of active citizenship, peace and reconciliation, youth and education, and development education. In particular, since 2010, the NGO SC has been involved in development education projects aimed at raising awareness about international development issues and fostering development education in Cyprus.

For almost forty years, **Kimmage Development Studies Centre** has facilitated education and training for development practitioners working in a range of occupations from over sixty-five countries. It has a strong reputation in Development Studies in Ireland and abroad and offers an inter-cultural and experience-based learning environment. The ethos of Kimmage DSC is embodied in a teaching approach based on participatory learning and critical thinking which seeks to empower course participants with the skills and knowledge essential for development work today. The vision of Kimmage DSC is a world of equality, respect and justice for all. Its mission is to promote critical thinking and action for justice, equality and the eradication of poverty in the world. It aims to do this through facilitating the education and training of individual practitioners and groups working for social, economic and political change in society and so enabling all practitioners to work effectively for the holistic development of all.

The **Pontis Foundation** was established in 1997 as the successor to the Foundation for a Civil Society. It has more than ten years of experience in managing grant and foundation funds. It is an active member of the Slovak Donors Forum, and a member of the Platform of Development NGOs, Business in the Community, CSR Europe, the International Business Leaders Forum, and the Grantmakers East Group. It encourages and supports the development and long-term financial sustainability of Slovak non-profit organizations by providing grants, loans, and expert consultancy. It supports the development of corporate philanthropy and corporate social responsibility. It provides consultancy for creating philanthropic strategies. It undertakes research projects, academic internships; it publishes books and organises educational events in the area of development education. It recognizes the philanthropic activities of corporations and individuals in Slovakia with an annual Via Bona Slovakia Award. It administers the Business Leaders Forum – an informal association of firms that commit themselves to enforce the principles of corporate social responsibility in Slovakia. It contributes to the development of civil society in the non-democratic and transition countries of the world. It supports the development of a foreign policy for Slovakia and the EU that is based on values of democracy, respect for human rights, and solidarity.



Contributor Biographies

Alexander Apostolides

Alexander Apostolides was born in Nicosia in 1980. His academic background is in economic growth and economic history. His specialty is long-term development and the economic vulnerability of development in island nations, particularly Malta and Cyprus. He worked as a research fellow at the University of Warwick and the Cyprus Technical University, and is now an Assistant Professor of Economic History at the European University Cyprus. With Stefano Moncada he co-wrote the book entitled *Development Theory and Development in Practice: A Dialogue* in 2013 which aims to bridge the gap between economists' understanding of development and development professionals. He is active in peace economics in Cyprus, being a member of the Greek–Cypriot negotiator working group (Economics) in the Cyprus Peace Process. He is currently advising the President of Cyprus as part of the National Economic Council.

Snježana Bokulić

Snježana Bokulić has worked on human rights, development and security across four continents. She is former Head of the Human Rights Department of the Office for Democratic Institutions and Human Rights (ODIHR) of the Organisation for Security and Co-operation in Europe (OSCE), and former Director of Programmes at Minority Rights Group International. Her work has focused on human rights monitoring and capacity building of government officials, law enforcement personnel, national human rights institutions and human rights defenders, mainstreaming human rights and gender in the security sector, and supporting human rights compliant anti-terrorism policies and practices. She has contributed to strengthening the capacities of minority rights NGOs to advocate at intergovernmental human rights fora, including the UN, Council of Europe, OSCE and the African Commission, and, in particular, on improving the participation of minorities in EU development and accession processes. She has published on topics such as ODIHR's monitoring of freedom of assembly, its engagement with civil society, political participation of minorities and minorities in the EU accession process in the Western Balkans, among others, and co-edited a toolkit for NGOs on human rights based approaches to development education.

Odysseas Christou

Odysseas Christou PhD is an Assistant Professor in Government, International Law and International Relations and a member of the Management Committee of the Jean Monnet Centre of Excellence at the University of Nicosia. He also teaches in a visiting capacity at the University of Cyprus and has previously taught at the University of Texas at Austin and the Texas Lutheran University. He is a member of the Cyprus Energy Strategy Council appointed by the President of the Republic of Cyprus, the International Studies Association, the Standing Group on International Relations and the Standing Group on Political Violence of the European Consortium of Political Research. He is also on the Management Committee of the European Network for Conflict Research and the Vice President of the Cyprus Association of Political Science. He has served on numerous research projects commissioned by – among others – the European Commission, the Republic of Cyprus and the National Science Foundation of the United States on issues of international relations, security, energy, law and development.

Eilish Dillon

Eilish Dillon is the co-ordinator of the MA in Development Studies programme which is offered at Kimmage Development Studies Centre (Kimmage DSC) and by flexible and distance learning. On the MA programme, she facilitates modules in sociology, research methods and globalisation and movements for change. Eilish also teaches courses on development theory and practice and on the media and development for the BA in International Development at Maynooth University. Her main areas of academic interest are: development discourses and representations; globalisation and change; development education; NGOs, civil society activism and social movements; and volunteering in development. Eilish has undertaken research in Southern Africa and has participated in solidarity work in Central America. She has also worked for short periods in Zimbabwe and South Africa and facilitated courses on development and human rights in countries such as Albania, Cyprus, Sierra Leone, Slovenia, Slovakia, South Africa, Russia and Tanzania. She has been involved in development education and activism on international development issues in Ireland for over twenty years.

Zuzana Fialová

Zuzana Fialová PhD is an expert consultant in international development, human rights, democratic transformation, and peacebuilding, she has been working for a variety of international organisations (OCSE, NATO), national human rights and advocacy organisations, universities and government bodies. Her professional career as a lecturer, consultant, researcher, or field worker started in 1992. Her list of professional publications contains more than forty entries. She has been working in more than twenty countries of Europe and Asia.

She earned her MA from sociology at the Comenius University in Bratislava. PhD studies were accomplished in Warsaw – Institute of Political Studies. The theme of her thesis was the civil society development in Central Europe. Other topics of her research and studies were: democratic transformation, minorities, human rights, peaceful conflict resolution, and international development. Her book *Human Rights Monitoring* published in Poland has been translated into five languages, including Azerbaijani. She works in Partners for Democratic Change Slovakia as a lecturer, consultant and project manager. Recently her main area of focus is conflict resolution and local democracy support in Ukraine. Zuzana Fialová lives in Budmerice near Bratislava in Slovakia.

Juraj Jančovič

Juraj Jančovič PhD is head of the Global Education Department in People in Need Slovakia. His professional focus is on global citizenship education and international development. He has been coordinating several educational projects and, with his team from the Global Education Department, won the Orange Foundation Award in 2014 for contribution in the field of education in Slovakia. Previously he worked as a lecturer and project coordinator in Trnava University, where he was in charge of developing a training programme for increasing the competencies of the experts in international development cooperation. He has field experience from different development projects in Kenya, Burundi and Uganda as a project coordinator, social worker and consultant. He has been cooperating with several NGOs in Slovakia (Partners for Democratic Change Slovakia, Slovak Centre for Communication and Development, Pontis Foundation), Platform of Slovak NGOs and the Ministry of Foreign and European Affairs of the Slovak Republic.

Pavlos Koktsidis

Dr Pavlos I. Koktsidis (Adj. Lecturer, BA in Politics and International Relations, University of Lancaster; MA in Comparative Ethnic Conflict; PhD in Security and Conflict Analysis, Queen's University of Belfast) currently lectures on foreign policy, conflict resolution, strategy terrorism and war, and EU foreign policy in the Department of Social and Political Sciences, University of Cyprus. He has taught on comparative politics of developing nations, international organisations and international security. He is associate researcher with the South Eastern Europe Research Centre (SEERC) where he supervises two doctoral research projects on Balkan politics, security, and conflict and is a research associate at the Hellenic Foundation for European and Foreign Policy in Athens (ELIAMEP). His research interests focus on conflict resolution, terrorism and insurgency.

He is the author of numerous publications in international peer-reviewed journals (*Journal of Ethnopolitics, Eastern European Quarterly, Dynamics of Asymmetric Conflict, Civil Wars, Journal of Southeastern Europe*), as well as of many policy reports and book chapters. He is the author of the book *Strategic Rebellion: Ethnic Conflict in FYR Macedonia and the Balkans* (Peter Lang: 2012) and editor of the book *Societies in Transition: Economic, Political and Security Transformations in Contemporary Europe* (Springer: 2015), and is currently working on a new edited volume on *Islamic Radicalism and the Rise of the Islamic State* (Routledge).

Tom Melvin

Tom Melvin is a medical doctor by profession having studied in the Royal College of Surgeons in Ireland before going on to work in various Dublin hospitals. He also holds a degree and masters in law from University College Dublin. Tom has a keen interest in global health having written and presented extensively on it from his undergraduate days in addition to attending developing world hospitals as a medical student. Tom was awarded the James Deeney medal in 2010 for winning the Irish Intercollegiate Global Health Competition, he also won the Global Health Young Leaders award in 2011 which was awarded by the Royal Society of Medicine in London for a written piece on global health. Tom has also previously sat on the Global Health Special Interest Group of the Royal Society of Medicine. Tom currently works in public health with the regulator for medical devices and medicines in Ireland, the Health Products Regulatory Authority and he continues to write and lecture on topics related to global health.

Contributor Biographies / Continued

Juraj Mesík

Juraj Mesík, Department of Development Studies, Faculty of Science, Palacký University, Olomouc. After graduation from the Medical School of Comenius University and an initial career in biomedical research, the revolution of 1989 led to a shift in Dr Mesík's professional orientation. He was appointed a Member of Parliament in the Czechoslovak Federal Assembly in Prague in 1989 and elected founding chairman of the Green Party. He later served as a department director at the Federal Ministry for Environment in Prague and advisor to the minister. After the split of Czechoslovakia he worked as director of the Ekopolis Foundation supporting programmes focusing on environment, community development, philanthropy, civil and human rights, gender equity, strengthening democracy and civil society. He also served on a large number of non-profit boards at home and internationally. From 2003 to 2008, Dr Mesík worked as senior specialist at the World Bank in Washington D.C., working in many countries around the world, most actively in Moldova, Kenya, Nigeria, Tanzania and Thailand. He initiated the Global Fund for Community Foundations in 2004. Dr Mesík was awarded the Eisenhower Exchange Fellowship in Philadelphia, the Salzburg Seminar Fellowship and Synergos Senior Fellowship in Global Philanthropy based in New York. He currently teaches about global challenges at Palacký University in Olomouc, CR and Comenius University in Bratislava, SR. Dr Mesík is the author of numerous commentaries and analytical articles published mostly in Slovak opinion-making media. His book *Giant and dwarf – Slovaks, Czechs and Perspectives of Africa* was published in 2012. He is father to three sons.

Stavros K. Parlalis

Dr Stavros K. Parlalis received both his Masters Degree in Policy Studies (2003) and his Doctorate in Social Work (2008) from the University of Edinburgh, Scotland. He obtained his BA in Social Work in 2003 by the ATEI of Crete, Greece. He currently works as Lecturer in Social Work at Frederick University. He is lecturing at both the undergraduate and graduate levels. For five years, he worked as a social worker with Enable Scotland, Edinburgh (2003-2008). He has published one monograph entitled *De-institutionalisation of Persons with Intellectual Disabilities in the Republic of Cyprus* (Power Publishing 2012) and edited the publication *Social Work Applications in Greece and Cyprus* (Pedio Publications 2011). He has published papers in Greek and international journals and chapters in edited books.

He has also participated in many international conferences. He has participated in middle-scale funded research projects as researcher, research team coordinator and project manager. His main research interests focus on the study of organisational changes, organisational development, de-institutionalisation of persons with disabilities and issues concerning vulnerable groups of people (mainly persons with disabilities and immigrants). He is president at the Registration Council of Professional Social Workers in Cyprus (September 2013 - September 2017); moreover, he is a founding member of NGO Anelixi.

Grace Walsh

Grace Walsh has been working in the field of non-formal education with marginalised young people internationally and locally for the previous nine years. This has allowed her to develop education programmes for young refugees, young people in care and young people at risk of homelessness which enable them to become advocates for change on local and global justice issues. She also trains and supports volunteers as youth workers and youth-leaders / facilitators. She is interested in education for sustainable development, resilient communities and decision-making processes and has lived and worked in Ireland's only Ecovillage which aims to create a living educational community in this field. She has designed and delivered local, national and international training and education programmes in the areas of non-formal education; project management; consensus decision making processes; development education; youth leadership and participation; sustainable development; risk awareness (for European projects with children and vulnerable young adults); social inclusion; peer education and volunteer management.

Artur Wieczorek

Artur Wieczorek is a development education trainer, specialising in climate change. He is a graduate of Jagiellonian University in Kraków and of the National University of Singapore. Artur worked for the UNDP Project Office in Warsaw, the Heinrich Boell Foundation, the Green Zone Foundation and the Polish NGDO platform, Grupa Zagranica. Artur is currently working as a teaching assistant at Muhammadiyah University in Malang, Indonesia.

Introduction

Over the last three years, the UNIDEV project has sought to promote youth awareness and engagement with the MDG (Millennium Development Goals) and post-2015 frameworks in universities in Cyprus, Slovakia and Ireland. The partners undertook a range of activities as part of the programme. The idea for this resource arose out of a desire to develop specific development education materials that would target the new EU member state sector, and which would bring something new to the significant stock of development education resources already available.

To this end, instead of providing just another book on general development education topics we aimed to address contemporary development issues with a focus on the needs of educators in the new EU member states, as well as drawing material from contributors in those countries.

We hope this book will be used by academics, researchers, NGO practitioners and students as part of development education work, we hope it will further their understanding of key development issues facing the global community, and more so, we hope to encourage citizen action to bring about a fairer more equitable world.

The book covers twelve themes, each chapter includes both a conceptual overview and a teaching methodology section. The conceptual overview introduces the topic, explores the key concepts, theories and current debates. The teaching methodology section offers educators a set of tools that could help them introduce the topic in both formal and non-formal settings.

This publication would not have been possible without the input and expertise of many people, most importantly, we would like to thank the authors who provided the content and kept our deadlines. They did not only make this publication possible but they made our part easier. In addition, we would like to thank Fotini Paleologou and Ivana Ulicna for their contribution in the conception and final preparation of the resource. We would also like to thank Róisín Nic Cóil for taking over the tasks of copy editing and proof reading and Kristy Eliades for the design.

We hope you enjoy reading and using this resource.

Editors
December 2015

CHAPTER 1

Development Education in Third Level Education What is Development Education?



by: Eilish Dillon

Introduction to Development Education

As with most terms in the development lexicon, “development education” is a contested one with divisions as to how it is interpreted (Bourn, 2011b). As such, it is one of those nebulous, slippery concepts and processes that means different things to different people, and which requires ‘constructive deconstruction’ (Cornwall, 2010). A further complication in understanding development education (DE) is the divergence between theories of what DE is [or is not] and what it should [or should not] be, as well as between the “ideals”, articulated in policy and academia, and its varying practice. Many reading this chapter probably don’t even use the term “development education”, preferring terms like “global citizenship education”, “global education”, “education for sustainable development”, “human rights education” or “intercultural education”. If this is the case, is there anything special about “development education” and how does it relate to those other ‘adjectival educations’¹ (Bourn, 2012)?

This chapter sets out to explore what DE is. It is designed to introduce DE to those who are relatively unfamiliar with it yet who are interested in what it might involve in higher education (HE) contexts. The chapter is structured around key areas of debate in relation to development education, e.g., what it is and its components; how it relates to other adjectival educations; and challenges to promoting it in HE contexts. Given the focus on HE here, it is also contrasted to “traditional” approaches to “development studies”, highlighting overlaps and differences. In summary, I’m advancing a critical approach to development education here (Andreotti, 2006), which sees it as transformative, challenging of the status quo and not in any way neutral about global justice, equality or power relations. It is not, as Troll and Skinner (2013) would suggest, about ‘business as usual’. At least that’s the theory.

In contrast to this critical approach to development education, traditional development studies at HE level is associated with a focus on development theory and content, and a management or “best practice” approach to development. Though some development studies programmes challenge the assumptions which underpin development relations and practices, it is usually associated with a focus on knowledge ‘about’ development from distinct (and sometimes overlapping) disciplinary or paradigmatic lenses, e.g., political economy, anthropology, international relations or sociology. This suggests a need for an understanding of the critical potential of development education in HE contexts. We cannot assume that any learning or teaching about development in HE constitutes a transformative development education approach. These issues are discussed in greater detail later.

¹ The term ‘adjectival education’ is applied to different forms of education which are described or framed by the adjective accompanying them, e.g. human rights education, peace education, development education and citizenship education.



Understanding Development Education (DE)

Defining Development Education (DE)

In an Irish context, Irish Aid argues that 'development education aims to deepen understanding of global poverty and encourage people towards action for a more just and equal world' (2007: 6). Regan (2006: 6), expanding on what this might involve, suggests that DE

is an educational response to issues of development, human rights, justice and world citizenship; [it] presents an international development and human rights perspective within education...; [it] promotes the voices and viewpoints of those who are excluded from an equal share in the benefits of human development internationally; [it] is an opportunity to link and compare development issues and challenges in Ireland with those elsewhere throughout the world; [it] provides a chance for Irish people to reflect on our international roles and responsibilities with regard to issues of equality and justice in human development; [and it] is an opportunity to be active in writing a new story for human development.

Whereas the Irish Aid definition prioritises understanding of poverty and action for a more just and equal world, Regan's (2006) definition suggests that DE involves educational processes from a particular perspective, which link local and global issues and which are directed towards action for global equality and justice. For Irish Aid and Regan, therefore, DE is much more than just education about development issues or so-called developing countries. It is about content, but it has a clear value basis and action dimension. This is also reflected in the Irish Development Education Association (IDEA) definition.

For IDEA, DE 'is about supporting people in understanding and acting to transform the social, cultural, political and economic structures which affect their lives and others at personal, community, relational and international levels' (IDEA, 2013). This understanding of DE highlights the values and analysis which underpin DE and it situates it firmly within an 'education for transformation' approach (Mezirow, 2000). While the term "development education" is used most commonly in Ireland, in Slovakia and across much of Europe the terms "global education" (GE), "global development education" or "global citizenship education" are generally employed. The Global Education Network Europe (GENE) argues that

global education is education that opens people's eyes and minds to the realities of the world and awakens them to bring about a world of greater justice, equity and human rights for all. Global Education (GE) is understood to encompass Development Education, Human Rights Education, Education for Sustainability, Education for Peace and Conflict Prevention and Intercultural Education; being the global dimensions of Education for Citizenship (2013: 17).

Clearly, in this understanding of GE, DE is one, discrete and distinct adjectival education among many under the umbrella of global education. This understanding is reflected in the Slovak National Strategy on Global Education (2012-2016), where

the term "Global Education" [is] used and perceived as an overarching principle. It includes development education (education concerning developing countries and poverty in the world), environmental education, multicultural education, peace studies, and education relating to the development and maintenance of human rights in a global context (GENE, 2013: 17).

The understanding of DE here, as being about ‘developing countries’ and ‘poverty in the world’ is a much narrower, less critical understanding of DE than definitions from the Irish context would suggest. On the other hand, in a later explanation, the Slovak National Strategy suggests that

Global Development Education (GDE) is an educational approach leading to a deeper understanding of diversity and inequality in the world. It allows us to better understand the roots and causes of such inequalities, as well as the opportunity to search for and identify possible solutions (GENE, 2013: 17).

This understanding highlights the critical role of DE in identifying the ‘causes’ of global inequalities as well as the ‘solutions’ and does not assume it is about developing countries but about global relations and inequalities.

In the case of Cyprus, the term “global education” is also prevalent, though when the North–South Centre produced its report of the European Global Education Peer Review Process in 2004, they argued that it was not in common use and that global education was a recent development. On the other hand, as in the Irish case, according to the Council of Europe (2011: 7),

there are various terms employed in Cyprus for GE/DE, such as “Education for Sustainable Development”, “Human Rights Education”, “European Citizenship” and “Education for Global Citizenship”.

Though a lot of work is being done to support the promotion of global education in Cyprus, there is still no national strategy on global education or global DE.



The components of Development Education (DE)

Each of the definitions or understandings of DE (introduced in the preceding paragraphs) suggest some key components of what DE might involve (see Table 1.1). Furthermore, in his discussion of what is involved in development education, Regan suggests that DE has four key components (in bold in the quotation):

knowledge, ideas and understanding – factual information about the shape of our world, ideas about why it is shaped the way it is, about connections between wealth and poverty, progress and inequality, about relationships internationally; attitudes and values – about oneself and others, about social responsibilities, about learning, behaviour, beliefs, subject knowledge and about society here in Ireland and internationally; skills and capabilities – skills that help us understand and engage with our world – analytical and communication skills, interpersonal and social skills, the ability to link knowledge and understanding with action etc; behaviour, experiences and action – social relationships, personal behaviour, opportunities to participate meaningfully, competence at carrying out tasks, fulfilling potential, linking ideas, action and behaviour (2006: 9)

He goes on to suggest that DE offers people ‘the opportunity to participate in learning about, discussing and debating as well as engaging with our right to full human development as well as our responsibility to ensure the human development of others especially those who are “at risk” or excluded’ (2006: 9).

In a paper about discourses and practice around development education, Bourn begins by suggesting that there are ‘some common underlying principles that reflect how many academics and policy makers would summarise what is perceived to be “good development education”’. According to Bourn, these are

understanding the globalised world including links between our own lives and those of people throughout the world; ethical foundations and goals including social justice, human rights and respect for others; participatory and transformative learning processes with the emphasis on dialogue and experience; developing competencies of critical self-reflection; supportive active engagement; active global citizenship (2011b: 13).

Bourn argues that these principles ‘mask some wider divisions as to how DE is interpreted and can also be seen as little more than aspirations’ (2011b: 14). In another paper on the topic, he outlines the difficulty with constructing typologies of development education but tries to identify common themes and practices. These, he argues, do not necessarily represent a consensus but ‘the underlying themes are suggested here as the basis for a pedagogy of development education’ (2011a: 18) (see Table 1.1).

In summary then, drawing from these understandings, the components of DE can be outlined as shown in Table 1.1.

Components of Development Education from Definitions Cited	Regan’s (2006) understanding of the Components of Development Education	Bourn’s (2011a) Common Themes and Practices – basis for a Pedagogy of Development Education
Irish Aid (2007) – understanding global poverty and action for a just and equal world	Knowledge, Ideas and Understanding	Recognition of the promotion of the interdependent and interconnected nature of our lives” (2011a: 18)
Regan (2006) – educational processes from a particular perspective; linking local and global issues; directed towards action for global equality and justice	Attitudes and Values	Ensuring the voices and perspectives of the peoples of the Global South are promoted, understood and reflected upon along with perspectives from the Global North” (2011a: 19)
IDEA (2013) – values and analysis; an ‘education for transformation’ approach	Skills and Capabilities	Encouragement of a more values based approach to learning with an emphasis on social justice, human rights, fairness and a desire for a more equal world” (2011a: 19)
GENE (2013) – role of DE in identifying the ‘causes’ of global inequalities as well as the ‘solutions’	Behaviour, Experiences and Action	Incorporating linkages between learning, moral outrage and concern about global poverty and a desire to take action to secure change” (2011a: 19)

Table 1.1: The Components of Development Education

Table 1.1 shows the complexity of different interpretations of development education, highlighted by Bourn (2011a). Identifying approaches to DE which are limited to public relations for development aid, awareness raising or ‘learning about development’ (2011b: 15), he concludes that ‘there are many interpretations of DE and what is needed is to debate what they are, which approach is most appropriate within a given educational arena and on what basis the pedagogy is introduced’ (Bourn 2011b: 26). In addition, as already suggested, different terms are often used for the same or similar approaches to education. In a 2014 paper, Bourn argues that

the plethora of terms has, however, resulted in confusion, resulting in a lack of clarity and rigour. Learners and educators come to this area of practice from a wide range of personal experiences and starting points. Development education is therefore proposed... as a process of learning, rather than a fixed, ideal educational end-goal. This proposed approach encourages and promotes critical and reflective thinking, understanding of development and of global themes, and is located within a values base of global social justice. It further encourages learners to make connections between their own lives and the lives of others throughout the world. It encourages positive and active engagement in society, in ways that the learner could contribute to his or her own perspective of what a better world could look like (2014: 14).



Different Approaches to Development Education and How it Overlaps with Similar Educations

The aims of Development Education

A key area of inquiry in terms of understanding DE is the question: what is it for? Many argue that DE is education for development. Even if we accept this understanding, this involves different understandings of development (local-global interactions, development in economic, social, political or human terms, development as constructed power relations of domination etc). Sumner and Tribe, for example, differentiate between three overall approaches to development: 'development as a long-term process of structural societal transformation; development as a short term outcome of desirable targets; and development as a dominant "discourse" of Western modernity' (2008: 11). In the case of the definitions which have been introduced earlier in this chapter, this question is answered as follows: The Irish Aid definition suggests that DE aims to achieve 'a more just and equal world' (2007), a view shared by GENE who see global education as education 'to bring about a world of greater justice, equity and human rights for all' (2013). Regan's (2006) understanding is DE for 'human development' and IDEA (2013) suggests that DE is for the creation of 'a more just and sustainable future for everyone'. In the Slovak National Strategy, 'global development education' is for identifying possible solutions to global inequality (GENE, 2013). These are just some of the possible goals of DE which have been articulated over the years by DE practitioners and academics. But is DE about 'education for development'?

Tormey argues that DE is education 'about, for and as' development (Liddy, 2013). Liddy explains that 'education about development is learning about the developing world; essentially facts and data on global inequalities, addressing issues such as poverty and hunger, gender and maternal health' (2013: 30). This is the approach traditionally associated with development studies in HE contexts. For her, 'education for development centres on enhancing skills and capacity for societies and economies to develop' (2013: 31) and

education as development focuses on the potential social and personal development of the learner through engagement with global issues... This type of development education centres on empowerment, participation and expansion of human capacities, sharing some outcome characteristics with active citizenship' (2013: 33).

Developing an understanding of different types of DE based on Downs' (1993) 'five types of education about, for and as development' (2013: 28), she argues that

education about development creates nothing more than understanding, and does not call for any action. As argued by Wade and Hicks, awareness and knowledge alone does not engender change' (Liddy, 2013: 41).

According to her, education for development can create 'informed and aware citizens' but their actions can remain at the fundraising level or be 'centred on the local and national arena rather than the global' (2013: 41). Elsewhere, I have argued that this type of education can perpetuate stereotypical approaches to development cooperation based on modernist and patronising assumptions and development relationships (Dillon, 2015).

The question here is what kind of development is DE 'for development' promoting and to what extent does it question the global economic and political structures which create inequality, poverty and discrimination in the first place. Education 'as development', according to Liddy, 'advocates for personal and lifestyle innovation and agency' (2013: 41). While this appears to be a more critical approach, it is useful to question whether education 'as development' leads to individualistic lifestyle changes or whether it leads to political analysis and action at more collective levels. Gaynor, for example, contrasts an 'individualist, apolitical approach to activism with an emphasis on volunteering (a charity model) and consumerism as a way out of poverty' associated with fair trade, with a more critical approach to global citizenship, which, she argues, 'entails critically interrogating the dominant narrative – always asking why' (2015: 30).

With reference to her reflection on 'change-oriented agency' arising from development education, Liddy argues that

more critical and engaged types of development education which impact most on the learner and create the most significant long-term attitudinal change and work to transform social, cultural, political and economic structures require the inclusion of local development issues as central to innovation and agency (2013: 42).

This more critical approach to DE regards it as playing a key role in 'paradigm change' (Troll and Skinner, 2013: 93), especially when it comes to development itself. Troll and Skinner argue, for example, 'the need for a justice rather than aid paradigm, for notions of one world development' (2013: 93). For IDEA,

development education enables people to understand the world around them and to act to transform it. Development education works to tackle the root causes of injustice and inequality, globally and locally. The world we live in is unequal, rapidly changing and unjust. Our everyday lives are affected by global forces. Development education is about understanding those forces and how to change them to create a more just and sustainable future for everyone (IDEA, n.d.).

This understanding reminds us that DE is not something which is just practiced in the Global North about the Global South. Nor is it a practice which is about the global arena without making connections with local and national realities. For many, DE begins with understanding and critical reflection on local experience with a focus on how such local experiences resonate at a national or global level or are influenced by structures and institutions which operate at these levels. It is this ability to hold the local, national and global in focus which moves DE beyond something "about people out there" or "developing countries" to understanding how global power relations operate at local, national and transnational levels, including in development processes and relationships.

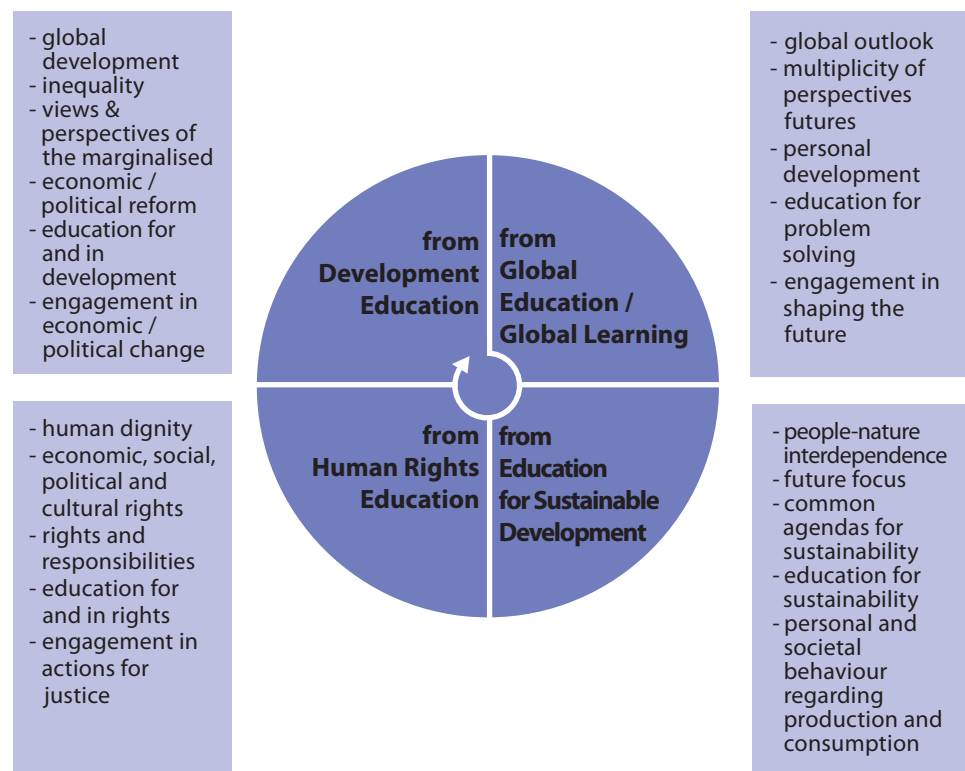
Development Education, Global Education and Global Citizenship Education

This idea that development education is not just about about "developing countries" or the countries of the Global South may raise a question for those who regard the content of DE as the element of DE which distinguishes it from other adjectival educations, e.g., DE is regarded as being focused on development-related topics whereas human rights education is focused on human rights, intercultural education is focused on issues related to integration, identity, culture and racism etc. From a content point of view, then, for many, DE is about 'the global', or local-global interactions, e.g., topics such as trade, aid, the environment, debt, colonialism, transnational institutions, international human rights frameworks, conflict, gender and development etc. One understanding that the terms "development education", "global citizenship education" and "global education" can be used interchangeably is based on the idea that the significant content dimension of DE is a focus on 'the global'. According to Venro (DEEEP, n.d.), 'the content of global education focuses particularly on the subject areas of social and economic development, related to ecological, political, and cultural aspects as well as interactions between local and global realities'. This understanding of global education suggests that framing global issues in the context of development is too narrow a focus to take account of the complex challenges and experiences presented by globalisation.

This movement towards 'global education' as the overarching framework for adjectival educations (see Figure 1.1) tries to take account of this broader context, while acknowledging the overlapping values and educational processes associated with these various adjectival educations and the specific content focus of each. In addition, it regards the focus of these educations as 'complimentary, interdependent and mutually illuminating' (Fricke and Gathercole, 2015: 19). Fricke and Gathercole argue that these various educations also overlap in that they share an holistic view of the world, its people and issues, and the importance of 'fostering a disposition, and of practising skills, for participation in democratic action at local and global levels' (2015: 19). For many, they suggest, 'apart from using active learning methods, the adjectival educations will when possessing a broad focus, base their work on context and relevance, inquiry, discussion, dialogue and collaboration' (2015: 18). On the other hand, because the term "global education" does not include the concept of citizenship, arguably, it could easily be interpreted as education about global issues, which ignores the values, attitudes, behaviour and action dimensions implicit in critical understandings of "development education" and "global citizenship education". For Fricke and Gathercole,

since the 1990s "global citizenship education" has increasingly been seen as a vehicle that brings the discussed educations together. By providing an educational response to the rapid increases in economic and cultural globalisation, particularly since the collapse of the Soviet Union, global citizenship education draws on the four educations [development education, intercultural education, human rights education and education for sustainability]... but in its intentions (if not always in its practice, e.g., see Andreotti, 2006) it overcomes the North–South/developing–developed/First World–Third World divide prevalent in forms of development education (Mesa and Sanahula, 2014), and it goes beyond a 'global awareness' minimalist form of global education (Davies, 2008). It has also taken on board that issues of social responsibility entail discussions of and a commitment to the sustainable use of the environment. In addition, the inclusion of the word "citizenship" implies [for various educators and activists] an active role... usually directly concerned with social justice... (2015: 19)

Figure 1.1: Overlapping Educations – Content of Mutual Concern (Fricke and Gathercole, 2015: 18)



Andreotti makes a very strong case not only for “global citizenship education” but for ‘critical global citizenship education’, offering a detailed contrast between ‘soft’ and ‘critical’ approaches (2006) [available online at: www.developmenteducationreview.com/issue3-focus4?page=2]. She argues that

in order to understand global issues, a complex web of cultural and material local/global processes and contexts needs to be examined and unpacked... if we fail to do that in global citizenship education, we may end up promoting a new ‘civilising mission’ as the slogan for a generation who take up the ‘burden’ of saving/educating/civilising the world. This generation, encouraged and motivated to ‘make a difference’, will then project their beliefs and myths as universal and reproduce power relations and violence similar to those in colonial times (2006: 41).

In her recent work, Andreotti (2014) focuses on the importance of taking a ‘critical literacy’ approach and uses her ‘HEADS UP’ analysis to suggest the importance of adopting a reflexive rather than individually reflective approach in global citizenship education. This work is extremely critical and valuable for critical considerations of what might be involved in development education, global education or global citizenship education today.

The question over what term is most appropriate and whether or not DE is as critical as it claims to be is a very live one in Ireland. Influenced by Vanessa Andreotti (2006), Audrey Bryan and Meliosa Bracken (2011), and discussed in *Policy and Practice: A Development Education Review* (see also Khoo, 2011; McCloskey, 2011), development educators are increasingly using the terms “development education” and “global citizenship education” synonymously, with the inclusion of “citizenship” in the latter term not a mere add-on but crucial to capturing the critical dimension of this education approach that many, including this author, view as significant. On the other hand, recent education policy in Ireland has articulated a new strategy for ‘education for sustainable development’ (ESD), which presents a rather narrow understanding of sustainable development (DES, 2014). Though links between ESD and environmental, socio-economic and political issues are made, there is an acknowledgment of the need for further integration between DE and ESD strategies and structures and very little reference to the global context.

The question remains whether we need differentiated educations or one overarching term, like “global education” which attempts to capture all. If these educations are just differentiated by content, with no reflection on the education processes involved or transformative values, analysis or actions fostered, it is likely that whatever we call it won’t make a difference to the kind of world we live in or the lives we lead. Andreotti and de Souza (2008) argue that ‘we need to move from fixed content and skills that conform to a predetermined idea of society towards concepts and strategies that address complexity, difference and uncertainty’ (Bourn, 2011b: 25). These issues are explored briefly in the next sub-sections.

Development Education learning processes

As with the goals of development education, questions remain over the processes involved in DE and its connection with participatory, transformative pedagogies, influenced by Freire (1972) and Chambers (1997) (see also Khoo, 2006). Bourn (2011b: 20) argues that

the issue is not about encouraging development education activities in the classroom, but rather about debating what it means and the extent to which the practices are questioning and challenging dominant educational thinking. This would mean including learning activities that moved beyond a traditional view of seeing the Global South as ‘just about poor people’ who are helpless and needed aid and charity.

The DEEEP definition of DE captures the importance of the kinds of educational processes associated with development education. For DEEEP (n.d.),

development education is an active learning process, founded on values of solidarity, equality, inclusion and co-operation. It enables people to move from basic awareness of international development priorities and sustainable human development, through understanding of the causes and effects of global issues to personal involvement and informed actions. Development education fosters the full participation of all citizens in world-wide poverty eradication, and the fight against exclusion. It seeks to influence more just and sustainable economic, social, environmental, human rights based national and international policies.

The active learning process, highlighted by DEEEP, is an important dimension of development education. This is usually associated with participatory, experiential learning processes. At its most basic level, it engages participants in active learning tools such as games, group work, dramas, roleplays, case studies, and scenarios. At a deeper level, it also involves: critical reflection on participants' experiences using images, statistics, film, text, and stories. Andreotti argues for use of the term "self-reflexivity" to contrast the practice of reflection (thinking about individual journeys, assumptions and decisions) to the practice of tracing individual assumptions to collective socially, culturally and historically situated "stories" (2014: 15).

Active learning processes also involve analysis of how power works in society in the light of local-national and global relationships, e.g., in land ownership, in the influence of transnational institutions, in the role of the state in the regulation and distribution of resources and in citizen mobilisation; and in the design and implementation of actions for change through, e.g., advocacy, awareness raising campaigns, mobilisations, demonstrations and petitions.

When seen as the introduction of participatory, active learning tools into education processes only, DE can become associated with superficial "game playing" education experiences which remove these more critical reflection, analysis and action dimensions. Furthermore, as is often the case in the Irish context, when the action component is understood as merely fundraising to 'help people in the Global South' (Bryan and Bracken, 2011), the action aspect of DE is reduced to individualised, charity-type actions which do not challenge the status quo and which replicate modernist and patronising Global North-South relationships. Solidarity involves working 'with' rather than 'for' others. When actions are designed on this premise, bearing in mind the principles of equality, inclusion and cooperation (DEEEP, n.d.), it is more likely that development education-associated actions will not be about seeing the Global South as 'just about poor people' who are 'helpless' and in need of 'aid' and 'charity' (ibid).

When taken together, the reflection on DE, global education and global citizenship education as well as on the aims of DE and the learning processes associated with them, gives some insight into what critical DE is not, or should not be, about (see Table 1.2).

Table 1.2: What
Critical
Development
Education Is
Not About

Content Only	Simply learning about the world or ‘developing countries’ – rather than being information driven, it should be reflection, analysis, process and action driven
Values-Neutral	Unlike other education approaches which claim to be neutral, or value-free, DE is explicit in its articulation of the values of equality, human rights, inclusion, respect for diversity, dignity, critical engagement and action for change
Light on Analysis	DE has a critical analytical starting point – in tandem with the values promoted, there is a clear articulation of the role of education in transforming unequal, unjust societies and challenging power relations which create poverty, discrimination, environmental destruction and human rights violations at local, national and global levels
Skills for development practice	Rather than being directed towards developing skills to ‘do development better’ or promoting a particular form of development cooperation uncritically, DE is as critically reflective and challenging of development processes and the power relations therein as of other social, political, economic and cultural structures and practices which create inequality and exclusion at local, national and global levels
Individualised Reflection and Action which address symptoms not causes	As an active learning process, DE involves action which is related to people’s lives and how we live them. The kind of critical reflection and analysis of local-global power relations involved should ideally lead to action which is not limited to individualised actions which address symptoms of poverty and inequality, but which are based on collective engagement in actions for social transformation



Development Education in Higher Education (HE) Contexts

Introduction

In the preceding discussion, I have introduced, following Andreotti (2006; 2014) what a critical approach to development education might involve. Table 1.2 aims to expand on this discussion by suggesting development education approaches to be avoided. Given the challenges involved and how political and potentially radical this approach to DE is, a key question at this stage is how to bring this kind of development approach into various HE contexts.

As outlined earlier, one way of understanding DE is to regard it as encompassing particular knowledge, ideas and understanding; attitudes and values; skills and capabilities; and behaviour, experiences and action. It is also usually associated with participatory and transformative learning processes (Bourn, 2011b; Andreotti, 2014), albeit practiced differently in different contexts. In terms of each of these components, DE can be differentiated from traditional practices of development studies which are associated with content-focused approaches to education as ‘knowledge about’ and understandings of development-related issues.

There has been much debate in recent years about the state of development studies and about different understandings of what it is and what it should be. Kothari, for example, gives important insight into the colonial legacy of development studies, and argues that it needs to 'move beyond its complicity with Western knowledge and power' (2005: 96).

Tribe and Sumner (2004: 4) consider whether or not it represents a distinct discipline, is interdisciplinary or multidisciplinary in its practice. They argue that 'one agreed issue relating to the characteristics of "Development Studies" is that they involve the blending of analytical approaches and insights from several "disciplines"'. For them, 'Development Studies' is not a distinct discipline but a 'subject'. While there is disagreement over this issue among commentators, this suggestion that development studies is a 'subject' suggests significant divergence between development studies and the approach to DE advanced here, which emphasises transformative learning processes rather than subject 'content'. Given the traditional style of teaching and learning associated with HE contexts, traditional approaches to development studies are also often associated with a 'banking' style of education, which regards the lecturer as knowledgeable and their role as 'imparting knowledge'. This is linked to the valuing of 'expertise' and knowledge 'attained' over education as a process of dialogue and critical reflection, facilitated by the lecturer/tutor. At the same time, there are some overlaps between DE and development studies and attempts to apply a DE approach within development studies.

In Table 1.3, I summarise (in simple terms) some of the differences in approaches between 'development education', a 'DE approach to development studies' and 'development studies in 'traditional' HE contexts'.

As indicated in Table 1.3, it is not possible to simply suggest that DE and development studies are the same or, indeed, that they are always different. Not all development studies is organised along the lines of the 'traditional' typology suggested here, with modules and programmes related to global and development issues often reflecting aspects of both. On the other hand, it is important to acknowledge that a critical approach to development education involves a lot more than the introduction of development studies into HE contexts.

Challenges to implementing Development Education in Higher Education

When it comes to identifying the challenges to implementing DE in HE contexts, it is useful to remember Bourn's (2014) advice that we need to be aware of 'the specific national, social, educational, political and cultural context within which the concept is promoted and interpreted' (2014: 14). Rather than seeing DE as a static concept, he argues that it evolves and changes depending on different contexts and needs. In addition, he argues that we need to recognise 'the different starting points for educators in their understanding of development, and to see development education not as a fixed, finite concept but rather as a process of learning' (2014: 14). Many of us are familiar with different HE contexts, with their separate structures and departments, disciplines, programmes and degrees.

In many countries, HE is organised into technical, professional-training and academic institutions or faculties, with little communication or cross-curricular educational opportunities between and within departments. Traditionally associated with didactic, objective and 'expert-led' approaches to learning, universities have been providing programmes or modules in development-related topics for many years. Stand alone programmes or modules on topics such as globalisation, sustainability, international relations, human rights law, social movements and activism, health and development, international political economy, NGO management, global economics and business, sociology and cultural anthropology all either overlap with or have been located under the rubric of 'development studies'.

Dimension	Development Education	A Development Education Approach to Development Studies	Development Studies in 'Traditional' HE Contexts and Approaches
Knowledge/ Understanding	Emphasis on understanding – of structures, processes, systems and global relationships	Emphasis on 'learning about' and 'for' understanding	Emphasis on 'learning about' – attaining knowledge
Knowledge/ Understanding	Values of justice, equality, human rights etc explicit – education for the promotion of attitudes and relationships which respect these values	Belief that 'there is no 'value-free' education' – whether stated or not, education is 'value-laden' – DE values and attitudes promoted in HE context	Education considered to be 'neutral' and 'value-free' endeavour – objectivity valued in HE. Various perspectives presented in 'objective' manner. Values reflect national and international policy which is increasingly influenced by neoliberalism (Giroux, 2004)
Knowledge/ Understanding	Critical reflection, self-reflexivity and analysis for social transformation	Critical analysis for social transformation with attempts to include reflection processes	Critical analysis as an intellectual pursuit
Behaviour, Experiences and Action	Learning for behavioural change and transformative action among participants	Learning encourages behavioural change and transformative action among students	Learning for knowledge mainly – students have different responses in terms of action
Behaviour, Experiences and Action	Experiential, participatory processes prioritised; Facilitated critical reflection and analysis	Attempt to apply experiential, participatory processes into HE contexts – lecturer as facilitator of dialogue, student reflection and analysis	Traditional 'banking' and didactic education processes – hierarchical and content-heavy approaches which are reliant on the content/analysis and expertise of the lecturer

Table 1.3: How Development Education Relates to Development Studies

The experience from Ireland, Slovakia and Cyprus would suggest that it is far easier to introduce and practice 'traditional' approaches to development studies (or related disciplines) in HE than it is to do DE in any meaningful, critical way in that context. From a practical point of view, development studies (rather than development education) can represent just another module or programme, like all others, and does not necessarily challenge the dominant 'traditional' HE approach. It is quite difficult, at a practical level, to implement participatory learning processes in HE, especially with large groups of participants. How to break down the traditional lecture format in college or university settings remains an ongoing and significant challenge, especially at undergraduate level, where numbers in any group are usually quite high and timetabling restrictions apply. DE requires significant teaching resources, with smaller classes, thus it often requires a re-structuring of course and programme provision at HE level. In addition, because it is difficult to measure its results and there are few national-level employment opportunities (e.g., with a small development sector especially in Cyprus and Slovakia), it is not regarded as a government priority in terms of labour market requirements.

These practical challenges are underpinned by the shifting policy context for HE in many European countries. Giroux (2014) identifies the influence of neoliberalism on HE associated with new managerialism (Lynch, 2012) and the knowledge economy (Olsen and Peters, 2005). This leads to an increasing focus on new managerial processes and outcomes for profit maximisation, skills development for the labour market and the commercialisation and privatisation of HE provision. In this context, emphasis is placed on, and resources allocated to, the physical and technical sciences as opposed to the social sciences and humanities. Furthermore, the impetus for staff to 'publish or perish' places emphasis on product-driven research rather than on quality teaching processes. Khoo argues that

the research and teaching activities that traditionally fell under the heading of 'development studies' are facing new expectations that they will be policy relevant and 'bridge the research-policy gap'. The research agenda is under pressure to become more 'applied', technical, and results oriented (2006: 35).

It would appear that promoting DE in this kind of HE context is increasingly challenging. Discussions with academics with an interest in DE in Cyprus, Ireland and Slovakia² also highlighted challenges to implementing DE in HE, which are discussed in the paragraphs that follow.

A key challenge relates to the limited policy and funding environments for development cooperation generally, and development education more specifically, especially in Cyprus and Slovakia. While Slovakia has a DE strategy, this is not the case in Cyprus. In the Irish case, there is a dearth of information about development education provision in HE. Without the policy framework and funding required to promote DE at HE level, all efforts are likely to be piecemeal, under resourced and dependent on 'good will'.

Because pedagogies applied in HE are often based on the notion that expertise lies in the hands of the lecturer, where they do not have 'qualifications' or 'expert knowledge' in a specific field, like global or development education, lecturers do not feel competent or confident to engage with it. This can silo DE into disciplines such as economics, geography, sociology, international relations, environmental studies and law, where there are obvious overlaps, rather than opening up the possibility of integrating DE within and across disciplines, e.g., business schools, engineering, women's studies, medicine, computer science and media studies. Khoo suggests that

the increased profile of global development issues coupled with new teaching and learning strategies provide strong opportunities to introduce development education as content and process in a wide variety of disciplines and pathways. Mainstreaming offers greater credibility to teachers and learners, but it will also involve greater commitment, higher expectations and the possibility of being coopted (2006: 36-37).

²These discussions took place during two shadow placements held at Kimmage DSC in 2014.

The promotion of DE in HE is often based on one ‘champion’ who has an interest in global development, human rights or environmental issues, for example. Where this interest has come from personal experience, perhaps of volunteering in a country of the Global South, and is not matched by critical reflection on development processes and power relations, the version of DE adopted can often reflect the ‘soft’ approach to global citizenship education outlined by Andreotti (2006), and serve to reinforce stereotypes and associate DE action with individual acts of charity. Thus, even where there is confidence and commitment, competence and skills in the area of development education, as well as an understanding of different approaches involved, are key to ensuring that the DE approach adopted is not reflective of the characteristics outlined in Table 1.3. As such, DE resources and training are needed which are specifically directed towards its promotion in HE contexts. While significant work has been done across Europe at second level, there is a dearth of emphasis on educators in HE and their own education and training needs. Furthermore, whereas the NGO sector in many countries has developed significant resources and competencies in the areas of development education, networking between the NGO sector and the HE sector is often weak. While they often have different agendas and need to be able to remain distinct and potentially critical of each other, further networking opportunities are likely to lead to mutual learning and to support for DE in higher education.

Despite these significant challenges, there have been some signs of hope in the promotion of DE in HE settings across Europe. In Slovakia, for example, the GENE review suggested that

changes at third level also provide immense opportunities for greater integration of Global Education, and there is strong evidence of the openness of some third-level institutions to these possibilities, with the introduction of development studies, global issues, and the integration of global dimensions into existing programmes and syllabi (GENE, 2014: 47).

Pontis Foundation, one of the UNIDEV project partners, ‘currently focuses its attention on the implementation of educational activities in... universities’ (Pontis, n.d.). Working with university lecturers in Slovakia, it aims to provide teachers with methodological, teaching and educational materials ‘and thus give rise to new compulsory and optional university subjects and ultimately to new study programmes’ (Pontis, n.d.). In order to advance this work, it is coordinating a working group of university lecturers and researchers to create a network ‘dedicated to development issues at Slovak universities’ (Pontis, n.d.). The NGO Support Centre in Cyprus, also a UNIDEV partner, is focused on the promotion of DE in HE in the Cypriot context. Drawing from research which suggests that there are only a small number of modules and classes which deal with development, compared to many old EU member states which have dedicated programs specialising in Development Education and Development Cooperation (NGO Support Centre, n.d.), the NGO Support Centre aims to strengthen DE in Cyprus ‘through the cross fertilisation of development issues between academic and NGOs for the benefit of the learners’ (NGO Support Centre, n.d.). In Ireland, projects supported by government (Irish Aid) funding, for example, include the Dice and Ubuntu projects which aim to integrate DE into initial teacher education across the relevant universities and colleges in Ireland, a project run by SUAS, a development education NGO set up/established to work with HE students and student bodies to integrate DE into the informal curriculum and a project facilitated by the NGO, Value Added in Africa, that is working with the Business School in UCD, one of Ireland’s largest universities, to integrate DE into its curricula. In addition, the Kimmage Development Studies Centre, where the author works and a UNIDEV partner, has a long history of applying a DE approach to its development studies programmes at undergraduate and postgraduate level.

While these examples, and many more not cited here, give some insight into what can be done to integrate DE or development studies into HE, I have argued here that not all development-related educational activities constitute development education. Indeed, not all the education practice that is called “development education” reflects its critical or transformative potential and significant challenges remain.



Conclusion

Confusion over the terms associated with development education, global education and global citizenship education compounds the challenges facing those who are new to the field. Though it is important to guard against falling into any simple categorisations of development education, some clarity around terms used and what is involved in them is required. This is most appropriately done at a national level, though there are numerous resources at a European level which can help clarify appropriate national level understandings, e.g., from DEEEP and GENE. Though there are many challenges facing DE at HE level, it is important to retain a critical rather than a superficial or stereotypical or narrow DE approach which has all the rhetoric and very little of the radicalism.

In the Teaching Tools which follow, I offer a few activities which try to introduce a critical DE approach into HE. These activities are just a sample of what might be involved in introducing DE into HE contexts. Of necessity, because there are just 6 activities included here, they also cover a very limited range of issues and challenges involved in global justice. Given the concentration in other chapters, I have decided to focus on exploring understandings of development and the factors which affect it at local, national and global levels; understandings of inequality and poverty and of the causes of poverty; and representations of global development. Each session is designed for a particular group over a particular period (1–2 hours). Many of the sessions can be adapted for smaller or larger groups or for shorter or longer sessions. Facilitators should regard these descriptions of activities as guides rather than blueprints.



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TEACHING TOOL 1.1

Understanding Development

Aim:

To Reflect on different understandings of development in the light of participants' own experience

Group:

Small or Large Groups up to 100 – Undergraduates or Postgraduates

Materials:

Quotations, Coloured Card, Flipchart, Markers, Access to Internet

Duration:

2 hours [This session can be done in 2 x 1 hour sessions]

Method:

Brainstorm, Individual Reflection on Quotes about Development, Small Group Work, Large Group Discussion, Introduction of Websites

Instructions:

0:00 – 0:15

The facilitator introduces the notion of development and of different understandings of it. Participants are asked to reflect on their own experience of what development is and are asked to write a short statement beginning 'development is.....' on a piece of coloured card.

0:15 – 0:35

Each person in the room is given three quotations about development from well-known authors or organisations working in the area of development. They are asked to reflect on the quotations in the light of their own statements and experience of development: What does it say about development? To what extent does this view of development reflect your own experience of development? Is there anything from your experience of development which is not taken account of here? Does your reading of the quotation change your view of development in any way?

0:35 – 0:50

Having considered the quotations they were given, participants are invited to work in small groups of approx. 3 people and to share their understandings of development (in the light of their experience and their reading of the quotations given). Question: From the quotations you have been given, and in the light of your own experience, what is development about and what should it be about?

0:50 – 1:05

The facilitator invites the participants (in the large group) to share their reflections on the various understandings of development discussed and to identify concepts from these quotations which are important for them in terms of how people live their lives. These are noted on the flipchart. [Alternatively, the facilitator can introduce these to the group and ask them to reflect on them.]

- * opportunities and choices
- * well-being
- * long, healthy and creative life
- * equitable, sustainable and stable planet
- * freedom
- * education and health care
- * participation
- * political and civil rights



1:05 – 1:35

In their small groups (previously created), participants are asked to reflect on which of these concepts are most important to them in their own lives, and why, and what they think needs to be done at a local, national and global level in order to ensure that they are realised.

1:35 – 1:55

The facilitator invites brief feedback on the exercise undertaken in small groups – any general comments, questions which participants would like to share with the large group?

Having heard brief feedback, the facilitator introduces participants to a number of websites of groups/organisations which take action on some of the issues identified. [Facilitators need to familiarise themselves with the most appropriate groups/organisations for their context but some of the weblinks might be worth introducing, a list is provided near the end of this Teaching Tool.]

The facilitator encourages participants to spend more time exploring these websites and participating they engage in that are important to participants. [The links to these groups/organisations should also be distributed to participants.]

1:55 – 2:00

The facilitator wraps up the reflection on development by asking participants to share any learning from the exercise in the large group.



Resources

Quotation 1: What is Human Development?

Human Development – or the human development approach – is about expanding the richness of human life, rather than simply the richness of the economy in which human beings live. It is an approach that is focused on people and their opportunities and choices.

People: human development focuses on improving the lives people lead rather than assuming that economic growth will lead, automatically, to greater wellbeing for all. Income growth is seen as a means to development, rather than an end in itself.

Opportunities: human development is about giving people more freedom to live lives they value. In effect this means developing people's abilities and giving them a chance to use them. For example, educating a girl would build her skills, but it is of little use if she is denied access to jobs, or does not have the right skills for the local labour market. Three foundations for human development are to live a long, healthy and creative life, to be knowledgeable, and to have access to resources needed for a decent standard of living. Many other things are important too, especially in helping to create the right conditions for human development [...]. Once the basics of human development are achieved, they open up opportunities for progress in other aspects of life.

Choice: human development is, fundamentally, about more choice. It is about providing people with opportunities, not insisting that they make use of them. No one can guarantee human happiness, and the choices people make are their own concern. The process of development – human development - should at least create an environment for people, individually and collectively, to develop to their full potential and to have a reasonable chance of leading productive and creative lives that they value.

As the international community seeks to define a new development agenda post-2015, the human development approach remains useful to articulating the objectives of development and improving people's well-being by ensuring an equitable, sustainable and stable planet.

UNDP: <http://hdr.undp.org/en/humandev>



Quotation 2: Development as freedom

Development can be seen... as a process of expanding real freedoms that people enjoy. Focusing on human freedoms contrasts with narrower views of development, such as identifying development with the growth of gross national product, or with the rise in personal incomes, or with industrialisation, or with technological advance, or with social modernisation. Growth of GNP or of individual incomes can, of course, be very important as means to expanding the freedom enjoyed by the members of the society. But freedoms depend also on other determinants, such as social and economic arrangements (for example, facilities for education and health care) as well as political and civil rights (for example, the liberty to participate in public discussion and scrutiny). Similarly, industrialisation or technological progress or social modernisation can substantially contribute to expanding human freedom, but freedom depends on other influences as well. If freedom is what development advances, then there is a major argument for concentrating on that overarching objective, rather than on some particular means, or some specially chosen list of instruments.

Amartya Sen (1999: 3)

Quotation 3: Development

Development cannot delink itself from the words with which it was formed – growth, evolution, maturation. Just the same, those who now use the word cannot free themselves from a web of meanings that impart a specific blindness to their language, thought and action. No matter the context in which it is used, or the precise connotation that the person using it wants to give it, the expression becomes qualified and coloured by meanings perhaps unwanted. The word always implies a favourable change, a step from the simple to the complex, from the inferior to the superior, from worse to better. The word indicates that one is doing well because one is advancing in the sense of a necessary, ineluctable, universal law and towards a desirable goal. The word retains to this day the meaning given to it a century ago by the creator of ecology, Haeckel: 'Development is, from this moment on, the magic word with which we will solve all the mysteries that surround us or, at least, that which will guide us towards their solution'. But for two-thirds of the people of the earth, this positive meaning of the word 'development' – profoundly rooted after two centuries of its social construction – is a reminder of what they are not. It is a reminder of an undesirable, undignified condition. To escape from it, they need to be enslaved to others' experiences and dreams.

Gustavo Esteva In: Sachs, W. (ed.) (1992: 6)



Some Websites of Global Activist Groups/Organisations

Amnesty International: <https://www.amnesty.org/en/>

Avaaz: <http://www.avaaz.org/en/>

Democracy Now: Now <http://www.democracynow.org/>

Freedom House: <https://freedomhouse.org/>

Global Justice Now: <http://www.globaljustice.org.uk/>

Greenpeace: <http://www.greenpeace.org/international/en/>

One Billion Rising: <http://www.onebillionrising.org/>

Transparency International: <http://www.transparency.org/>

Via Campesina: <http://viacampesina.org/en/>

Why Poverty?: <http://www.whypoverty.net/>

World Social Forum: <https://fsm2015.org/en>



Additional Resources:

Website for the Human Development Reports and Human Development Index:

<http://hdr.undp.org/en>

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TEACHING TOOL 1.2

Exploring Factors which affect Development at Local, National and Global Levels

Aim:

To reflect on the relationship between the local, national and global in experiences of development at local level

Group:

Small or Medium-Sized Groups up to 40 – Undergraduates or Postgraduates

Materials:

Film Clips of Tourism in the Country Concerned, Copies of the Images (Figures 1.2 – 1.7), Flipchart Paper, Markers, Sticky Tape [A2 paper and markers for up to 10 groups]

Duration:

2 hours

Method:

Review of Films on Tourism, Reflection on Models of Society, Group Work Poster Design, Feedback to Large Group

Instructions:

0:00 – 0:20

The facilitator opens by explaining that the session will focus on development in society and on the relationship between the local, national and global in experiences of development at local level.

The facilitator shows a very short film clip from Youtube (no longer than 5 minutes) which shows the tourist attractions of their own country. [Facilitators need to choose the film clip which they feel best represents the tourist image of their country.] Participants are asked to consider to what extent this film represents their understanding of their society and to briefly state any aspects of their society which might be missing. These points can be noted on the flipchart.

0:20 – 0:40

Participants are shown images of 6 different images or models of society and are asked to identify what kind of society is represented by each. A general discussion should follow which explores each of these models in terms of what it might explain about development in society – what does it suggest about development, if anything? According to this model, where might the influences on development come from? What kind of a representation of power, wealth, equality etc is represented in each image?

Having explored each of the images in turn, participants are asked to consider which model is closest to how they view development in their own society, giving reasons why... If they feel that none of the models illustrates their own society well, they are asked to identify an alternative image or model that might.



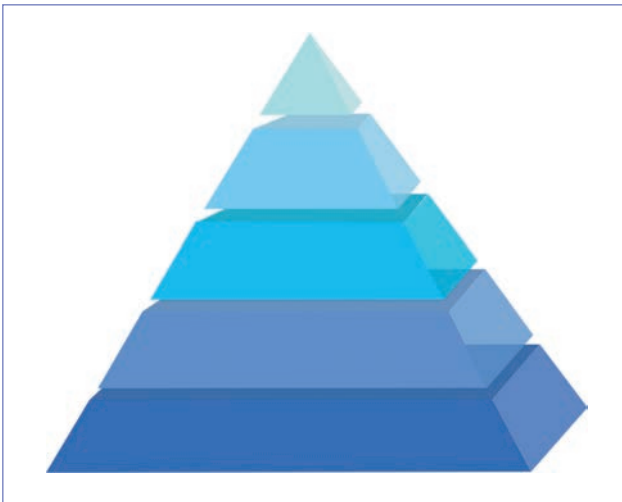


Figure 1.2: Model of Society A



Figure 1.3: Model of Society B

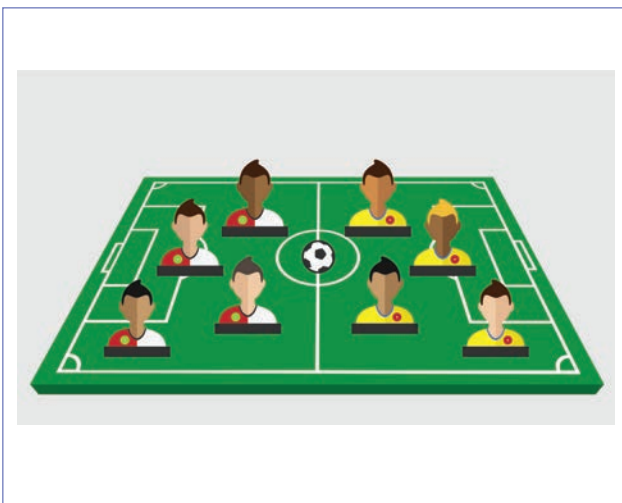


Figure 1.4: Model of Society C



Figure 1.5 Model of Society D

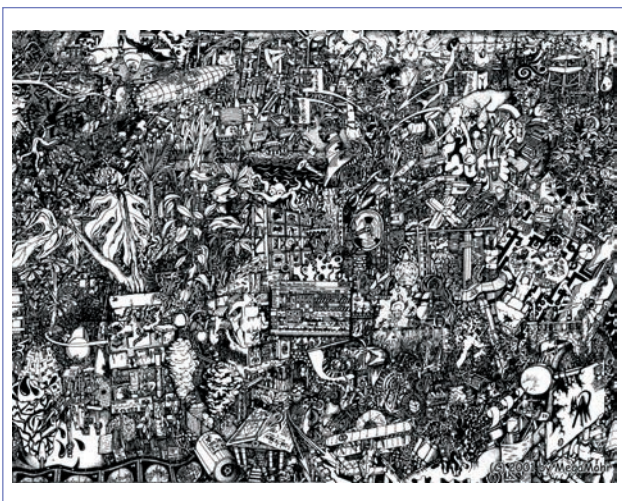


Figure 1.6: Model of Society E

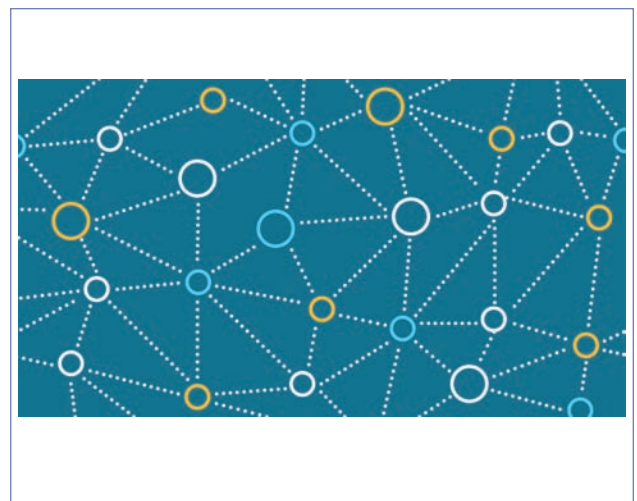


Figure 1.7 Model of Society F

0:40 – 1:20

Participants are broken into small groups of 4 people. In each group, they are asked to reflect on development in their society with reference to the following questions and to draw a poster (on A2 paper) which explains the dynamics of development in their own society with reference to local, national and global influences. The poster should clearly show:

- 1) How participants feel their society is structured (e.g., in terms of power, privilege, inclusion/exclusion, different groups and how they are positioned in society, who has influence and who does not, who makes decisions and who does not?)
- 2) What participants see as the most important development challenges affecting their society (e.g., in terms of economic, social, political, cultural issues, such as unemployment, youth, health, conflict, environmental concerns, human rights abuses, gender inequality, racism, migration/emigration, governance etc)?
- 3) With reference to each of these development issues, participants are asked to try to identify some of the underlying causes of these challenges at a local, national and transnational level. In order to identify these underlying causes participants should consider questions such as the following: how does the global economic system affect young people's access to work, levels of consumerism in society, migration patterns, urbanisation etc? To what extent is government decision-making affecting low-paid workers? How are older people and minorities treated in your society and how does government budgeting affect this treatment? What are the effects of the culture on the treatment of women, lone parents, people with disabilities, ethnic and other minority groups in the country and how has membership of the EU affected this?

**1:20 – 1:50**

Each group is asked to briefly explain their poster to the rest of the group, outlining what they see as the key development issues for society and how these are influenced by local, national and global factors. Other participants should be invited to comment or to ask questions on the posters discussed. [Alternative – if the group is large, it may not be possible to hear feedback from all groups. The facilitator could select just a few groups to give feedback or she/he can ask the participants to display the posters on a wall for all to see, allowing time for comments and questions rather than for detailed explanation of each poster.]

1:50 – 2:00

The facilitator invites participants to wrap up the session with a few general comments on what they have learned about the dynamics of development in their own society during the session. Participants can be asked to write down their thoughts or to share their thoughts with the rest of the group.

TEACHING TOOL 1.3

Exploring Understandings of Inequality and Poverty

Aim:

To reflect on different understandings of inequality poverty

Group:

Small or Medium-Sized Groups up to 40 – Undergraduates or Postgraduates

Materials:

Story and Statement, Flipchart, Markers

Duration:

2 hours [This session can be done in 2 x 1 hour sessions]

Method:

Small Group Reflection on the readings from Wolfgang Sachs and Harry Truman, Identification of Types of Poverty, Group Discussion

Instructions:

0:00 – 0:05

The facilitator introduces the topic of inequality and poverty and explains that the session will explore different understandings of poverty that people have in different contexts

0:05 – 0:15

The facilitator asks participants to brainstorm the concepts of poverty and inequality – what words, experiences etc come to mind when you think of these words? These are noted on the flipchart.

0:15 – 0:50

The facilitator breaks the group into small groups of 3 – 5 (max. 5) handing out copies of Wolfgang Sachs' story and Truman's point 4 statement to each person in each group. Participants are asked to read each piece in turn noting any points which give an insight into the understanding of inequality and poverty addressed in the piece. Once the pieces have been read, participants are asked to share their thoughts on the different understandings of poverty and inequality addressed in each of the two pieces.

0:50 – 1:00

Large Group Discussion – participants are asked not to feedback from the discussions in the group but to state briefly their thoughts on the following: anything that surprised them about the understandings of inequality and poverty presented in the piece; anything that the pieces presented that they had not thought of before; any changes they might have in their understanding of poverty arising from reflection on the two pieces of writing.

1:00 – 1:35

In small groups, participants are invited to re-write the Truman Statement or the Wolfgang Sachs story from the point of view of the person who is considered to be 'a victim', 'underdeveloped' or 'poor'. [This should be a short piece of text, approx 500 words, or participants can choose to tell the story orally or in drama form.] In undertaking this exercise participants are invited to reflect on the following questions: In re-writing the statement or story, what are your main considerations? Who and what are you concerned about when it comes to how we understand poverty and inequality and why? What is there about the first example that you wish to change in terms of how we frame or present understandings of these concepts?

1:35 – 1:55

Groups are invited to present their statements/stories to the large group and brief comments invited.

1:55 – 2:00

The facilitator wraps up the session by drawing together some of the key learning points highlighted in the discussion of the Truman Statement and Wolfgang Sachs' story.



Resources

Reading 1: President Truman's 'Point 4' speech – 1949



Fourth, we must embark on a bold new program for making the benefits of our scientific advances and industrial progress available for the improvement and growth of underdeveloped areas. [44]

More than half the people of the world are living in conditions approaching misery. Their food is inadequate. They are victims of disease. Their economic life is primitive and stagnant. Their poverty is a handicap and a threat both to them and to more prosperous areas. [45]

For the first time in history, humanity possesses the knowledge and the skill to relieve the suffering of these people. [46]

The United States is pre-eminent among nations in the development of industrial and scientific techniques. The material resources which we can afford to use for the assistance of other peoples are limited. But our imponderable resources in technical knowledge are constantly growing and are inexhaustible. [47]

I believe that we should make available to peace-loving peoples the benefits of our store of technical knowledge in order to help them realize their aspirations for a better life. And, in cooperation with other nations, we should foster capital investment in areas needing development. [48]

Our aim should be to help the free peoples of the world, through their own efforts, to produce more food, more clothing, more materials for housing, and more mechanical power to lighten their burdens. [49]

We invite other countries to pool their technological resources in this undertaking. Their contributions will be warmly welcomed. This should be a cooperative enterprise in which all nations work together through the United Nations and its specialized agencies wherever practicable. It must be a worldwide effort for the achievement of peace, plenty, and freedom. [50]

With the cooperation of business, private capital, agriculture, and labor in this country, this program can greatly increase the industrial activity in other nations and can raise substantially their standards of living. [51]

Such new economic developments must be devised and controlled to benefit the peoples of the areas in which they are established. Guarantees to the investor must be balanced by guarantees in the interest of the people whose resources and whose labor go into these developments. [52]

The old imperialism – exploitation for foreign profit – has no place in our plans. What we envisage is a program of development based on the concepts of democratic fair-dealing. [53]

All countries, including our own, will greatly benefit from a constructive program for the better use of the world's human and natural resources. Experience shows that our commerce with other countries expands as they progress industrially and economically. [54]

Greater production is the key to prosperity and peace. And the key to greater production is a wider and more vigorous application of modern scientific and technical knowledge. [55]

Only by helping the least fortunate of its members to help themselves can the human family achieve the decent, satisfying life that is the right of all people. [56]

Democracy alone can supply the vitalising force to stir the peoples of the world into triumphant action, not only against their human oppressors, but also against their ancient enemies— hunger, misery, and despair. [57]



Poverty – in need of a few distinctions

'You Can't Measure Wealth by Cash Alone' by Wolfgang Sachs.

One of the articles in Exploring Our Interconnectedness (IC#34)

Originally published in Winter 1993 on page 6

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Downloaded from: <http://www.context.org/iclib/ic34/sachs/> [accessed on 30 March 2015]

Many in the West misjudge our planet's diverse peoples by comparing them with northern European and North American cultures. The following excerpt from the October-December 1992 issue of Edges, published by the Canadian Institute of Cultural Affairs, points to the often overlooked quality of life in communities that have kept their distance from the commodity economy.

I could have kicked myself afterwards. Yet my remark had seemed the most natural thing on earth at the time. It was six months after Mexico City's catastrophic earthquake in 1985 and I had spent the whole day walking around *Tepito*, a dilapidated quarter inhabited by ordinary people but threatened by land speculators. I had expected ruins and resignation, decay and squalor, but the visit had made me think again: there was a proud neighborly spirit, vigorous building activity, and a flourishing shadow economy. [For more on Tepito, see IC #30].

But at the end of the day the remark slipped out: "It's all very well but, when it comes down to it, these people are still terribly poor."

Promptly, one of my companions stiffened: "*No somos pobres, somos Tepitanos!*" (We are not poor people, we are Tepitans).

What a reprimand! I had to admit to myself in embarrassment that, quite involuntarily, the clichés of development philosophy had triggered my reaction.

"Poverty" on a global scale was discovered after World War II. Whenever "poverty" was mentioned at all in the documents of the 1940s and 1950s, it took the form of a measurement of per-capita income whose significance rested on the fact that it lay ridiculously far below the US standard.

Once the scale of incomes had been established, such different worlds as those of the *Zapotec* people of Mexico, the *Tuareg* of North Africa, and the *Rajasthani* of India could be classed together; a comparison to the "rich" nations demanded relegating them to a position of almost immeasurable inferiority. In this way, "poverty" was used to define whole peoples, not according to what they are and want to be, but according to what they lack.

This approach provided a justification for intervention; wherever low income is the problem the only answer would be "economic development." There was no mention of the idea that poverty might also result from oppression and thus demand liberation. Or that a culture of sufficiency might be essential for long-term survival. Or even less that a culture might direct its energies toward spheres other than economic ones.

Binary divisions, such as healthy/ill, normal/abnormal, or, more pertinently, rich/poor, are like steamrollers of the mind; they level a multiform world, flattening out that which does not fit. That approach also fails to distinguish between frugality, destitution, and scarcity.

Frugality is a mark of cultures free from the frenzy of accumulation. In these cultures, the necessities of everyday life are mostly gained through subsistence production. To our eyes, these people have rather meager possessions – maybe a hut and some pots and a special Sunday outfit – with money playing only a marginal role.

Instead of cash wealth, everyone usually has access to fields, rivers, and woods, while kinship and community duties guarantee services that elsewhere must be paid for in hard cash.

Nobody goes hungry. In a traditional Mexican village, for example, the private accumulation of wealth results in social ostracism – prestige is gained precisely by spending even small profits on good deeds for the community.

Such a lifestyle only turns into demeaning "poverty" when under the pressure of an "accumulating" society.

Destitution, on the other hand, becomes rampant as soon as frugality is deprived of its foundation – community ties, land, forest, and water.

Scarcity derives from modernized poverty. It affects mostly urban groups caught up in the money economy as workers and consumers whose spending power is so low that they fall by the wayside. Their capacity to achieve through their own efforts gradually fades, while at the same time their desires, fuelled by glimpses of high society, spiral toward infinity. This scissor-like effect of want is what characterizes modern poverty.

Until now, development politicians have viewed "poverty" as the problem and "growth" as the solution. They have not yet admitted that they have been largely working with a concept of poverty fashioned by the experience of commodity-based need in the North. With the less well-off *Homo economicus* in mind, they have encouraged growth and often produced destitution by bringing multifarious cultures of frugality to ruin. The culture of growth can only be erected on the ruins of frugality, and so destitution and dependence on commodities are its price.

In societies that are not built on the compulsion to amass material wealth, economic activity is not geared to slick zippy output. Rather, economic activities – like choosing an occupation, cultivating the land, or exchanging goods – are understood as ways of enacting that particular social drama in which members of a community see themselves as the actors. The economy is closely bound up with life, but it does not stamp its rule and rhythms on the rest of society. Only in the West does the economy dictate the drama and everyone's role in it.

It seems my friend from *Tepito* knew of this when he refused to be labelled "poor." His honor was at stake, his pride too; he clung to his *Tepito* form of sufficiency, perhaps sensing that without it there loomed only destitution or never-ending scarcity.

Additional Resources:

The Truman Statement is also available online. Instead of using the reading here, the facilitator may wish to show the film clip of President Truman making his speech in 1949.
<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=PXE-u4WanMI>

The full text of President Truman's Inaugural address (1949) is available from:
<http://www.bartleby.com/124/pres53.html>

Read David Bollier 'Demystifying the Mythology of Development' <http://bollier.org/demystifying-mythology-development> where he refers to Gilbert Rist's (1997) book 'The History of Development: From Western Origins to Global Faith', Zed Books. May be available online at:
<http://www.scribd.com/doc/38290103/Gilbert-Rist-The-History-of-Development-From-Western-Origins-to-Global-Faith-3rd-Edition#scribd>

Facilitators may wish to read some background analysis of poverty measurements, e.g., the ODI Poverty Analysis Discussion Group's (2012) 'Understanding Poverty and Wellbeing: A Note with Implications for Research and Policy' available from:
<http://www.odi.org/sites/odi.org.uk/files/odi-assets/publications-opinion-files/7654.pdf>

Articles by Wolfgang Sachs are available (some free of charge) from Resurgence and Ecologist at:
<http://www.resurgence.org/magazine/author285-wolfgang-sachs.html>

Walby, S. (2005) Measuring Women's Progress in a Global Era, UNESCO.[Online]
<http://www.lancaster.ac.uk/sociology/research/publications/papers/walby-womensprogress.pdf>

Cobham, A. and Sumner, A. (2013) Palma vs Gini: Measuring post-2015 inequality, The Broker. [Online]
<http://www.thebrokeronline.eu/Blogs/Inequality-debate/Palma-vs-Gini-measuring-post-2015-inequality>



TEACHING TOOL 1.4

Understanding the Causes of Poverty

Aim:

To explore the causes of poverty at a global level

Group:

Small or Large Groups up to 100 – Undergraduates or Postgraduates

Materials:

Access to YouTube films, Flipchart, Markers

Choose one of the following films:

Stealing Africa – Why Poverty? [58:27 minutes, published: Jan 5 2013]

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=WNYemuiAOfU>

Poor Us: An Animated History – Why Poverty? [58:05 minutes, published: Jan 3 2013]

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=TxbmjDngois>

Duration:

2 hours

Method:

Buzz Groups, Brainstorm, Film, Discussion and Personal Reflection

Instructions:

0:00 – 0:10

Buzz Groups/Pairs - Ask participants to reflect on the question: 'What do you see as the key causes of poverty at a global level?' Facilitator should prompt pairs to think of causes in terms of economic, political, environmental, cultural and social causes and to think about causes at a country and global level.

0:10 – 0:20

Brainstorm – Ask participants to share (briefly) some of the causes they identified in their pairs with the full group. Facilitator to record causes of poverty identified.

0:20 – 0:25

The facilitator introduces the film and asks participants to reflect on the causes of poverty highlighted in the film.

- * What causes are addressed here that they have considered themselves?
- * Are there any factors identified that they had not considered?
- * What do they think of the portrayal of poverty in the film and to what extent do they agree with the analysis provided in the film?

0:25 – 1:25

Show film. [The facilitator may wish to shorten this section by picking out short pieces from either of the films of up to 15 minutes duration. Remember: it is important to review any film shown before using it in class and to make sure that the film is available for use in the session.]

1:25 – 1:45

Discussion of participants' reflection on the film with reference to the review questions posed at the outset

1:45 – 2:00

Ask participants to take some time to personally reflect (and write a few lines) on what they learned about the causes of poverty from the session. In the light of these causes, participants are invited to think about the responses needed to address these causes [addressed in Teaching Tool 1.5].



TEACHING TOOL 1.5

Addressing the Causes of Poverty

Note:

This should follow Teaching Tool 1.4, Understanding the Causes of Poverty

Aim:

To reflect on different approaches to addressing poverty at local and global levels

Group:

Small or Large Groups up to 100 – Undergraduates or Postgraduates

Materials:

Poem 'Still I Rise', Article 'Change vs Charity', Copy of Statements on Addressing Poverty, Flipchart, Markers,

Duration:

1 hour

Method:

Brainstorm, Buzz Groups, Reflection on Article, Small Group Discussion

Instructions:

0:00 – 0:15

The facilitator opens by reflecting on Activity 4 and asking participants to recall what they identified in that session as the causes of poverty. These points are noted on the flipchart. The facilitator then reads the poem: 'Still I Rise' (Maya Angelou) for the group and asks for any brief responses to it.

0:15 – 0:30

Participants are then invited (in buzz groups/pairs) to identify various tools or mechanisms that are used to address poverty by governments and non-governmental organisations. For this exercise, it is useful to ask participants to think about ways in which poverty is addressed in their own society, e.g., social welfare payments, cheap rent for housing, food vouchers, tax relief, investment in industry for employment, support for the elderly, incentives for enterprise, charitable organisations, care for people with disabilities etc.

Participants are also invited to consider the various tools that are used to try to address poverty in other countries, those that are often called 'developing countries' or the countries of the Global South.

Points discussed in buzz groups/pairs are recorded by the facilitator on a flipchart. The facilitator asks if there are any tools missing from the list recorded.

0:30 – 0:40

Participants are given a list of statements about addressing the causes of poverty and, individually, they are asked to consider whether they agree or disagree with each of the statements (Table 1.4: Addressing the Causes of Poverty / next page).





0:40 – 1:00

Participants are invited to share their responses in buzz groups/pairs and to discuss any differences of opinions which arose between them.

1:00 – 1:20

The facilitator engages the large group in a discussion of the various statements, seeking views on each of them.

1:20 – 1:35

Participants are invited to read 'Change vs Charity' and to identify any points which they agree with or disagree with therein.

1:35 – 1:55

The facilitator invites participants to share their views on 'Change vs Charity' especially with regard to what participants think might need to be done at local and global levels to address poverty. The facilitator reminds participants of the Maya Angelou poem [this can be distributed or shown on a projector] and asks what Maya Angelou's poem tells us about addressing poverty at local and global levels.

1:55 – 2:00

The facilitator concludes by inviting participants to make any brief comments about their learning from the session.

Table 1.4: Addressing the Causes of Poverty

Statement about Addressing the Causes of Poverty – What do you think?	Agree	Disagree	Don't know
We have a responsibility to look after people who are poor in our own country before we look after 'the poor' in other countries			
Governments are responsible for ensuring that everyone has their basic needs, therefore there is no need for public fundraising			
When a disaster hits a 'rich country' like the USA or Norway, there's no need to help out as they should be able to solve their own problems			
Poverty is created by an unfair global economic system therefore the only way to address poverty is to change the system			
"The poor" will always be with us			
It's not charity we need but justice			
Poverty will only be solved when citizens gather together to challenge the elites of this world who control the wealth and power			

Resources

'Still I Rise', Maya Angelou

You may write me down in history
With your bitter, twisted lies,
You may tread me in the very dirt
But still, like dust, I'll rise.

Does my sassiness upset you?
Why are you beset with gloom?
'Cause I walk like I've got oil wells
Pumping in my living room.

Just like moons and like suns,
With the certainty of tides,
Just like hopes springing high,
Still I'll rise.

Did you want to see me broken?
Bowed head and lowered eyes?
Shoulders falling down like teardrops.
Weakened by my soulful cries.

Does my haughtiness offend you?
Don't you take it awful hard
'Cause I laugh like I've got gold mines
Diggin' in my own back yard.

You may shoot me with your words,
You may cut me with your eyes,
You may kill me with your hatefulness,
But still, like air, I'll rise.

Does my sexiness upset you?
Does it come as a surprise
That I dance like I've got diamonds
At the meeting of my thighs?

Out of the huts of history's shame
I rise
Up from a past that's rooted in pain
I rise
I'm a black ocean, leaping and wide,
Welling and swelling I bear in the tide.
Leaving behind nights of terror and fear
I rise
Into a daybreak that's wondrously clear
I rise
Bringing the gifts that my ancestors gave,
I am the dream and the hope of the slave.
I rise
I rise
I rise.



'Change vs Charity'

Downloaded from: <http://edgefund.org.uk/what-we-fund/change-vs-charity/>
[21st November 2014]



The following text is from the book *Robin Hood Was Right, A Guide to Giving Your Money for Social Change* by Chuck Collins, Pam Rogers and Joan Garner (W.W. Norton, 2000). Reproduced with kind permission from the authors.

We give to help the poor, but poverty prevails. We contribute to save the environment, but corporate destruction of our land and waters continues. We donate to shelters, but millions remain homeless. We provide for health care research, but cancer and AIDS still claim our loved ones.

Much of our giving is limited to "safe" causes as we support services that provide temporary relief but do not challenge the **status quo**. Our efforts temporarily alleviate problems, but in the end they allow the symptoms we see today to grow tomorrow.

For all the good it does, we see modern philanthropy reinforcing what is, instead of working towards what *could be*. We see it focusing on immediate *symptoms* or *results* of social and economic problems, rather than on **root causes**. This is why charitable efforts often fail to achieve lasting solutions. In our view, it's time for a new focus on change, not charity.

Social Change Kicks the Status Quo

Social change can be a slight shift, an alteration or reversal in the status quo, that brings about institutional, or systemic change. Common understanding about what is right and true can change. Social change is embodied in new laws, procedures, and policies that alter the nature of institutions and, in time, the hearts and minds of people. Social change affects how we treat each other (African Americans no longer must give up their seats on buses to whites); what is considered "normal" (girls *can* play competitive sports in school); and established ways of doing things ("experts" are no longer trusted to make environmental decisions without community input).

Progressive social change is characterised by its insistence on addressing the **root cause(s)** of problems rather than the alleviation of symptoms. Because the goal is systemic change, conflict with those who hold power is often inevitable. The power that social change organisations bring to the table is their ability to **organise**, to educate, and to **mobilise**.

How Social Change Happens

Progressive social change is profoundly democratic. At its best, people of different racial and ethnic backgrounds, different sexual orientations, different abilities and a wide range of ages participate in developing creative solutions to social problems.

Money alone does not bring about change; neither do individuals. But when individuals band together and form organisations to focus on their collective power, social change can happen. When a large number of organisations work together toward a common goal, that's a movement. Movements make change.

When you give for social change, you give to organising. To organise, according to a paraphrase of Webster's, is:

- * To arrange or form into the coherent unity of a functioning whole.
- * To persuade to join in some common cause or enlist in some organisation.
- * To arrange by systematic planning and united effort.
- * To arrange elements into a whole of interdependent parts.

That's organising! All these pieces – to urge others to join, to develop a unity of purpose (goals), to make plans and strategies, and to build and strengthen ties among members of the organisation – all these activities build organisations.

The goals of social change organising:

- * Aim at root causes, not symptoms.
- * Build collective responses, not individual solutions, to problems.
- * Change attitudes, behaviour, laws, policies, and institutions the better to reflect values of inclusion, fairness, and diversity.
- * Insist on accountability and responsiveness in such institutions as government, large corporations, and universities.
- * Expand democracy by involving those closest to social problems in determining their solution.

What do social change organisations do? They must analyse and agree on root cause(s) of the situation or problem, determine goals, decide on a course of action, educate and organise their constituents, and raise money. People join social change organisations out of both self-interest and compassion for others. The act of coming together to hammer out strategies and goals builds unity.

Analysing the root causes of why a situation exists is a primary difference between charity and social change. Charities don't ask why. Social change organisations do.

Movements Make History...

Progressive social change ideas are often initially greeted by the larger society as dangerously radical or outrageously impractical. This was true when abolitionists argued that slavery was immoral. It was true when reformers tried to end child labour and suffragists claimed women should have the right to vote. In the 1930s, facing a nationwide depression, workers demanded jobs, unemployment insurance, a minimum wage, and government relief for the millions who were starting and homeless. Once more these "radical" demands were met with disbelief and outrage.

Examples of change and charity

Charity:

Donate to a food pantry to provide supplemental food for lower-income working families.

Send money to a shelter for homeless families.

Fund a scholarship for one high school student to attend college.

Give to a telethon for services for people with disabilities.

Change:

Raise the minimum wage so people can afford to purchase the food they need.

Send money to a housing coalition working for affordable housing.

Fund a student association organising to ensure that higher education is affordable for everyone.

Give to a group of disabled people and their allies pushing for their elected officials to make public buildings accessible.

TEACHING TOOL 1.6

Representing Global Development – Moving Beyond Stereotypes

Aim:

To reflect on the images and messages used in relation to global development and to challenge stereotypes in these representations

Group:

Small or Large Groups up to 100 – Undergraduates or Postgraduates

Materials:

Reflection on Stereotypes from Stuart Hall, Film Clips, Flipchart, Markers, Copy of the Illustrative Guide to the Dóchas Code of Conduct on Images and Messages

Duration:

1 hour

Method:

Brainstorm, Buzz Groups, Reflection on Film Clips, Reflection on the Dóchas Code of Conduct on Images and Messages, Small Group Discussion

Instructions:**0:00 – 0:15**

The facilitator opens the session by asking participants to reflect on what a stereotype is. The facilitator notes points on the flipchart and introduces Stuart Hall's explanation (see Resources with this Teaching Tool). The facilitator then asks participants to think of examples of stereotypes that are commonly used when it comes to development, e.g., of the countries of the Global South, of NGOs, of Southern governments, of aid, of those who are seen to be in need of aid, of those who give aid etc... These are shared in the large group and recorded on the flipchart. (The facilitator may need to prompt the group into thinking of some of these stereotypes, e.g., the use of the term 'Africa' instead of countries in Africa. The former term is often used to contrast a continent to other countries; the use of images of women and children when it comes to emergency situations with men either invisible or represented as helpless; the use of phrases such as 'without our organisation, these people will starve' etc. Examples can be found in the Illustrative Guide to the Dóchas Code of Conduct on Images and Messages.)

0:15 – 0:30

Participants are asked to discuss the effects of these stereotypes in buzz groups/pairs with reference to how they might feel if they were the people being stereotyped. [The facilitator may wish to give pairs copies of some of the illustrations used in the Illustrative Guide to the Dóchas Code of Conduct on Images and Messages in order to make this discussion more concrete for participants.]

0:30 – 0:45

The facilitator introduces the video of the song, 'Africa For Norway' (2012) and participants are asked to comment on what it is trying to say about the stereotypes portrayed about development.

0:45 – 1:00

To conclude, participants are asked to reflect on the key principles in the Dóchas Code of Conduct on Images and Messages and to identify which of them they feel most strongly about and why. This can be done as a personal reflection exercise, or, if there is time, participants can be asked to share their ideas with the large group.



Resources

Dóchas Code of Conduct on Images and Messages – including Key Principles – Available to download from: <http://www.dochas.ie/publications/d%C3%B3chas-code-conduct-images-and-message>

Illustrative Guide to the Dóchas Code of Conduct on Images and Messages – Available to download from: <http://www.dochas.ie/about-the-code>

Africa for Norway Single <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=oJLqyuxm96k>

Radi-Aid: Africa for Norway Homepage – includes ‘Golden Radiator’ and ‘Rusty Radiator’ awards for NGO development advertisements which perpetuate or challenge stereotypes about the Global South <http://www.africafornorway.no/>

Hall, S. (ed.) (1997) *Representation: Cultural Representations and Signifying Practices*. Sage, London.

Extract from ‘The Spectacle of the “Other”’ by Stuart Hall (chapter 4)

Stereotypes get hold of the few ‘simple, vivid, memorable, easily grasped and widely recognised’ characteristics about a person, reduce everything about the person to those traits, exaggerate and simplify them, and fix them without change or development to eternity.... So the first point is – stereotyping reduces, essentialises, naturalises and fixes ‘difference’. Secondly, stereotyping deploys a strategy of ‘splitting’. It divides the normal and the acceptable from the abnormal and the unacceptable. It then excludes or expels everything which does not fit, which is different.... it symbolically fixes boundaries, and excludes everything which does not belong. Stereotyping, in other words, is part of the maintenance of social and symbolic order. It sets up a symbolic frontier between the ‘normal’ and the ‘deviant’, the ‘normal’ and the ‘pathological’, the ‘acceptable’ and the ‘unacceptable’, what ‘belongs’ and what does not or is ‘Other’, between ‘insiders’ and ‘outsiders’. Us and Them. It facilitates the ‘binding’ or bonding together of all of Us who are ‘normal’ into one ‘imagined community’; and it sends into symbolic exile all of Them – ‘the Others’ – who are in some way different – ‘beyond the pale’.. The third point is that stereotyping tends to occur where there are gross inequalities of power. Power is usually directed against the subordinate or excluded group. One aspect of this power, according to Dyer, is ethnocentrism – ‘the application of the norms of one’s own culture to that of others’[...]. In short... it classifies people according to a norm and constructs the excluded as ‘other’.



CHAPTER 2

Global Citizenship Education in post-2015

Do Less But Go Deeper

by: Juraj Jančovič

Introduction

What the world needs now is not primarily to teach poor people in the South to read and write, but to re-educate the North.

*Sibusiso M. Bengu (Minister of education in Nelson's Mandela first government)
(Jones and Nygaard, 2013: 161)*

Do you know where Baga is and why should we know about this town? Have you heard about the satirical weekly newspaper Charlie Hebdo? These examples show us two important things closely related to Global Citizenship Education.

The first important lesson is that the purpose of education is not only to prepare people for work in the global economy but also to provide knowledge, skills and attitudes based on understanding and interpreting the changing world. Education nowadays is focused mainly on intellect and knowledge, less emphasis is placed on skills, and there is not much focus on attitudes. Why are attitudes important?

Many people consider the attack in France as a sign of the failure of the multiculturalism-project in Europe (multicultural education is an element of global citizenship education) and say that it was a naïve concept. But the question is whether the concept of multiculturalism failed as an idea or failed in the implementation i.e. the development of competencies needed for living in a complex and dynamic world society. Apart from developing knowledge and skills, implementation of multicultural education requires that the attitudes of a learner be taken into account. The importance of attitudes in the learning process is nicely illustrated by Renata Halaxová (teacher from Czech): 'What is important for the children is not knowing how many legs a spider has, but not to tear them off' (www.exam.sk, n.d.). The second important lesson from Baga and Charlie Hebdo is that we still tend to divide the world into 2 parts – "us" and "them".

The attacks on the satirical weekly newspaper *Charlie Hebdo* were broadcast all over the world but not many people know about the small Nigerian town of Baga and its surrounding towns. In Baga, the weekend before the attack on Charlie Hebdo, violence killed an estimated total of hundreds of people, perhaps as many as two thousand. (Abubakar and Karimi, 2015) Why is it that people do not know about the killing in Baga? Is it less important for us because we don't feel connected to people from other parts of the world?

Shift in Terminology

For the last 25-30 years, development education was a part of the educational system of various countries of the Global North (industrialised countries). It was inspired by ideas of Paolo Freire and Henry Giroux and, furthermore, it questioned the mainstream thinking in society and also offered an alternative perspective and methodology (Bourn, 2008a).

Since its inception, development education has undergone an interesting terminological shift. This shift in terminology is confusing many people today. There are different terminologies of education referring to the global issues: "development education"; "global education"; "global citizenship education"; and others such as "education for sustainable development".



According to Krause (2011: 2) these terms are to a large extent overlapping, often used as synonyms, but still carrying different nuances:

Development Education (DE) is the classic term used by many actors, for example the European Commission and CONCORD. It indicates that what we are talking about is rooted in the community of development actors, focuses on North–South relations, and aims at improving the living situation of people in the Global South.

The term **Global Education (GE)** became popular in the last decade. It is used by the North South Centre of the Council of Europe, the Global Education Network Europe (GENE), Global Education Network (GLEN) and many others. The term Global Education draws attention to the context of globalisation and to the increasing global interdependency in the more complex world of today. It highlights the fact that today we are talking about more issues than just development, namely environment, migration, human rights, climate change etc.

A third term used is **Education for Sustainable Development (ESD)**. It is promoted by UNESCO under the UN Decade of Education for Sustainable Development 2005-2015. ESD is concerned with largely the same topics and similar methodological approaches as DE/GE. Its focus may be slightly more on environmental education and the concept is promoted more by actors from the environmental sphere (e.g. Ministries of Environment).

Global Citizenship Education (GCE), the fourth term, is popular mainly in the UK. It points to the citizen empowerment aspect of Global Education and to the ideas of participatory democracy and cosmopolitanism.

Global Citizenship Education is one of most recent terms, which is not yet used very often, therefore, although this chapter writes about Global Citizenship Education, more common terms used in the text are Development or Global Education (depending on the referenced literature). The terminological shift in DE/GE can be seen also in the names of institutions which focus on global issues. Many of those which were established at the beginning of the twenty-first century have the term “development” in their name. Newly established institutions more often use the term “global”. A nice example of this terminological shift is DEA, Development Education Association, founded in 1993, which some of you might know as Think Global. In January 2011, they adopted the working name Think Global to reflect a broadening of their perspective for a better understanding of the wider world in which we all live (DEA, n.d.).

Changing Character from Development to Global and Beyond



It is important to note that Development Education (initial term) has changed its character significantly over the past decades. The North–South paradigm (Development Education) has shifted to a bigger global perspective (Global Education) with the element of responsibility of each global citizen (Global Citizenship Education). In other words, in Development Education in the past, there was a distinction between “us” and “them”. The word “development” implies that someone is “developed” and somebody else “underdeveloped”. When we talked about “them”, there was only a minimal interconnection to “us”; if there was such a link, it was more about compassion, pity and help.

Current Global Citizenship Education refers only to “us”; not because GCE is selfish and ignores “them” but rather because it sees all the people as citizens of one big global village. “Them” is no more, so a discussion is needed about *who is* developed and in what area; not because we would find out who is better and who is worse but because each could contribute their qualities to a more equitable and fair world. A critical look at the role of countries of the Global North is required. How do populations affect the situation in another parts of the world? This perception of reality is both a strength and a challenge in Global Citizenship Education.

Through the perspective of history, Krause (2011: 3) identifies three different sub-concepts of DE/GE:

- 1) When the first countries started to be donors in development cooperation, governments and NGOs wanted to make their overseas development work known at home. They wanted to promote it, to gain public support for it, and to raise funds. Development Education was first invented as a tool to promote aid and aid policies. This is the first sub-concept of GE/DE: **Promotion of Aid.**
- 2) After a while, many people in the development sector realised that delivering aid in the South was not enough to overcome development problems considering the global economic system in which they participated was responsible for producing the poverty. Change of the system in the North was needed. Production and consumption patterns and the way wealth was distributed globally must be challenged politically. The second sub-concept of GE/DE emerged: **Campaigning and Advocacy.**
- 3) Still later it became clear to Global Education practitioners that fundamental changes needed a long time and required carefully conceptualised long-term learning processes. Furthermore, if global issues are not a faraway thing but something every citizen should deal with, then every citizen should have access to Global Education. Global issues were more and more integrated into education systems, school curricula and the practice of formal education. A dialogue with pedagogues confronted Global Education with a more rigorous didactic thinking and made a third sub-concept of GE emerge: **Global Learning** which focuses on the development of the individual learner’s capabilities to understand the globalised world society and to act in an informed and responsible way.

In fact, these three sub-concepts of DE/GE could be pared back to two sub-concepts promoting aid does not really count as education. At European level, a big variety of actors, including GENE, the DARE Forum of CONCORD, the North–South Centre, the Multi-Stakeholder Group on Development Education and others have agreed at several occasions that Public Relations work for aid is not a legitimate understanding of DE/GE. PR is the business of fundraising and communication departments, but should not be mixed with education. The role of DE or GE is not to uncritically promote development policies but to critically discuss them (Krause, 2011: 3).

More and more actors distinguish between these two sub-concepts. Since the two have different aims and perspectives – and in some aspects even contradict each other – it is useful to separate them conceptually (Rajacic, Surian, Fricke, Krause and Davis, 2010: 119).

	Global Learning	Campaigning and Advocacy
Aims	Development of competencies of the learner	Change in individual behaviour or institutional/ corporate policies
Philosophy	Pedagogic, constructivist	Activist, normative
Distinguishing feature	Process-oriented: * focuses on the learner and the learning process * an open learning approach cannot have predetermined results such as a certain behaviour change	Results-oriented: * aims at achieving specific results in terms of changed policies and/or behaviours * has a strategic approach towards concrete results
Global Citizenship and Change Perspective	Developing personal skills and competencies is essential for enabling people to live a meaningful life and to be responsible members and agents of change in their local communities and in the interdependent world society	Enlightened global citizens, critically engaged in campaigning and advocacy, are essential for a living democracy and for bringing about the transformative changes required by today's world

Table 2.1: 'Global Learning' and 'Campaigning and Advocacy' as sub-concepts of DE/GE (adopted from Rajacic, Surian, Fricke, Krause and Davis, 2010: 119)

Global learning, as we can see from Table 2.1, is one of the sub-concepts of Global Citizenship Education. By focusing on a learning process, this supports critical thinking, self-reflection and the independent choices of a learner, who might become an agent of social change in local community and world society (Krause, 2010).

The sub-concept of global learning did not always incorporate constructivist philosophy. The main aim to develop the competencies of the learner (knowledge, skills and attitudes) was not present in previous concepts where focus was more on:

cognitive information disseminated in a top-down approach; dissemination of information about wider development issues (e.g. sustainable development, peace and development, trade and development, MDGs), countries of the Global South and development policy.

normative philosophy of education; attention drawn to the local-global interdependencies and the individual's responsibility within a globally interdependent world. Focus on more issues than just development - also environment, migration, human rights, climate change etc. Aim to change attitudes and behaviours. (Krause, 2010)

There are ongoing conceptual tensions within Global Citizenship Education which, although not irreconcilable, cannot be ignored. The complex and challenging nature of GCE should be seen as a strength rather than as a weakness, as it obliges those engaged in GCE to continuously re-examine perceptions, values, beliefs and world views (UNESCO, 2014: 18).



Who is a Good Global Citizen?

So what is global citizenship in practice? Let's divide this term and have a closer look, firstly, at what citizenship means and who can be considered a "good citizen" and, secondly, why global orientation is important.

Westheimer and Kahne (2004) have identified 3 versions of a good citizen:

Personally responsible citizen - acts responsibly in his/her community, for example, by making charitable donations, picking up litter, giving blood, recycling, and obeying laws.

Participatory citizen - focuses on how government and other institutions work, and plan, organise and participate in efforts to care for people in need.

Justice-oriented citizen - critically assesses social, political and economic structures, considers collective strategies for change that challenge injustice, and is concerned with addressing the root causes of social and global problems.

Citizenship means a bond between an individual and society. Citizenship Education, and social studies instruction as a part of it, has traditionally focused on socialisation within the framework of one society and, at the same time, usually, one nation-state. Regardless of how good a foundation this approach may create, it is no longer enough in the world where almost all societies are multicultural and where international and intercultural links are more and more important (Boom and Zuylen, 2013: 107).

Firstly, because it is deemed important to create an understanding and appreciation of basic values and of the principles of mutual dependency in the world, of the equality of human beings and the shared responsibility for solving global issues - *idealistic and equity standpoint* (Carabain, 2012; Boom and Zuylen, 2013: 103).

Secondly, the global community itself seems confronted with multiple challenges that together form a serious threat to society and the earth as a system: increasing inequality and polarisation; global warming; decreasing biodiversity; population growth; water, food and energy scarcity; pollution of rivers and oceans etc. Only at a global level can we assure access to, and preservation of, the global public goods/global commons - *responsibility and sustainability standpoint* (Severino and Ray, 2010; Boom and Zuylen, 2013: 103).

Thirdly, the economies of countries all over the world are so interlinked that in order to operate effectively, new competencies and open-mindedness are essential - *pragmatic standpoint* (Apple Inc., 2007; Boom and Zuylen, 2013: 103).

That is why global awareness is important to all citizens. A global orientation in a world that has become flat in various ways is more relevant than ever.



Thinking Outside the Box

When thinking of Global Citizenship Education we should think of it not as a part of education but as an approach to education. This underlines Conclusion 1 from the international symposium, *Becoming a Global Citizen*, in Finland in 2011:

Education must put global education at the heart of learning, if it is to be considered quality education.
(Hartmayer, O'Loughlin and Wegimont, 2013: 17)

It is impossible to separate GCE from education. It is also impossible to make GCE a subject in the same way as biology, geography, or mathematics.

The distinctions between those subjects are not always very clear but the current educational system (for example in Slovakia) is doing its best to keep them, even when it is obvious that keeping subjects in separate boxes makes them limited and fragmented without interconnections. This is being changed in Finland, where they are trying to skip traditional “teaching by subject” and move to “teaching by topics” (Garner, 2015). “Phenomenon-based teaching” is changing the mindset in education and making it more relevant for life. Topics or phenomena are not fragmented into small parts and thought of separately in different subjects, but rather teaching together provides a broader perspective and demonstrates the interconnections.

For example, when teaching about the African continent, students will get to know not only the geography, economy or history, but will be taught that these topics are all interlinked together, because the economy of a country is influenced by the history of the country as much as by its geography, and it is influenced also by the neighbouring countries as well as by the global economy and many other things. The same theory applies to GCE - this approach tries not to fragment the reality into small pieces without interconnecting them, but puts things together and broadens the perspectives of young people.

Many challenges that education faces nowadays are because we are trying to upgrade the current educational system based on “fragmented” teaching, instead of revolutionising and remaking the system completely. The educational system as it is now is not serving the purpose of preparing young people adequately for the world as it is because that world is now more globalised and interconnected than ever before. Ken Robinson (2010) claims that educating young people in today’s globalised times in the manner that was created in the eras of Enlightenment and Industrial Revolution is not possible anymore.

Global Citizenship Education is allowing people to become global citizens, broadening their perspectives and breaking the geographical borders. It is important to move the focus from the *knowledge* of learners to the *attitude* of learners because when we talk about reflecting on our role in the world, we do not talk about knowledge any more.

Where We Are Now and How We Got There – Experiences From Slovakia and Other EU Countries



Change in education is easy to propose, hard to implement and extraordinarily difficult to sustain
(Hargreaves and Fink, 2006: 1)

The history of DE/GE in Slovakia is short compared with other western European countries even though Slovakia experienced a similar evolution in global education. In 2003, Development Education in Slovakia aimed to get the support of the general public and activate it for development topics like development aid, poverty or millennium development goals. At that time, the way to implement DE into the curriculum of formal education was to create a subject in its own right which would be added to the existing canon of subjects in primary, secondary and tertiary levels. Development Education at that time had not tried to interlink global issues to the environmental issues and had not considered the peoples’ role and responsibility with regard to global issues. This discussion about broadening and interlinking the concept of global education with our own lives started only a few years ago (in 2010, the process of creating the Slovak National Strategy on Global Education started). By proclaiming global education as a binding cross-curricular item, the global dimension could be infused across the existing canon of subject matters.

The Slovak National Strategy on Global Education was an important document for various reasons. For the first time there were clearly defined aims, principles, and content of Global Education. For formal education at primary, secondary and pedagogical tertiary level, the term 'Global Education' was settled on as a broad pedagogical concept, which aimed at developing not only the knowledge but especially the skills and attitudes of students (Návojský, 2013). Global Education was presented as another way of approaching education: no longer defined as a topic but as a focus on global interconnections.

For example, when teaching about overseas discoveries within the subject of History in Slovakia, usually the facts are presented. Many of us will be able to name the ships, and Christopher Columbus, and know that potatoes are not an original Slovak crop. Global Education brings a broader perspective than a Eurocentric view of history to these facts. The broader perspective includes the impacts of overseas discoveries on local communities and the birth of colonialism. (Návojský, 2013)

The Strategy also uses the term Development Education. This term is connected to non-pedagogical tertiary education and to the preparation of professionals for work in international development. The strategy has not overlooked non-formal education where global issues are also becoming an important element. (Návojský, 2013)

To sound a more critical note, the peer review team for the Strategy encouraged further reflection on the:

main aim of the strategy – so that the focus was not only global problems but on global realities, challenges and analyses;

information, active engagement and solutions that might similarly be nuanced by a further, stronger focus on the complexities of understanding, learning and educational change. (O'Loughlin and Wegimont, 2013)

Experience from other countries that developed very good strategies to integrate Global Education into school curricula says that the challenge of implementation of the strategy should be stressed, so that the strategy is reflected adequately in practice and school curricula in general. It is important to avoid Global Education becoming only a definition on paper which is not implemented in practice and hence becomes a set of techniques, games and participatory activities that go only as far as the surface and that are not focused on the underlying causes of phenomena.

Clarity regarding which Ministry or Ministries might take the lead and when is paramount to success. The peer review observes that the Ministry of Education, Sport, Research and Science (MESRS) and the agencies under its auspices are particularly well-placed to take a key role in moving forward the implementation process of the strategy. (O'Loughlin and Wegimont, 2013) Unfortunately Global Education is still perceived by MESRS as an "unwanted child". There are many good practice examples coming from NGOs working in this field in Slovakia, but a move to higher level of implementation of GE is needed in order to have a systematic approach.

According to Boom and Zuylen (2013: 104) history and research show that the quality of the actions at macro, meso and micro level and the balance between them is crucial for success. Let us use the analogy of the weather resistance of a tiled roof. The quality of the tiles is important, but just as important is the way in which the tiles are laid on the roof. Tiles overlap from top to bottom, which is necessary for them to resist wind and rain. This kind of overlapping connection between the macro, meso, and micro level is desirable when implementing a high quality and sustainable educational innovation like Global Citizenship Education.

Analysis of curricula and in-depth interviews undertaken within the framework of research in Ireland (Bryan and Bracken, 2011) revealed a “three F” approach to development education. “Three F” stands for “fundraising, fasting, and having fun”. Some teachers in this research named one of the active ingredients for Development Education as “helping the poorer ones” directly or indirectly. In other words, the soft version of Development Education in Irish schools still prevails despite the fact that the history of Development Education in Ireland dates back to the 1970s.

Other surveys in Ireland (Gleeson, King, O’Driscoll and Tormey, 2007) underlined these findings and showed that students have a high level of concern and interest in issues, but a low level of understanding about the root causes of poverty and inequality. The dominant emphasis is still on charity and the attitude is characterised by emotions of pity; there is a belief in “their” helplessness and the motivation to help is in order to make “them” more like “us”. (Honan, 2014)

In the Netherlands, in spite of teachers stating that they find global awareness important, and despite the abundance of global awareness material available, the priority given to global awareness by teachers in the classroom is low. Attention given by teachers to the theme is more often incidental than structural. This observation more or less corresponds to the fact that two-thirds of all Dutch teachers do not believe that global awareness should become an explicit (or mandatory) part of the curriculum. (Boom and Zuylen, 2013: 104)

Global Citizenship Education should significantly weaken the emphasis on raising awareness and activities that “develop the underdeveloped” and vice versa. GCE should focus on appealing to identify the role of each global citizen and their responsibility for the current situation of the local as well as the wider environment. This requires reflection. Currently in Global Education there is more action than reflection. In order to go forward and progress in Global Education, more reflection, training and analysis of educational practices are needed. (Mesa Peinado, 2011)

Conclusion



*The best teachers are those who show you where to look, but don't tell you what to see.
Alexandra K. Trenfor*

If we extract the essence of active global citizenship, it is young’s people behaviour driven by their own agenda for change based on a critical understanding of the world. (Temple and Laylock, 2008: 101)

This is supported also by Barbora Asbrand, who argues that Global Citizenship Education is not about learning off values and attitudes but rather about enabling all young people to discover their own opinions (Bourn, 2008b). Annette Scheunpflug (2008: 21, 22) adds that global learning and education requires that educators treat learners as fully emerging world citizens who came to autonomous decisions (for example for or against transgenic crops).

NGOs, activists or educators should not be the ones to decide, for example, which politician to write to, which brand of fair trade coffee to drink, which project to support, or which protest to take part in. Nor should they even persuade learners to drink fair trade coffee or take part in protest in general. The role of the learner is to choose freely. Educators can lead the learner to a variety of options relating to certain fields but it is the learner who makes a decision. This is the only way that Global Citizenship Education can ensure greater long-term solutions to the challenges facing today’s world.

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TEACHING TOOL 2.1

Walking Paradigms

Topic: Changing character from development to global and beyond

Educational objectives. At the end of this session, participants should be able to:

- * describe the purpose of global citizenship education,
- * identify different approaches to development / global (citizenship) education,
- * describe shift of the paradigm of development / global (citizenship) education.

Duration:

30 minutes

Requirements:

2 paper signs ('AGREE' and 'DISAGREE'), tape.

Note: enough open space in the classroom is required so students can move around.

Description:

1. Make two signs. Write the word 'AGREE' on one paper and 'DISAGREE' on the other one and place them on opposite walls.
2. Invite the students to gather in the middle of the room. Read out a statement (which will stimulate debate) and ask students to decide if they agree or disagree with the statement.

Statements:

1. Global citizenship education is a tool to promote aid and aid policies.
2. Global citizenship education should politically challenge the way wealth is distributed globally.
3. Focus of global citizenship education is on the development of the individual learner's capabilities to understand the globalised world society and to act in an informed and responsible way.
4. Students then move to the position they are happy with, which can range from strongly agree to strongly disagree, or if unsure then they will stand in the middle. Without talking to one another, ask students standing in different places to explain why they have chosen to stand in that position. Probe questions can help tease out their reasons and can also challenge them to rethink their position (but do not evaluate their positions).
5. Offer students the chance to adjust their position after hearing some other opinions.
6. Continue reading out more statements and, each time, ask students to position themselves along the spectrum of AGREE to DISAGREE. With practice, students can begin to see the shades of grey that exist in relation to all topics. They should also learn that it's okay to change position after informed discussion.
7. Explain the evolution of the term global citizenship education. When it started, which stages reached and offer some definitions. At the end shows three different sub-concepts of development / global education (promotion of aid, campaigning and advocacy, global learning) (Krause, 2011: 3). Tell them that each statement was interlinked with one of the sub-concepts and describe them.

Methodological note:

Help your students consider different perspectives during debate by asking questions like (NCAA, n.d.):

- * You seem to be approaching this issue from the perspective of...
Why have you chosen this perspective?
- * Can you imagine an alternative way of seeing this issue? What would it be like?
- * What would someone who disagrees say?
- * Can/did anyone see this in another way? Why?
- * How would other groups/types of people respond? Why?
What would influence their position?

TEACHING TOOL 2.2

Looking for Global Citizen

Topic: Who is a good global citizen?

Educational objectives. At the end of this session, participants should be able to:

- * define global citizenship
- * identify 3 versions of good citizen
- * specify global awareness in citizenship
- * identify their own role as a citizen

Duration:

90 minutes

Requirements:

flipchart paper, markers, post-its, tape, coloured paper cards.

Note: enough open space in the classroom is required so students can move around.

Description:

1. Before the lesson write on separate A4 papers - GLOBAL, NON-GLOBAL, PERSONALLY RESPONSIBLE CITIZEN, PARTICIPATORY CITIZEN, JUSTICE-ORIENTED CITIZEN, NOT A CITIZEN
2. Give a post-it to each student in the classroom
3. Tell students to write down individually, according to them, who a global citizen is. **(5 minutes)**
4. Form groups of 4-5 students, give one flipchart paper to each group and ask them to put the post it notes on the flipchart, discuss what they wrote on the post-its. Afterwards they should write a motto for global citizen on the top of the flipchart, draw a picture of how a global citizen should look on one half of the flipchart and his/her characteristics on the other half of the flipchart. **(20 minutes)**
5. Let groups put their flipchart on the wall and present it. **(15 minutes)**
6. Introduce 3 versions of good citizen according Westheimer and Kahne (personally responsible; participatory; justice-oriented citizen), give each group coloured paper cards and ask them which version fits their description of global citizen from their flipchart and why. **(10 minutes)**
7. Present 3 standpoints regarding why global orientation in citizenship is important (idealism and equity, responsibility and sustainability, pragmatism) **(10 minutes)**
8. Put the A4 papers GLOBAL and NON-GLOBAL on opposite sides of the classroom so that there will be space to move in between.
9. Ask all students to take their post-its from the flipcharts and express their opinion as to where their citizen stands on a scale from GLOBAL to NON-GLOBAL. Ask some of them (ideally with different opinions) to explain their opinions. **(10 minutes)**
10. Put the A4 papers PERSONALLY RESPONSIBLE CITIZEN, PARTICIPATORY CITIZEN, JUSTICE-ORIENTED CITIZEN, NOT A CITIZEN on the floor so they will represent sides of the square (ideally combined with GLOBAL in the centre and NON-GLOBAL on the edges).
11. Ask students to find their own personal place in the square and ask some of them why they stand where they stand. **(15 minutes)**
12. Ask students to find their own desired personal place in the square in 5 years' time (without discussion)



Methodological note:

- * Be descriptive rather than evaluative
- * Offer alternatives
- * Recap on good points

TEACHING TOOL 2.3

Tweeting on Education in a Globalised World

Topic: Thinking outside the box

Educational objectives:

At the end of this session, participants should be able to:

identify the tasks of an educational system as it relates to a more and more globalised world

explain the role of global citizenship education in an education system

Duration:

60 minutes

Requirements:

computer, data projector, speakers, internet connection, squared paper with 140 squares (each for one character) for each student

Description:

1. Before the lesson - prepare the squared paper with 140 squares (each for one character) for each student in the classroom.
2. Before the lesson - prepare computer, data projector and speakers. Find the video from Ken Robinson on the internet: *Changing Educational Paradigms* (http://www.ted.com/talks/ken_robinson_changing_education_paradigms)
3. Explain to the students that the focus of the lesson will be on education in the globalised world. Play the first minute of the video to the students. **(5 minutes)**
4. Ask students how they think a school should react in a more and more globalised world. Give each student a sheet of the squared paper with 140 squares. Let them consider the question individually and then write a message about it using maximum 140 characters (like in Twitter). **(10 minutes)**
5. Divide the students into groups of approximately four people and have participants discuss the same question and their individual responses in the group. **(15 minutes)**
6. Ask each group to formulate their message, i.e. the response to the question as a group, and let each group write their message on the flipchart. **(10 minutes)**
7. Summarise what was said and use the key words for explanation, that global citizenship education is education that puts learning in a global context, fostering:
 - critical and creative thinking;
 - self-awareness and open-mindedness towards difference;
 - understanding of global issues and power relationships;
 - action and participation. **(10 minutes)**
8. Play the rest of the video from the beginning of the lesson (not necessarily needed if there is no time) **(10 minutes)**



Methodological note:

- * Be descriptive rather than evaluative
- * Offer alternatives
- * Recap on good points

TEACHING TOOL 2.4

Tiled Roof

Topic: Where are we now and how did we get there...

Educational objectives:

At the end of this session, participants should be able to:

explain a systematic approach for implementing global citizenship education

list specific issues which can strengthen that systematic approach

Duration:

60 minutes

Requirements:

flipchart papers, markers, tape.

Description:

1. Before the lesson, draw on the flipchart paper: a house with 3 lines of tiles on the roof and at least 10 tiles in each line. Each tile should be big enough to write a statement inside it.
2. Before the lesson, prepare the setting: make 3 round tables, where students can sit divided into 3 groups.
3. Explain to the students the experiences of implementing global citizenship education from various EU countries. Conclude that a systematic approach is needed on macro, meso and micro levels and that a balance between them is crucial for success - similar to the weather resistance of a tiled roof.
The quality of the tiles is important, but just as important is the way in which the tiles are laid on the roof. Tiles overlap from top to bottom, which is necessary for them to resist wind and rain. This kind of overlapping connection between the macro, meso and micro level is desirable when implementing high quality and sustainable educational innovation like global citizenship education is. (Boom and Zuylen, 2013: 104)
4. Ask them what they think will represent macro, meso and micro level in this case.
5. After defining macro, meso and micro level divide students into 3 groups. Give each group one flipchart paper and tell them to write their level on top of it. Tell them that there will be 3 rounds, where they visit each table.
6. Task for each group will be to think of issues which will represent tiles at their level and strengthen the impact of global citizenship education. Each group will have 10 minutes to discuss their ideas and write them down.
7. At the end of each round, one student remains at each table as the host, while the other moves to other tables. Table hosts welcome newcomers to their tables and share the essence of that table's conversation so far and then the conversation continues, deepening as the round progresses.
8. After 3 rounds ask hosts from each table to come to the flipchart and write down ideas from each level into the tiles and let them to summarise from macro to micro level.



Methodological note:

- * Be descriptive rather than evaluative
- * Offer alternatives
- * Recap on good points

CHAPTER 3

Poverty: Who, Where and Why?

by: Pavlos Koktsidis



Poverty is defined as a general scarcity or dearth, or as the state of lacking a certain amount of material possessions or money. It is a multifaceted concept which includes social, economic and political elements.

Poverty can be chronic or temporary, and most of the time it is closely related to inequality. As a dynamic concept, poverty is changing and adapting according to consumption patterns, social dynamics and technological change (Sabates, 2008). According to the United Nations definition, poverty is a lack of basic access to, or means for, sustaining livelihoods, including the inability to access food, healthcare, and education, or the means of doing so, such as the opportunity to develop skills for satisfying essential human necessities.

Absolute poverty or destitution refers to the deprivation of basic human needs, which commonly includes food, water, sanitation, clothing, shelter, healthcare and education. Relative poverty is defined contextually as economic inequality in the location or society in which people live (Instituto Nacional de Estadística, 2009). Poverty usually creates insecurity, powerlessness and increased susceptibility to changes in environmental conditions and resulting human threats, including diseases, natural disasters, exclusion and violence (Gordon, 2005).

Poverty is the result of historical political processes and environmental factors that combine to generate and reproduce it. Alongside the existing environmental threats, such as natural disasters and environmental degradation, two key processes have been put forward to explain under-development and, by extension, poverty; the effects of colonialism and the implications of governance and political institutions.

The term colonialism refers to the political, social, economic and cultural domination of an area by a foreign power for an extended period of time. Colonialism has traditionally served as a policy of expansion of power and control over weaker nations and regions.

During the colonial years, colonial powers encouraged the exploitative extraction of natural resources in colonies, introduced slavery and the slave-trade, confiscated lands, exercised violence against native populations, and deprived local populations of their insoluble rights including those of freedom and self-governance, thereby consolidating relations of dependence between the locals and the colonial rulers. In most cases, the process of decolonisation has resulted in the emergence of corrupt authoritarian regimes ruling over a predominantly uneducated rural population lacking the necessary skills to respond effectively to growing technological advancements and competitive pressures.

This has ultimately prevented poor states from introducing open and democratic political institutions that would ferment conditions of equality, investment, innovation and ultimately growth.

Instead, political elites opted for sustaining traditional dependencies in order to abuse power and resources for the benefit of the few. In an effort to shape political alliances, some states have ultimately accumulated and inherited huge public debts in order to maintain high spending policies.

A combination of excessive government spending, authoritarian political institutions and strict state control of the economy have, in many cases, resulted in the disastrous collapse of many African, Latin American and Eastern European economies.

Largely, poverty-stricken areas present some of the following characteristics, which either cause or contribute to the emergence and perpetuation of poverty: lack of infrastructure, lack of education, over-reliance on agriculture, vulnerability to environmental disasters, absence of open political institutions, lack of transparency and lack of political stability, environmental degradation, and war. Poverty is measured by the capacity of an individual's income to sustain a secure livelihood.

The number of people who live with less than a \$1 a day has decreased overall in the period from 1987 to 1998 with the exception of Europe and Latin America. However, 78.2 million (approx. 15.6% total share) in Latin America and 290 million (46.3%) in Sub-Saharan Africa live with less than \$1 a day. In the African continent, droughts, crops failure, water scarcity, heavy dependence on imported goods as well as widespread civil wars and the ill-management of humanitarian assistance add to the embedded structural deficiencies. Africa, a continent comprising about 10% of the world's population, produces only 1% of the total global GDP while more than 300 million Africans lie below the poverty line (approx. 40%). On top of this, 29 million people suffer from HIV/AIDS, 1/3 of children are currently malnourished, 40% of children have no access to education and about 1/6 of the population encounters war or other forms of serious conflict (Congo, Mali, Somalia, Libya, Sudan, Nigeria, Chad, Cameroon).

PERCENT OF THE POPULATION THAT LIVES ON LESS THAN \$1.25 A DAY

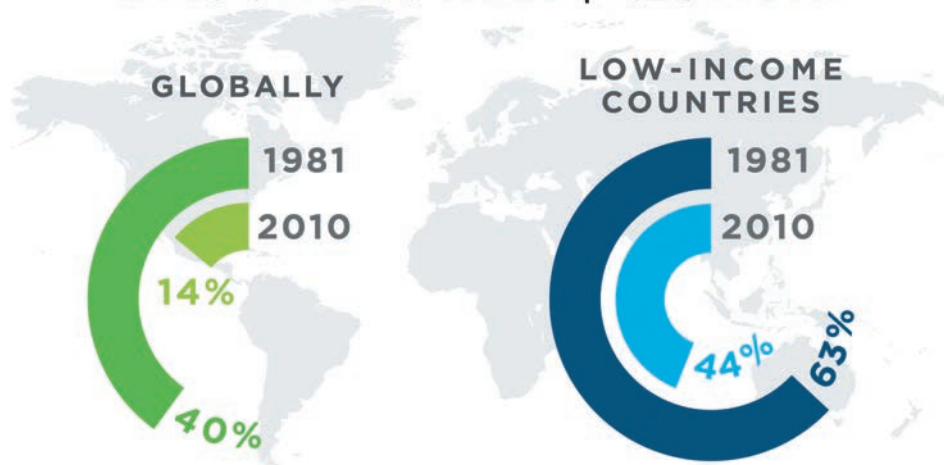


Figure 3.1: Percentage of population living on less than \$1.25 per day (Source: Public Health Watch <https://publichealth-watch.files.wordpress.com/2015/09/poverty-facts-14.png>)



Absolute poverty

Absolute poverty refers to a set-standard which is consistent over time and between countries. First introduced in 1990, the dollar-a-day poverty line measured absolute poverty by the standards of the world's poorest countries. The term "absolute poverty" is usually synonymous with "extreme poverty". As such, it is usually related to malnutrition, high levels of illiteracy, widespread disease including pandemics, high infant mortality, and low life expectancy (Sachs, 2005). In 1990, the World Bank anchored a worldwide average absolute poverty line at \$1 per day. This was revised in 1993, and through 2005, absolute poverty was \$1.08 a day for all countries on a purchase power parity basis¹. In 2005, the World Bank raised the measure for global poverty line to \$1.25 per day to reflect the observed higher costs of living (Ravallion, Shaohua and Sangraula, 2008). Another revision occurred in 2015, when the new global poverty line of \$1.90 per day was announced (World Bank 2015). Defining absolute poverty has always attracted criticism due to the existing price variations worldwide in relation to the amount of wealth required for survival that was naturally dissimilar in different places and time periods.

In the United States, for example, the absolute poverty line was US\$15.15 per day in 2010 (US\$22,000 per year for a family of four), while in India it was US\$1.00 per day and in China the absolute poverty line was US\$0.55 per day, each on PPP basis in 2010. These different poverty lines make data comparison between each nation's official reports qualitatively difficult. Some scholars argue that the World Bank method sets the bar too high, others argue it is low. Still others suggest that using a poverty line is misleading as it measures everyone below the poverty line the same, when in reality someone living on \$1.2 per day is in a different state of poverty than someone living on \$0.2 per day. In other words, the depth and intensity of poverty varies across the world and across regional populations, and consequently a \$1.25 per day poverty line and head counts are inadequate measures (Sen, 1976).

As a result, countries have developed their own National Poverty Lines. The National Poverty Line is defined by setting a minimum disposable income required to support basic needs. The good news is that the global proportion of extreme economic poverty fell from 28% in 1990 to 21% in 2001. Indicatively, South East Asia has shown signs of drastic poverty reduction (Shaohua and Ravallion, 2004). Similarly, in the early 1990s, poverty rates increased in Central and Eastern Europe due to the collapse of socialist regimes, although in subsequent years, per capita incomes have recovered, and the poverty rate has dropped from 31.4% of the population to 19.6% ('Study Finds Poverty Deepening in Former Communist Countries' *The New York Times* 12 October 2000). Yet the problem of poverty has remained critical in these areas. On the other hand, the bad news is that areas such as Sub-Saharan Africa remain extremely vulnerable to poverty pressures. In Sub-Saharan Africa poverty has gone up from 41% in 1981 to 46% in 2001 which, combined with the growing population, increased the number of people living in extreme poverty from 231 million to 318 million ('Birth rates must be curbed to win war on global poverty' *The Independent* 31 January 2007).

According to a 2008 survey by Chen and Ravallion, about 1.76 billion people in the developing world live above \$1.25 per day in contrast to 1.9 billion people who lived *below* \$1.25 per day in 1981 (on inflation adjusted basis). Yet assumptions are usually problematic due to the fact that the world's population has increased over the intervening 25 years and the fact of inequivalent development and the differing patterns of poverty concentration across the world.

¹A dollar a day, in nations that do not use the U.S. dollar as currency, does not translate to living a day on the equivalent amount of local currency as determined by the exchange rate. Rather, it is determined by the purchasing power parity rate, which would look at how much local currency is needed to buy the same things that a dollar could buy in the United States.

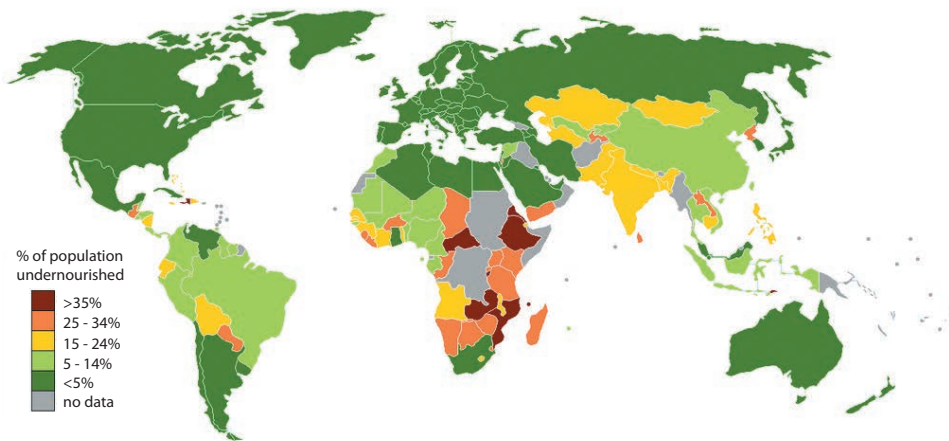


Figure 3.2: Proportion of the world population in extreme poverty 1981-2000 (Source: United Nations World Food Programme's interactive 'hunger map': <http://cdn.wfp.org/hungermap/>)

Nonetheless, human development indicators have been steadily improving. By 2005, life expectancy has greatly increased in the developing world, child mortality has decreased in every developing region of the world and the proportion of the world's population living in countries where per-capita food supplies is less than 2,200 calories (9,200 kilojoules) per day has decreased from 56% in the mid-1960s to below 10% by the 1990s. Similar trends can be observed for literacy, access to clean water and electricity, and basic consumer items (Kenny, 2005).

Relative poverty



Yet another increasingly pressing problem is poverty in its relative form. Relative poverty usually includes low income sustenance and the inability to acquire basic goods and services necessary for a dignified survival. Such relative forms of poverty usually come along with equally low levels of education, an abrupt fall of a previously fulfilling standard of living, inadequate physical security, and insufficient capacity or prospects to improve the standard of living. The concept of relative poverty is, however, associated to comparative and contextual social norms and perceptions of a 'dignified living'. Interestingly, in 1776, Adam Smith in the *Wealth of Nations* argued that poverty is the inability to afford the "necessaries", i.e. 'not only the commodities which are indispensably necessary for the support of life, but whatever the custom of the country renders it indecent for creditable people, even of the lowest order, to be without.'² More precisely, relative poverty reflects better the cost of social inclusion and equality of opportunity in a specific time and space (Bradshaw et al., 2012). As such the question of poverty is centred not so much on the effects of poverty in any absolute form but on the effects of the contrast in income inequality, daily perceived, between the lives of people belonging to different income groups. For practical purposes, the problem of poverty in the industrialised nations today is a problem of relative poverty. Thus, relative poverty is probably a more useful measure for ascertaining poverty rates within and between nations in order to identify contextual variations between severe and relative forms of poverty (OECD, 2008).

²See: Smith, Adam (1904). *An Enquiry into the Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations* 5(22) London: Methuen and Co Ltd.



Poverty: Causes and Effects

The puzzling problem with poverty is the observed fact that effects and characteristics of poverty may also be causes, thus creating a 'poverty cycle' operating across multiple levels, individual, local, national, and global. Generally, poverty-stricken areas present some or a combined set of the following effectual characteristics: i) existence of spreadable diseases; ii) hunger and malnutrition; iii) lack of access to education; iv) inadequate sanitation and water supply; v) homelessness and; vi) endemic violence.



Diseases

For many environmental and social reasons, including malnutrition, crowded living and working conditions, lack of access to medical treatment and prevention (e.g. vaccination), or inadequate sanitation, the poor are more likely to be exposed to infectious diseases ('Health and Poverty'. *UNFPA State of World Population 2002*. United Nations Population Fund). The persistence of spreadable diseases in several regions is generally regarded as a result of poverty and poor conditions of living, though its accumulative impact on societies has rendered disease-stricken societies particularly non-conducive to growth. The spread of diseases is therefore not only the result of poverty, but it has over time become a major obstacle to development and a cause of under-development in itself. Deaths attributed to infectious diseases such as HIV, malaria, and tuberculosis, as well as deaths associated with diseases of malnutrition are still present in Sub-Saharan Africa (the Sahel), and in specific areas of South East Asia and Latin America. Developing countries account for 95% of the global AIDS prevalence and 98% of active tuberculosis infections (WHO/WPRO-Poverty Issues Dominate RCM 'HIV/AIDS and Poverty'. *UNFPA State of World Population 2002*. United Nations Population Fund). Furthermore, 90% of malaria deaths occur in Sub-Saharan Africa (ibid). Interestingly, infectious diseases such as malaria, tuberculosis and gastroenteritis, can perpetuate poverty by discouraging investments, slowing down productivity levels, causing a potential shrinking of labour force and encouraging immigration and population displacement, sometimes leading to the abandonment of entire areas.

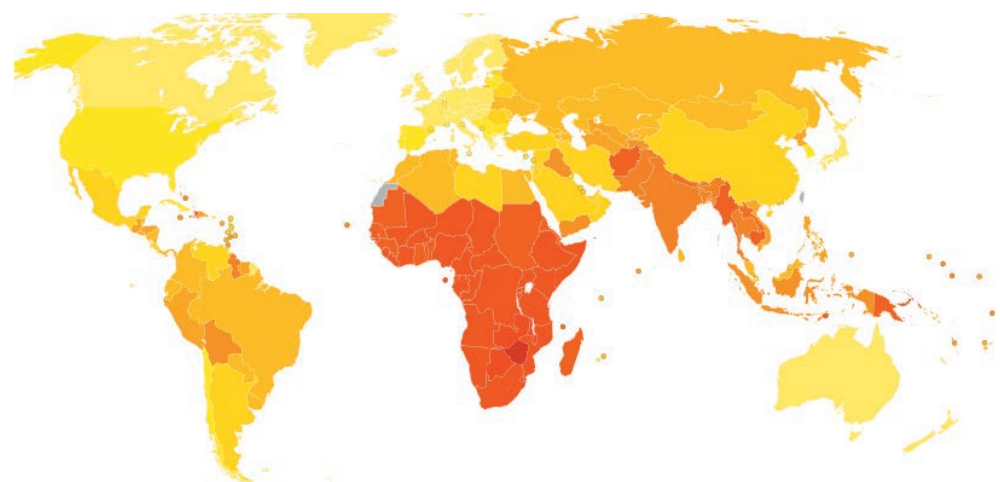


Figure 3.3: Disability-adjusted life year for infectious and parasitic diseases per 100,000 inhabitants in 2004. (Source: Death and DALY estimates for 2004 by cause for WHO Member States. See: http://www.who.int/healthinfo/global_burden_disease/estimates_country/en/)



Malnutrition

According to the Save the Children 2012 report, one in four of the world's children are still chronically malnourished. (Save the Children, 2012). Indicatively, in 2006, more than 36 million died of hunger or diseases due to deficiencies in micronutrients. On average, six million children die of hunger every year ('U.N. chief: Hunger kills 17,000 kids daily'. *CNN*. 17 November 2009). Malnutrition is the result of several combined or single factors. Mismanagement of food resources, incapacity to respond effectively against environmental downturns, and food pricing are common reasons for the perpetuation of malnutrition. Poor households and those on the verge of poverty can be particularly vulnerable to increases in food prices. ('The cost of food: Facts and figures'. *BBC News*. 16 October 2008). Threats to the supply of food can be caused by changes in the environment or periodic environmental downturns such as extended drought seasons. (Sample, Ian. 'Global food crisis looms as climate change and population growth strip fertile land'. *The Guardian*. 31 August 2007). Intensive farming often leads to a vicious cycle of exhaustion of soil fertility and decline of agricultural yields.

Malnutrition is related to infectious diseases operating cyclically. Nutritional deficiencies lower the strength of the immune system affecting the body's ability to resist infections. For example, malnutrition increases susceptibility to HIV infections by interfering with the immune system. Depletion of macronutrients and micronutrients promotes viral replication that contributes to greater risks of HIV transmission from mother-to-child as well as those through sexual transmission. (Friis and Michaelsen, 1998: 157-63). Similarly, anaemia, a decrease in the number of red blood cells, increases viral shedding in the birth canal, which also increases risk of mother-to-child transmission (John et al., 1997). Without these vital nutrients, the body lacks the defense mechanisms to resist infections. Malnutrition can be broadly separated into 'extreme' and 'relative' forms.

Extreme malnutrition disproportionately affects populations in Sub-Saharan Africa. Over 35% of children under the age of 5 in Sub-Saharan Africa show physical signs of malnutrition (Piwoz, Ellen and Preble, 2001). According to the Global Hunger Index, Sub-Saharan Africa had the highest child malnutrition rate of the world's regions over the 2001-2006 period (FAO, 2010). On the other hand, relative malnutrition is also evident in the developed world. For example, in the United States, 11.1% of households struggle with food insecurity. Food insecurity refers to the lack of access to quality food for a healthy lifestyle. By the same account, according to the Food and Agriculture Organisation of the United Nations, 10% of the population in Latin America and the Caribbean are affected by hunger and malnutrition (Chilton, 2009).

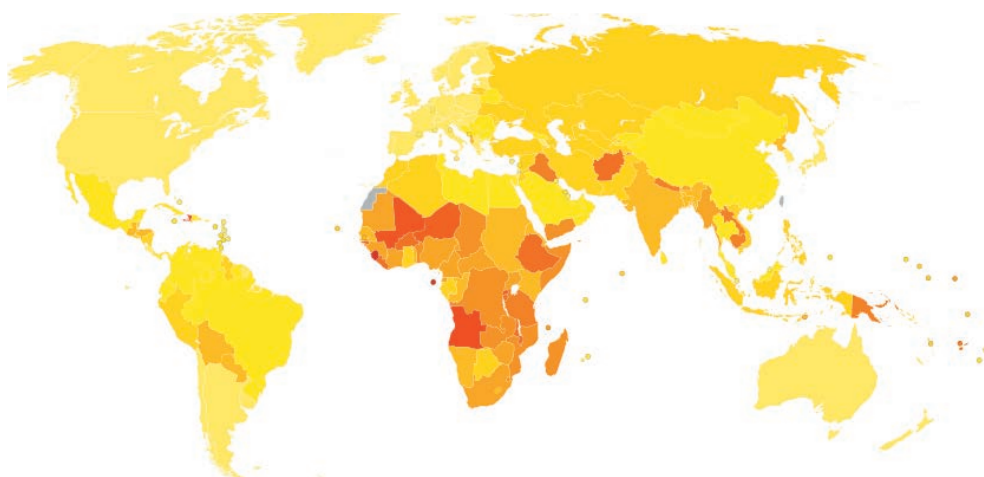


Figure 3.4: Nutritional deficiencies per 100,000 inhabitants in 2004. Nutritional deficiencies included: protein-energy malnutrition, iodine deficiency, vitamin A deficiency, and iron deficiency anaemia. No data (Source: *Death and DALY estimates for 2004 by cause for WHO Member States*. See: http://www.who.int/healthinfo/global_burden_disease/estimates_country/en/)



Education

Research has found that there is a high risk of educational underachievement for children coming from low-income housing circumstances. Schools in poverty-stricken areas have conditions that hinder children from learning in a safe environment. For children with low resources, the risk factors are similar to others such as juvenile delinquency rates, higher levels of teenage pregnancy, and the economic dependency upon their low income parent or parents (Garbarino, Dubrow, Kostelny and Pardo, 1992). Families and society who input low levels of investment in the education and development of less fortunate children end up with less favourable results for the children who see a life of parental employment reduction and low wages. Therefore, it is safe to state that children who live at or below the poverty level will have far less success educationally than children who live above the poverty line. Additionally, poor children are much more likely to suffer from hunger, fatigue, irritability, headaches, ear infections, flu and colds. These illnesses could potentially restrict a child or student's focus and concentration.

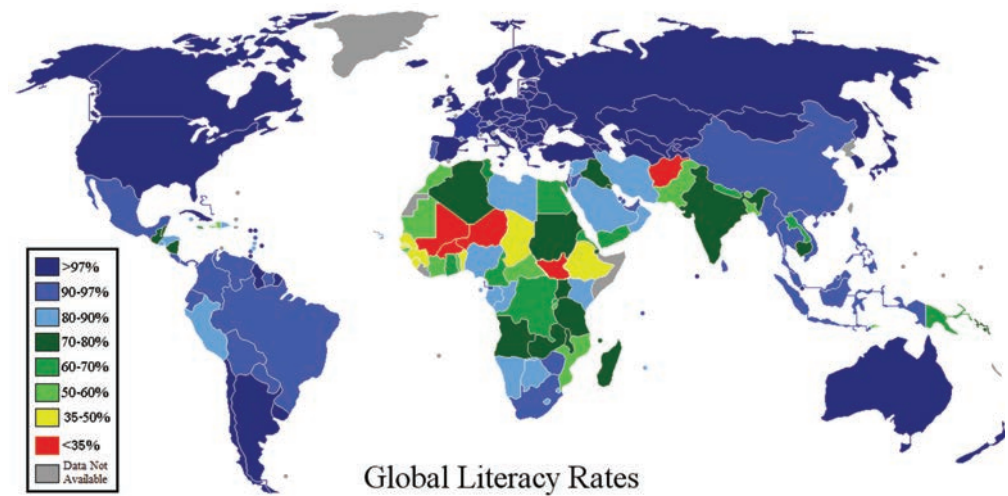


Figure 3.5: World Map of Global Literacy Rates (Source: 2013 UN Human Development Report)



Water and sanitation

Much of the world's poorest population is unconnected to a proper water and electricity network. Instead, the poor buy water from water vendors for about five to 16 times the metered price (Kjellen and McGranahan, 2006). Similarly, the poorest fifth receive 0.1% of the world's lighting but pay a fifth of total spending on light, accounting for 25% to 30% of their income (Pope, 2012). As a consequence of the difficulties in coping with electricity expenses, indoor air pollution from burning fuels kills 2 million, with almost half the deaths from pneumonia in children under 5 (ibid).

Each year, many children and adults die as a result of a lack of access to clean drinking water and poor sanitation. Many combinable diseases and many of the poverty-related diseases spread as a result of inadequate access to clean drinking water. According to UNICEF, 3,000 children die every day worldwide due to contaminated drinking water and poor sanitation. Although the Millennium Development Goal (MDG) of halving the number of people who did not have access to clean water by 2015, was reached five years ahead of schedule in 2010, there are still 783 million people who rely on unimproved water sources (ibid).

In 2010 the United Nations declared access to clean water a fundamental human right, integral to the achievement of other rights. This made it enforceable and justifiable to permit governments to ensure their populations access to clean water (Singh, Wickenberg, Åström and Hydén, 2012). Last, but not least, contaminated water and inadequate sanitation is related to diseases of poverty such as malaria, parasitic diseases and schistosomiasis (UNICEF, 2005).

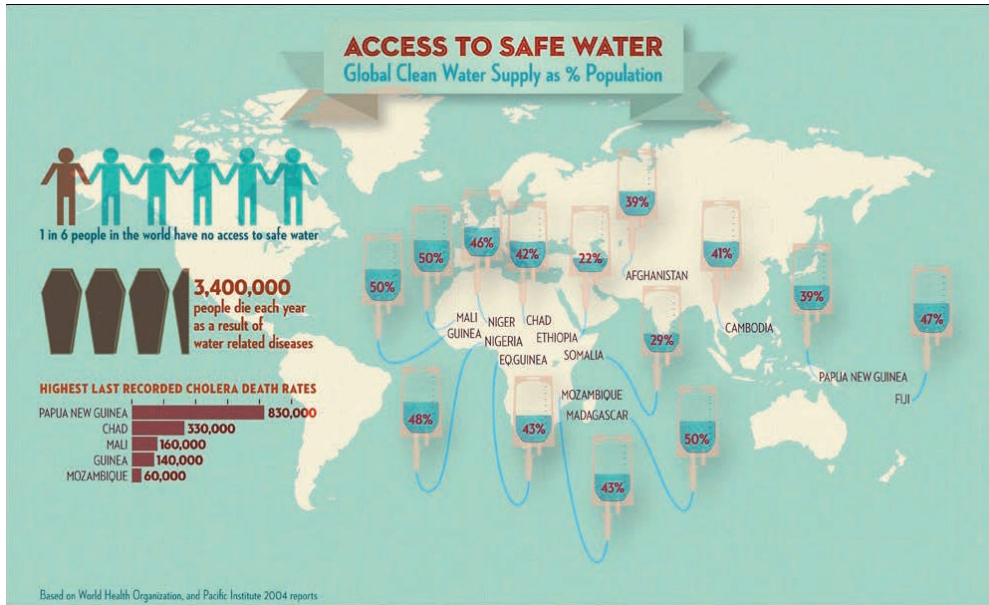


Figure 3.6:
Access to safe water:
Global clean water supply by countries where less than 50 percent of the population have access to safe supplies. (Source: WHO and Pacific Institute 2004 Reports)

Shelter and accommodation



Poverty increases the risk of homelessness (see other resources: USA Today, 2007). Slum-dwellers, who make up a third of the world's urban population, live in poverty no better, if not worse, than rural people, who are the traditional focus of the poverty in the developing world, according to a report by the United Nations (see other resources: BBC News, 2006). Moreover, there are over 100 million street children worldwide. Most of the children living in institutions around the world have a surviving parent or close relative, and they most commonly entered orphanages because of poverty.

Eroding work opportunities, decline in public assistance, loss of health benefits, and a lack of affordable housing lead to the loss of shelter for many impoverished people in the world today. Besides the loss of housing, people without shelter are more prone to illness because of their living conditions. One in three children in developing countries lack shelter while one in five don't have access to safe water and one in seven have no access to health services.



Violence

Violence is a common characteristic in poverty-stricken areas across the globe. Though violence can have numerous and often different outbreak causes, it is nonetheless an all too common structural feature in the developing world. The causes of violence are usually a synthesis of factors ranging from antagonistic greed to perceptions of deprivation, often manipulated by political elites and ethnic entrepreneurs. Hence, conflicts are shaped by antagonisms for power and resources along ethno-religious lines driven by real or perceived insecurities. This is the form of violence that gives rise to ethnic conflict and civil war. Yet there are other forms of violence that are evidently apparent and thriving in poverty stricken areas. Human trafficking, forced prostitution, child labour are common among social and horizontal forms of violence, cutting across the social spectrum of a society. According to experts, many women become victims of trafficking, the most common form of which is prostitution, as a means of survival and economic desperation (see other resources: Voice of America, 2009).

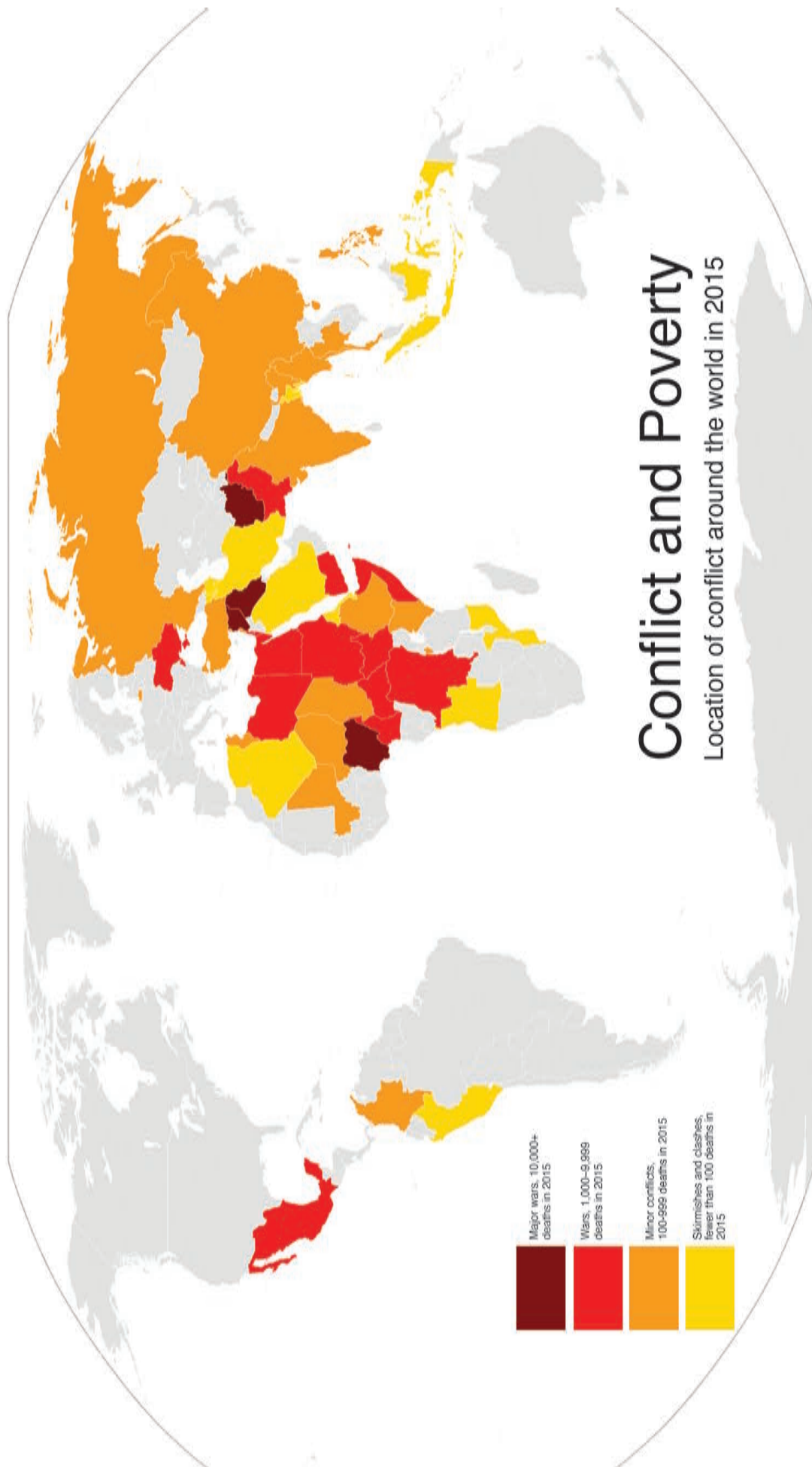
Deterioration of living conditions can often compel children to abandon school in order to contribute to the family income, putting them at risk of being exploited and exposing them to serious health hazards (see other resources: Global Post, 2009). Admittedly, wars constitute both a cause and a symptom of poverty and under-development. In fact, 8 out of 10 of the poorest countries suffer from some kind of warfare or generalised violence. These wars result in considerable human losses and create further economic and social damage. Civil wars have periodically increased immediately after the 1950s. Following the collapse of Communism, a drastic increase was noted in global war trends within formerly communist states. Conflicts in developing and poverty-stricken states have numerous dimensions; including ethnic, religious and cultural divisions and affiliations, yet the underlying motives are primarily political and economic.

The aetiology of conflict is therefore primarily associated with political, economic and social disparities, economic stagnation, bad governance, unemployment, environmental degradation, and resources and profiteering. Most contemporary conflicts take place in the poorest countries of the world. About 56% of countries with a low Human Development Index experience conflict whereas 33% of countries with medium HDI and only 2% of countries with high HDI experience condition of conflict and war.

Although poverty alone is not a sole purpose of conflict, a combination of multiple factors and their socially corrosive effects create conditions which are conducive to violence and war. Relative forms of poverty do play their part in situations where political institutions are weak and incapable to canalise tensions through peaceful means, and/or in a context where portions of a population are denied access to the means of improving their sustenance on grounds of ethnicity, tribe or religion. In deeply divided societies, the perceived comparative advantage of one community over another can, in combination with the existence of environmental opportunities, encourage the less privileged segment of a society to respond violently to the perceived injustice.

Most frequently, low income, questions of legitimacy and lack of the rule of law set the stage for the emergence of violence under certain conditions. Moreover, processes of war provide opportunities and short solutions for profit and power. War-recruitment creates opportunities for the young and unemployed, and creates conditions for the emergence and sustenance of a war economy including looting, extortion and arms trade.

Figure 3.7: Conflict and Poverty: Location of conflict around the world in 2015 (Source: Wikimedia Commons)





Reducing Poverty

Policies to address the causes and ameliorate the effects of poverty have numerous dimensions. Poverty reduction strategies are broadly divided into supply and income-oriented policies. Some strategies bring access to various basic needs, such as fertiliser or healthcare, others focus on increasing incomes, by bringing better access to employment and urban markets. First, emphasis is on the utilisation of 'human capital'. Developing the capacities of local populations through education and transferable skills, as well as assisting in the development of an accessible healthcare system are essential for reducing human vulnerability to conditions of poverty.

Second, employment requires the utilisation and management of natural resources or indigenous crops, such as water resources, minerals extraction, wood, coffee, cocoa, sugar cane etc. Investments for improving the means of production, transportation and communication in combination with a skilled labour force can create employment opportunities capable of breaking the vicious circle of under-development. Third, is access to financial capital. A reliable banking sector with a capacity to offer low interest loans to individuals who wish to undertake business endeavours should operate alongside the granting of structural-entrepreneurial assistance.

Fourth, the gradual opening up of political institutions towards forms of participatory democracy with increased accountability and transparency, and the strengthening of the rule of law are fundamental pillars for ensuring the sustainability of effort in the reduction of poverty. In a nutshell, the idea is to provide vulnerable populations with the means and capacities to resist and respond to conditions of poverty effectively. Preserving and increasing their capacities without causing long-term harm to the environment and its natural resources is the primary goal.



Economic growth

Long-term economic growth is achieved through increases in capital (factors that increase productivity), both human and physical, and technology (Krugman and Wells, 2009). UN economists argue that good infrastructure, such as roads and information networks, helps market reforms to work. Technology and infrastructure helps bring economic freedom by making financial services accessible to the poor. Improving human capital, in the form of health is needed for economic growth. Nations do not necessarily need wealth to gain health. For example, promoting hand washing is one of the most cost effective health interventions and can reduce deaths from major childhood diseases of diarrhoea and pneumonia by half. Deworming children costs about 50 cents per child per year and reduces non-attendance from anaemia, illness and malnutrition and is only a twenty-fifth as expensive to increase school attendance as by constructing schools.

Economic growth offers the potential to alleviate poverty, as a result of a simultaneous increase in employment opportunities and increase labour productivity (Melamed, Hartwig and Grant, 2011). A study by researchers at the Overseas Development Institute (ODI) of 24 countries that experienced growth found that in 18 cases, poverty was alleviated (ibid). However, employment is no guarantee of escaping poverty, the International Labour Organisation (ILO) estimates that as many as 40% of workers are poor, not earning enough to keep their families above the \$2 a day poverty line.

For instance, in India most of the chronically poor are wage earners in formal employment, because their jobs are insecure and low paid and offer no chance to accumulate wealth to avoid risks. Increases in employment without increases in productivity lead to a rise in the number of 'working poor', which is why some experts are now promoting the creation of 'quality and not quantity' in labour market policies (ibid). Furthermore, productivity increases do not always lead to increased wages, as can be seen in the US, where the gap between productivity and wages has been rising since the 1980s. The services sector is most effective at translating productivity growth into employment growth. Agriculture provides a safety net for jobs and an economic buffer when other sectors are struggling (ibid). This study suggests a more nuanced understanding of economic growth and quality of life and poverty alleviation.

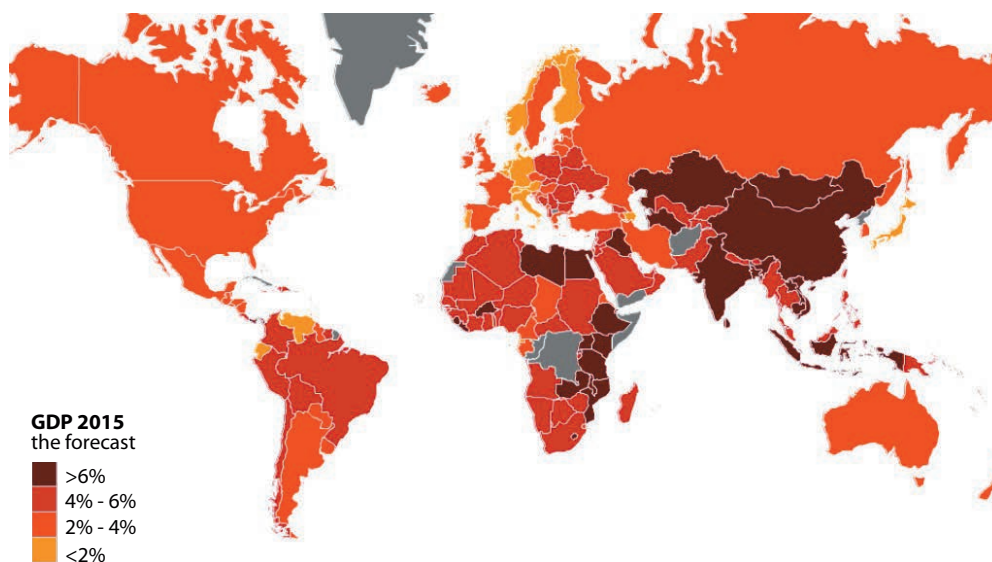


Figure 3.8: Fastest Growing Economies
(Source: GDP World Map: <http://www.targetmap.com/viewer.aspx?reportId=4288>)

A 2011 World Bank research article, 'A Comparative Perspective on Poverty Reduction in Brazil, China, and India,' looked at the three nations' strategies and their relative challenges and successes. During their reform periods, all three have reduced their poverty rates, but through a different mix of approaches. The report used a common poverty line of \$1.25 per person, per day, at purchasing parity power for consumption in 2005. Using that metric and evaluating the period between 1981 and 2005, the poverty rate in China dropped from 84% to 16%; India from 60% to 42%; and Brazil from 17% to 8%. The report sketches an overall scorecard of the countries on the two basic dimensions of pro-poor growth and pro-poor policy intervention: China clearly scores well on the pro-poor growth side of the card, but neither Brazil nor India do; in Brazil's case for lack of growth and in India's case for lack of poverty-reducing growth. Brazil scores well on the social policies side, but China and India do not; in China's case progress has been slow in implementing new social policies more relevant to the new market economy (despite historical advantages in this area, inherited from the past regime) and in India's case the bigger problems are the extent of capture of the many existing policies by non-poor groups and the weak capabilities of the state for delivering better basic public services. (ibid)



Development aid

Some people disagree with aid when looking at where the development aid money from NGOs and other funding is going. Arguments suggest that the NGO development aid should be used for prevention and determining root causes rather than short term relief and treatment. (Birn and Solórzano, 1999). Some think tanks and NGOs have argued that Western monetary aid often only serves to increase poverty and social inequality, either because it is conditioned with the implementation of harmful economic policies in the recipient countries (Regan, 2003) or because it is tied with the importing of products from the donor country over cheaper alternatives. A major proportion of aid from donor nations is tied, mandating that a receiving nation buy products originating only from the donor country.

This can be harmful economically. Sometimes foreign aid is seen to be serving the interests of the donor more than the recipient, and critics also argue that some of the foreign aid is stolen by corrupt governments and officials, and that higher aid levels erode the quality of governance. Policy becomes much more oriented toward what will get more aid money than it does towards meeting the needs of the people (Stossel and McMenamin, 2006). Problems with the aid system and not aid itself are that the aid is excessively directed towards the salaries of consultants from donor countries, the aid is not spread properly, neglecting vital, less publicised area such as agriculture, and the aid is not properly coordinated among donors, leading to a plethora of disconnected projects rather than unified strategies. Supporters of aid argue that these problems may be solved with better auditing of how the aid is used. Aid from non-governmental organisations may be more effective than governmental aid; this may be because it is better at reaching the poor and better controlled at the grassroots level.



Empowerment of women

The empowerment of women has recently become a significant area of discussion with respect to development and economics, however it is often regarded as a topic that only addresses and primarily deals with gender inequality. Because women and men experience poverty differently, they hold dissimilar poverty reduction priorities and are affected differently by development interventions and poverty reduction strategies (Zuckerman, 2002). In response to the socialised phenomenon known as the 'feminisation of poverty', policies aimed to reduce poverty have begun to address poor women separately from poor men.

Women's economic empowerment, or ensuring that women and men have equal opportunities to generate and manage income, is an important step to enhancing their development within the household and in society (UNICEF, 2007). Additionally, women play an important economic role in addressing poverty experienced by children. By increasing female participation in the labour force, women are able to contribute more effectively to economic growth and income distribution since having a source of income elevates their financial and social status.

However, women's entry into the paid labour force does not necessarily equate to reduction of poverty; the creation of decent employment opportunities and movement of women from the informal work sector to the formal labour market are key to poverty reduction (Chen et al., 2005).

Political participation is supported by organisations such as IFAD as one pillar of gender equality and women's empowerment (IFAD, 2007). Sustainable economic growth requires poor people to have influence on the decisions that affect their lives; specifically strengthening women's voices in the political process builds social independence and greater consideration of gender issues in policy. In order to promote women's political empowerment, the United Nations Development Programme advocated for several efforts: increase women in public office; strengthen advocacy ability of women's organisations; ensure fair legal protection; and provide equivalent health and education. Fair political representation and participation enable women to lobby for more female-specific poverty reduction policies and programs.

Good governance



Efficient institutions that are not corrupt and obey the rule of law make and enforce good laws that provide security to property and businesses. Efficient and fair governments would work to invest in the long-term interests of the nation rather than plunder resources through corruption (Krugman and Wells, 2009). Researchers at UC Berkeley developed what they called a 'Weberianess scale' which measures aspects of bureaucracies and governments which Max Weber described as most important for rational-legal and efficient government over 100 years ago. Comparative research has found that the scale is correlated with higher rates of economic development (Evans and Rauch, 1999). With their related concept of good governance, World Bank researchers have found much the same: data from 150 nations have shown several measures of good governance (such as accountability, effectiveness, rule of law, low corruption) to be related to higher rates of economic development. Funds from aid and natural resources are often diverted into private hands and then sent to banks overseas as a result of graft. If Western banks rejected stolen money, says a report by Global Witness, ordinary people would benefit 'in a way that aid flows will never achieve' (see other resources: The Economist, 2009). The report asked for more regulation of banks as they have proved capable of stanching the flow of funds linked to terrorism, money-laundering or tax evasion. Some, like Thomas Pogge, call for a global organisation that can manage some form of Global Resources Dividend, which could evolve in complexity with time.

Examples of good governance leading to economic development and poverty reduction include Thailand, Taiwan, Malaysia, South Korea, and Vietnam, which tend to have a strong government, called a hard state or development state. These hard states have the will and authority to create and maintain policies that lead to long-term development that helps all their citizens, not just the wealthy. Multinational corporations are regulated so that they follow reasonable standards for pay and labour conditions, pay reasonable taxes to help develop the country, and keep some of the profits in the country, reinvesting them to provide further development. The United Nations Development Program published a report in April 2000 which focused on good governance in poor countries as a key to economic development and overcoming the selfish interests of wealthy elites often behind state actions in developing nations. The report concludes that 'without good governance, reliance on trickle-down economic development and a host of other strategies will not work' (United Nations, 2000). Despite the promise of such research several questions remain, such as where good governance comes from and how it can be achieved. Broad historical forces have shaped the likelihood of good governance. Historical factors, especially the experiences of colonialism for each country, have intervened to make a strong state and/or good governance less likely for some countries, especially in Africa. Another important factor that has been found to affect the quality of institutions and governance was the pattern of colonisation (how it took place) and even the identity of the colonising power. International agencies may be able to promote good governance through various policies of intervention in developing nations as indicated in a few African countries, but comparative analysis suggests it may be much more difficult to achieve in most poor nations around the world (Kerbo, 2006).



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TEACHING TOOLS 3

Learning Resources

<http://www.worldbank.org/en/topic/isp>

The World Bank Group site on the concept of inequality and its links to poverty and to socio-economic performance, and pro-poor growth specifically.

www.wider.unu.edu/

Contains United Nations University–World Institute for Development Economics Research Database on world income inequality.

www.undp.org

Site of the United Nations Human Development Programme contains links to its annual Human Development Report.

TEACHING TOOL 3.1

Critical Assessments



Short assessments serve as training exercises promoting informed self-expression and critical thinking among students. Students learn how to develop and put forward compact answers to complex questions based on the reading material. Depending on class time restrictions, instructors can ask students to provide a short one paragraph text answering one or more of the questions. Instructors should divide students into small groups of about 4-5 students each and allow them about 20 minutes to come up with an informed and convincing answer to each question. Student groups present the answers in class. Instructors should encourage peer-scrutiny among students.

Q1: Take a look at the latest version of the HDI on the website of the UNDP. Find its definitions of GDP and PPP. What do you think some of the problems might be in successfully measuring poverty?

Q2: Write a short definition – a maximum of five sentences – of what you think the objectives of development should be and how they can be achieved.

Q3: Consider the underlying political factors of a famine in a developing country.

TEACHING TOOL 3.2

Public Debate

Is world poverty the cause or the consequence of under-development?

Classroom debates are exercises designed to allow you to strengthen your skills in the areas of leadership, interpersonal influence, teambuilding, group problem solving, and oral presentation. Debate topics and position statements are outlined further along in this Teaching Tool. Groups may sign up on a **first come, first served basis**. Note that all groups must have signed up for the debate by the date denoted in the class schedule. All group members are expected to participate in the research, development, and presentation of debate positions. **Preparation will require substantial library research**. Each participating member will receive the same group grade.



Debate schedule

- 6 minute Position Presentation – (Cause)
- 6 minute Position Presentation – (Consequence)
- 3 minute Work Period
- 4 minute Rebuttal - (Cause)
- 4 minute Rebuttal - (Consequence)
- 3 minute Work Period
- 2 minute Response - (Cause)
- 2 minute Response - (Consequence)
- 1 minute Work Period
- 2 minute Position Summary - (Cause) or (Consequence)
- 2 minute Position Summary - (Cause) or (Consequence)
- 5 minute Tallying of Ballots/Announcement of Winner



Debate procedure

The debate will take the form of timed individual and/or group presentations and responses separated by timed group work periods. The rules applied may deviate from the formal rules of debating. When questions arise, the judgment of the instructor will provide the definitive ruling.

Prior to the beginning of the class period, both teams are to position their desks facing each other at the front of the room. Each team is to write its team name, debate position, and debate position statement on the blackboard behind their desks.

Team members may speak either from their desks or from the podium, as they desire. Audiovisuals may be used at any time, including, but not limited to, handouts, flipcharts, transparencies, slides, audio and videotapes, etc. While a team is not required to use all of the time allocated to each debate component, speakers **must stop immediately** when the allocated time runs out. Team members are prohibited from speaking to the audience or opposing team except at the times specifically allocated to them. Thus, **there can be no immediate, reciprocal interchange of comments between the teams**. The sequence of the position summaries will be determined by a random procedure at the conclusion of the final work period. Note that **no new information may be introduced during the summary**. Doing so may result in disqualification of the offending group. If either team feels that their opponents are introducing new information during the summary, **they may challenge them immediately** and request a ruling from the instructor.

Selection of winner(s) and allocation of points

Debate 'Winners' will be selected in two ways, as follows:



Audience Vote:

Class members in the audience will vote by secret ballot for a debate winner. **Votes are to be based upon presentation quality only** and not upon personal agreement or disagreement with the position espoused. At the conclusion of each component of the debate, class members will be asked to assign a point rating along with explanatory comments to each team for their performance during that component. When the debate is over, the point ratings will be summed. Whichever team has the higher sum will be the winner on that ballot. After all ballots are collected, the number of votes for each team will be announced. Whichever team has more votes will be the winner, and the team will receive 10 bonus points in addition to the 30 for basic preparation. In the event of a tie, the instructor's vote will decide the winner.

Instructors' Vote:

The instructor will also evaluate both teams according to the procedures and criteria, and select his choice for the winner. The team of his choice will receive 10 bonus points. Thus, depending upon the nature of the vote split, the 'Winner(s)' may receive 10 or 20 bonus points, for a total of either 40 or 50 points for the debate.

The instructor will also evaluate both teams according to the procedures and criteria, and select his choice for the winner. The team of his choice will receive 10 bonus points. Thus, depending upon the nature of the vote split, the 'Winner(s)' may receive 10 or 20 bonus points, for a total of either 40 or 50 points for the debate.

Review of ballots

Each debating team will have the opportunity to take home all of the ballots overnight for review and feedback on their performance. If necessary, the team to take them first will be determined by the flip of a coin. Once both teams have reviewed them, they are to be returned to the instructor. (see sample Debate Ballot)

Table 3.1: Debate Ballot

DEBATE BALLOT

Debate _____
 Class _____
 Name of Evaluator _____
 Date _____

Rating Scale 1=Poor 2=Fair 3=Average 4=Good 5=Excellent

Group A

Group B

6 Minute Position Presentation

Rating = <input style="width: 80%;" type="text"/> Comments:	Rating = <input style="width: 80%;" type="text"/> Comments:
--	--

***** 5 Minute Work Period *****

4 Minute Rebuttal

Rating = <input style="width: 80%;" type="text"/> Comments:	Rating = <input style="width: 80%;" type="text"/> Comments:
--	--

***** 3 Minute Work Period *****

2 Minute Rebuttal

Rating = <input style="width: 80%;" type="text"/> Comments:	Rating = <input style="width: 80%;" type="text"/> Comments:
--	--

***** 1 Minute Work Period *****

2 Minute Rebuttal

Rating = <input style="width: 80%;" type="text"/> Comments:	Rating = <input style="width: 80%;" type="text"/> Comments:
--	--

Total Points / Rating []

Total Points / Rating []

CIRCLE WINNER

Group A

Group B

TEACHING TOOL 3.3

Poverty Conversation Questions

Description:



Conversation questions stimulate discussions on relevant thematic topics, encourage the expression of student views, and promote critical thinking on issues related to poverty and global inequality. Some preparation may be necessary and some questions may require teacher input. The aim is to get students talking, not just to answer yes or no to the questions. Bear in mind that there is no 'right' or 'wrong' answers. The idea is that questions are mere prompts/cues for meaningful communication and should not just be 'ticked off' in rapid succession.

These questions can be used in different ways.

Smaller class (1-12):

The whole class discusses the questions with the teacher one after another.

Large class: (more than 12)

Students discuss them in small groups and report back.

Students discuss them in pairs and report back.

Variation:

Students discuss their first question with one partner for a set time - say five minutes. Each pair starts with a different question. They then change partners and take a different question from another pair to discuss with this new partner. They keep swapping partners and questions until everybody has discussed every question with everybody else. Obviously this leads to some movement around the class - and the system may need to be modified for larger classes. At the end of the period students will have discussed the same question various times and, hopefully, will have something to say to the teacher on the subject in open class. Alternatively, they should be well primed for a homework writing assignment.

List of Questions

Set A: Causes of poverty

1. Is poverty relative? Would people who are considered poor in one society be considered rich in another?
2. Do you think it is possible to eradicate poverty in the world? In your country?
3. Do you think that it is a government's responsibility to provide welfare assistance or should it be the responsibility of charities? Why?
4. It is often said that the rich are growing richer and the poor are growing poorer. Do you agree? If so, why is it happening?
5. Do you think that globally eliminating poverty could be possible?
6. Which of the following factors do you think are most effective in the fight against poverty? Why/why not?
 - Debt relief
 - Development aid
 - Economic growth
 - Empowering women
 - Fair trade
 - Good governance
 - Import substitution and export industries
 - Land redistribution

Set B: Inequality

1. Why does economic inequality matter when there is still so much absolute poverty in the developing world?
2. Does either continued poverty or greatly increased global inequality increase the likelihood of violent conflict between countries in the developed and developing worlds?
3. What kinds of inequality matter most in the politics of developing countries and in the relations those countries have with the rest of the world?
4. What are the main social bases of inequality in developing countries and do these differ from those prevailing in the developed world?
5. Is clientelism best understood as a cause or a consequence of social and economic inequality?
6. What are the implications of marked social inequality for the functioning of democratic institutions?
7. Why is there greater social and economic inequality in some developing countries than in others?
8. Do poverty and inequality increase the likelihood of violent conflict within developing countries?
9. Is there a link between socio-economic inequality and the quality of governance in developing countries?
10. Compare the merits and limitations of different ways of measuring inequality.
11. Apart from moral considerations, what are the main arguments for reducing social and economic inequality in developing countries?
12. Is inequality within developing countries primarily attributable, as argued by Marxists, to the impact of capitalism?
13. How far and in what circumstances can democracy help to challenge inequality within developing countries?
14. Within contemporary developing societies what are the main sources and who are the main proponents of egalitarian discourse?
15. Should international bodies encourage measures in developing countries to reduce inequality, and if so which bodies in particular and what mechanisms of persuasion could they employ?

CHAPTER 4

Global Inequality: Drivers and Challenges

by: Alexander Apostolides

Inequality is intrinsically linked with poverty, and as such it has been a key issue in development education. The unequal distribution of income is an issue that is greatly emotive. As a result it is an ideal introductory subject to issues of global development, as the issue is both approachable and immediate to students of all ages.

Income inequality is ever present in all societies and across history. Even in the most egalitarian societies, there has always been differing levels of income; most modern societies seek to address this issue through government policies. Inequality in incomes is felt by all, and the correct response to disparity of income is part of public discourse regardless of nation or location: it is often considered that income inequality is created through processes of the global economic system that are not fair i.e. that those with the highest incomes can and do ensure that they continue to prosper. As a result, the problem of income inequality is gaining attention, as more and more organisations are pointing out that the difference of income and wealth of the rich relative to the rest is growing. Such concerns were at the forefront of protest movement such as the global "occupy" movement, where the motto 'we are the 99%' indicated that income inequality is becoming an issue that is a rallying call for protest and dissent, and it was felt that policy was dictated for the interests of the top 1% in terms of income.

And economists are fully aware that economic growth is not a zero-sum game, where a rich man's gain is necessarily a poor man's loss; however it is true that globalisation has accelerated inequality in incomes recently, and the correct policy response to this issue is controversial.

Inequality is not just an issue that affects developing nations but one of the most serious problems that new member states of the European Union are facing. In Table 4.1, we have placed the members of the European Union from the latest member (Croatia) to the founding members and next to them a measure of income inequality, the Gini coefficient of income. We have placed some developing nations in the bottom of the table. Developing countries in the bottom of Table 4.1 have far lower average income levels than EU states for comparative purposes. What we can see from Table 4.1 is that for some of the new EU member nations the inequality index is high. Thus in these states, there is a serious issue of income inequality between the rich and poorest in their societies, which is linked to the above average proportion of the population which lives in relative poverty in these nations.

In many of these new member states it is feared that the benefits of economic growth that arise through entering the European Union could lead to an even greater disparity of incomes, creating further unequal societies. This issue is not only a concern to new member states, but it is clear that for new member states such as Croatia and Bulgaria, income distribution is more unequal than nations suffering severely from poverty such as Mali in Sub-Saharan Africa, even though the average income is far higher than in Mali. As a result income inequality is an issue that affects and concerns Europe directly; however responses to the issue can only be global to be effective.



New EU Members		
Country	Date of Measurement	Gini Coefficient
Croatia	2008	33.6
Bulgaria	2010	34.2
Romania	2012	27.2
Malta	2009	24.7*
Cyprus	2009	29.0*
Estonia	2011	32.7
Latvia	2011	36.0
Lithuania	2011	32.6
Poland	2011	32.8
Czech Republic	2011	26.4
Slovakia	2011	26.6
Slovenia	2011	24.9
Hungary	2011	28.9
Austria	2011	28.2^

Established EU Members		
Country	Date of Measurement	Gini Coefficient
Sweden	2011	27.3^
Finland	2012	26.1^
Spain	2011	34.4
Portugal	2011	34.1^
Greece	2011	33.5^
Ireland	2010	32.1
United Kingdom	2011	38.0
Denmark	2010	26.9
Belgium	2010	26.4^
Netherlands	2012	27.8
Luxembourg	2012	30.7^
France	2011	30.9^
Italy	2010	35.5
Germany	2011	29.3^

Developing Nations		
Country	Date of Measurement	Gini Coefficient
Columbia	2012	53.5
Tanzania	2012	37.8
Albania	2012	29.0
Georgia	2012	41.4
Vietnam	2012	35.6
Mali	2011	33.0

Table 4.1: Gini Coefficient of member states of the European Union (0 is perfect equality, 100 total inequality). (Sources: main source, World Bank Gini Index (World Bank, 2014). Additional sources: OECD statistics, Income Distribution and Poverty (OECD, 2013), CIA Gini Index (CIA, 2013) *Cyprus and Malta only have CIA a Gini Index. ^Countries with these sign: the OECD Gini Index is used

The issue of income inequality allows the educator to take the national or regional issue of income inequality and transform it into a discussion about global inequality concerns. The global aspect of inequality is important as the causes and drivers of inequality are not bound by national borders. Thus although nations can find policies to relieve the growing inequality in incomes, the factors that initiate them are often outside their control. For educators this allows a link between local issues and global issues that is very useful for development education: local inequality concerns by students can be combined and projected in a broader global context and magnitude. Thus inequality is the ideal subject to introduce issues of global development and the world outside the European Union. Students can conceptualise their understanding along the increasing diversity of incomes between developed nations and the Global South through their own local concerns.

Global inequality is also interesting educationally as it is an issue in which there has been a resurgence in terms of its importance in economic development. This has not always been the case: for a long time development sciences saw income inequality as a symptom devoid of contextual meaning that could be resolved once economic growth raised global income levels in the poorest nations. As a consequence, economic planners did not assign importance to the disparity of incomes between the rich and poor in the developing nations after the Second World War. However the issue of income inequality was emotive in Europe and it was linked to the policies in European Union states. European states raised progressive taxation in order to create and expand the welfare state, a key factor in the creation of post-Second World War European prosperity (Crafts, 1999). So an important distinction arose between what was done in Europe, and what was suggested to developing nations in terms of income inequality.

The emergence of development aid and technical assistance for the new nation states that emerged at the end of colonialism focused on promoting economic growth, and thus paid little attention to income inequality. Even when assistance was given for basic needs such as healthcare and immunisation, the fact that income inequality in underdeveloped nations created poverty and a lack of access to health and education was often sidestepped. To understand why, one must appreciate that the aid and technical assistance given was at that time coloured by the emerging Cold War between the Soviet Union and western nations. As the Soviet Union's ideology of socialism was based on the elimination of income inequality, often through the expropriation of the means of production by the state in the name of the masses, western aid nations were uncomfortable about focusing their assistance on the issue of income inequality.

Thus there was often a disconnection between policies suggested in Europe – where taxation, pension reform and minimum wages were introduced or reformed to promote more egalitarian access to resources such as education and healthcare – and the situation in developing nations where the issue of diverging incomes was often not a priority. The downgrading of the issue of income inequality in aid and policies of development for the poorer nations was contested by organisations and individuals, such as the Nobel laureate of Economics, Gunnar Myrdal. Myrdal (1970) and others disputed the approach to economic growth and development policy that many organisations had adopted. Development economics in the 1960s were thus focused on economic growth, and saw inequality as a natural consequence of growth as something that could be ignored.

At that time economic growth theory interpreted by models, such as the Harrod-Domar model of growth, argued that incomes would grow rapidly in underdeveloped nations as long as savings were boosted, possibly through aid given by more advanced nations to help them. The possible growth of inequality that rapid economic growth might create, and its possible problems for society and the economy were not really considered. Other scholars such as Rostow (1960) did consider that inequality would increase as less developed nations took-off economically, but considered that, as incomes globally would converge to high levels, then nations would have the ability to emulate western policies that would reduce inequality. Thus inequality was a problem for the emerging nations as they moved to the developed nation stage of growth, but not something that should be considered as important before reaching high levels of per capita income.

As the long-term expectation that the income of nations would converge, the emerging rising inequality in the developing world was not expected to be a long-term side effect of growth. Lewis (1954), who was in no way a neo-classical economist, differed in his opinion about the way in which economic growth would be initiated in developing nations, but he did not necessarily disagree with the suggestion that income inequality was a temporary phenomenon. He considered that as the rural population would move to the urban modern sector, the profits of the owners of modern industry would increase, leading to increasing inequality. Lewis thus saw rising inequality of incomes as necessary for further industrialisation to take place in poor nations.

The fact that globalisation was linked to an increasing and persistent rise in income inequality across nations, which in turn hampered development, was not really understood by economists. The Neo-Classical Growth model developed by Solow (1956), seemed to suggest that global economic development will lead to ever greater convergence of incomes across the globe. For some, it was troubling that rising income inequality was increasing as globalisation was gathering pace, but it was still considered that inequality was a side effect that would disappear as incomes reached higher levels in developing nations as exemplified by the Kuznets reverse U hypothesis (Kuznets, 1955). The message given to developing nations was that they should not worry about rising inequality and should focus on income growth until incomes rose to a sufficiently high (i.e. European) level.

Abramovitz (1986) suggested that the experience of the rapid catch-up growth of Japan and South Korea would be the norm for the majority of nations and thus increasing inequality could be tolerated until the highest level of development was reached. However, Myrdal (1970) warned against superimposing the application of the western experience of development on the underdeveloped and post-colonial world. This meant that in terms of income inequality, the experience of Europe, where income inequality rose dramatically during industrialisation but fell after the establishment of welfare states during the twentieth century, might not be replicated or even be considered as correct policy decisions for new states trying to industrialise.

With the failure of many developing nations in emulating European industrialisation, inequality began to be considered as an issue that prevented nations from developing further rather than a relatively harmless consequence of economic growth. The failure of development processes for most developing nations has led to a change in understanding inequality as a key impediment to economic growth rather than a natural occurrence. There is an increasing understanding that the acceleration of inequality is a relatively recent phenomenon and an increasing obstacle to sustainable development. Rising inequality leads to rising levels of relative poverty, with great negative economic and social consequences for society. In addition inequality is now understood as being far larger than just an issue of income differentials. A diversity of income leads to a diversity of access to education, health, nutrition and even political representation, resulting in deep divisions in society. These deep divisions lead to a vicious cycle of poverty that reduces the access of those at the bottom to their potentialities, leading to the poor economic performance of the nation as a whole. Thus inequality is an issue at both a global and a national level for development economists and policy makers.

By the early nineties it was increasingly clear that the link between income inequality and under-development in the early post-Second World War efforts was misunderstood. Developing nations have struggled to maintain high rates of economic growth, but even those who managed to grow often saw the income differentials widen. This was creating substantial obstacles to continued income growth. Nobel Laureate Amartya Sen (1999) among others correctly highlighted that the real issue of poverty is one of access and freedom. Rising income inequality prevented the poorest in society from having the freedom to access basic needs such as nutrition, health and education. Thus inequality in income can often lead to inequality in all aspects of life, cutting short the potential of those who are unprivileged. Thus inequality is a central issue in the efforts to tackle poverty and in the issue of economic growth, as well as in the global efforts to give universal access to basic needs. It propelled inequality within nations as a key topic of development economics.

In parallel, it was clear that inequality between nations was also rising. Increased globalisation led to 'divergence, big time' (Pritchett, 1997). Most nations were not catching up with the developed world. Global income was rising but it was not shared equally among nations. As a result an increasing share of the global population simply did not share enough of the global rise in income, leading to an ever widening gulf between the "haves" and "have nots". This is best exemplified by the understanding that the top 1% in terms of income in the society seemed to receive an ever larger share of resources. This is even more pronounced in terms of wealth, where wealth is concentrated at the top echelons of society. By the end of the twentieth century there was a rising understanding of the need to understand what causes inequality and its consequences. Indeed the research agenda shifted in its understanding of why inequality was so persistent despite rising prosperity and a greater integration of markets.

For example, Easterly (2001) suggests that we know better: inequality creates poverty, particularly in underdeveloped countries, and as poverty is detrimental to economic growth, inequality can be a major impediment to development. It is to be expected that in countries with a low social welfare safety net and a low per capita income, the divergence of income could lead to a poor underclass that is excluded from basic needs, and hence stuck in a vicious cycle of poverty. Yet, Easterly (2001) points out that those countries with high income inequality have complimentary problems in their societies regardless of income levels. Countries whose income inequality is higher than expected see significant increased risks of infection by disease, lower educational attainment and lower levels of nutrition in their population. Thus we now consider a large inequality of income as an issue that stunts the economic potential of all nations, regardless of their income level.

What is particularly problematic in developing nations is that the relatively low levels of income suggest that income inequality and a large number of people living in conditions of absolute poverty go hand in hand. As global income inequality tends to increase, the proportion of persons living in both relative and absolute (i.e. dire) poverty can rise. The poor are not just lacking access to credit, healthcare and education in order to be able to thrive, but are also excluded from many aspects of society. The social exclusion of very poor individuals can provide severe social consequences against them: from the *madfoun* in Egypt to the *ghrino gorib* in Bangladesh (Easterly, 2001) the existence of extreme poverty and the social exclusion of such groups from every aspect of social engagement are linked with the often extreme income inequality we see in developed nations.

How are we to measure income inequality within nations? We saw in Table 4.1, a way of comparing inequality within a nation through the Gini coefficient index. Apostolides and Moncada (2013) state that the Gini coefficient (also known as the Gini Index) is a good measure of statistical dispersion that measures income distribution among the whole population. Thus if one person has all the income and all others had no income, the Gini Index of income of that nation would be 1. Likewise if all persons have the same amount of income, where none was earning more than any other, the Gini Index would take the value of 0. Thus the closer the calculated Gini Index of a region is to 1, the more unequal is the distribution of income in society. In measuring income inequality in this way, we can compare income inequality across time and between countries or areas. Yet we are now aware that inequality is not just an issue of income and an understanding of the lack of access to needs such as health care and education and even political representation should be represented.

At the same time as we are considering inequality within nations, we need to also indicate that globalisation has led to increasing income inequality between nations. At this global level, inequality is usually measured in terms of comparing the per person incomes of nations. For nations the difference between Gross Domestic Product per person (per capita GDP) is a way of measuring inequality between nations. It is perhaps more accurate to compare the per capita Gross National Income of nations as it is a more accurate measurement of national income but both serve as a quick way to compare nations and rank them according to the average income per person. We see that such a comparison over time indicates that inequality between nations has been rising for at least two centuries.

When we measure income inequality between nations in the way we have discussed, we see that the richest countries today are those that were in the forefront of modernisation during the period of the industrial revolution.

There are exceptions – some Asian countries (such as Japan and South Korea) as well as some countries rich in natural resources such as oil – yet it is generally true that countries which industrialised first still have far higher incomes than other nations. Allen (2011) rightly states that this is the starting point of our understanding of why incomes between nations have diverged. The headstart of industrialisation led western nations on a path of accelerated economic growth that was not shared by non-industrialised and colonised regions. Although advanced nations today being on a different economic trajectory on the last three centuries will create a substantial income gap between the richest and poorest nations, this explanation fails to explain why the income differential between the richest and poorest nations kept rising especially since the 1970s.

It is clear that globalisation and increasing interaction with trade has led to an advancing at an ever greater pace of the income differential of rich and poor nation states. As seen in Table 4.2, the global ratio of the richest 20% of nations to the remaining 80% of nations in 1870 was four times larger the remaining 80% of regions. Thus the ratio of income of the rich nations to the rest of the world was four to one. By the end of the twentieth century, the ratio has jumped to fifteen to one, meaning that average GDP per capita of the richest 20% of Nations is fifteen times larger than the average GDP of 80% of Nations.

Real GDP per person	Average income of the 20 th percentile	Average income of the 80 th percentile	Ratio
1870	1,996	500	4 to one
1913	4,136	552	8.5 to one
1950	6,338	773	14.8 to one
1998	17982	1363	13.2 to one

Table 4.2: How international inequality has risen 1870-1999. (Source: Crafts, 2004)

Table 4.2 indicates that in order to understand income inequality and why it is rising, we need to link it to the increasing globalisation and its acceleration after the Second World War. There is a strong link between rising global income inequality and globalisation; yet how increasing global interdependence leads to greater income inequality is subject to debate. We saw that the understanding that globalisation influences inequality has transformed development economics in placing inequality as one of the key problems it needs to address in the 21st century. We know that globalisation and economic growth have a relationship with income inequality. Globalisation has increased inequality between nations.

Globalisation also seems to affect inequality within a nation, but this relationship is not linear. For most of the last century inequality within nations has been falling, especially in the period 1950-1970, where one could argue that globalisation was a driver for greater equality. Yet, Figure 4.1 indicates that inequality in the United States and the Europe has risen significantly since the end of the 1970, a fact that many (but not all) developing countries that are in that particular database share (World Top Incomes Database, 2015).

Thus we understand that globalisation plays a part in inequality between nations. It also affects intra-national inequality. The relationship between globalisation and inequality within nations is complex as it is affected by government policies; however most recently the trend is to have rising internal inequality as globalisation is gathering pace. Thus, although we do not yet agree what exactly in the globalised world drives the increase in inequality, we do know that, in general, inequality is rising within developed and developing nations since the 1970s.

What causes this increase in inequality? Traditional core-periphery argument would point to the power of owners of capital to reap most of the rewards of the increasing opportunities offered by globalisation. Yet many disagree. Milanovic and Squire (2005) seem to suggest that the closer integration of trade increases inequality, while Steve and Slaughter (2007) do not see trade as having a universal negative impact on equality.

Others have placed an emphasis on a different aspect of globalisation: that of a driver of technological change. Studies suggest the technological divide and innovation might better explain the wide gulf of divergence (IMF, 2007; Piketty, 2014) has galvanised research on the causes of global inequality by emphasising how those with wealth benefit disproportionately from globalisation. He suggests that the issue is wealth and its ability to jump borders as the world becomes increasingly interconnected. For Piketty and Saez (2014), the greater liberalisation of capital and its ability to exploit global opportunities has led to the benefits of greater income and wealth being reaped by those who own the means of production. The view is controversial with McCloskey (2014) arguing that rising inequality seems to ignore the fact that there has been an unprecedented rise in incomes in the developing world in the same period, and thus an attempt to reign in global investments could reduce the income of the poorest in a society.

Income inequality in Europe and the United States, 1900–2010

Share of top income decile in total pretax income

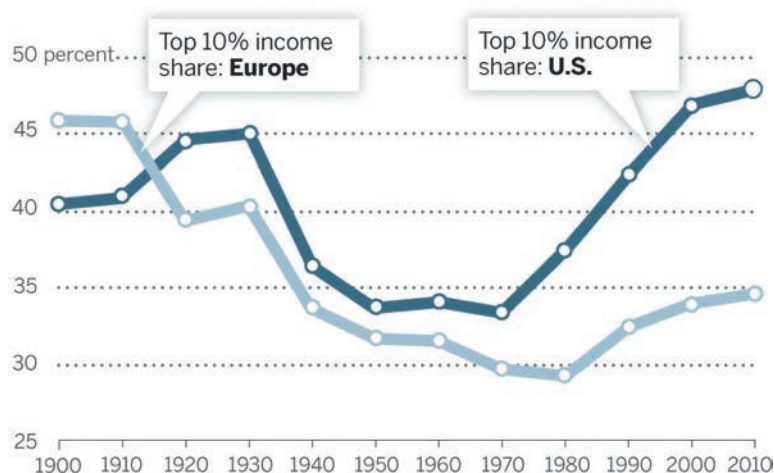


Figure 4.1: Inequality is rising rapidly since the 1970s. (Source: Piketty and Saez, 2014)

However a report by the Organization of Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD, 2011a), points out that the rise in inequality is a general trend in developed and developing nations. Across the globe the vast majority of societies are becoming less equal than previously. Emerging economies generally have far higher rates of inequality than more developed nations. Although this result is by no means universal, it is a fact for some of the most rapidly growing global economies such as China and India. Their rapid economic growth has also transformed them into far less equal societies (OECD, 2011b).

To sum up the rise of inequality both between nations and within nations, which is experienced more intensely recently is a grave concern for development, especially since it is naturally linked with incidences of poverty. Although poverty is treated in detail in chapter 2, it is sufficient to point out that in societies where the distribution of income is not heavily unequal, poverty and how to tackle it becomes a less divisive issue. As stated in Apostolides and Moncada (2013: 66):

high income inequality in a society where the per capita income is low will condemn those who receive the smallest share of income to absolute poverty. Even when the number of citizens in absolute poverty might be limited, high income inequality will result in a high proportion of the population to live in relative poverty, with their incomes far lower than the national average.

Even if most cannot agree on what drives inequality, all agree that global and national policies and institutions can greatly influence the direction of global inequality. Yet many of the solutions to the problem can only work in a global scale. Progressive taxes, where the top taxable bands are taxed more, seem to lead individuals and companies to jump to jurisdictions with lower tax rates. This makes a global solution difficult, as the incentives for a global solution are not there: for example, if we accept the need to tax global capital, that tax can only be effective if all nations place a universal rate: however there are great incentives for countries to undercut the global rate of taxation and thus receive substantial revenue.



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TEACHING TOOLS 4

The topic of Global Inequality is ideal for building on student self-reflection. The four different aspects that are highlighted are:

Introducing inequality and its effects

Globalising inequality

Consolidating the link between income inequality and poverty

Policies to reduce income inequality

A range of group work and resources are suggested and the material provided is explained and listed in the bibliography. Special topics are placed in boxes that can provide further information for clarification purposes for the non-expert that would like to introduce the topic in class.

TEACHING TOOL 4.1

Introducing Inequality and Its Effects



Introductory exercise (20 minutes):

You can start by having a class discussion on how unequal the students perceive their society. Even in the most egalitarian societies, differences in income are apparent. The students will look at their own society critically and give examples of what they think inequality is.

The focus at first is to introduce income inequality. The moderator of the discussion (you!) needs to re-focus the conversation around the issue of income. If, for example, a student mentions that 'some people have large houses while others have difficulty putting a roof over their heads', then introduce the sub-topic in the text in the box and draw the distinction between "income" and "wealth".

In order to place the experiences of the students in the global context, you can ask the students how they perceive inequality in other areas of the world. These could either be areas they have visited or the names of the countries included in Table 4.1 or in the list of pictures available from Peter Menzel 'What the World Eats' (Pin, 2013; MenzelPhoto, 2015).

For each area of the world that is mentioned, try and rank the perceived inequality relative to your society in a simple way. For example, place your society in the middle and rank other countries depending on your perception of them as higher, lower, or the same level of inequality.

Use the World Bank (2014) or OECD (2013) Gini Index database to see if the perceptions of the students coincide with the reality as given in the indicator. **Do also show the GDP per capita incomes of the countries mentioned to act as a trigger for the following section which are easily found ranked in the CIA (2013) World Factbook.**

Objectives of the exercise:

- * To allow the students to self-reflect on what is income inequality, and how unequal they perceive their society
- * To ensure that the distinction between income and wealth is clear
- * To begin the process of globalising the issue of income inequality and discover the relative severity of their local inequality issue compared to other nations



The distinction between absolute and relative poverty (from Apostolides & Moncada, 2015)

To understand how the concept of absolute poverty arose we need to understand the evolution of the basic needs approach. The basic needs approach sought to define what made someone human, and allowed for a bare minimum basket of products and services that would be essential for a person for their long-term physical wellbeing. The need for a universal measurement became clear as the evolution of development science indicated that poverty mattered and was a major stumbling block in development; it could not be ignored, and thus a universal measurement was needed.

Today we have a universal unit of measurement of absolute poverty based on the idea of a universal poverty line: those under it are considered to be in **Absolute Poverty**. Adopted by the World Bank, the global measurement sees how many persons fail to reach a universal minimum level of consumption dictated by our basic needs. The World Bank revised the absolute poverty minimum (the poverty line) as \$1.25 dollar (Approximately 1 euro) a day at purchasing power parity (Ravallion, Chen & Sangraula 2009). It has since become a global aim of development through the United Nations Millennium Development Goals to reduce the number of people that are under this poverty line by half; this aim is expiring at 2015.

However, the reduction of absolute poverty is not the only aim; communities are also concerned about poverty within their own society's norms and standards. **Relative poverty** indicates how much poverty there is within a population such as a nation. The definition of a poverty line here is not universal as it is with absolute poverty: it is defined as the minimal needs and aspirations that persons within their community should attain.

Today, inequality is perceived as including a much broader spectrum than just income: in fact the United Nations Development Programme's (UNDP) is currently compiling indicators which express inequality defined by a trifecta of issues: lack of access to income, lack of access to education and lack of access to greater life expectancy. Try building your own development index: type UNDP Human Development Index (HDI) in your search engine and give it a try.

<http://hdr.undp.org/en/data/build/>

TEACHING TOOL 4.2

Globalising Inequality

(45 minutes)

Here the educator needs to evaluate why income inequality matters. We suggest that the educator briefly explains how far the income and population of the world has progressed from 1 AD until today using Figure 4.2.

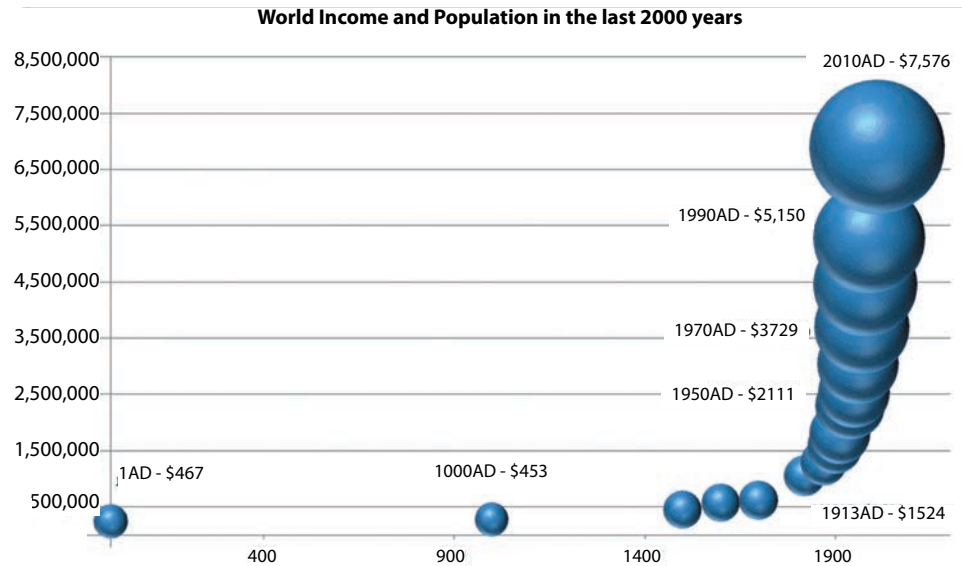


Figure 4.2: Increase of growth and income since 1 AD. Note: Adjusted for Inflation using 1990 Geary-Khamis dollars. (Source: Maddison, 2010; Visualizing Economics, 2010)

Figure 4.2 indicates the world development from the year 1 AD until today. The horizontal line time shows the years in intervals of 500. The vertical line denotes the global population in half millions. As one can see, the global population was quite stagnant until the beginning of the industrial revolution, which transformed the world during the period or 1750s to 1870s. The blue balloons are the per capita GDP of the global population at key years. Note that the per capita GDP is just the division of the GDP of the world by its population: it provides the average income of the world at key dates. The larger the balloon, the larger is the average income per person. The amount is written in dollars next to the balloons for convenience.



Assist the students in understanding that since the industrial revolution two events took place concurrently as never before in human history. Economic expansion was unprecedented: Global Economic growth led to a rapid rise of global income, from \$1,524 in 1913 to \$7,576 in 2010, at heights never before seen in human history. At the same time, the population of the world increased dramatically, from around one billion in 1913 to over seven billion in 2010.

The fact that we had an explosion of population while incomes were rising meant that the global income or GDP rose faster than the explosion of population. This is defined as Modern Economic Growth, as defined by Kuznets. Thus, over the last two hundred years, mankind has broken the Malthusian Trap that used to hold it in income levels close to subsistence: before 1800 and definitely before 1500, you could have a rise in incomes, or a rise in population but not both.

Once that is understood, introduce how this relates to increasing globalisation. Globalisation is a very varied concept, but if the students require it, you could define it for them as the increasing interdependence of persons and nations in all fields of life. Economic globalisation focuses on trade and the freer movement of technology, products, ideas, labour and capital. Trade, the movement of capital, and the introduction of global connectivity through technology such as the World Wide Web has intensified from 1970 onwards, transforming the society in which we live.

If the previous trigger has worked, students will begin to notice that the average per capita income of the world in 2010 is far greater than the GDP of Mali (whose Gini Index is provided in Table 4.1) of the same year. If so, then the educator should encourage a discussion of what the per capita GDP really means. It is a statistical abstract that hides the range of inequality that exists between nations. With the use of Table 4.2, the educator can explain that while Modern Economic Growth has transformed the world, it has not done so in an equal way. In fact, the richest nations in 1870 were just four times richer than the remaining regions but by the end of the century there is a far larger difference in incomes. So between nations, income inequality has risen substantially while Modern Economic Growth and Globalisation was taking place.

The educator can then allow the class to discuss why this is so. It is a great opportunity to introduce both the possible reasons for the increase of inequality and the history of why income inequality was not taken so seriously by development economists and policy makers until recently. This has all been introduced in the conceptual framework on this topic elsewhere in this publication.

Objectives of the exercise:

To explain that Modern Economic Growth is unique and has led to an explosion of population and income

To understand that, at a global level, distribution of income is not equal

To appreciate that income distribution has been heavily skewed towards developed nations.

TEACHING TOOL 4.3

Consolidating the Link Between Income Inequality and Poverty

Group work (30 minutes):

The discussion should then be broken up into groups. Each group needs to adopt a nation from those mentioned. Use the pictures of Peter Menzel 'What the World Eats' (Pin, 2013; MenzelPhoto, 2015) to show what families across the world consume in terms of food in a week and to see visually how inequality between nations is felt globally. As these resources will be used it would be nice to also use some of the nations that have families depicted.

All the groups are then shown the range of pictures of 'what the world eats': the resource is available in the bibliography. Then allow the students to begin a discussion that centres on:

1. The type of family and their needs relative to the student's own
2. The environment of the families
3. Possible problems and deficiencies



This will allow for a discussion on the link between income inequality and poverty. The seriousness of the problems faced by individuals who are poor should be highlighted. The link between high income inequality and a greater chance of falling into poverty should be understood, especially in countries where the per capita income is low as they are still classed as developing nations.

Here the educator should introduce that inequality is far from just the differential caused by the food resources that are available. Inequality is not one-dimensional and focused on income, because poverty affects the individual's health, nutrition, and social opportunity. Guide the students to understand poverty as a multidimensional issue that leads to a reduction of capability.

Introduce the idea that economic development now considers income inequality as serious as it leads to an increase of the relative and the absolute poor in a society. Being poor can often lead to a reduction of access to opportunity. As a result this can lead to reduced possibility of unleashing one's true potential. As a consequence, the income of a society is lower than it could be because the poor are trapped in a vicious cycle of underperformance in income, health and educational matters. Thus introduce the new-found importance of the issue of poverty.

Then move the conversation to the link between inequality and relative/absolute poverty. Use the text in the box to explain the difference between relative and absolute poverty if needed. Using the definition of absolute poverty (\$2 a day per person), ask them to think of the families whose portraits they saw and evaluate if their family budget for food could be satisfied with that money. Have them critically evaluate what else they would need to sacrifice to be able to sustain consumption of basic goods such as bread or rice. Here, one can introduce the problems of nutrition that such a diet can introduce, or the health and education costs that could be prohibitive. Even if not living with the absolute poverty line, convey that the life of a relative poor would deviate substantially from the family pictures, also leading to loss of potential and capability. Make sure that it is understood that in developing nations, high income inequality will certainly mean an increase in absolute poverty because the per capita income of such nations is far lower than of the European Union states.

Objectives of the exercise:

- * To visually explain inequality
- * To understand it as far beyond the one-dimensional aspect of lack of income, and link it to the lack of access to resources and basic needs
- * To distinguish between absolute and relative poverty
- * To ensure the link between relative and absolute poverty is made clear

TEACHING TOOL 4.4

Roundtable: Policies to Reduce Income Inequality

(30 minutes)



Here it is suggested that the educator allows the student to suggest ways to reduce income inequality. In order not to have a confused roundtable debate the educator should ask for suggestions for two separate issues: (1) how to reduce income inequality between nations, and (2) how to reduce income inequality within a nation.

The students should lead the exercise. The role of the educator is to ensure that students remain aware that any policy suggested will, at the same time, impact on the economic growth of the nation, on access to capability enhancers (such as health and education), and on the need to finance such action.

It is hoped that the students, when factoring in the financing, economic growth and access to capability concerns will visualise that the solution can only really be global in nature. In that respect the educator can then merge the suggestions on the two separate issues into a single global wish-list of policies to tackle the problem, as both within-nation and between-nation inequalities are effects of our increasing globalisation.



The distinction between absolute and relative poverty (from Apostolides & Moncada, 2015)

To understand how the concept of absolute poverty arose we need to understand the evolution of the basic needs approach. The basic needs approach sought to define what made someone human, and allowed for a bare minimum basket of products and services that would be essential for a person for their long-term physical wellbeing. The need for a universal measurement became clear as the evolution of development science indicated that poverty mattered and was a major stumbling block in development; it could not be ignored, and thus a universal measurement was needed.

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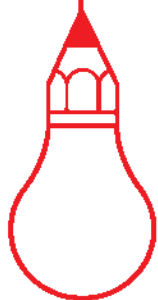
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<http://hdr.undp.org/en/data/build/>

CHAPTER 5

Local and Global Governance: Role and Impact in Development

by: Odysseas Christou



This chapter will introduce the main concepts and debates in the area of global governance and its successes and failures in promoting sustainable development. The conceptual introduction will provide an overview of the attempts by the international community to reach a consensus on the necessary steps for global reform in order to achieve collective sustainability. In addition, the chapter will analyse the nexus between the local and the global levels of governance, and the necessity to maintain a balance between the two. Unlike other areas of regulatory reform at the international level, sustainability must incorporate a local – or regional – component as the challenges faced by and opportunities available to different local or regionally integrated communities can vary on a variety of levels and variables. In addition, regionalism represents an established approach to the organisation of the international community, one that is all the more pertinent in the area of sustainable – and by extension equitable – development. This combinatory approach will include the role of local actors, including civil society, as stakeholders in the promotion and sustenance of viable solutions to unique challenges. Beyond the general area of sustainability, the chapter will cover specific current debates such as climate change and environmental pollution, financial stability, trade relations and security which augment the existing agenda already incorporated in global efforts.

From a methodological perspective, the chapter will survey the major actors that operate in this area on the global level both from a historical perspective and with respect to recent developments. This will be done in a concise and non-technical manner with universal applicability in learning environments of different kinds in mind. In addition, the chapter will offer ways in which the interactions among the global and the local can create synergies in order to foster cooperation and develop solutions to localised problems through specific activities geared towards unconventional thinking in combination with established approaches and existing pedagogical tools.



Overview of Early Global Initiatives

Initiatives on sustainable development under the auspices of the United Nations have been taking place since the 1970s with the United Nations Conference on the Human Environment held in Stockholm in 1972 leading to the creation of the first UN institutions tasked with implementing global governance on issues of sustainable development. The World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED) was convened in 1983.

Its final report – entitled *Our Common Future* but generally referred to as the *Brundtland Report* after the name of the Commission Chair – was published in 1987 (World Commission on Environment and Development, 1987). It established the interconnections between growing environmental, social and economic concerns and the fundamental conceptualisation of sustainable development that meets the needs of current generations while providing safeguards for future development. The long-lasting effect of the Report was the setting of the agenda of environmental concerns squarely within the socio-political sphere of decision-making without distancing the economic ramifications of short-run decisions that impact the environment in the long-run.

The groundwork laid by the *Brundtland Report* led to the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED) in 1992, commonly known as the Rio Summit or the Earth Summit. The Summit led to the creation of the Commission for Sustainable Development to monitor the implementation of the Summit's findings and decisions. The *Rio Declaration on Environment and Development* (A/CONF.151/26 (Vol. I)) established the 27 guiding principles for future implementation, assessment and re-evaluation of sustainable development policies at the global level. Most significantly, Agenda 21 – a comprehensive multi-level plan of coordinated action among global, national, and sub-national actors in the area of sustainable development – was unveiled at the Summit (United Nations, 1993). It adopted a wide-ranging approach that covered the universe of topics that have since become associated with sustainable development: social and economic conditions, conservation and management of resources, the role of major groups and stakeholders at various levels, and the means of implementation of various strategies, programmes and mechanisms.

An interim progress report known as the *Programme for Further Implementation of Agenda 21* (known as Rio +5) (A/RES/S-19/2) was authored five years after the Rio Summit and identified areas that required urgent attention such as resource management and energy policy. A full reappraisal was undertaken at the 2002 World Summit on Sustainable Development (WSSD) (also known as Earth Summit or Rio +10) in Johannesburg, South Africa. The Summit led to the adoption of the *Johannesburg Declaration on Sustainable Development* and the *Plan of Implementation of the World Summit on Sustainable Development* (A/CONF.199/20). The Johannesburg Declaration emphasised the need for multilateral action for successful responses to the global challenges identified and as a way to remedy the shortcomings of existing approaches, shifting its focus to the conditions that have global deleterious effects such as poverty, health crises and natural disasters. It also placed great emphasis on matters which have global security repercussions such as organised crime, human trafficking and terrorism. The Johannesburg Plan of Implementation focused on the promotion of further integration and strengthening of policies at the international level as well as the adoption of those policies at various levels (regional, national, sub-national), thus reaffirming the need for a coordinated approach.

The Millenium Development Agenda



Another important aspect of Earth Summit 2002 was the adoption of *Partnership Initiatives for the implementation of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs)*. The MDGs were derived from the *Millennium Declaration* (A/RES/55/2) which was the result of the Millennium Summit of 2000 and from work done in the 1990s by the Development Co-operation Directorate of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD). The eight specific MDGs and the measurable targets set for achieving each goal are listed in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1:
Millennium
Development
Goals (MDGs)

MDG	TARGET	DESCRIPTION
1		Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger
	1.A	Halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people whose income is less than \$1.25 a day
	1.B	Achieve full and productive employment and decent work for all, including women and young people
	1.C	Halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people who suffer from hunger
2		Achieve Universal Primary Education
	2.A	Ensure that, by 2015, children everywhere, boys and girls alike, will be able to complete a full course of primary schooling
3		Promote Gender Equality and Empower Women
	3.A	Eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education, preferably by 2005, and in all levels of education no later than 2015
4		Reduce Child Mortality
	4.A	Reduce by two-thirds, between 1990 and 2015, the under-five mortality rate
5		Improve Maternal Health
	5.A	Reduce by three-quarters the maternal mortality ratio
	5.B	Achieve universal access to reproductive health
6		Combat HIV/AIDS, Malaria and Other Diseases
	6.A	Have halted by 2015 and begun to reverse the spread of HIV/AIDS
	6.B	Achieve, by 2010, universal access to treatment for HIV/AIDS for all those who need it
	6.C	Have halted by 2015 and begun to reverse the incidence of malaria and other major diseases
7		Environmental Sustainability
	7.A	Integrate the principles of sustainable development into country policies and programmes and reverse the loss of environmental resources
	7.B	Reduce biodiversity loss, achieving, by 2010, a significant reduction in the rate of loss
	7.C	Halve, by 2015, the proportion of the population without sustainable access to safe drinking water and basic sanitation
	7.D	Achieve, by 2020, a significant improvement in the lives of at least 100 million slum dwellers
8		Develop a Global Partnership for Development
	8.A	Develop further an open, rule-based, predictable, non-discriminatory trading and financial system
	8.B	Address the special needs of least developed countries
	8.C	Address the special needs of landlocked countries developing and small island developing states
	8.D	Deal comprehensively with the debt problems of developing countries
	8.E	In cooperation with pharmaceutical companies, provide access to affordable essential drugs in developing countries
	8.F	8.F In cooperation with the private sector, make available benefits of new technologies, especially information and communications

The MDGs were revisited at the 2005 World Summit at the United Nations Headquarters in New York. The need was stressed for increased funding in order to meet the targets set in the MDGs by 2015, as well as the role of Official Development Assistance (ODA) by the international community and the role of nationally devised sustainable development strategies (A/RES/60/1). The next MDG Summit was held at the UN Headquarters in September 2010 and led to the adoption of the global action plan *Keeping the Promise: United to Achieve the Millennium Development Goals* (A/RES/65/1) in the attempt to accelerate progress and meet the goals by the target date of 2015.

As a result, the targets of several MDGs have been met on a global scale, especially in the areas of extreme poverty and hunger eradication (MDG1), universal primary education (MDG2), gender equality in terms of access to education and political participation (MDG3), the elimination of communicable diseases like malaria and tuberculosis (MDG6), drinking water sanitation (MDG7) and a boost in overall official development assistance (MDG8). On the other hand, progress on the improvement of maternal health (MDG5) lags consistently. However, the gravest and most enduring concern throughout the pursuit of the MDGs has been the inability of the international system to implement solutions to effectively overcome regional disparities. In the regions of Western Asia, Oceania and – most prominently – Sub-Saharan Africa, the majority of the measurable targets of the MDGs will not be met. In fact, some have exhibited deterioration rather than improvement (United Nations, 2014).

The post-2015 Development Agenda



In anticipation of the landmark date of the end of 2015 looming on the horizon, UN Secretary General Ban Ki-moon called for the creation of a Task Team that will prepare the organisation and its associated institutions for the post-2015 development agenda including a High Level Panel of Eminent Persons tasked with creating a universal agenda for the new era for sustainable development. The result was a report that specifies five broad goals for the next fifteen years: to extend the goal of eradicating poverty to universal applicability, to make the new era development-centric, to focus on the economic aspects of sustainable growth, to incorporate the pursuit of collective security and freedom from conflict and violence and to foster a new global partnership (United Nations, 2013). It is interesting to note that the issue of security is explicitly included in the development agenda for the first time, even though the notion of a security-development nexus had been established and challenged in various ways for quite some time¹.

Yet the post-2015 international environment presents its own challenges as geopolitical balances are altered either at the state or the regional level; in other words, the traditional differentiation of Global North and South may be deteriorating with the rise of regional powers – and corresponding regionalist approaches – that may supersede the established Western powerbase (Shaw, 2015).

At the United Nations Conference on Sustainable Development of June 2012 in Rio de Janeiro (Rio+20), the SDGs were formally discussed for the first time. The outcome document of the Conference – entitled 'The Future we Want' which has also become the slogan of the campaign for the SDGs² – aimed at the incorporation of the outcomes into the evolving post-2014 development agenda of the United Nations. While the outcomes themselves were of a general nature and did not specify measurable goals as in the form of the MDGs, the member states of the United Nations have reached a consensus that the SDGs must represent the next step in an evolutionary process towards the achievement of global sustainable development as already presented. As a result, the SDGs must build upon the foundation of Agenda 21, the Johannesburg Plan of Implementation, and all the Rio Principles. They must also integrate the outcomes of all major summits in the economic, social and environmental fields while remain consistent with established international commitments and international law.

¹See, for example, Duffield (2001); Thomas (2001).

²See, for example, the website of the United Nations on Rio +20 and a sustainable future: <http://www.un.org/en/sustainablefuture/index.shtml>. Accessed 8 March 2015.

Within the parameters of the framework established by the outcome document, the broader attempt is to widen the scope of sustainable achievement. This is to be accomplished by focusing on priority areas, incorporating all dimensions of sustainable development and their interlinkages, as well as serving as a driver for the implementation and mainstreaming of sustainable development in the UN system as a whole. At the same time, the development of this widened post-2015 development agenda must prioritise the inclusion and active involvement of all relevant stakeholders; this presents a number of opportunities – but also challenges – to learn from the short-comings of past efforts and improve collective action as discussed later in this chapter.



The Integration of the Local to the Global and the Challenges of a Multi-level Approach to Governance

There is a growing consensus within the academic community with respect to the need for multi-level governance in the post-2015 development framework that will be specifically applied to the achievement of the SDGs. As Sachs (2012: 2208) notes, one of the most important lessons learned from the progress towards achievement of the MDGs is the need for good governance at all levels from the global to the local. With the MDGs, the emphasis was on the specification of goals at a global and regional level, but the attainment of them was strictly restricted to the national level, even though the evaluation also integrated the more comprehensive levels. Kanie et al. (2014) identify the need for multi-level formulations as a primary goal for the international community in the post-MDG emerging framework, as also evidenced in the outcome document of Rio+20 where the active participation of the private sector is emphasised (Gregoratti, 2014: 309).

The shift of emphasis to the local will allow for a multi-level approach to the specification of stakeholders in relation to specific goals; after all, as Niestroy (2014) points out, 'the subnational level also has important bottom-up functions that are often less recognised, such as engaging and knowing and best the needs of citizens and small business' [sic]. The framing of global goals as the provision of public goods at the international level will necessitate collective action under the aegis of international organisations together with the adherence of national governments. Yet a differentiation of goals achievable and implementable at the local level is necessary for the success of the SDGs by creating linkages among the various stakeholders: government, the private sector, and civil society on a national level. Brende and Høie (2014: 207) highlight the need for a concise and easily communicable specification of the SDGs in order for the general public and societal actors to be actively engaged in the process, while goals remain ambitious but realistic and measurable³. Such arrangements can take the form of private – in addition to public – global governance, prioritising the possibilities of collaboration within the private sector between enterprises and civil society in accordance with the goals set at the sub-national level (Glasbergen, 2011). At the other side of generality, Griggs et al. (2013) argue for the reframing of the three pillars of the SDGs – economic, social and environmental sustainable development – as a nested concept within the broader consideration of global stability in all areas; this too can be accomplished through the specification of goals at multiple levels of agency.

However, the drive towards multi-level governance raises a number of questions with respect to coordination and implementation. Bernstein and Cashore (2012: 587) stress that 'domestic influences cannot be studied simply by looking at the international rules pathway'. Therefore, it is necessary to consider the ways in which international organisations can gain access to domestic policy formulation processes in order to affect domestic level decision-making and enforce international norms as part of a broader international regime in order to enforce compliance where deviations are observed. For this to occur, international actors must be able to interact with domestic actors in addition to the state; for example, to engage civil society, to inform and mobilise societal interest, to form coalitions of like-minded interests in the pursuit of policy change or adoption or even to counteract opposing – and typically reactionary – forces that place obstacles to socio-political transformation. Engaging civil society in the appropriate manner can also go a long way towards enhancing the legitimacy of global governance structures (Scholte, 2014).

³Rose 2015 echoes these goals with respect to education.

The review of various National Sustainable Development Strategies by the Institute for Global Environmental Studies (2014) suggests that this can be implemented by identifying vision and leadership, and institutional coordination, engaging stakeholders and reviewing progress in a sequential process. It is essential, however, for actors to be aware of the possibilities and structured opportunities for involvement and to identify and employ mechanisms of engagement that have actual impact on decision-making processes beyond their own involvement. This can take many forms: promoting transparency and raising awareness, lobbying the political process, bridging the gap between decision-making and public opinion with respect to information about the consequences of different policy options or serving as multiplier to public participation by offering access points to the decision-making process.

The issue of governance with specific respect to the SDGs faces a number of challenges of both definition and implementation. If governance is considered a goal in itself, then it 'might be privileged over effective governance or equitable governance' (Biermann et al., 2014). As Doyle and Stiglitz (2014) emphasise, equitable development – and, by extension, governance – was not an explicit component of the MDG vision. The international community can learn from this mistake and place inequality at all levels at the centre of the SDG vision that will replace it. Universally accepted definitions and quantifiable indicators that facilitate measurement and monitoring are necessary for the inclusion of equitable governance in the post-2015 development agenda (Hulme, Savoia and Sen, 2014)⁴. Thus, a challenge for the international community is to identify the aspects of governance that affect and ought to be linked to development, and then to incorporate those aspects as already suggested into the emerging framework (Wild and Bergh, 2013). The existing UN approach is to equate good governance with democratic governance focusing on areas such as accountability, transparency, and corruption, the rule of law, crime, and political participation (United Nations Development Programme, 2014). This approach has yielded many benefits in different policy areas – such as the enforcement of human rights – but more can be done to identify and integrate non-governmental actors (Mertus, 2014).

Concluding Remarks



As the international community grapples with the dilemmas of the post-2015 development agenda, an evaluative analysis of the achievement of global goals in the form of the MDGs is increasingly clearer. While many of the goals set at the beginning of the millennium have been achieved, and significant progress has been made towards all, there are significant gaps both in terms of specific goals and geographical regions. These disparities are unlikely to disappear without the implementation of some corrective measures. Thus, while the intention of the international community is to build on past efforts in an evolutionary process, it is also essential that some innovation takes place in order to address lingering challenges.

It is evident that the introduction of multi-level governance in an inclusive manner that integrates local stakeholders where appropriate is imperative (Marshall, 2014: 569). At the same time, any such inclusion has to take into account the following dilemma: that while the international community aims at the development of comprehensive approaches that will be universally applicable and measurable, there can be significant deviation with respect to the needs of different countries and/or regions.

⁴ For suggested indicators for governance as well as the Sustainable Development Goals more generally, see Schmidt-Traub, de la Mothe Karoubi, and Esprey (2015).



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TEACHING TOOLS 5

For this topic, all methodologies chosen serve the same general purpose: to teach students the necessity of reaching collective decisions in the attempt to solve collective problems. Too often, newcomers to issues of global governance tend to perceive the need for collective action as a normative concept, focusing primarily – if not exclusively – on the ethical dimension: in other words, that we bear responsibility for the future consequences of our immediate decisions. These methodological tools serve as applied pedagogical devices that illustrate the consequences of failing to consider the structural characteristics of collective decision-making processes.

TEACHING TOOL 5.1

Model United Nations Mini-Simulation

Model United Nations represents a category of educational activities that can be employed at a variety of educational levels (usually high school or undergraduate university) and to a varying degree of complexity and specification⁵. It is an educational simulation of the United Nations in action which can be catered to focus on different elements of the operation of the international system from the regulation of relations among the states and the application of international law, to the nuances of diplomatic interaction, such as the modes and methodologies of representation, communication and negotiation among the various diplomatic actors. In addition, the exercise can contribute to the students' research, writing, and verbal skills with emphasis on oratory interaction and public speaking.

In its most elaborate iteration, Model UN takes the form of a large conference where individual students or teams of students are assigned the roles of delegates for different countries, and then convene to represent those countries in committees where they debate on various pre-defined issues. Such formulations usually also constitute an academic competition for the students involved and the experience is increasingly lauded as a worthwhile extra-curricular activity for students pursuing further studies. Other versions take the form of a registered course where students receive credit for their participation.

Many resources are freely available online including detailed specifications for the construction of a Model UN application. The following websites are maintained by credible organisations that can help in this regard, including some of the best-known university-based Model UN implementations that have served as blueprints for other adaptations worldwide, such as the University of California at Berkeley, Harvard University, and the University of London (next page).

⁵ For academic perspectives on the practice, see Hazleton and Mahurin (1986), McIntosh (2001), and Muldoon (1995).

Table 5.2:
Model UN
resources

Organisation	Website
United Nations Cyber School Bus	www.un.org/cyberschoolbus
Best Delegate	http://bestdelegate.com/model-un-conferences-database/
United Nations Association of the USA	http://www.unausa.org/global-classrooms-model-un
US Department of State	http://iipdigital.usembassy.gov/st/english/publication/2012/07/2012073142610.html#axzz3s9J5IKYT
Model United Nations in Germany	http://www.model-un.de/en/was-ist-mun/
Yale-NUS Asia Pacific Model UN	http://www.yncapmun.org/
National Model United Nations	http://www.nmun.org/
Harvard National Model United Nations	http://www.hnmun.org/
Berkeley Model United Nations	http://bmun.org/
London International Model United Nations	http://limun.org.uk/ /



The version proposed herein is generally referred to as a mini-simulation as it is intended to take place within the context of an existing course that is relevant to the topic rather than a dedicated course on its own. In this way, applicability can be maximised since instructors can take as little as one class meeting in order to implement the tool. Of course, instructors can adapt their own approach if they wish to dedicate more time and effort to the simulations; for example, one may choose to hold two sessions on two different topics rather than restrict the discussion to a singular topic.

To carry out the simulation, the instructor must follow the following steps:

1. Divide the class into small delegations and assign a country to each. For small class sizes, each student can represent a separate country but a group size of 2-4 students is ideal for each delegation. Country assignment should aim at the widest variety of perspectives on the issues to be discussed at least along the following variables: economic wealth, population size, regional distribution and representation.
2. Choose a topic from among the headings of the Millennium Development Goals. Present some background information on the topic in class or provide additional resources in advance so that students can prepare for discussion.
3. Provide each delegation with information as to how their country relates (and has more traditionally related) to the topic of discussion. Include general points on existing policy approaches and possible future recommendations.
4. Allow the groups to discuss the topic in order to come to some coherent position on the topic.
5. Set the agenda for discussion by giving broad questions to guide the delegations in a general direction. Allow for the creation of coalitions and blocs among the different countries based on their perceptions of national and global interests. Include the various policy dilemmas and debates and potential trade-offs of the various options.
6. Ask each delegation to draft a short resolution that includes decisive steps in order to meet stated goals.
7. Have each delegation present its country's resolution followed by debate among the different delegations and coalitions.
8. Have the class vote for or against the presented recommendations /resolutions.
9. Announce which resolutions passed.



Beyond the general goal of teaching students the practices of the international system, this pedagogical exercise is also intended to actively illustrate the complexity of decision-making among multiple actors in a non-binding environment. One of the lingering issues with the understanding of the international system is the frustration with the inability of the international community to reach consensus where issues are generally perceived as mutually beneficial. Why can't we all see that regulating these issues is to the benefit of all, and why is agreement at the international level so difficult to reach? Through the actual – albeit simulated – experience of behaving as a state delegate, students can grasp the difficulty of reconciling the interests of the international community with the interests of individual states which may differ on a variety of levels: at the state level, if the consensus of the international community may be regarded as detrimental to established state interests, or even at the regional level where issues can have regional repercussions that shape state interests into potentially opposing coalitions. As a result, the process can teach students how to reach consensus through compromise and conflict resolution mechanisms through deliberation.

TEACHING TOOL 5.2

Governing the Commons Experiment

One of the fundamental issues in common resource management is the attempt to overcome the phenomenon that has come to be known as the 'tragedy of the commons' which – briefly stated – posits that self-interested rational individuals will deplete common resources to the detriment of the collective interest and, therefore, their own in the long-run. The framework was famously established by Garrett Hardin (1968), and the solutions that he offered centred on the need for hierarchical regulation or privatisation of common-pool resources. Alternative solutions, however, are possible through the proper governance of common ownership. Based on her extended research agenda on this issue, Elinor Ostrom (Ostrom, 1990; 2009; 2014; Ostrom et al., 1999; 2003) arrived at the following eight fundamental principles of common-pool resource management:

- 1. Define clear group boundaries.**
- 2. Match rules governing use of common goods to local needs and conditions.**
- 3. Ensure that those affected by the rules can participate in modifying the rules.**
- 4. Make sure the rule-making rights of community members are respected by outside authorities.**
- 5. Develop a system, carried out by community members, for monitoring members' behaviour.**
- 6. Use graduated sanctions for rule violators.**
- 7. Provide accessible, low-cost means for dispute resolution.**
- 8. Build responsibility for governing the common resource in nested tiers from the lowest level up to the entire interconnected system.**

There are existing experimental approaches that illustrate that lack of enforced regulation can lead to effective commons management but they tend to be complex and impractical for the purposes of in-class illustration (for example, see Deadman, Schlager and Gimblett, 2000; Jansenn, Leem and Waring, 2014; Murphy and Cardenas, 2004). The approach presented here is based on the much simpler experimental design of Edney (1979) while combining the experimental rules included in Ostrom's work as well as the principles already presented.

To carry out the experiment, the instructor must follow these steps:

1. Divide the class into 4 groups.
2. Present the class with a finite amount of commonly-owned resources, for example 100 coins/paper clips/nuts, etc.
3. State the object of the experiment for each individual as the attempt to maximise their resources in the long-term.
4. Then, ask the groups to acquire the resources that they want in different iterations; first with no communication among the groups and then allowing communication among them.



Once communication is allowed, ask the students to devise their own rules:

How will they agree on the nature of their collective decision-making mechanisms?

How will they monitor each other's behaviour?

How will they punish deviation from expected behaviour?

The instructor can act as an external authority to intervene in the resolution of disputes among the groups, and in order to assess whether the intervention of an external actor is necessary to the management of the common-pool resources. Additionally, the instructor can introduce a sustainability component by replenishing resources in order to prolong the experiment, ideally indefinitely in terms of iterations if the groups can arrive at a sustainable institutional arrangement.

Prior to the introduction of communication in the framework, the expectation is that groups are likely to interpret their self-interest goals as short-term maximisation of resources and attempt to gain as much as possible immediately. Being unable to assess the intentions of other groups, they are likely to base their actions on the inherent characteristics of common goods: non-excludability and rivalry. Usage of the resources is non-excludable since there is nothing that one group can do to prevent other parties to the interaction from accessing them. It is also rivalrous since the usage of the resources by one group removes them from the resource pool, thereby making them unavailable to other groups. Thus, the 'tragedy of the commons' can be explained as an actual outcome evidenced in the interaction. The instructor can discuss the ramifications of these characteristics and the resultant behaviour with the students. They can focus on the fact that their short-run benefit hurts their own long-term prospects. But the basic issue remains that if an individual does not maximise short-term gain, they can expect the others to do so. In other words, the framework does not provide any inherent incentive towards cooperation and compromise, so individuals are left to police themselves.

Once interaction is permitted, then it should be left up to the groups to realise that the adoption of an institutional framework that regulates behaviour is likely to result in sustainability that is universally beneficial in the long-run rather than focused on short-term gain that will eventually be detrimental to all. The instructor can guide them by asking them to justify the norms and rules upon which they decide. If they are undecided among different possible rule frameworks, the instructor can ask them to compare the reasons for choosing one over another. For example, are the rules going to be based on fairness or efficiency? Can they come up with rules that achieve both? Ultimately, the simulation will illustrate that self-interested behaviour can be compatible with maximising collective benefits if the right framework is in place. Usually, governing the commons experiments are applied to scenarios of environmental management, since they are the most intuitively applicable. However, it should be stressed that the framework can be applied to all issues of sustainability of common resources regardless of the nature of the good.

TEACHING TOOL 5.3

Prisoner's Dilemma Simulation

The Prisoner's Dilemma is perhaps the best known case of a game-theoretic application⁶. Given the complexity of game theory as a field, where complex frameworks require mathematical skills, it is best to keep the simulation as simple as possible. Simply put, game theory is a mathematical approach that stylises reality in models that aim to capture the interaction between intelligent, rational decision-makers. The overarching aim of game theory is to explain conflict and cooperation as well as the impact of the framework on decision-makers' actions; in other words, it is the attempt to provide a mathematical foundation for strategy.

The most important concept for this simulation – and in many ways the most fundamental concept in game theory – is the Nash equilibrium, named after the mathematician John Nash. Nash's work provided the mathematical proof that for any game in which a finite number of players has a finite set of possible actions there must be at least one combination of choices from which no individual player can improve their outcome by changing their choice. As expressed by economist Samuel Bowles, there is always a situation in which everybody is doing the best they can, given what everybody else is doing. However, a Nash equilibrium should not be equated to the best possible outcome for the entire interaction. The Prisoner's Dilemma is a perfect illustration of this tendency of the Nash equilibrium to sustain sub-optimal outcomes.

The Prisoner's Dilemma framework is specified as follows: two crime suspects have been arrested and are placed in different interrogation rooms with no means of communicating with one another. The police have enough evidence to charge them with a lesser version of the crime which would lead to jail time of two years for each of them. However, if enough additional evidence is collected, they can be charged with the more serious version of the crime which carries an increased sentence of ten years. The police approach each suspect individually, offering a two-year reduction in jail time, as long as the suspect confesses with enough evidence against the other ensuring that they are charged with the ten-year version of the crime. But if both confess, they both receive the increased jail time minus the two-year reduction. As a result, the potential outcomes for the two suspects are as follows:

		Suspect B	
		Confession	Silence
Suspect A	Confession	8 years for A 8 years for B	0 years for A 10 years for A
	Silence	10 years for A 0 years for B	2 years for A 2 years for B

Table 5.3: Prisoner's Dilemma Outcomes

Therefore the order of preference over outcomes for Suspect A is as follows:

1. He confesses while Suspect B stays silent: he receives the two-year reduction for the lesser crime (effectively going free) while the other receives the ten-year sentence.
2. They both stay silent: they both receive the two-year sentences of the lesser crime.
3. They both confess: they both receive the ten-year sentences with the two-year reductions, resulting in eight-year sentences for both.
4. He stays silent while Suspect B confesses: this is the reverse of his most preferred outcome, in which the other suspect is freed, while he receives the maximum sentence.

⁶For a brief overview of the history of the Prisoner's Dilemma, see Dixit and Nalebuff (2008).

The Nash equilibrium dictates that each Suspect choose the best option given what the other might do. If Suspect B confesses, then Suspect A is better off doing the same to avoid the ten-year sentence leading to outcome #3. If Suspect B stays silent, then Suspect A is better off confessing in order to achieve his best possible outcome (#1). Given the fact that choices are mirrored for both, it is clear that both will choose to confess under all circumstances. In other words, there is a single Nash equilibrium which is mutual confession.

What does this exercise teach us? There are a few notable characteristics of the outcome. Given the framework, each suspect will confess no matter what the other does. It is never in the best interest of each individual to stay silent. But how could they possibly have improved collectively rather than individually? The outcomes are presented in order of preference for Suspect A individually: he receives 0, 2, 8 and 10 years of jail time for each outcome. Yet, consider the outcomes combined compared to the individual order:

- 1. 10 years combined: 0 years for Suspect A, 10 years for Suspect B**
- 2. 4 years combined: 2 years for each**
- 3. 16 years combined: 8 years for each**
- 4. 10 years combined: 10 years for Suspect A, 0 years for Suspect B (again, this is the reverse of outcome #1)**

It is easy to conclude that the Nash equilibrium (outcome #3) is the worst outcome for the two collectively, but as we already established it is unattainable since neither has the individual incentive to stay silent. Thus, the potential collective benefit is sacrificed due to the structure of individual incentives and the framework of the interaction.

The in-class simulation can illustrate this in the following way:

- 1. Divide the class in two.**
- 2. Explain the scenario and ask each half to discuss among themselves and then state their choice between confessing and staying silent.**
- 3. Allow the two sides to communicate and then to restate their choices.**

This will allow for a number of additional outcomes. The two sides should initially conform to the Nash equilibrium outcome of the game without communication. If they do not, it can be pointed out to them that they have no incentive to stay silent and they are doing worse off as a result. However, allowing communication introduces three other possibilities: (i) that the two sides collude to stay silent and both receive reduced sentences and the best collective outcome; (ii) that the sides reach an agreement to stay mutually silent but one betrays the other and confesses anyway realising that this could lead to them maximising their individual rather than collective outcome; or (iii) that both betray the other using that very logic.

The exercise can end with a discussion on the following issues derived from the experiment:

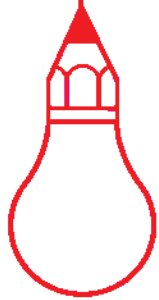
- * How the framework of interaction may lead to sub-optimal outcomes, even with the best of intentions
- * That individual and collective benefits may not correspond directly
- * That communication in such circumstances can lead to the realisation of such benefits and the prioritisation of the collective interest
- * That, even with communication present, a favorable outcome is not assured and that building trust among partners is fundamental in the promotion of cooperation



CHAPTER 6

Migration and Development

by: Stavros K. Parlalis



Migration has existed since the appearance of humans; the first humans to migrate were *homo sapiens* who left their African homeland to colonise the world (Gugliotta, 2008). Since that time, people have been forced to move to other places for a number of reasons (De Groot, 2011). Migration can be caused either by the individual will to find a better quality of life (Benson and O'Reilly, 2009) and improved living conditions in another country, or by incidents such as war (Raghavan, 2007), civil war (Gammage, 2007), genocide (Essa, 2011) or other events that make life impossible, such as the Turkish invasion of Cyprus in 1974 (Smith, 2014a). 'Migration is tied to the human spirit, which seeks adventure, pursues dreams, and finds reasons to hope even in the most adverse circumstances' (Parker, 2007). According to the European Commission (2014), the main reasons for migration are family (32%), work (23%), education (22%) and other reasons (23%). The OECD (2014a) also stresses that family migration continues to be the main component of international migration flows, as such motivations are considered to be influenced by children within families (Bushin, 2009). By contrast, migration within free-movement zones went up 10%, while managed labour migration decreased by 10%. Never before have these three major migration channels displayed such different trends. These are the so called "push" and "pull" factors – family, employment and public benefits can "pull" in new migrants, while poverty, conflict and disaster can "push" to create them (Parker, 2007).

There are currently many unsafe areas and countries around the world, in which individual safety cannot be secured. The Human Rights Watch in its 'World Report 2014' focuses on: a) violent extremities taking place in Syria, the Central African Republic, South Sudan and Congo regarding breaches of basic human rights; b) attempts to reduce the mortality of mothers and babies; c) attempts to offer primary education to all; and d) migrant protection. Amnesty International in its Annual Report for 2012 focuses on trespasses of human rights, stressing: a) the poverty faced by people in Africa; b) rebellions against authoritarian regimes in north African countries; c) movement due to rising wars; d) the deterioration of women's rights; e) abuse of minorities; f) torture; g) attempts to abolish death penalties; and h) any discrimination based on gender, nationality, religion or sexual orientation (Amnesty International, 2012). The United Nations stresses the necessity to better organise on issues referring to immigrants (United Nations General Assembly, 2013). Also, the International Organisation for Migration (2013) stresses the importance of considering immigrants' living conditions, quality of life and the protection of their rights. These statements and reports present the miserable conditions currently existing around the world contributing to continuously higher numbers of migrants.

Finally, it has to be illustrated that most of the relevant literature to date has focused on migration from poor to rich countries (i.e. from East to West), and the resulting impact for the countries of origin (Social Science Research Council, 2008). It is equally interesting to investigate the impact of migration on domestic development, e.g. the effects of skilled migration (Docquier and Rapoport, 2007), which has been relatively neglected. This chapter explores international migration with a special interest in the European Union, as well as emphasising the impact of migration on the development of the receiving countries.

More people than ever are living abroad. In 2013, 232 million people, or 3.2% of the world's population, were international migrants, compared with 175 million in 2000 and 154 million in 1990 (United Nations Information Service, 2013). The number of immigrants living in OECD countries rose from around 75 million at the start of 2000 to more than 100 million at the close of the decade (OECD, 2014a). In addition, in a period of almost 25 years (1990-2013), the number of international migrants born in the South and residing in the North¹ doubled, increasing from 40 to 82 million and growing more than twice as fast as the global total (United Nations, 2014).

Migration in the European Union presents a mixed picture nowadays, with Eastern European migrants moving to the West predominant (Favell, 2008). Europe remains the most popular destination with 72 million international migrants in 2013 (United Nations Information Service, 2013). The latest data from Eurostat (2014a) reports that during 2012 there were an estimated 1.7 million immigrants to the EU-27 from outside countries. In addition, 1.7 million people previously residing in one of the EU member states migrated to another member state.

Germany reported the largest number of immigrants (592,200) in 2012, followed by the United Kingdom (498,000), Italy (350,800), France (327,400) and Spain (304,100). A total of 14 of the EU-27 member states reported more immigration than emigration in 2012; however, emigrants outnumbered immigrants in the following countries: Bulgaria (NMS), the Czech Republic (NMS), Ireland, Greece, Spain, Cyprus (NMS), Poland (NMS), Portugal, Romania (NMS) and the three Baltic Member States (NMS) (Eurostat, 2014a). This data presents a trend according to which central and northern European countries are the preferred destinations for immigrants, while people from the south-east European countries emigrate to other countries (Carella and Pace, 2002). In addition, it has to be stressed that the new member states report higher emigration numbers, explained by high rates of unemployment (e.g. 25.7% in Greece in September 2014) (Eurostat, 2014b) and economic crises (e.g. in Cyprus, Ireland, Italy, Portugal, Romania and Spain) (Smith, 2014b). A special note has to be made for Cyprus, as it recorded one of the highest numbers of immigrants in 2012 (20 immigrants per 1,000 persons) and the highest rate of emigration (21 emigrants per 1,000 persons) (Eurostat, 2014a).

Another issue that has to be considered is that southern European countries form Europe's borders with the outside world. For example, Spain, Italy, Greece, Malta (NMS) and Cyprus (NMS) welcome thousands of immigrants every year due to their geographical positions (Reyneri, 2003) which place them on the front line, forcing them to deal with a disproportionate number of migrants from North Africa and Asia. People try to reach European soil by climbing the razor-wire fences that surround Spain's North African territories of Ceuta and Melilla (New York Times, 2014), by crowding into overloaded boats in the Mediterranean (Price, 2014), which is an everyday incident in Lampedusa (Nelson, 2014) and the Greek islands (Smith, 2014c), or by crossing the border between Greece and Turkey (Trilling, 2014), which has been called the 'back door to Europe' (Kennedy, 2012). In addition to the southern borders, the European Union's 6,000 kilometre land border between Belarus, Moldova, Ukraine and the Russian Federation and its eastern member states (Estonia, Finland, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Norway, Poland, Romania and Slovakia) presents significant challenges for border control (Frontex, 2015).

¹ According to this report, the term "North" refers to countries or regions traditionally classified for statistical purposes as "developed," while the term "South" refers to those classified as "developing." The developed regions include Europe and Northern America plus Australia, New Zealand and Japan. For more information visit: http://www.un.org/en/development/desa/population/publications/pdf/popfacts/PopFacts_2013-3Rev1_new.pdf.

The statistics presented in the previous paragraphs reveal the great extent of immigration all over Europe. Further to this, the difficulties faced by immigrants have to be identified and discussed. In the first place, immigrants face many barriers in their social lives. A migrant appears in a new country either alone or with family members but with no other connection to the local community. One of the direct effects following the actual movement to a new country is the gradual loosening of ties with the society of origin (de Haas, 2008). In addition, it is extremely difficult to create connections and relations in the new environment for a number of reasons, e.g. a language barrier, limited knowledge regarding local customs, lack of supporting network, or even different religions (Foner and Alba, 2008). As a consequence, it is quite usual for immigrants to face implications of social integration (Ruble and Shaw, 1991) or possibly social exclusion, which has also been described as 'active exclusion' (Sen, 2000). Apart from the social life, immigrants face many difficulties with employment. Immigrants should either know the local language (Galarneau and Morissette, 2008) or have special abilities and skills to find a job (Antecol, Cobb-Clark and Trejo, 2003). In addition, ethnic group characteristics might constitute a reason for discrimination, e.g. non-white immigrants never attain employment equality with native white people in the UK (Price, 2001). Also, education, potential experience, family characteristics and country of birth are also found to be important determinants of employment (Price, 2001). However, even though immigrants manage to get a job, in most cases they are low paid (Smith, 2006), they do not receive social insurance and other benefits, and employment discrimination against immigrants is very common nowadays (Dietz, 2010). Under these circumstances, low skilled immigrant workers are forced to work many hours every day, have low salaries, live in adverse conditions (Thapa and Hauff, 2005) and are unable to have proper lives. Further to this, immigrants have lower opportunities to access health and social services in the new country (Ku and Matani, 2001; Derose, Escarce and Lurie, 2007), not knowing how to reach services and receive some of the basic benefits for which they are eligible. Finally, immigrants continuously living under these conditions may not be able to offer a good/better quality of life to their families, including their descendants. A vicious circle is created from which immigrants and their family members cannot escape, such as: low-paid job, social exclusion and limited chances for good education (Bledsoe and Sow, 2011). Also, second-generation immigrants seem to be as dissatisfied with their lives as those of the first generation when both parents are immigrants (Safi 2010). As a consequence, immigration is linked with low quality of life, poverty (Jargowsky 2009) and limited chances for improvement.

Bearing in mind the conditions described in the foregoing paragraphs, it is also necessary to see migration through the policy lens. Migration policies in both origin and destination countries play an important role in determining the flows, conditions and consequences of international migration (United Nations, 2013). Some countries establish quotas or limits to the number of workers that are required to fill labour needs (e.g. European countries) (Cattaneo, 2010); other countries assign certain groups to a cap or a target level (e.g. the United States and Australia) (OECD, 2006). Migration is also a hot topic for the European Union, since most of the member states face high numbers of migration; the establishment of a Commissioner in Migration, Home Affairs and Citizenship could be seen as representing interesting progress. Nevertheless, migration is a low priority in the European agenda. Despite the adoption of an important set of legislation and operational tools, primarily in the field of irregular migration, labour migration has remained a field in which member states have proven to be reluctant to adopt common rules (Pascouau, 2013). The harmonisation of policies has faced political blockages, despite being seen by most observers as necessary (Givens and Luedtke, 2004). More than 10 years after the enforcement of the Amsterdam Treaty, legal migration remains the "poor child" of the policy (Pascouau, 2013). As a result, it is not possible to develop a sound and comprehensive EU immigration policy for Europe, even if attempts have been made since 1999 (Europa, 2011). This is apparent in the comparative study of the laws in the 27 EU Member States for Legal Immigration (International Organisation for Migration, 2009), in which different policies and practices can be identified.

Further to the argument, there are many examples which reflect the weakness in forming common policies and adopting common rules. The UK might veto new countries joining the EU unless there are tighter restrictions to prevent the vast migration of people from Eastern Europe, and Prime Minister David Cameron's proposal was accepted by the European Commission, which indicated that 'it will impose tough new immigration restrictions on countries that join the EU' (Dominiczak and Waterfield, 2014). Thousands of Poles moved to the UK particularly since 2004 when Poland joined the European Union, opening up the borders for the free movement of workers (Rainey, 2013). In addition, Cameron aims to introduce new measures regarding EU migrants' benefits cuts. On the other hand, Poland's Deputy Foreign Minister stated that 'there is a red line we cannot allow ourselves to cross', illustrating that 'Mr Cameron's proposals [are] discriminatory, unfair and illegal under EU rules on the freedom of movement' (Grice, 2014). Similarly, the significant presence of Romanian workers in Spain and the effects of the crisis led Spain to reintroduce temporary restrictions in July 2011 (Pascouau, 2013).

On the other hand, in 2011, among the 195 countries with available data, a large majority of Governments (73%) either had policies to maintain the current level of immigration or were not intervening to change it, while 16% had policies to lower it and 11% had policies to raise it (United Nations, 2013). All 11 countries with policies to raise immigration in 2011 were in Europe, including six in Eastern Europe (Belarus, Bulgaria, Poland, the Russian Federation, Slovakia and Ukraine), three in Northern and Western Europe (Austria, Finland and Sweden) and two in southern Europe (San Marino and Slovenia) (United Nations, 2013). This data reflects the extant need of most European countries to welcome new immigrants to their societies. Nevertheless, the establishment of the EU Blue Card is not in the same spirit, as it aims to make Europe a more attractive destination for highly educated persons from outside the European Union and 'the world's most favorite migration destination' (EU Blue Card Network, 2014). Even though this is in favour of some categories of immigrants, it does not apply to normal migrants seeking admission (Schotel, 2013). It could be said that the European Union 'chooses' the 'best' migrants to live on its soil, which is considered to be discriminatory (Gümüs, 2010). Nevertheless, the opinion of the public is in a totally different direction, with most people believing that raising the level of immigration will create higher levels of unemployment, lower wages and worsening working conditions for local citizens. This reality is reflected by the rise of extreme right-wing and Nazi parties all over Europe, like in France (where they received 25% of the vote in the European Parliament Elections in 2014), Greece (6.5% in the National Elections in January 2015), the Netherlands (10% in the National Elections 2012), and Austria (25% in the National Elections 2013). Also, there are currently nine far-right parties in the European Parliament (Elgot, 2014). As a conclusion, it can be supported that there are various voices in the European Union on migration which cannot be synchronised, and at the same time create great differences between member states.

Nevertheless, it has to be illustrated that the issue of illegal immigration has been brought for discussion to the European Parliament. Mrs Martinez-Orozco (MEP) accused the European Union of 'not reacting in time or with the forcefulness needed to address this humanitarian tragedy' taking place along the Mediterranean coasts of southern Europe (26 August 2014). Mrs Martinez-Orozco asked a) what measures had been taken by the Commission to prevent further humanitarian tragedies and b) when would the Commission implement a genuine common immigration policy. Mrs Martinez-Orozco's questions are mentioned here to show that there are MEPs who are interested in immigration issues and its effects on local communities; nevertheless, the data presented in this section emphasizes that migration is a low priority on the European agenda.

According to public opinion, migration is considered as negative in the receiving countries (Rustenbach, 2010) and affects people's lives in many ways, e.g. by creating lower wages and increasing unemployment. It is a common sense message that international migration is a bad thing that ought to be stopped; officials and the public still believe that if we can tackle the root-causes of international migration it can be drastically reduced (OECD, 2007).

However, this notion was more popular in the 1960s and 1970s, when migration was thought to contribute to the regions of origin through financial remittances (Tinajero and Sinatti 2011). In recent decades new notions have emerged, and a major conceptual shift has occurred in the last ten years (Social Science Research Council, 2008), according to which migration is considered an integral part of development (Tinajero and Sinatti 2011). Since 2006, the first high-level dialogue on International Migration and Development reaffirmed that 'international migration could be a positive force for development in both countries of origin and countries of destination, provided that it was supported by the right set of policies' (United Nations, 2013). Migration is not an independent variable explaining change, but is an endogenous variable, an integral part of change itself as it may enable further change. This is why it is more correct to refer to the reciprocal relationship between migration and broader development processes instead of the (one-way) impact of migration on development (de Haas, 2008). Migrant-receiving countries must be encouraged to look at their migration policies through a development lens, and should be involved in a discussion regarding policy innovations which can maximise the overall benefits of international migration (OECD, 2007). Nevertheless, there are still some countries that prevent immigrants from moving and settling down, since they cannot recognise the interdependent relation between migration and development.

Economists point to the benefits of immigration, though their views are not often heard (OECD, 2011). The benefits of immigration include the influx of labour, capital and innovation; immigrants also pay taxes which support services to those living in the country. Immigration also unites family members and promotes more stable families and communities, whereas new immigrants bring enthusiasm, energy and culture to share with those already living in the country (Parker, 2007). Adopting a capabilities perspective on development, expenditure in areas such as education, health, food, medicines and housing, as well as community projects in education, health and recreational facilities, can greatly enhance people's wellbeing and capabilities and should therefore be considered "developmental" (de Haas, 2008). Development practitioners should look at remittances as tools for development (Olesen, 2002). Surging remittances, in particular, are often believed to be more effective instruments for income redistribution, poverty reduction and economic growth than large, bureaucratic development programs or development aid (de Haas, 2010). In literature, remittances are seen as an indispensable source of foreign exchange that provides macro-economic stability and alleviates the ravages caused by insidious problems such as poverty (Wise and Covarrubias, 2009: 85). Nevertheless, other references state that the observation that remittances significantly contribute to income stability and welfare in developing countries does not necessarily imply that they contribute to poverty alleviation (de Haas, 2008). Return visits and return migration, remittances, transnational business activities as well as investments and civil society involvement in origin countries are all expressions of the transnational character of migrants' lives (de Haas 2008: 39), and show a commitment to the country of origin.

Policy makers would like to connect development not only to financial remittances, but also to social remittances such as networks and relations, skills and knowledge, and ideas and values (Levitt, 1998) in order to embed developmental potential (Tinajero and Sinatti, 2011). This aim could be achieved through the interaction between locals and immigrants, representing populations with different cultural identities and customs. In this attempt, 'individual migrants and their associations, local authorities, civil society, NGOs, the private sector, the academic sector, etc. have become key actors in development cooperation' (Tinajero and Sinatti, 2011). Policy makers have sought to create opportunities to involve small-scale actors in migration and development (Tinajero and Sinatti, 2011). A brief description of a project that is currently implemented by the Municipality of Nicosia (Cyprus) has to be mentioned here. The Municipality of Nicosia is currently implementing the project entitled 'New channels for the integration of Third Country Nationals in the local community', in which good practices are proposed, and networking between immigrant organisations and NGOs is created. Through this project, immigrants have the space to make their own statements. The event is a collaboration with the Office of the Commissioner of Administration (Ombudsman) of Cyprus. This is an example in which a small-scale actor dedicates special attention to the role played by migrants themselves and seeks to increase a migrant's participation in the societies of origin and residence, all of which is thought to influence their engagement in development (Tinajero and Sinatti, 2011).

Large-scale out-migration coincided with social and economic development in several prominent countries (Terrazas, 2011: 7). However, general development is a complex and multifaceted process, involving and requiring structural, social, political, and institutional reform, which cannot realistically be achieved by individual migrants or remittances alone, and requires active state intervention (de Haas, 2010: 240). The Global Commission on International Migration (2005: 23) identified two broad types of contributions; first, to growth, development and poverty reduction in countries of origin. Second, 'to the countries of destination by filling gaps in the labour market, by providing essential skills, and by bringing social, cultural and intellectual dynamism to the societies that migrants have joined'. The remittances that immigrants send home are the most tangible link between migration and development. Remittances are similar to other forms of employment income: they can reduce the depth and severity of poverty, promote human capital development, expand consumption and contribute to asset accumulation (Terrazas, 2011: 8). Moreover, expenditure in areas such as education, health, food, medicines and housing, as well as community projects in education, health and recreational facilities should be seen as developmental as long as they enhance people's wellbeing and capabilities (de Haas, 2010: 250). On a different level, India exemplifies again the ways that a country can benefit from large-scale professional migration; while the country continues to export thousands of engineers and computer scientists, the institutions that trained them continue to exist and flourish with strong governmental support. Protected national industry also generates technological development and creates new employment opportunities for returnees (Portes, 2007: 75). In addition, professional transnationalism has the potential to alter significantly the level of scientific expertise and technological know-how in the home countries (Portes, 2007: 76). Finally, these transnational networks are today the most important developmental resource associated with international migration. Past and present citizens integrate into a web of rights and obligations in the extended community defined with the home country as the centre. Increasingly, the governments of countries of origin are seeking to cultivate ties with the diaspora, seeing them as a source of investment, overseas market openings, foreign exchange, expertise, and political support (Newland, 2003).

Conclusion



This chapter has focused on issues related to migration and its effects, specifically on the relation between migration and development. The theoretical background on international migration was discussed, the newest statistics on migration presented and immigrants' difficulties in the destination country explored. Also, the policies on migration currently adopted by European Union member states were investigated in order to form a better picture of the various policies around Europe. Finally, the relation between migration and development was explored, aiming to inform a greater audience regarding the positive effects of migration, a topic that is not widely discussed. Lastly, the second part of the chapter aims to transfer knowledge and information presented in the first part through participatory teaching methods with the ultimate aim of offering tutors alternative methods to develop and discuss the topic of migration and development.

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TEACHING TOOLS 6

Studies have shown that there are two main orientations of teaching: learning facilitation and knowledge transmission (Gow and Kember, 1993). A typical lecture offered in both the formal and non-formal mode of education is placed in the latter orientation. Nevertheless, the former orientation of learning can be successful and fruitful for students, too. There are many references in the literature which underline that positive outcomes occurred when individuals were trained more frequently and with more active, participatory teaching methods (Finkel, 2003). The success of the use of these methods depends on the individuals involved, on the quality of facilitation and the context in which they are applied (Pretty et al., 1995). There are various participatory teaching methods which can be briefly summarised as brainstorming, discussion, role play, games, case studies, debate, demonstration and practice (Malawi Institute of Education, 2004). Some different methodologies that could be used to investigate the topic of Migration and Development are presented in this part of the chapter. The four different methods that can be used are: a) small group discussion (focus groups); b) role play; c) debate; and d) brainstorming. Each of these methods is presented and discussed.

TEACHING TOOL 6.1

Small Group Discussion (Focus Group)

According to this teaching method, a brief statement will be read to students and they will discuss the issues presented. Questions are given to support the tutors.



The story of the human race

Migration is fundamentally the story of the human race from its origins to the present. Migration is an integral aspect of life on this planet. People move to survive. They move in search of food. They move away from danger and death. They move towards opportunities for life. Migration is tied to the human spirit, which seeks adventure, pursues dreams and finds reasons to hope even in the most adverse circumstances. Such movement affects the communities that migrants leave and those that receive them. This movement also impacts communities along the route of transit.

- * Is migration inevitable?
- * Is migration necessary for the survival of the human race?
- * Can migration be controlled?
- * Should migration be controlled? By whom?
- * Would migration respond to planning or are there times when migration is the product of unpredictable factors? (Parker, 2007)

Reasons for migration

The human being has migrated since its origin. This migration has ranged from journeys of a few miles to epic travels across oceans and continents. Drought, plagues, floods or other natural disasters have triggered migrations, while slavery, escape from slavery, invasions and exile have created forced migration. Adventurers have sought new land, fame, fortune or power. The formation of empires, colonies and nation states has taken people across the world.

Does it matter who is migrating and whether one person or one family is migrating versus whether an entire community is migrating?

How does distance factor into the methods, costs and success of migration? (Parker, 2007).

Traditional explanation for migration

Age old debates about migration frequently point to “push” and “pull” factors. This debate continues today in public policy circles, with a focus on such “pull” factors as family, employment and public benefits, and “push” factors such as poverty, conflict and disaster. With the exceptions of human trafficking and refugee flight, migration is generally viewed as a choice. The “push” and “pull” theory of migration looks at individuals and their decisions to migrate.



- * While in some cases the migrant may have freely chosen his/her journey and destination, could the reality be much more complicated?
- * Could there have been forces pushing the migrant to leave his/her community, such as loss of land, natural or man-made disasters, instability, or poverty?
- * Could there have been forces pulling the migrant to certain destinations, such as family ties, romantic relationships, opportunities to pursue a field of study, or opportunities to move to another socio-economic level?
- * Is it possible that economic and political policies and actions of the local government, neighboring governments, or super-powers may create a domino effect that results in decisions to migrate?
- * If migration is seen as a means of survival, is survival a choice or a necessity?
- * What if migration is viewed as an effort to build a better life? (Parker, 2007).

Decisions regarding immigration

In some respects, receiving countries face decisions similar to countries of transit. In other respects, the decisions are much more complicated. The decision whether to close a border and which border(s) depends on the relations the country has with the sending nation, the type and number of immigrants that arrive from that country, and the political, social and economic environment which exists at the time of the immigrant's arrival. Questions which factor into decisions about closing borders include the cost of closing the border (financial, technological, and human resources needed), the human cost (loss of life crossing deserts or seas), the geography and feasibility of closing the border(s), and the political will to close the border(s). Receiving countries must decide whether they will accept any immigrants at all. If they choose to accept immigrants but with limitations, then they must decide which immigrants will be given preference (ethnicity, education, skills, family already in the receiving country), how many immigrants will be allowed to enter over what period of time, and what process will be used to facilitate immigration (will it be rigid or will there be discretion).

- * What can receiving countries do ethically to limit the numbers of immigrants arriving at their borders?
- * Is it ethical to rescue persons on boats that are not seaworthy, if the country then chooses not to screen the persons about fear of returning to their country of origin but just sends them home?
- * May receiving countries arbitrarily choose which immigrants to accept and how many, or should they create a coherent, understandable, and publicised policy? In other words, do receiving countries have a duty to give notice to the world about who will be allowed to immigrate and under what circumstances?
- * Can countries ethically limit migration by race, nationality, age, education, gender, sexual orientation, or any other similar classification or category?
- * To what extent may receiving countries defend their borders? Can borders be protected with lethal means?
- * From what resources should a country divert funds needed for services to the country's citizens to protect the borders? (Parker, 2007)

TEACHING TOOL 6.2

Role Play

The use of a role play is another productive method that can be used by tutors, teachers and/or educators. Students will be given the chance to play different roles and to realise how immigrants might feel in an unwelcoming environment and, finally, to consider issues around immigration.

The title of this role play is 'Can I come in?' and is a variation on an exercise included in the Compass Manual (2002). This exercise discusses role-playing about a group of immigrants trying to move to another country. Issues of human security, discrimination and xenophobia are discussed; also, the right to seek and enjoy security and a better life is discussed, while discrimination issues are raised. The objective of this exercise is to develop knowledge and understanding about immigrants, and to promote solidarity for people who seek a more secure environment and their attempts to do so.

A group with a minimum of 6 persons is required, while the maximum capacity of the exercise is 20 persons; it is estimated that the duration of the exercise is one hour. There are three main roles involved in this exercise: immigration officer(s), immigrant(s) and observers. The scene for the role-play has to be prepared by: a) the borders between two countries being drawn on the floor, b) a counter in the immigration office being created using a table, and c) a waiting room being created for those standing in line.



Instructions:

1. Explain that this is a role-play about a group of immigrants moving from their homeland to enter another country in search of a better life.
2. Start with a brainstorm to find out what people know about immigrants. Write the points on a large sheet of paper or flipchart paper to refer to in the discussion later.
3. Show people the set-up in the room and read out the following text: 'It is a dark, cold and wet night on the border between country A and country B. A large number of immigrants have arrived from country A and they want to cross into country B. They are hungry, tired and cold. They have little money, and no documents except their passports. The immigration officials from country B have different points of view—some want to allow the immigrants to cross, but others don't. The immigrants are desperate, and use several arguments to try to persuade the immigration officials.'
4. Divide the participants into equal groups, with one representing the immigrants from country A, a second representing immigration officers in country B, and the third representing observers.
5. Tell the "immigrants" and the "immigration officers" to work out a role for each person and what their arguments will be. Distribute the handouts and give them fifteen minutes to prepare.
6. Start the role-play. Use your own judgment about when to stop, but about ten minutes should be long enough.
7. Give the observers five minutes to prepare their feedback.



Debriefing and evaluation

Start by asking the observers to give general feedback on the role-play. Then get comments from the players about how it felt to be an immigrant or an immigration officer and then move on to a general discussion about the issues and what people learnt.

Tips for the facilitator

Use the brainstorm to ascertain how much people already know about immigrants, what causes people to move from their homeland, and where they come from and the countries they go to. This will help you decide how to guide the debriefing and evaluation, and what additional information you may need to provide at that stage. You may wish to give the observers copies of further information so that they can inform themselves of the rights of immigrants while the rest are preparing for the role-play.

TEACHING TOOL 6.3

Debate



The use of a debate can be a very productive method, since a dialogue between students could be developed and opposing arguments could be used. The design of a debate typically features a judge (e.g. the tutor) who determines winners and losers among the debating sides (Maloy and LaRoche, 2015). The students have to be divided into two groups: those who consider immigration as something “good” and those who consider immigration as something “bad”. The two groups will have to sit opposite each other. The tutor must read the following statement:

Is migration good for the economy? Benefit or burden—what’s the reality?

Migration is a feature of social and economic life across many countries, but the profile of migrant populations varies considerably. In part, this is because of the variety of sources of migration. In much of Europe, for example, citizens enjoy extensive rights to free movement. In Australia, Canada and New Zealand, managed labour migration plays an important role. Other sources include family and humanitarian migration. Whatever its source, migration has important impacts on our societies, and these can be controversial. The economic impact of migration is no exception (OECD, 2014b).

Immigration benefits the U.S. The economic advantages are significant. Many immigrants are natural entrepreneurs, establishing companies, creating jobs and driving innovation. Well-educated and highly-trained foreign workers are inventive and productive. Expanded workforces increase business flexibility, allowing companies to quickly respond to changing demands. Larger labour forces also encourage specialisation. Labour productivity rises as companies adjust to larger workforces and invest in employees (Forbes, 2013).

Instructions:

After reading the statement of motion, the two groups will spend some time brainstorming their arguments before the debate based on the information begins. The two teams have 15 minutes to prepare; they should then elect two speakers to represent their group in the debate and come back to confront each other. The tutor is the chairperson and conducts the debate and controls the discussion. Each speaker is limited to five minutes.

To answer the topic introduced in the statement, it can be helpful to look at the impact of migration in three areas: the labour market, the public purse and economic growth. In addition, the information presented here could be used to support the contra side, which happens to be the weakest side in most cases.

Data that can support the chairperson’s arguments

Labour markets:

- * Migrants accounted for 47% of the increase in the workforce in the United States and 70% in Europe over the past ten years.
- * Migrants fill important niches in both fast-growing and declining sectors of the economy. Like natives, young migrants are better educated than those nearing retirement.
- * Migrants contribute significantly to labour-market flexibility, notably in Europe.

The public purse:

- * Migrants contribute more in taxes and social contributions than they receive in benefits.
- * Labour migrants have the most positive impact on the public purse.
- * Employment is the single biggest determinant of migrants’ net fiscal contribution.

Economic growth:

- * Migration boosts the working-age population.
- * Migrants arrive with skills and contribute to the human capital development of the receiving countries.
- * Migrants also contribute to technological progress.



TEACHING TOOL 6.4

Brainstorming

Lastly, brainstorming is a way of introducing a new subject, encouraging creativity and generating a lot of ideas very quickly. It can be used to solve a specific problem or answer a question (Brander, Keen and Lemineur, 2002); also, various scholars have presumed that group idea-sharing can enhance cognitive stimulation and idea production (Dugosh et al., 2000).

The title of this brainstorming exercise is 'Hit the headlines' and it is a variation of one included in the Compass Manual (Brander, Keen and Lemineur, 2002). The objective is to develop knowledge and understanding about immigrants' lives and integration in the host countries. It aims to produce a mock-up of the front page of a tabloid newspaper. The headlines summarise the group's thoughts and feelings about immigrants' integration in their local community.

A minimum of 8 people is required, while the ideal number of participants would be up to 20 (divided into three or four groups); the duration of the exercise is estimated to be 45 minutes.

Instructions:

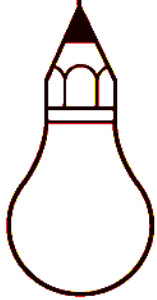
1. Tell the participants to get into small groups of three to five persons.
2. Tell them to discuss issues such as immigrants' participation in the social life of their community, their relations with locals, their engagement in public sphere activities and their integration in their community.
3. Each small group should agree together on 5 or 6 different "stories". They should write a headline for each story together with a few sentences of the general ideas if they wish. They should not write the whole story. A "photograph" is optional only, but is a good idea.
4. Each group will have to present its stories, and discussion will focus on the identified issues.



CHAPTER 7

Sustainable Development v. Economic Growth

by: Artur Wiczorek



Is there an inherent tension between economic growth and sustainability? Can we have both or is it necessary to choose one? In this chapter, we will examine why both economic growth and sustainable development are perceived as important, especially for the countries of the Global South; why they are contradictory, and why, despite the fact they are contradictory, we want to have them both. Then we will examine two major lines of thought, one of decoupling and one of degrowth. Proponents of decoupling would argue that it is possible to decouple (detach) economic growth from resource consumption and waste production and thus achieve sustainability with sustained growth. Proponents of degrowth would argue that it is only possible to achieve sustainability without the constant unlimited growth, and postulate transformation to a post-growth society as a way of achieving sustainability. A set of exercises, movie screenings, and moderated discussions allows us to convey this knowledge to students in an interactive and stimulating way.



Defining Sustainable Development

The most popular and widely used definition of sustainable development comes from the 1987 report of World Commission on Environment and Development *Our Common Future*, also known as the *Brundtland Report* (UN, 1987). According to this report:

Sustainable development is development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs.

It defines the goal of sustainable development well, but when we look at this definition more closely, we can see some problems with it. Basically, according to this definition 'sustainable development is giving enough to everybody forever'. Perhaps, theoretically, we can imagine a situation in which everyone's needs are fulfilled forever, but achieving it in reality is a very different thing.

Perhaps it would be possible if we lived in an infinite environment, but we live on a finite planet with limited resources and a constrained environment. Fulfilling our needs forever is the ideal, but since our needs are infinite and our resources are finite, what sustainable development would mean in practical terms is balancing these needs, not only the needs of contemporary and future generations, but also the needs of the the economy, society and the environment. That is why sustainable development is often portrayed as having three dimensions: social, economic and environmental (sometimes a fourth cultural dimension is added). Only when we balance the development in these three areas can we speak of sustainable development.

Sometimes these dimensions reinforce each other (eg. economic development supports alleviating poverty and, as poverty is linked to environmental degradation, the less poverty, the more environmental protection) but often they are contradictory. When we realise this, we also understand why sustainable development is so problematic. **There is inherent conflict between the economy, society and the environment**, and at some point developing sustainably means reducing economic gain for the sake of society/environment, or reducing immediate gains for the sake of future generations. And that is something we, as a humanity, are not particularly good at.

Brundtland's Commission acknowledged this and stressed that sustainable development would mean recognising environmental limits and working within them, thus achieving only the most important needs. It would also require 'that those who are more affluent adopt life-styles within the planet's ecological means – in their use of energy, for example' (UN, 1987: 16).

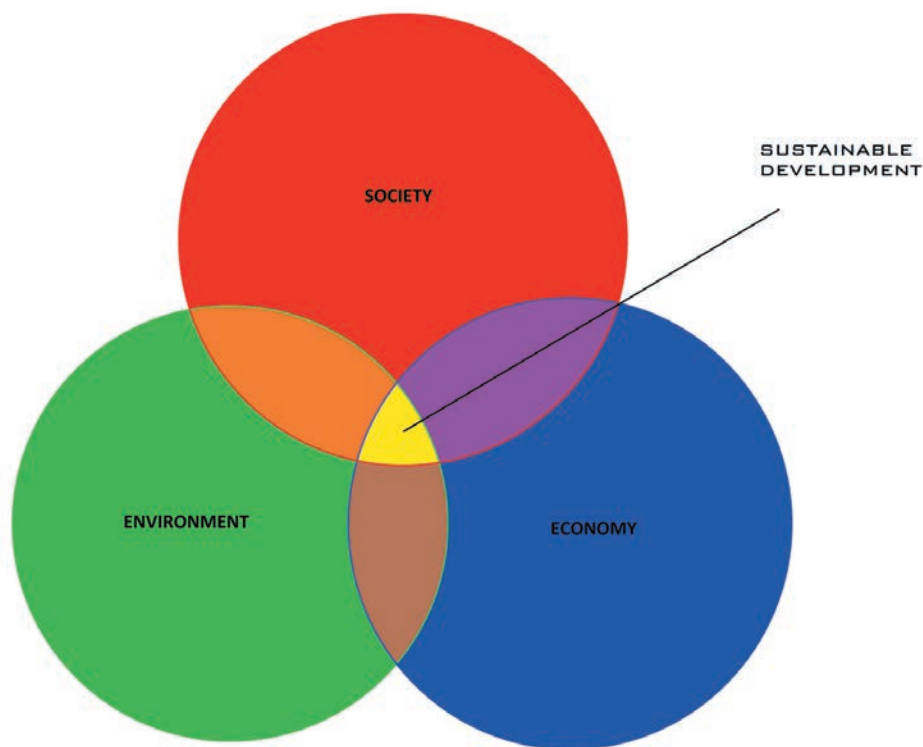


Figure 7.1: Pie Chart Showing Environment – Economy – Society – Sustainable Development

Although there is a broad consensus about the urgent need to develop sustainably, the idea is visible in the Millennium Development Goals and dominant in the Sustainable Development Goals that will replace them in 2015 (UN, 2014), in the last 30 years since Brundtland's report was released, we were not very successful in implementing this rule or limiting the consumption in developed countries. There are several reasons for that:

1. Humans seem to never be satiated. Once our needs are fulfilled, we crave more.
2. Our social and economic system (capitalism) is built upon economic growth, and to sustain it, we have developed a **culture** that forces us to crave and consume more and more. If we all suddenly limited our needs, the system would collapse.
3. We have become addicted to cheap, non-renewable energy sources, especially oil, and we are not willing to let go of this addiction easily.
4. We tend to speak about solidarity and cooperation between countries, but the reality reflects competition rather than cooperation. Countries of the Global North and South more often than not compete against each other and none of them want to "lose" in the global competition. And they perceive limiting growth as something that would make them "lose" the global race.
5. Providing fast economic growth is often an easy strategy aimed at gaining votes and funds in democracies, so politicians, who are elected every few years, are keen on putting short-term gains before long-term strategies that would benefit the whole planet.
6. Even if we somehow managed to limit our needs, consumption would still grow because of the population growth. Moreover, many countries need this population growth to balance their budgets and pension systems and so they encourage it.



What are the Detriments to Unlimited Economic Growth?

Why can't we have infinite economic growth? To put it simply, in a closed system nothing can grow indefinitely. And earth is a closed system. Perhaps economic growth would not be so problematic if it weren't linked so much to resource consumption and waste production. But there is a direct link between resource consumption and economic growth, they have been growing at roughly the same pace during the last centuries (Popkiewicz, 2012). Moreover, the growth is not linear, it is exponential. That means we grow, consume resources and produce waste at an exponentially increasing pace. If something grows at five per cent per year (such as our economy), it doubles every twenty years. That means it will be double the size in twenty years, quadruple the size in forty years, eight times bigger in sixty years, and thirty-two times bigger in one hundred years. And since our economic growth is directly linked to resource consumption and waste production – they also grow exponentially. In other words, in the last twenty years (since 1995) humanity has roughly used as much resources and produced as much waste as it did since the beginning of time until 1995. And in the next twenty years we will use as much resources, and produce as much waste, as we did since the beginning of time until now (Popkiewicz, 2012).

Obviously, our planet has its limits, both in terms of available resources and the amount of man-made waste it can accommodate. The question is, where are these limits? The debate was sparked with the 1972 report, 'The Limits to Growth', by the Club of Rome (Meadows et al., 1972). It used computer models to predict the future of civilisation in the three paths of growth. The report was highly influential and it sparked a fierce debate. Numerous publications and reports on whether we are reaching or will ever reach the limits of growth followed. The report was criticised for its methodology and inaccurate models.

Some of the opponents also claimed that the alarmist report by the Club of Rome is just another version of Malthusian theory. In 1798, Thomas Robert Malthus published the highly influential, 'An Essay on the Principle of Population', in which he argued that current trends of population-increase and land-use for food production would lead to poverty and starvation because there simply will not be enough food produced to feed everybody. But his predictions were false. What he did not take into account was the technological development. Similarly, opponents of the 'limits of growth' approach claim optimistically that technology is the answer to our problems and that markets will find ways to solve the problem once we run out of resources, once we start reaching the limit of the resource, the price will go up and this will spark innovation, people will find a way to use other resources. Others claim that it's better to plan now and be prepared.

However, 'The Limits to Growth' was revisited several times and its predictions occurred to be surprisingly consistent with reality. In 2008, a complex report was published to assess 'A Comparison of the Limits of Growth with Thirty Years of Reality' and it found that our resource consumption patterns are in line with what the report predicted (Turner, 2008).

Whether we are reaching resource peak is disputed, but the immediate threat to our existence did not come from the depletion of resources, it came from the side we least expected, the ability of the environment to accommodate our waste. The most vulnerable element of this system happened to be the atmosphere, which can't accommodate excessive amounts of CO₂, a waste product of burning fossil fuels. We mine fossil fuels and burn them to acquire massive amounts of energy. This cheap energy allows our whole civilisation to exist and thrive. The main waste product of this process is CO₂ and we just throw it away into the atmosphere. Essentially what we do is dig up massive amounts of carbon that was trapped underground for millions of years (in the form of coal, oil or gas) and release it into the atmosphere (in the form of CO₂) in just a few hundred years. As we have discovered, this process has destabilised the natural circulation of carbon and deregulated the climate on the planet. And this will have terrifying effects on our civilisation in the coming century, where we will experience rising sea levels, droughts and floods, hurricanes and various weather anomalies. Tragedies of millions of people, wars for resources and massive migration will follow (IPCC, 2014: 12).



What are the Benefits of Unlimited Economic Growth?

We now know with almost absolute certainty that economic growth (since we don't yet know how to decouple it from resource consumption and environmental pollution) is detrimental to our environment and to us. Why not just stop it immediately? The story is not that simple. The whole construction of our society and economic system is based on growth. What would happen if the economy and population suddenly stopped growing?

First and foremost, our banking system would collapse. The whole system is based on lending money to people (money that banks don't really have, it's only virtual) and expect them to pay them back with interest. The whole system is based on an assumption that later there will be more money (value) in the world. And that means there must be economic growth. The whole world currently owes over 55 trillion dollars (The Economist, 2012) From whom is this money borrowed? From Martians? No, from ourselves in the future. Essentially, we borrow money from the future, assuming that in the future there will be more money, so we can pay our debts back. If the economy suddenly stopped growing, that would mean most of those debts would never be paid. And that would result in not only the entire banking sector, but also millions of enterprises, going bankrupt. People who put their savings in a bank would lose them. That would also mean no more credit for starting an enterprise. Other consequences are hard to imagine. Some claim it's going to happen anyway when we reach environmental boundaries and the economy won't be able to grow any more (Popkiewicz, 2012).

Economic growth also creates employment, that is why it is liked so much by many politicians. The more we produce and consume, the more jobs there are. This is especially important for the Global South that strive to get millions of people out of poverty. Faster economic growth would also mean more income for the state in various taxes. That not only helps finance public spending but also pays the public debt. So, less economic growth would also mean less jobs and less public spending, these are very important factors, especially for countries in the Global South struggling to lift millions of people out of poverty. There is a lot of pressure on politicians to sustain high levels of economic growth and that is why they want to have both things at the same time – economic growth and sustainable development. And when they have to choose, they would rather choose growth.

And what would happen if the population suddenly stopped growing or decreased? This is essentially good, right? If there were less people in the world, we could still keep growing our consumption per capita. Yes, but that would lead to many other problems. For example, in most of the advanced economies, taxes and social security is paid by young working people and elderly people are benefiting from it. And these systems were created when there were much more working-age people than retirees. Now the proportions are changing. Because of medical advancements people live longer and because of changing cultural patterns, we have fewer children. This means there are more and more elderly people and fewer people of productive age. This means less income and more spending for the state. Well-developed states can still uphold pension systems and social security with an ageing population as long as there is economic growth. But what if they were to lack it? This challenge requires long-term vision and lots of bravery in reforming policies, a trait which politicians often lack.

Our Culture Sustains Constant Economic Growth



As economic growth has been so important for us in the past century, we have developed a culture that cherishes it, protects it, and changes our behavior to support it. We have developed a culture that forces us to behave in a manner which sustains constant growth through our consumption patterns. Since prestige has always been a very important factor in human societies, our culture has linked our consumption patterns to prestige. There are two major mechanisms that make us consume more and more:

Planned obsolescence is a process of purposefully designing products in such a way that they break in a short period of time. There are numerous examples of such practices by major companies all over the world; the first nylon socks did not break, we have invented refrigerators, cars, computers, even light bulbs that could live for decades.

However, the companies making all these products soon realised that it is much more profitable to sell the same product every 2-5 years than to sell it every 2-5 decades, so they started redesigning their products. Nowadays, it's very hard to find a fridge, a car, or any electronic equipment, that would last for 2-3 decades. Phones and laptops break after 2-3 years because they are designed to break and many printers have a chip installed that makes them stop printing after making a certain amount of copies. Why do we all tolerate planned obsolescence? It allows us to sustain the major value of our society, economic growth.

Perceived obsolescence is where we don't always wait for the product to break to buy a new one. We have developed various cultural mechanisms linked with social prestige that prompts us to consume more and more, and thus sustain economic growth, for example, fashion, longing for gadgets and having the newest model, and aesthetic taste. We dispose of many products which we could continue to use for years because we perceive them as being old, worn-out, outdated, out of fashion, being an 'older model', or not having the latest gadgets. This allows us to consume more, contribute to growth but also to use more resources and produce waste faster.

We have also discovered that above a certain level of affluence, economic growth alone does not make people happier, on the contrary, sometimes it correlates with less happiness. This effect is known as Easterlin's Paradox, from the name of the economist who first noted that although income per person rose steadily in the United States between 1946 and 1970, the average reported happiness showed no long-term trend and declined between 1960 and 1970. (Easterlin, 1974).



So is a Society Without Growth Possible?

We already know that economic growth is dangerous and detrimental but it is also very deeply intertwined with our banking system, our politics and strategies to eradicate poverty, and even our culture and consumption patterns. Achieving sustainable development is essential if we want to survive on our planet as a species, but the unlimited economic growth is inconsistent with survival. It is symptomatic that the prime minister of the world's bigger polluter, China, in his address to China's annual session of parliament in 2015, stressed that there will be two major goals for China in the coming years, the first goal is environmental protection, and the second, economic growth (BBC, 2015). However, this has only happened after decades of unsustainable development, when China's most industrialised cities suffer from both tremendous environmental degradation and a slump in economic growth, an effect of environmental degradation and of policies introduced to curb the environmental degradation (Bloomberg, 2015).

This conflict between economic growth and achieving sustainability led to the development of two major lines of thought and visions for the future of humankind: the idea of decoupling and the idea of degrowth. Proponents of decoupling argue that it is possible to detach economic growth from its detrimental side effects, such as environmental pollution, resource consumption and waste production. Proponents of degrowth claim that it will never be possible to solve our problems by decoupling and what we really need is a complete redesign of our social systems, economy, policies and culture so that economic growth is no longer a vital part of it. Moreover, they also argue that if we don't do it ourselves, nature will do it for us once we reach the limits of growth, and it will be a very painful process, leading to impoverishment, starvation, massive migration, death and the collapse of our civilisation.



Decoupling

Proponents of the decoupling approach claim that, in principle, we don't have to choose between immediate gains (economic growth) and long-term sustainability, that we can have both. All we need to do is to decouple economic growth from resource consumption and waste production. Easier said than done, however, there is indeed a tremendous amount of effort put into research and development of new technologies that would allow us to achieve this.

This is the approach favored by most governments, business and international organisations, as it doesn't require such a radical change of policies and thinking about development as the degrowth approach does. It assumes that it is challenging but possible to reduce resource consumption without changing our ways of living. And there is a lot to reduce. People in most developed countries are already consuming far more resources than they could to remain sustainable. That would mean resource consumption must not increase, it has to fall dramatically. According to the United Nations Environmental Programme's International Resources Panel, 'over the coming decades the level of resources used by each and every person may need to fall to between five and six tons. Some Global South countries are still below this level whereas others, such as India are now on average at 4 tons per capita and in some developed economies, Canada for example, the figure is around 25 tons' (UNEP, 2011: 12). Consumption in Eastern Europe is still lower than in Western Europe but still much higher than in the Global South. For example, Poland has an Ecological Footprint 2.0 factor of 34.31 ha per capita whereas a factor of no more than 9.18 ha per capita would be sustainable (Gerwin, 2008: 7). If we continue with the business-as-usual scenario, according to the same UNEP report, resource consumption would triple by 2050.

As climate change is the most urgent and pressing challenge we are facing, the first step in decoupling would be to decarbonise the world economy, or to put it plainly, to stop emitting CO₂. This would require that we stop burning fossil fuels and that we obtain energy from other sources. There has been some research into carbon capture and storage which would allow us to burn fossil fuels and then store the CO₂ in geological layers deep underground but it is a dangerous and not a very promising idea. Energy is essential for our civilisation and for its development and it would be impossible to simply cease using existing energy resources without first developing alternative energy sources. Therefore we need to develop alternative energy sources. There is a lot of development towards renewable energy sources, both in terms of research and the necessary policy to support it. Renewable energy is one of the fastest growing sectors, with major developments in some of the EU countries, and in recent years also in China and the US. Eastern Europe, however, heavily relies on burning fossil fuels and will continue to rely on it in the coming decades. In Poland, for example, 95% of electrical energy comes from burning coal and it led the Eastern European block to oppose EU plans for ambitious 2030 climate goals (Carbon Market Watch, 2014).

Despite some obstacles there is now some rapid and accelerating progress, especially in the development of renewable energy sources (RES), such as solar panels and wind turbines. The International Energy Agency predicts that by 2018, the renewable energy sector will make up a quarter of the global power mix, up from 20% in 2011 (IEA, 2013). The prices of renewables are also declining, making them a more viable alternative to fossil fuels. Moreover, thousands and thousands of activists, civil society groups and even businesses put pressure on governments, investors and oil companies to divest from the fossil fuels sector and to leave these fuels underground (Alexander et al., 2014). There are however new challenges; RES also require concrete, metal and, particularly for solar panels, rare minerals. Their rapid development would increase their consumption, so even if we manage to stop emitting CO₂ and solve the immediate climate crisis, we will not solve the long-term problem of limited resources. Even UNEP admits that absolute reduction in resource practically occurs only when growth rate of resource productivity exceeds the growth rate of the economy (UNEP, 2011: 5).

It is probable that decoupling economic growth from resource consumption will never be possible, at least if we don't introduce other measures, rather than being solely dependent on technology. There are numerous examples where technological progress in the resource consumption that has allowed us to use less resources has actually led to an increase in consumption of the resource – this effect is known as the rebound effect or Jevon's paradox (Alcott, 2005). In the twentieth century, the extraction of construction materials grew by a factor of 34, ores and minerals by a factor of 27, fossil fuels by a factor of 12, and biomass by a factor of 3.6 (UNEP, 2011: 15).



Degrowth

All these problems with decoupling has led many thinkers and activists to a conclusion that the only way to escape this vicious circle and achieve true sustainability is to entirely change our culture and economy by transforming our societies from societies based on excessive consumption and economic growth to societies based on minimal consumption, reuse, recycling, and little or no economic growth. As we already know, this would require transforming not only our economy, banking system and development policies, but also our culture and the way we think.

Degrowth is a social movement that developed in the early 2000s. Its proponents would argue that because in developed countries we already use too much resources and produce too much waste, if we want to live in a sustainable way, we would actually have to limit our consumption and shrink our economies. This would require that we stop buying things we don't need, start producing things that we need ourselves in local communities, drastically reduce our travelling and spending, but would also mean much less working hours and so a drop in employment levels. The reduction in consumption would also have to mean a reduction in productivity, closing many obsolete factories or services, and reducing employment or at least shortening working hours. That would require a total reconstruction of the economy and society towards one in which we not only consume less, but also produce less, work less, earn less, use less energy and have more free time. No wonder that, while some perceive it as necessity, others see it as a utopian hippie-like movement. However, unless we are able to invent technologies that would allow us to decouple, degrowth might be a necessity.

The concept of degrowth is a relatively new one and it is a conglomerate of various concepts and ideas rather than a comprehensive program, but it is rapidly developing as an alternative to mainstream discourse. This concept is developed by various thinkers and activists, particularly in Europe and what makes it noticeable is the call to action, this is not only an analysis of the society but also a movement to change our culture and ways of behaving (Demaria et al., 2013). A less radical approach to that of degrowth is post-growth. It embraces the notion that we should reject growth but also strive to build upon existing initiatives and technological developments to build a post-growth society. It also acknowledges that there is no one right way of achieving post-growth (Post Growth Institute, 2015). Some post-growth proponents also claim that Japan, with its ageing society, huge debt (over 300% GDP) and almost no economic growth, is the first post-growth economy (Williams, 2011).



Eastern European Perspective

With the fall of communism in 1989-1990, capitalist reforms were introduced in Eastern Europe. They led to the rapid transformation and modernisation of Eastern European societies. Capitalism has also transformed the values of younger generations in Eastern Europe – they became more individualistic and focused on gaining possessions (Pew Research Center, 2010) and only until very recently, Eastern Europe perceived itself as “developing”. The attitudes are now changing slowly and post-materialistic values can be seen in younger generations but a major paradigm, especially when it comes to implementing various policies on national level, is the focus on economic growth at any cost. János Seténi has identified 3 major factors that impede the development of global consciousness and development education in Eastern Europe: smaller numbers of immigrants; the lack of a colonial past; and totalitarian regimes that made eastern Europeans perceive themselves as victims and recipients of aid rather than donors (Szczyński and Witkowski, 2010: 5). Development education, as well as decoupling and degrowth movements, are much less established in Eastern Europe than in Western Europe, but with joining the EU, Eastern Europe has joined the “rich countries’ club” and both lines of thought are now taking roots in them. While many NGOs, such as Greenpeace, WWF or local NGOs produce reports and campaigns convincing governments that decoupling CO2 emissions from economic growth is possible and profitable (Bukowski, 2013), other civil society actors start creating cooperatives and degrowth groups and educate on importance of changing the consumption patterns.

Path to the Future?



Even though both of these strategies require a lot of effort and the reinvention of our society, either in terms of technological advancement or in terms of reshaping our cultural and consumption patterns, and we are still quite unsure how to manage such a transformation, we know that something has to be done quickly, the clock is ticking. Some claim that we need a whole new paradigm, both in development and in development education, but the vision of it is still very vague (Kirby, 2014). The tragedy is that we don't really know how to achieve sustainable development yet but we know that we have to achieve it fast. Therefore, there seems to be a consensus that we actually need to implement both of these strategies in order to put our civilisation on track to sustainable development and that we need to start introducing them both very rapidly. There are many small initiatives launched all over the world that strive to create a more sustainable world, whether by way of decoupling or degrowth. In China, the state invests huge resources in developing renewable energy sources; in Africa, people are learning to construct solar panels by themselves; in Europe, more and more people refrain from flying and choose a train instead or choose not to eat meat (both meat and plane transport create a lot of CO₂ emissions). The fact that we are unable to transform the whole of society does not mean that we can't make small individual efforts to make our own lives a bit more sustainable. In fact, this is the only tool we have.

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TEACHING TOOL 7.1

Impossible Hamster

Time needed:

15-45 minutes

Requirements:

projector, laptop or computer, internet connection.

The purpose of the exercise is to introduce the problem of infinite growth in an interesting, interactive and entertaining way and to force students to analyse the reality critically. They should also begin realising that the answer to the question 'is growth good or bad?' is not a simple one. The exercise also allows you to check the level of knowledge of your students on the topic and adjust the following exercises.

The exercise consists of two parts: the screening of a 2-minute long movie and a discussion. First, show your students the movie Impossible Hamster. It tells the story of a hamster that never stops growing – just like our economy. Eventually it eats the whole world. (https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Sqwd_u6HkMoc)



After the movie, ask students questions to facilitate the discussion (here are some examples):

- * Do you think infinite growth is possible?
- * Where in nature can you observe infinite growth? (e.g. cells in human body). What are the consequences?
- * What is the most important economic indicator for politicians? Why is it so important?
- * What are the results of economic growth?
- * What sectors need constant growth?
- * What is the result for society when we don't have growth?
- * How is economic growth created?
- * When do we plan to stop growing? Did we set a goal which we want our economy to reach?

If the students don't come up with all the answers themselves, you should explain why economic growth is so important for the economy and for politicians, that it creates employment, that it allows the payment of debt, that all of our banking system is built upon the assumption of constant growth and without it, the system would collapse. Following this, demonstrate some of the problems caused by economic growth and the pressures it puts on the environment and society. During the discussion, students should slowly realise that the whole system we are living in is based on an impossible assumption, but changing this assumption is not that easy.



The purpose of the exercise is to introduce the problem in an interesting, interactive and entertaining way and to force students to analyze the reality critically. They should also begin realising that the answer to the question 'is growth good or bad?' is not a simple one. The exercise also allows you to check the level of knowledge of your students on the topic and adjust the following exercises.

TEACHING TOOL 7.2

Climate Change and Carbon Footprint Calculator

Time needed:

15-45 minutes

Requirements:

internet access, ideally also a projector connected to a computer, board or a flipchart.

The purpose of this exercise is for the students to realise and internalise the results and causes of climate change and develop empathy with people from the Global South who will suffer the most from disasters which are not directly caused by them.

Start by asking the students to brainstorm about the results of climate change and let them give short answers (e.g. melting of glaciers, rising sea levels, droughts, etc.). Write them all down on a blackboard or a flipchart. In the course of this exercise try exploring the concepts further by asking about the indirect results (e.g. rising sea levels will lead to migration, droughts will lead to wars, etc.). When you have a list of concepts and issues, ask students for their opinion on how the Global North and Global South will be affected by these results. Is the risk evenly distributed? Who will suffer the most? What will be the costs? Let them reflect upon it for a while and discuss with each other. They should realise that the majority of the cost of global warming will be borne by the poorest nations and poorest people – if they don't come to this obvious conclusion themselves, prompt them with facts.

After this discussion, proceed to the carbon footprint calculator. On the internet you will find several carbon footprint calculators that count how much CO₂ you produce (e.g. calculator.carbonfootprint.com or www.carbonfootprint.com). Try to count your carbon footprint with students. Open the website, input the data and count your carbon footprint. Ask students to do the same. (You can ask each student to do it individually if they all have internet access or you can all do this together for an average person from your country). Then ask students to compare the carbon footprint among themselves. Who has the most? Who has the least? Why? Let them see and explore the differences within this small homogenous group. Now do the calculation for an exemplary person from the Global South (in a new browser tab). Compare the results with previous results and with students' results.

**Sum up the exercise by asking two simple questions:**

People from what countries contribute most to producing climate change?

People from what countries will be affected most by it?

Discuss the idea of global justice. Ask if there is anything we – as individuals or countries – can do to make up for this injustice.

The purpose of this exercise is for the students to realise and internalise the results and causes of climate change and develop empathy with people from the Global South who will suffer the most from disasters which are not directly caused by them.

TEACHING TOOL 7.3

Consumerist Culture

Time needed:

1.5 hours

Requirements:

colorful magazines with ads, computer connected to projector.

The purpose of this workshop is to reflect upon our culture and the mechanisms that make us consume and buy more and more just to sustain economic growth. It also allows students to reflect upon their own experiences and see how this prevalent cultural trend affects them personally. In preparation, ask students to bring popular magazines and colorful newspapers to class with them. Otherwise, ensure that you have ample materials for use from your own resources. Start this exercise with a revision of Maslow's hierarchy of needs with students.

Divide students into groups of 6-10 people. Give each group a list of needs but not in correct order. You can give them small pieces of paper with one need on each or you can just give them a list with needs in random order. Ask each group to put the needs in an order – from most basic to most sophisticated. When they finish, compare the answers, show them Maslow's pyramid and discuss it briefly.

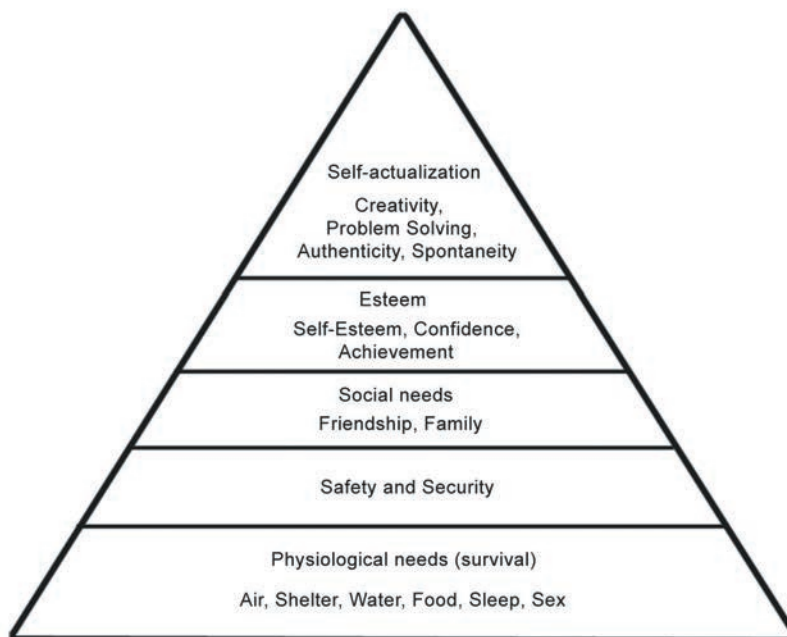


Figure 7.2:
Maslow's Pyramid

Now ask students to flick through the magazines and choose one advertisement they particularly like – the bigger and more colorful, the better. After everyone chooses one ad, ask them to think for a while about it. Ask them questions:

1. What is represented in the picture?
2. What is the product the advertisement is selling? Is it visible in the picture? Is it an important part of the picture? Or is there only a brand?
3. What is this advertisement REALLY selling? Is the product the main item? Is it present at all? Or maybe the product is hidden and the main object is happy people / beautiful people / adventure / sex / fun?
4. What needs are the advertisement addressing?



Then ask a few of the students to present their chosen ad to the whole class, describe the ad and its purpose. Encourage the class to discuss what they see, does it appeal to them, would they buy the product? This exercise affords the opportunity to learn more about your students and their perceived needs.

After several people make their presentations, start a discussion by asking: Why are we really encouraged to buy these things? What is the profit for us? What is the profit for the manufacturer? What is the profit for the society? This discussion should prompt a further debate amongst the students about the consumerist culture.

Once they have discussed the culture that makes us buy unnecessary things, ask them to reflect upon their own experience. When was the last time they had fallen for an advertisement and bought a product that they didn't need? Share also your story of buying something you didn't need to show them that it is very common and we are all vulnerable.



Then introduce the concepts of planned obsolescence and perceived obsolescence. Ask students to give an example of a situation when one of their belongings broke for no apparent reason and examples of situations when they threw out a piece of equipment that was still working or could be repaired. At the end of the workshop show your students a short animated movie **The Story of Stuff** (10 minutes). You will find it here: <http://storyofstuff.org/>.

The purpose of this workshop is to reflect upon our culture and the mechanisms that make us consume and buy more and more just to sustain economic growth. It also allows students to reflect upon their own experiences and see how this prevalent cultural trend affects them personally.

TEACHING TOOL 7.4

Group Research on Decoupling and Degrowth

Time needed:

1.5 hours – 7 days

Requirements:

flipcharts and markers, or a projector and computer.

The purpose of this training is to provide students with concrete and in-depth knowledge on the discussed topics, but it also aims at developing their competencies in fields of research and groupwork. Additionally, knowledge gained actively through research rather than by passive reception during a lecture is more likely to be remembered. Your students should have basic knowledge about the problems and challenges of sustainable development by now. It's time for them to learn about the solutions. Divide students into two equal groups. Aim for group size of 5-8 people. If you have a large group, you may end up with several group As and several group Bs. Each group is now tasked with gathering research, on either the topic of "decoupling" (group A), or the topic of "degrowth" (group B).



Instruct students to prepare a presentation of 5-20 minutes on the topic – the exact length of the presentation and the form is up to you – painting on flipcharts is suggested for shorter presentations, whereas PowerPoint, Prezi or other computer programs are suggested for longer presentations. The time available will determine how in-depth the research should be, it can range from 30 minutes of internet research on smartphones during class to 1 week of in-depth research. Encourage students to look for original sources and present different approaches to the topic. You can also suggest or provide some readings to the groups (you will find some examples in the references for this chapter).

Make sure that all the groups finish their research simultaneously and that they actively listen to other groups' presentations. To make them listen even more actively, give them a task to ask difficult questions and challenge other groups. After students finish their presentations, sum up, try to systematise their knowledge, add more information and repeat what they've already learned. You can also deliver your own presentation (but only after all the students have delivered theirs).

TEACHING TOOL 7.5

Oxford Debate – Decoupling v. Degrowth

Time needed:

1.5 – 4.5 hours

Requirements:

timer

This exercise is optional and designed for advanced groups of students, who already have intermediate knowledge on the topic and the confidence and ability to express their own opinions. The purpose of this exercise is to teach students to argue on a motion, even though they don't agree with it completely. It forces them to see both perspectives – the proponent's and the opponent's – and arguments. It might leave them a bit confused, but that is fine as there are no easy answers in academia, and especially when it comes to sustainable development. Additionally, this exercise develops the competences of public speaking, of formulating clear and precise arguments and of looking at an issue from various perspectives. In the previous exercise, students researched two basic approaches to sustainable development, one of decoupling and one of degrowth. By now students should have basic knowledge on sustainable development, economic growth, decoupling and degrowth. Now students will be asked to assume the role of proponents or opponents of one of these approaches and argue in favour or against it. The debate should be conducted according to the rules of Oxford debates, but you don't have to be very strict about it, feel free to adjust the rules to your needs. Also remember that there is no tradition of debating in Eastern Europe, so this might be new to your students. For the purpose of this exercise, here are the simplified rules of debating:

Divide the students into equal teams of 3-5 people. There must be an even number of teams and all teams should be equal (or almost equal) in size. Example: If there are 10 students, divide them into 2 teams of 5. If the group consists of 12 students, divide them in 4 teams (4x3 students). If the group consists of 11 students, divide them into 4 teams (3x3 and 1x2 students). If the group consists of 30 people, divide them into 6 groups of 5 students each.

Then choose one (or more) motion(s):

It is not possible to sustain growth indefinitely and therefore we need to transform to a degrowth society.

The development of technology will allow us to decouple economic growth from resource consumption and environmental pollution.

Economic growth is a misleading indicator and our development policies should be based on indicators other than economic growth.

Each pair of teams is assigned to a motion. One team proposes the motion, the other opposes it.

Important: Whenever possible, make sure that students defends the view opposite to one that they researched in a previous exercise. Ideally try to make them defend the motion opposite to their personal beliefs.

Print the rules and give them to each team. If the students have never experienced an Oxford debate, practice it first to make sure they know the rules.

After listening to all the arguments, organise a debriefing session, gather all the students together and ask them to share their impressions and feelings after the debate. Ask if they agreed with the statements they made and how they felt with uttering them. Also ask if this experience made them change their mind or rethink some of the assumptions.



RULES OF THE DEBATES ARE AS FOLLOWS:

Each team has 3-5 speakers.

Each member of the team has to speak.

The first speaker of the proposing team starts, then after that, the first speaker of the opposing team, after that the second speaker of the proposing team, and so on... until the last speaker of the opposing team closes the round of speeches.

Opening and closing speakers from each team have 2 minutes for their speeches, other speakers have 1 minute.

Opening speakers have to introduce the position of the team, speakers in the middle provide arguments and closing speakers should sum up and answer the arguments of other teams.

Speakers should listen to the arguments of the opposite team and try to answer them.

After the debate the audience votes on:

A) best team B) best individual speaker.

TEACHING TOOL 7.6

Mixing Decoupling and Degrowth – Brainstorming Real Life Examples

Time needed:

45 minutes – 1.5 hours

Requirements:

post-it notes

The purpose of this workshop is for students to reflect upon their own lives and encourage them indirectly do act more sustainably. They should also understand that the fact that humanity cannot solve the problem 100% doesn't mean it can't be decreased a bit by actions of individuals. They should be able to see the amount of effort made worldwide to make our civilisation more sustainable and, ideally, they will also want to contribute to it.

By now, students will already know that there is no easy answer to the dilemma of unsustainable development and that both approaches (decoupling and degrowth) have their strengths and weaknesses. Now we need to show them that the fact that we can't yet achieve 100% sustainability doesn't mean we cannot make our lives a bit more sustainable.

Start this exercise with summing up and reviewing everything they've already learned by asking questions about what they have learned, what is their understanding of sustainable development and what problems and obstacles they see. This will help them to review their knowledge and exercise their brains before the next exercise.

Then give students small post-it notes in 2 different colours and ask them to think about real life examples of decoupling (i.e. technological and social progress that allowed us to be more sustainable with the same level of consumption) and degrowth (behavior that allows us to be more sustainable by consuming less). Ask them to write examples of decoupling on one colour of post-its and examples of degrowth on another. Then ask them to post these notes on a big board/wall. Give them enough time for their exercise so they can come up with as many ideas as possible.

When they finish, go to the board, read them all and start grouping them into categories with the help of the audience. Try to group them in several categories (e.g. renewable energy, waste reduction, recycling etc.) and place post-its that fit into one category close to each other, try to engage students in the task of dividing them into categories. Some notes may fit into more than one category – in such cases you can stick a note in between categories. This will help students to systematise their knowledge and see the connections between various activities in a very visual and engaging way.

When you finish, ask students whether they do it in their lives and what else can be done to live our lives more sustainably. Allow a free discussion between students. When the discussions slowly fades or students start to repeat themselves, sum up the exercise and thank the students for participating. Provide them with opportunities to find more information on the topic by themselves.



CHAPTER 8

Climate Change: Threats and Challenges

by: Juraj Mesík

Lost in Translation: Kingdom of Conspiracy Thinking

Scientific consensus exists about man-made climate change and there is a sufficiently deep understanding of both the mechanisms involved and the likely consequences of ongoing climate change¹. Yet, the perception among a significant part of the world's public in the Global North as well as the Global South is that there is a "debate" or "controversy" around climate change. How did that come about? How solid is the scientific evidence? And how much do we know about the consequences of climate change; as well as the depth and speed of those consequences?

The perception of controversy among the public is fuelled by a number of reasons. Without aspiring to name all the reasons comprehensively, let me mention just a few of them. The global climate system is indeed extremely a complex and dynamic system – and the average human capacity to understand complex dynamics is, unfortunately, not exactly stellar. Education systems at all levels tend to be rather slow in incorporating new knowledge into curricula and scientists themselves are not very good at communicating science to the public. In fact, for career success for individual scientists, it is almost irrelevant whether or not they communicate results to the broader public or how good at that they are. What matters is articles published in specialised magazines with a high science impact factor and the number of quotations. Unfortunately some of those top notch and highly specialised science magazines are only read by hundreds or thousands people from a total global population of 7.3 billion. The public, which includes teachers and many policy makers, are thus unable to keep pace with the expansively growing body of data and knowledge.

Lost in translation: many people are eager to sign-up to various conspiracy theories which provide easy-to-understand explanations for things which are genuinely not easy to understand. Conspiracy theories were always around: what makes them special in modern times is the ability to mass produce such theories by often scientifically illiterate individuals using modern communication technology and platforms and to spread them virulently. There is practically no lunacy which would not attract a crowd of devoted worshippers on the internet. One of those is climate change denial in its various forms.

Finally, we should not ignore the existence of a malevolent spread of disinformation about climate change, in other words, a fabricated debate. As we shall see, in order to effectively challenge global warming – the key phenomena of recent climate change – humankind would need to change its behavior dramatically, in particular consumer behavior. But any call for a significant reduction in the use of oil, coal, natural gas – which in fact means a decrease in the overall consumption of goods, travel and services – faces strong opposition by those making a living and profiting from mining coal, extracting oil, selling natural gas or cars, to name just a few.

¹See for instance 'Expert Credibility in Climate Change' in Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences (volume 107, 2010). 90% of climate scientists have no doubts about anthropogenic global warming, while most of the remaining 10% have doubts about level of human responsibility, not about the fact of fast growth in global atmospheric temperature.



As 87% of all the primary energy consumed by the people of the world comes from fossil fuels (British Petroleum, 2014), we are all – in particular the people of the Global North – part of vicious cycle of modern consumer society. To keep our jobs and achieve social status we need to consume more and more goods and services, requiring more and more energy – of which the vast majority comes from burning oil, coal and gas and thus emitting CO₂, methane and other greenhouse gases into the atmosphere. Growth of GDP is, to coin a phrase, the holy grail of modern societies, their citizens and businesses as well as politicians. Unfortunately eternal – “sustainable” as they say these days - growth is, illustrated by Professor Bartlett, on one side a mathematical and physical absurdity, and other hand, a devastating aspiration.

Basic Scientific Evidence



There are two basic methods used to measure changes in the global climate system and to make historical comparisons. The first method is to take direct measurements of temperature, humidity, sea levels or the extent of polar and mountain glaciation. For instance, there is modern scientific data spanning more than one hundred and thirty years of continual uninterrupted temperature measurements taken from a global network of meteorological stations covering all continents. Mathematical processing of directly measured temperature from these stations is shown in Figure 8.1.

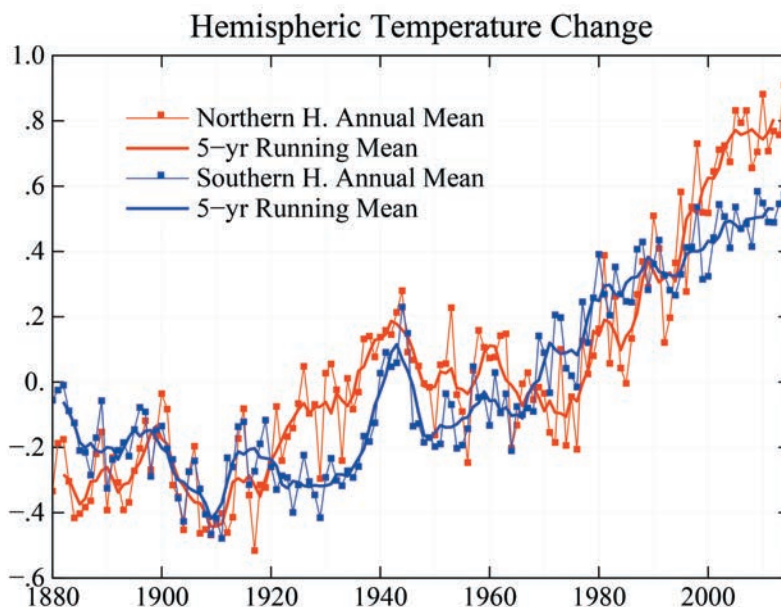


Figure 8.1:
Average Global
Surface Temperature Change
for Both Hemispheres,
1880-2014.
(Source: NASA,
Goddard Institute for
Space Studies,
http://data.giss.nasa.gov/gis-temp/graphs_v3/fig.A3.gif)

The chart in Figure 8.1 – the result of direct measurements – illustrates an increase in average global temperature during the twentieth century of approximately 0.8°C, of which an increase of 0.6°C happened during the last fifty years.

The other direct method of observing what is happening with the earth's climate is much younger than good old thermometers and meteorological stations: satellites with remote sensing instruments installed on them. Among the most interesting climate change data currently provided by instruments installed on scientific satellites are measurements of the humidity of soils, area of vegetation coverage, sea level anomalies or the extent and thickness of floating ice in the Arctic seas and around Antarctica.

Data sets from the satellites² are indeed much shorter in duration than the one hundred and thirty years of data from meteorological stations (and, in fact, there are centuries worth of data from many European locations), but they do capture dramatic changes over the last few decades.

One specifically interesting piece of information provided by satellites is data about the extent of sea glaciation in the polar regions. As already mentioned, the warming trend is most pronounced in the polar regions and the extent of sea ice and its thickness are consequently among the most sensitive “litmus test” indicators of changes. As illustrated in Figure 8.2, the average extent of Arctic sea ice has rapidly declined over the last three decades. September is the month with the smallest extent of sea ice in the Arctic; in the 1980s on average around 7,500,000 km² of Arctic Ocean was covered by ice whereas over the last few years it is typically less or around 5,000,000 km². To date, the record low level of glaciation was reached in September 2012, less than 3,500,000 km². What does the analysis of ice cores tell us about temperature changes in the past?

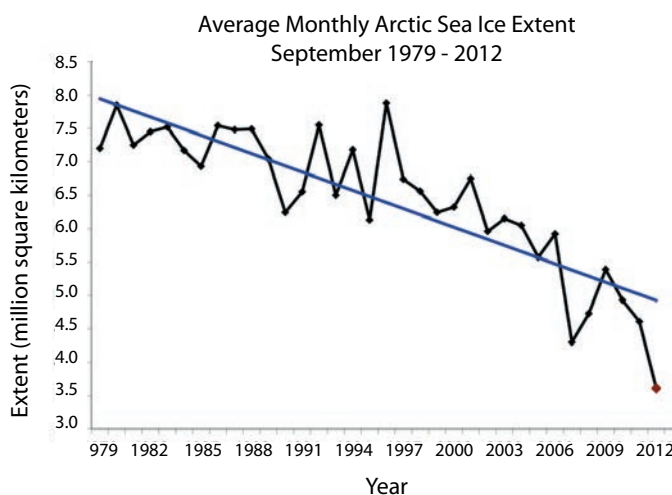


Figure 8.2: Trend in area of Arctic Ocean covered by ice in September, 1979-2012. (Source: National Snow and Ice data Center, <http://nsidc.org/arctic-seaicenews/2012/10/>)

Given the much higher heat capacity of water compared to air, around 90% of excess heat absorbed by the earth due to global warming is being absorbed by the oceans and seas. In order to understand recent changes in the heat balance of our planet it is therefore extremely important to know what is happening under the sea surface. To enable the gathering of this crucial information, new important tools – autonomous Argo floats – were developed, and are being used to measure water temperature and salinity in the depths of seas and oceans. Deployment of Argo floats started in 2000 and by March 2015 more than 3,800 floats were employed in this upper-ocean observing network, monitoring temperature and salinity up to 2,000m deep.

Why is the increase in the Southern hemisphere slower than in the Northern hemisphere (see Figure 8.1)? The explanation, obviously, lies in the unequal distribution of land mass and oceans on the Earth (Kang, n.d.). More oceans in the southern hemisphere mean, for instance, different albedo (for an understanding of albedo, see Teaching Tool 8.1), but it also means that more heat is being absorbed by the oceans and distributed to their depths, keeping the surface cooler than in the North where landmass does not allow for such heat transfer.

Not all regions of the world heat up at the same rate, however, and the general rule is, the closer to polar caps, the more significant is the temperature change³(IPCC, 2007b). Thus, for the mid-latitudes of Central Europe, the temperature increase is around twice as high as the global average: that is around 1.6°C. The precise geographical distribution of temperature growth around the world from 1880 to 2011 is visualised by NASA, available at: <http://www.nasa.gov/topics/earth/features/2012-temps.html>

²See for instance web site of the National Snow and Ice Data Center hosted by University of Colorado at Boulder, USA at www.nsidc.org, for satellite observations of Arctic change specifically <http://nsidc.org/soac>
³See for instance “Climate Change at High Latitude” by Woods Hole Research Center available at <http://www.whrc.org/ecosystem/highlatitude/climate.html>

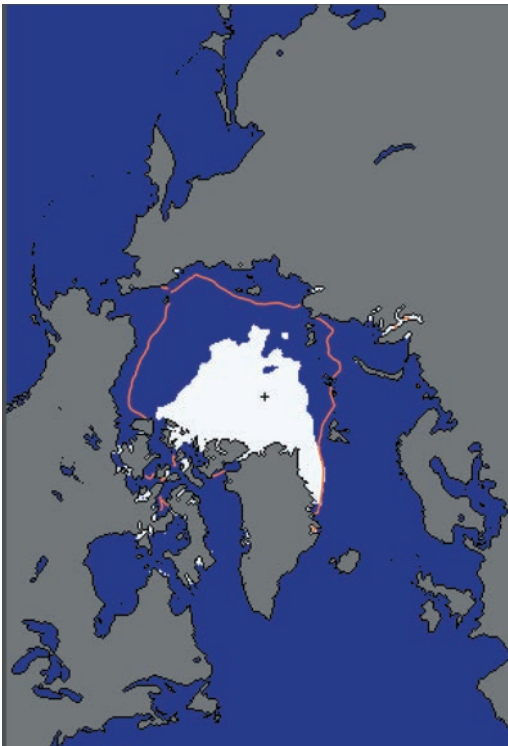


Figure 8.3: Record low area of Arctic Ocean covered by ice in September 2012, in comparison to 1979 – 2000 median. (Source: National Snow and Ice data Center, <http://nsidc.org/arcticseaicenews/2012/09/>)

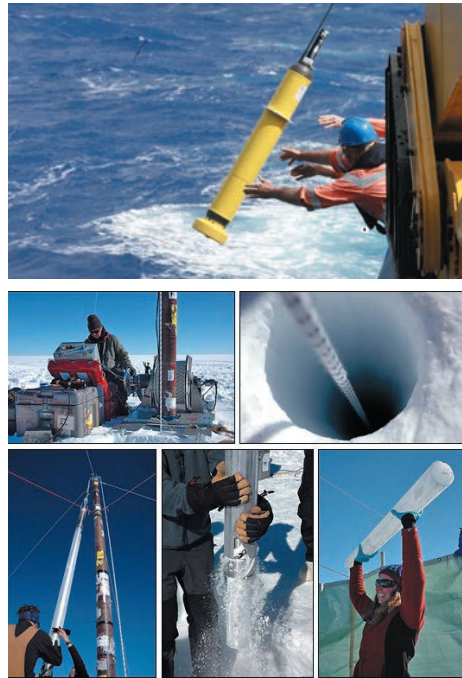


Figure 8.4: An Argo float being deployed from research ship. (Source: Radio Australia http://www.radioaustralia.net.au/sites/default/files/images/2012/05/7/Argo_CMAR_deploying.jpg)

Figure 8.5: Ice core drilling. (Source: NASA http://earthobservatory.nasa.gov/Features/Paleoclimatology_IceCores/)

But how do we know that 0.8°C is a significant change? Is it really a change to be concerned about? After all, we all know there have been ice ages in the past on our planet - and also warmer periods. With our own human temperature sensors, 0.8°C difference in temperature of two bodies is almost undistinguishable.

To be able to judge how significant the recent 0.8°C change is, we need to know what the average global temperatures were like in the remote past. In order to do that, scientists use indirect – or proxy – methods, enabling them to reconstruct the thermal history of the earth. One of many elegant proxy methods used is analysis of ice cores: long columns of ice drilled by hollow drills from ancient ice sheets in Antarctica and Greenland (Figure 8.5).

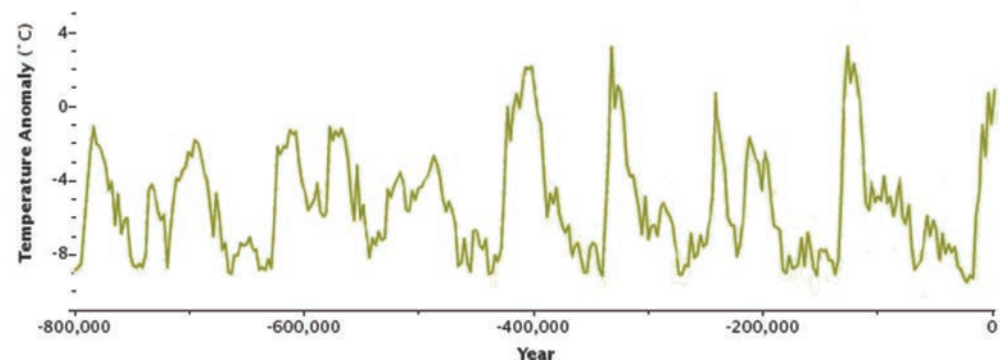
Continental ice sheets in Antarctica and Greenland as well as mountain glaciers in the Himalayas, the Andes, the Alps and other high mountains of the world were all formed over millennia by gradual accumulation and recrystallisation of snow. The ice at the bottom of ice sheets in Antarctica – close to the bedrock on which it sits – was snow around one million years ago. Thus, by drilling into the depth of ice sheets in Greenland and Antarctica scientists are drilling into the deep past, and from the ice extracted from these deep drills, they can gather valuable information about the climate at the time when the ice was formed. From the ratio of oxygen isotopes they can establish temperature at the time when the analyzed strata of the ice was formed, and by chemical analysis of gases trapped in the ice they can also reconstruct the chemical composition of the atmosphere at the time when a crystal of ice was a snowflake rich in air.

Figure 8.6: Extent of glacial coverage in Europe during Pleistocene Ice Age. (Source: Harold L. Levin, *The Earth Through Time*, http://highered-bcs.wiley.com/legacy/college/levin/0471697435/chap_tut/chaps/chapter15-05.html)



 Areas covered with glacial ice during the Pleistocene Epoch

Figure 8.7: Fluctuation in global temperature relative to present times over the past 800,000 years. (Source: NASA, <http://earthobservatory.nasa.gov/Features/Global-Warming/page3.php>)



As you can see in Figure 8.7, ice core analysis tells us that the temperature difference between the current interglacial era – Holocene – and previous ice ages was on average around 6°C and in extremely cold segments of ice ages, it was 8°C or even more.

What this means is that when the average global temperature was 6°C colder than in the Holocene, vast parts of Northern Europe and the Alps were covered by continental ice sheets hundreds to possibly a thousand meters thick. As shown in the map in Figure 8.7, large parts of today's Poland, Germany and Austria were buried deep under the ice, and the territory of the current Czech Republic, Slovakia or Hungary – to mention just a few countries of Central Europe – was tundra inhabited by mammoths, elks and other polar fauna and flora.

Such was the situation in Europe when the world was 6 degrees colder: in comparison with those 6°, we can understand that 0.8°C is by no means negligible. We also need to understand 0.8°C is not the end but just the beginning of our climate's journey to an unknown, warmer territory. How high will the temperature go and how quickly? Those are the fundamental questions for the future for the current generation and, even more so, for future generations.



Who and What is Responsible?

All the energy which warms the climate of our planet originates in the sun and the amount is out of our planet's or people's control. However, the amount of heat trapped by the earth or reflected back to space varies, depending in particular on the chemical composition of the earth's atmosphere and the albedo of the earth's surface.

Science does understand the physics of greenhouse gases since the works of the Swedish physicist and Nobel Prize winner, Svante Arrhenius, on the matter were published in 1896. Shortly after, in 1917, Alexander Graham Bell expressed concerns that the unchecked burning of fossil fuels would lead to a greenhouse effect and warming of the climate.

Hundreds of years later the world is indeed experiencing this warming trend; does this trend correspond with changes in the intensity of solar radiation or with changes in the chemical composition of atmosphere?

The answer is clear: there is no evidence of an increase in the amount of energy reaching the earth from our star – the sun – over the past hundred years plus. In fact it is quite the contrary, there is deafening evidence showing rapid growth in the concentration of carbon dioxide and methane, the main greenhouse gases, in the atmosphere.

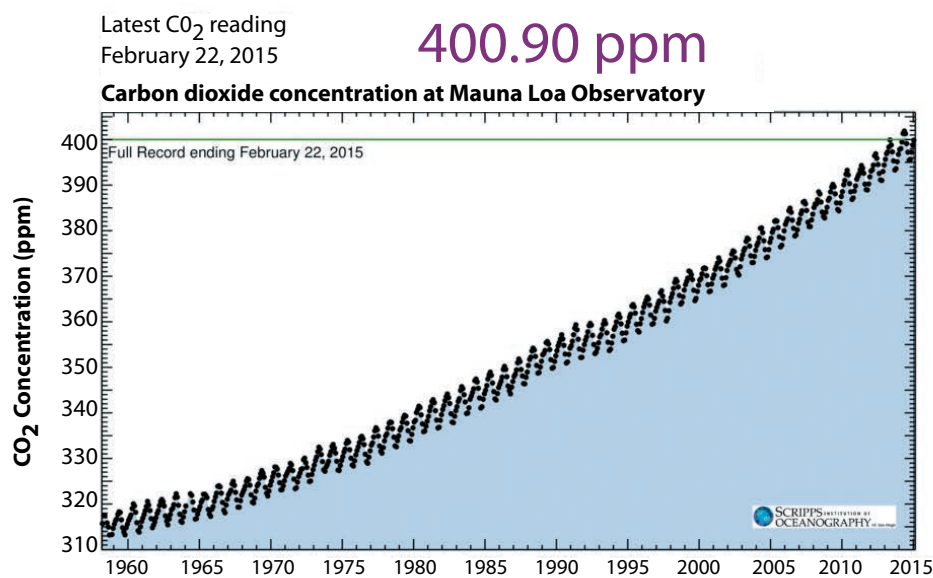


Figure 8.8:
The Keeling Curve - growth in atmospheric CO₂ concentration since 1960.
(Source: Scripps Institution of Oceanography, https://scripps.ucsd.edu/programs/keelingcurve/wp-content/plugins/sio-blue-moon/graphs/mlo_full_record.png)

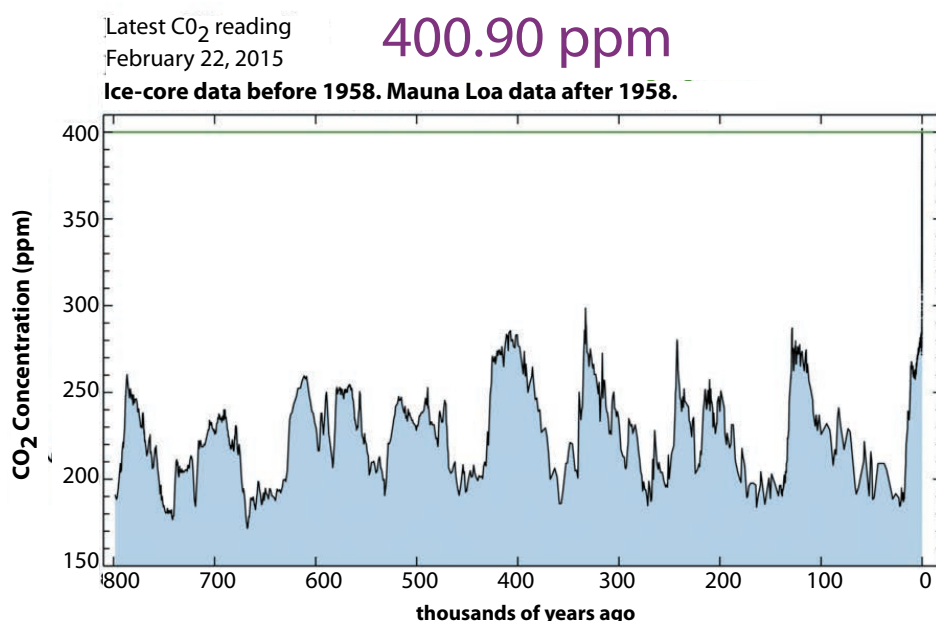


Figure 8.9:
Atmospheric CO₂ concentrations over the last 800,000 years.
(Source: Scripps Institution of Oceanography, https://scripps.ucsd.edu/programs/keelingcurve/wp-content/plugins/sio-blue-moon/graphs/co2_800k.png)

The result of direct measurements of CO₂ concentration taken at Mauna Loa Observatory in Hawaii serve as reference point for the atmospheric concentration of CO₂, see Figure 8.8. Measurements taken at Mauna Loa show that during a short sixty-year history, atmospheric concentration of CO₂ grew from approximately 310 parts per million to the current 400 parts per million. How do we know whether it is a lot, or not? Just like with temperature changes, science turns to paleo-glaciology and ice cores analysis for help. As already mentioned, ice in the ice cores contain small amounts of air trapped and frozen in the ice structure. Melting the ancient ice in vacuum conditions leads to a release of this conserved air and enables scientist to chemically analyse it. The results of the analysis are shown in Figure 8.9.

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Figure 8.9 shows a minimum CO₂ concentration during the ice ages at the level of 180 parts per million (ppm) and maximum CO₂ concentrations reaching around 280ppm during brief interglacial periods. The difference between minimum and maximum is 100ppm. Current CO₂ concentration – 400ppm – is completely out of scale: its increase within one human lifetime is equal to the increase in atmospheric CO₂ concentration during the transition from the ice ages to the interglacial periods, a transition which lasted around ten thousand years. The situation with methane is similar, the second most important greenhouse gas: it's concentration fluctuated from around 300ppb (parts per billion) during the ice ages to around 700ppb in interglacial periods. Current concentration is near 1,800ppb, way outside of natural range⁴.

The last time that the earth's atmosphere had 360-400ppm of CO₂ – during the Pliocene, some two to three million years ago – so much polar ice sheets melted that sea levels were up to 40m above the current watermark (Monroe, 2013). As the retention time of atmospheric methane is measured in decades and that of CO₂ in centuries, it appears inevitable that the global temperature is committed to increase for many decades to come, regardless of our efforts to decrease anthropogenic CO₂ and methane emissions.

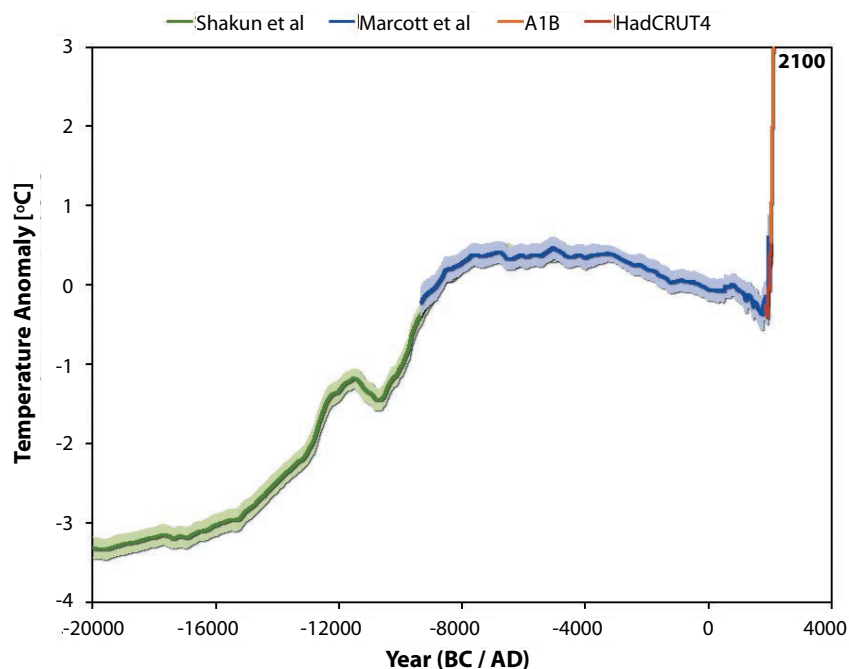


Figure 8.10:
Climate trends of the
past 20,000 years.
(Source: Shakun et al,
2012, <http://www.skepticticblog.org/2013/04/17/the-hockey-stick-slaps-back/>)

⁴ For current data and broader geological context see for instance "Mean Methane Levels reach 1800 ppb", June 18, 2013, available at <http://arctic-news.blogspot.sk/2013/06/mean-methane-levels-reach-1800-ppb.html>

The most serious question is how fast will they increase and how high? Scientists have many mathematical models, but very little certainty to answer this question. The more optimistic calculations suggest an additional increase of 2-4°C within the years 2050 to 2100. Plus a further 2°C by 2100 – this level, which may prove to be overly optimistic – is broadly considered as a legitimate political goal. Whether such increase is actually compatible with survival of the human civilisation as we know it, is a question that is rarely asked, if at all.

All human civilisations from the old Sumer, Chinese and Egyptian through to the Greek, Roman and Medieval and on to current global technological civilisation emerged and existed during the long steady climate regime of the past 6 millennia (blue segment in Figure 8.10). No civilisations existed before the Holocene climate (the green segment in Figure 8.10) and there is no experience of complex civilisations functioning in significantly warmer climate conditions; in fact, homo sapiens, our species, was not here when the last time that the earth had its current concentration of atmospheric CO₂ and respective climate in Pliocene. The belief that our species and civilisation of 7.3 billion people (and growing) can function undisturbed and prosper in a climate warmer by 1°C, 2°C, or even more, is not supported by any experience nor by any theoretical fundaments.

To sum up what has been said so far, global temperature is growing and is growing extremely quickly. The growth is mostly explained by the rapid growth in atmospheric concentration of key greenhouse gases – carbon dioxide and methane – whose levels reached concentrations unprecedented in at least the last two million years. What is the source of the CO₂ and methane (CH₄) entering the atmosphere so rapidly over the last decades? While part of the methane originates in agriculture and part of the increase in CO₂ can be attributed to deforestation (linked to a growth in human population), most of the excess key greenhouse gases originates in the burning of fossil fuels – oil, coal and natural gas.

Since the beginning of the industrial revolution in late eighteenth century and the invention of the steam engine (and internal combustion engines in the late nineteenth century), people started to use an ever-increasing amount of fossil fuels: first coal, later oil and most recently natural gas. Growth in available cheap energy (documented in Figures 8.12, 8.13 and 8.14) fueled the production of food which enabled a population growth from one billion people in 1800 and two billion around 1927 to 7.3 billion people in 2015, thus reinforcing a demand for more energy. Fossil fuels currently provide around 84% of total energy consumed by humankind but the burning of them comes with a price.

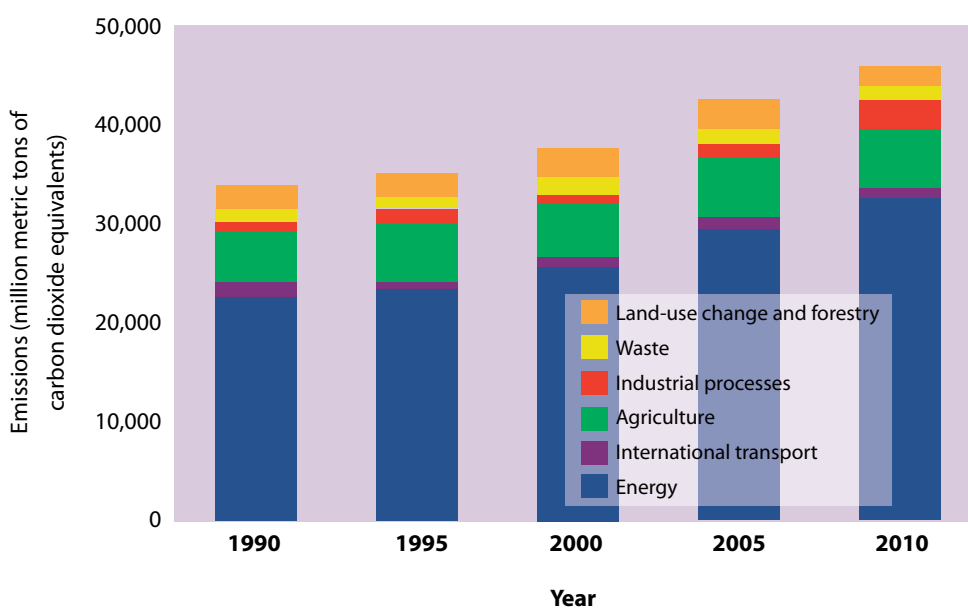


Figure 8.11: Global Greenhouse Gas Emissions by Sectors, 1990-2010. (Source: United States Environmental Protection Agency, <http://www.epa.gov/climatechange/science/indicators/ghg/global-ghg-emissions.html>)

Figure 8.12:
Rapid growth in global
use of coal 1960-2013.
(Source: <http://www.mazama-science.com>)

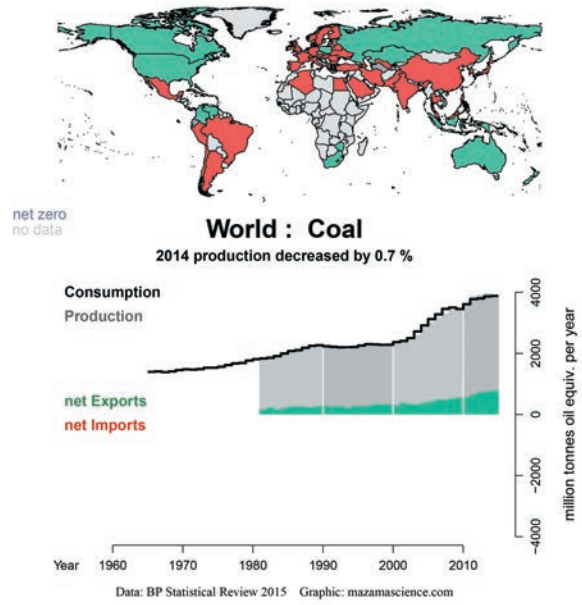


Figure 8.13:
Rapid growth in global
use of oil 1960-2013.
(Source: <http://www.mazama-science.com>)

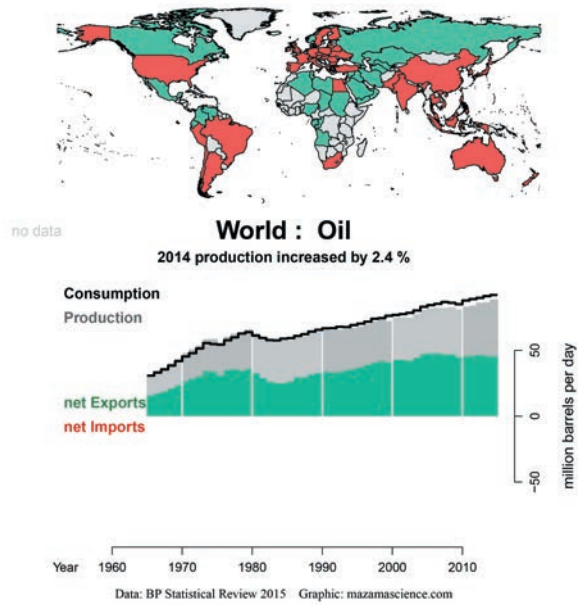
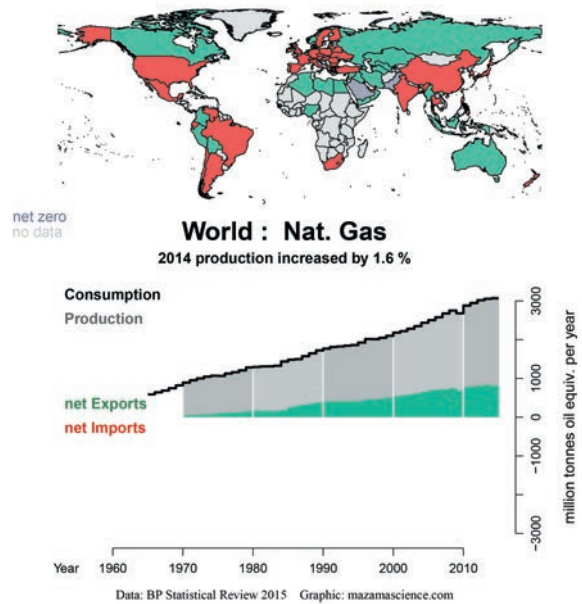


Figure 8.14:
Rapid growth in global
use of natural gas 1960-2013.
(Source: <http://www.mazama-science.com>)



The question about who actually contributed most of the greenhouse gas emissions throughout history is answered in Figure 8.15. It does not come as any surprise that most of the contribution to current CO₂ concentration can be attributed to a handful of the richest OECD countries in Europe, North America and Japan followed by a significant contribution by China and Russia. The combined contribution of the whole Africa, India and Latin America is less than 10%.

Are we, people from Central and Eastern Europe, “innocent” as the chart in Figure 8.15 could suggest? Not at all; if we look at the cumulative emission per capita, Czechs, Poles, Slovaks or Hungarians are anything but without their fair share of guilt and responsibility. On the list of countries by cumulative per capita energy-related carbon dioxide emissions between 1850 and 2008, Czechs occupy the 5th place (after Luxemburg, USA, UK and Belgium), Poles 15th, Slovaks 17th and Hungarian 25th⁵. The moral of the story should be clear: the burden of climate change responsibility on the shoulders of Central Europeans is not a light one.

However, it is also important to note, that when changes in land-use are included, recent per capita greenhouse gas emissions of some developing countries are actually higher than those of some of the most polluting rich countries. For instance Belize produced 93.9 tons of CO₂ equivalent in 2000, Guyana 52 tons, Malaysia 37 tons, Papua–New Guinea 29 tons, Zambia 24.6 tons – this is greater than Canada (24.3 tons) or USA (22.9 tons) – or Czech Republic with 13.9 tons, Poland with 9.6 tons and Slovakia with 9.3 tons⁶.

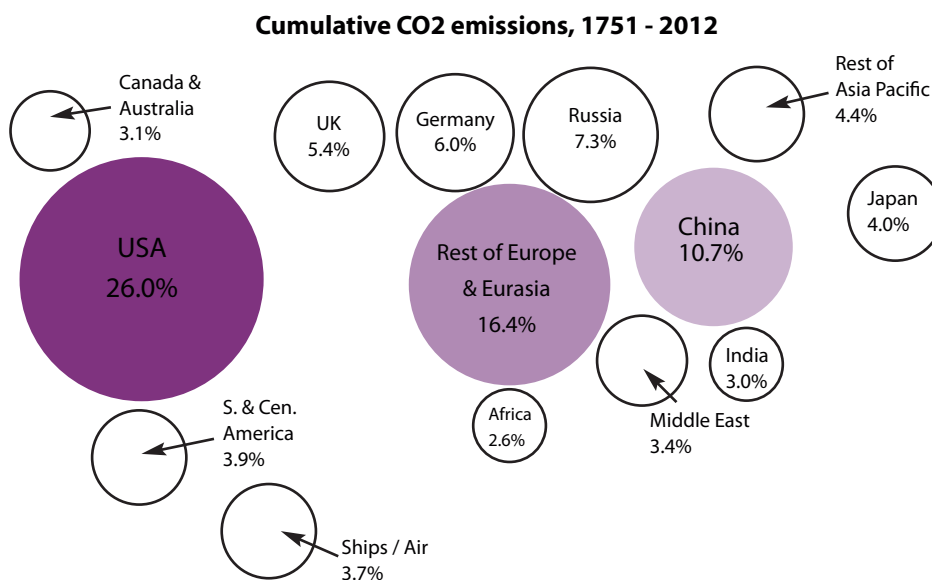


Figure 8.15: Who is responsible? Cumulative CO₂ emissions throughout the industrial era. (Source: <http://sites.uci.edu/energyobserver/2014/10/27/why-keep-including-india-when-comparing-us-with-china-greenhouse-gas-emissions/>)

Who Will Be The First to Pay the Price – and How?



There is no doubt that the main responsibility for anthropogenic CO₂ and methane emissions lies on the shoulders of the Global North, mostly OECD member states. It is however important to note that many countries of the Global South do contribute their significant share to climate change.

Unfortunately those who will pay the first and heaviest price for the climate change fuelled by these emissions are the poorer countries of the tropical and subtropical zones. Very much has been written and published, even in the daily press and popular media, about the various dangerous manifestations of global warming, such as a rise in the level of seas and oceans, and a growing intensity or frequency (or both) of hurricanes, floods, heatwaves or wildfires.

⁵For full list see:

http://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Cumulative_energyrelated_per_capita_carbon_dioxide_emissions_between_1850-2008_for_185_countries.png

⁶For complete list see: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_countries_by_greenhouse_gas_emissions_per_capita

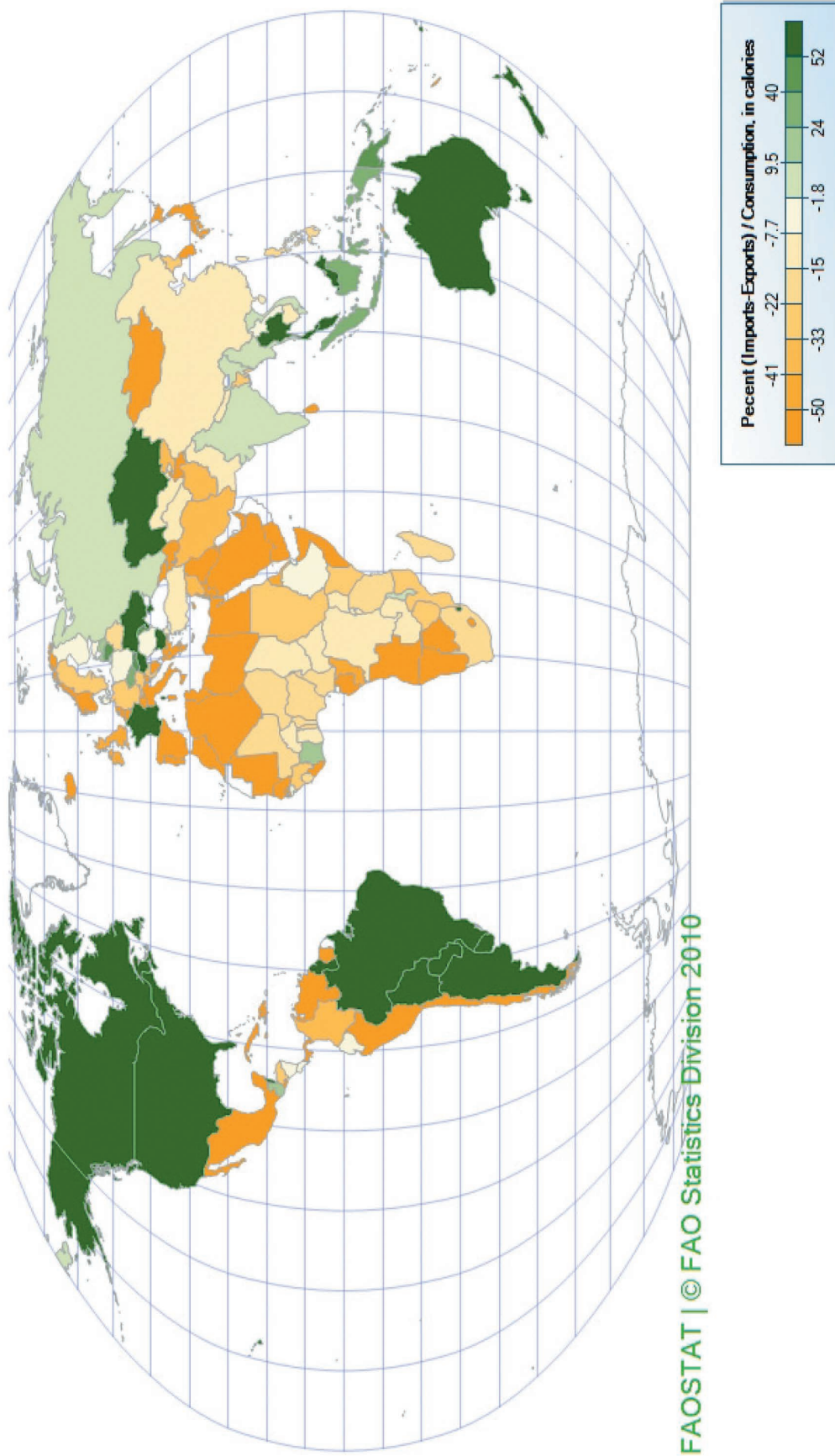
Some of these consequences, for instance a significant sea level rise, are likely to emerge with a great time delay as the melting of continental ice sheets has a very long latency; by the time the large scale collapse of continental ice sheets becomes a reality, recent generations of people will be long gone. This is however not true for mountain glaciers in the Andes, Himalayas or Tibet on which the water resources for rivers depend on feeding ecosystems as well as hundreds of millions of people in the towns and cities of China, Pakistan, India, Bangladesh, Burma or Bolivia, Ecuador and Peru.

However, what makes humankind most vulnerable to warming climate is not necessarily short devastating events such as storms, hurricanes or wildfires, nor slow processes such as melting mountain glaciers and ice sheets in Greenland and Antarctica. Our most significant and potentially most devastating vulnerability affects the very base on which human civilisations survive: our agriculture and food production. The first countries to be affected by climate-change-induced food insecurity, and those that will be most seriously affected, will be countries with high population growth and those who are already depending on importing a significant part of their food consumption today. Those countries are illustrated in Figure 8.16 in orange, countries located in dry subtropical zones importing 50% or more of their food calories, among them the whole of the Middle East and North Africa (MENA) region and a number of countries in Central America and Sub-Saharan Africa.

The melting of ice and glaciers over a shorter period, and a decrease in the coverage of landscapes by snow is not only a symptom of warming, but also a mechanism which further accelerates warming. Snow and ice have a much higher reflectivity compared to land or oceans, thus surfaces without snow and ice absorb much more and reflect back less energy to space than those covered by a reflective coating of snow and ice. Their loss is therefore an important reinforcing feedback mechanism further accelerating warming, especially in highly sensitive Polar regions. As Polar regions contain large territories of permanently frozen land – permafrost – containing huge volumes of methane, the melting of permafrost is yet another strong reinforcing mechanism adding additional, but hardly quantifiable, amounts of methane to the atmosphere. Yet more methane (CH₄) is being released from melting methane hydrates sediments located on the bottom of shallow Arctic seas, whose temperatures are rising. In other regions of the world, heatwaves and droughts increase in frequency and there is an intensity of forest wildfires releasing CO₂ from burned trees and biomass (Kirby, 2013). Extensive wildfires have affected large areas of Amazonia, Siberia, Canada, United States in recent years.

The map in Figure 8.16 shows countries in green which are the main exporters of food calories – wheat and corn in particular. Any decrease in their capacity to export crops may – and will – lead to a rapid growth in global food prices and serious food insecurity in food-importing nations. This is not only a hypothesis because it was proven in 2010 when an extreme heatwave destroyed a third of the crops harvest in Russia. In 2009, Russia was the second largest wheat exporter in the world, after the United States of America who are traditionally by far the largest food exporter. Russian authorities responded to the situation with an embargo on wheat exports. The export embargo, along with other factors, contributed to a sharp increase in global food prices in the second half of 2010 and high food prices triggered a series of food revolts around the world (see Figures 8.17 and 8.18)⁷. A particularly serious situation emerged in several Arabic countries which, in early 2011, experienced events known as The Arab Spring. A look back at Egypt, Syria, Libya or Yemen four years after The Spring suggests that maybe “Arab Autumn” could be a more appropriate name for what the start of a sharp rise in global food prices triggered by the Russian heatwave of 2010. If an extreme heatwave lasting just several weeks can wreak havoc in food security for hundreds of millions of people and destabilise whole countries, what could the consequences of extended droughts lasting several years or longer in crops-exporting countries be? (Brown, 2011) Such consequences can hardly be overrated. Are droughts that could trigger them possible – or even probable?

⁷Good source of information on this issue is World Bank’s site “Food Price Crisis Observatory” available at <http://www.worldbank.org/en/topic/poverty/food-price-crisis-observatory#1>



FAOSTAT | © FAO Statistics Division 2010

Figure 8.16:
 Net Trade in Food
 Calories, 2010.
 (Source: FAO
 Statistics Division,
[http://www.fao.org/d
 ocrep/015/am081m/P
 DF/am081m05.pdf](http://www.fao.org/docrep/015/am081m/PDF/am081m05.pdf))

Unfortunately they are: Figure 8.19 from a study entitled 'Draught under global warming: a review' published in 2011 and updated in 2012 shows that huge agricultural areas in North America, in the Mediterranean region and in southern China – to mention just a few – will indeed experience very serious droughts in upcoming decades and probably completely destroy the capacities of many countries to export food. Unfortunately, a study entitled 'Unprecedented 21st century drought risk in the American Southwest and Central Plains' published in Science Advances in February 2015 echoes the projections in Figure 8.19. 'In both the Southwest and Central Plains, we're talking about levels of risk of 80% of a 35-year-long drought by the end of the century, if climate change goes unmitigated,' said co-author Toby Ault from Cornell University quoted by BBC⁸.

Thus it appears that the absolutely critical challenge caused by climate change and confronting humans in the near-time will most likely be food insecurity and, likely, large scale famines, due to the reduced capacity of current food exporters in North America, in Europe and elsewhere to continue supply subtropical and tropical countries with their agricultural overproduction.

Figure 8.17: FAO Food Price Index 1961-2015. Note sharp increase in 2010/2011. (Source: <http://www.fao.org/worldfoodsituation/food-pricesindex/en/>)

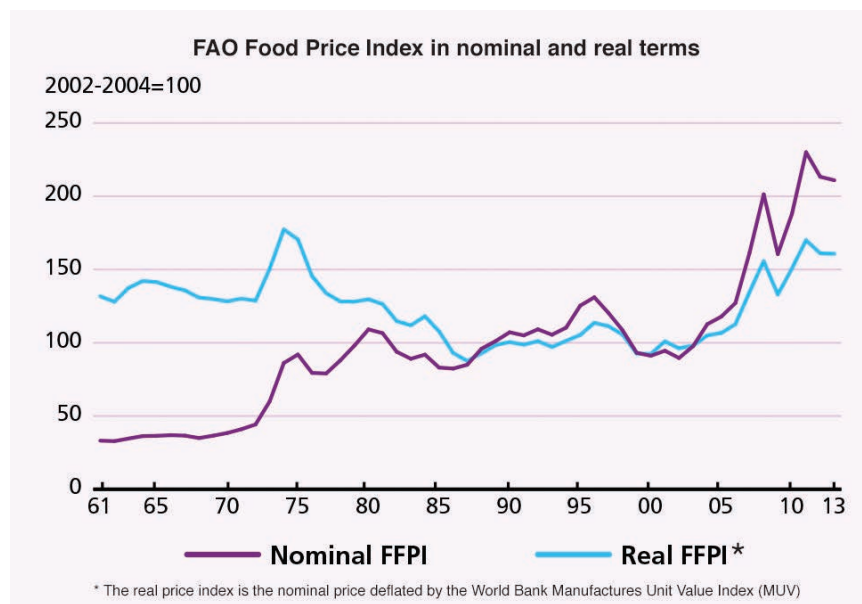
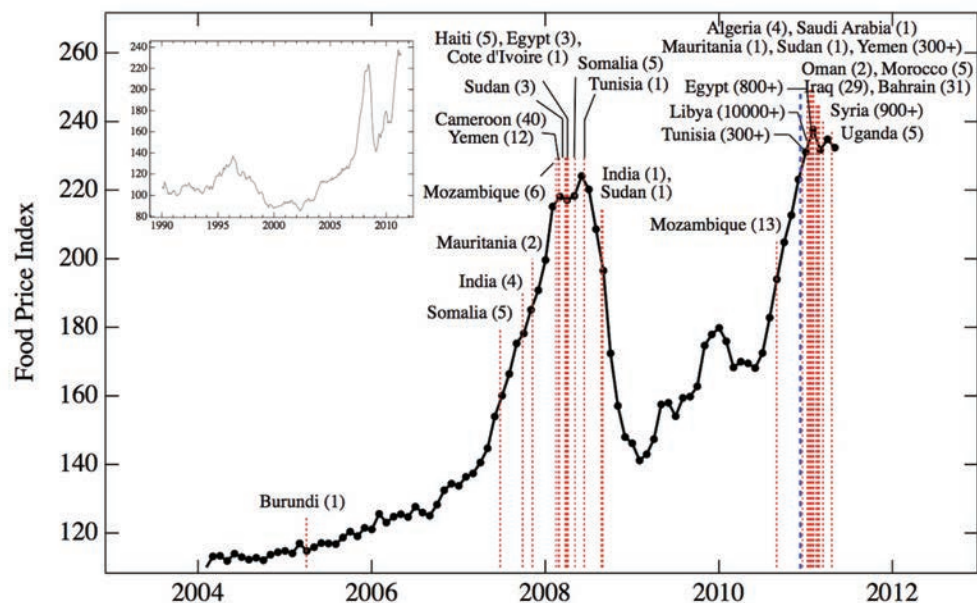


Figure 8.18: FAO Food Price Index correlates with food riots. Death tolls are reported in parentheses. (Source: <http://www.theguardian.com/environment/damian-carrington-blog/2011/aug/25/food-price-arab-middle-east-protests>)



⁸Jonathan Amos, US at risk of mega-draught future, BBC, February 13, 2015 <http://www.bbc.com/news/science-environment-31434030>

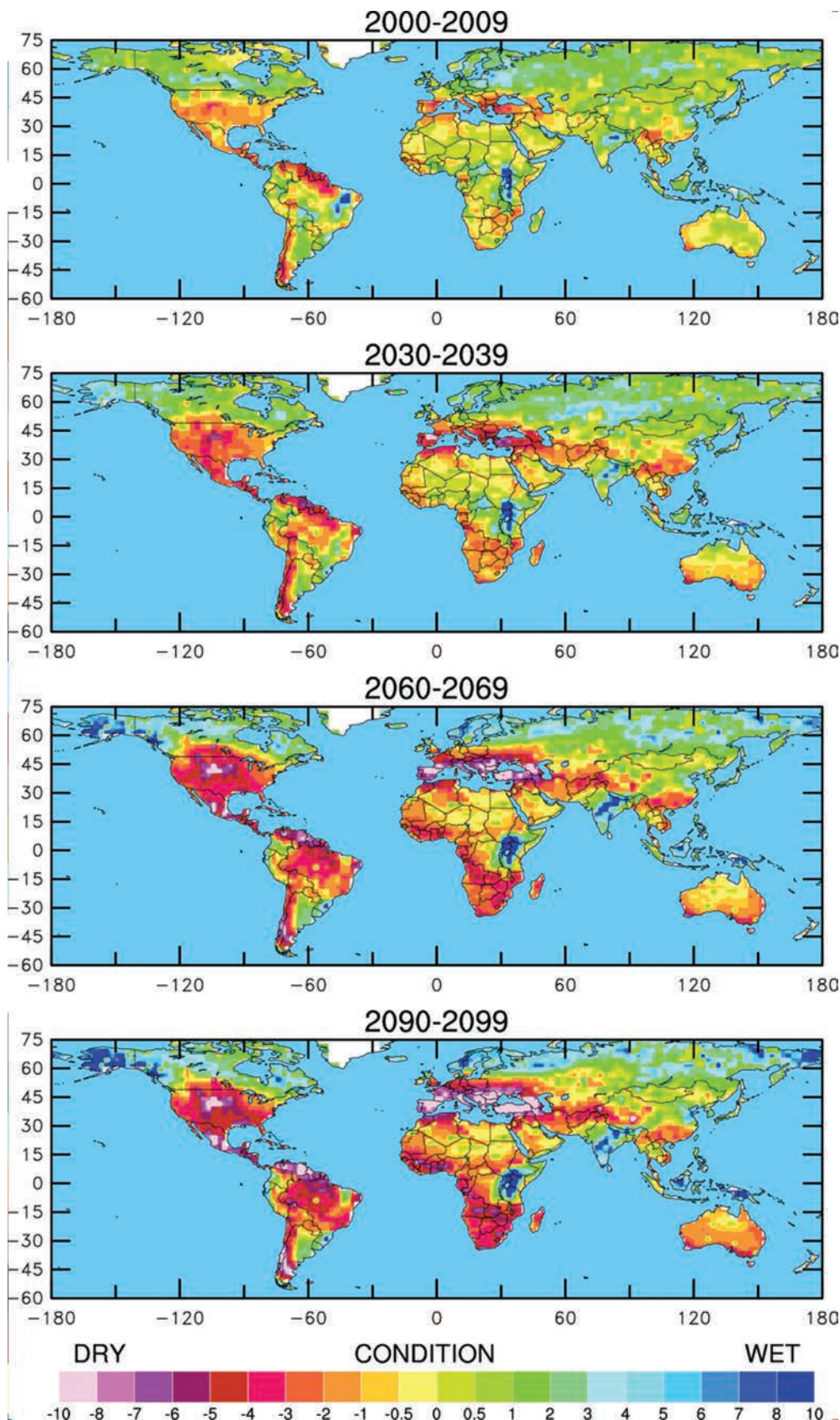


Figure 8.19: Drought under global warming – projections of Palmer Drought Severity Index 2030-2099. (Source: Augio Dai, 2012, <https://www2.ucar.edu/atmosnews/news/2904/climate-change-drought-may-threaten-much-globe-within-decades>)



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TEACHING TOOLS 8

Teaching Suggestions and Activities

Climate change provides teachers at all school levels with ample opportunities for a variety of traditional as well as non-traditional teaching activities. In the following, we shall divide the teaching activities into several larger groups, focusing on basic physics, geography, history and other subjects.

Basic Physics

As many students, especially of humanities, economics and other non-hard-science subjects, tend to quickly forget basic physics, few simple experiments can be used to refresh and explain the basic concepts of global warming. The purpose is not necessarily to go back to equations and advanced theories (although it is indeed possible within the framework of certain subjects) but to demonstrate some very simple physical experiments which help to understand the physics of global warming.

TEACHING TOOL 8.1

Solar Heat Absorption v. Reflection

Practically all the heat on the surface of our planet originates from our star – the sun. With a more or less steady intensity of solar irradiance, the resulting temperature of the earth's landmass, atmosphere and oceans depends, in addition to the chemical composition of the atmosphere (in particular the concentration of greenhouse gases), on the physical qualities of surfaces exposed to solar irradiance. Different materials have different absorption and reflection qualities: the proportion of different materials then influences the resulting temperature of surfaces which are exposed to insulation.



As shown in Figure 8.20, 70% of incoming solar energy is absorbed and 30% is reflected back to space. Of the absorbed 70%, 51% is absorbed by oceans and land, 16% by the atmosphere and 3% by clouds. Of the 30% of energy reflected back to space, 20% is reflected by clouds, 6% is reflected by the atmosphere and 4% by the earth's surface.

Different types of surfaces have different albedo – albedo is the ratio of reflected radiation to radiation incident upon the surface. Seen from above, the earth's planetary albedo is around 30% but varies widely in different regions and circumstances. For instance the albedo of fresh snow is 80-90%, whereas, on the contrary, the albedo of grassland without snow coverage is only around 25%. The albedo of ocean ice is 50-70% depending on its quality but the albedo of ocean without ice-coverage under small zenith angle is only 3-10%: meaning that more than 90% of incoming solar energy is being absorbed.

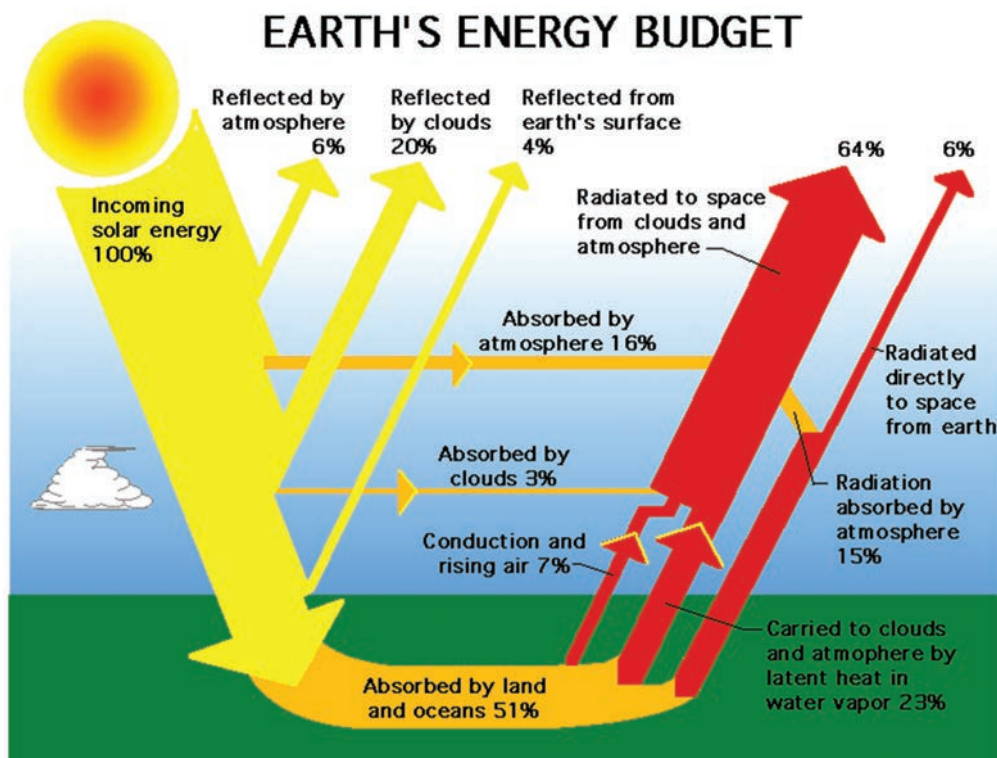


Figure 8.20: Absorption and Reflection of Solar Energy by the earth. (Source: NASA, available at National Earth Science Teachers Association site http://www.windows2universe.org/earth/Atmosphere/earth_atmosph_radiation_budget.html)

TEACHING TOOL 8.1A

Demonstrating Albedo of Different Materials

The different albedo of various materials can easily be demonstrated in classroom conditions by placing materials with different colors and shine under direct sunshine inside the room or outside. Darker surfaces will warm up much faster and to higher temperature than white or silvery/ mirror surfaces, with carbon black being the best heat absorber. Parameters which can be measured in very simple experiments are, for instance, maximum temperature achieved in given sunshine conditions or time within which certain temperatures will be achieved. Of course the results will be different at different times of day (solar angle), on different dates in the year (except in the tropics) or during different cloud conditions, so the best way of doing these demonstrations is by parallel placement of different materials at the same time.

Albedo (Reflectivity) of Various Surfaces

Surface	Percent
Fresh snow	80-85
Old snow	50-60
Sand	20-30
Grass	20-25
Dry earth	15-25
Wet earth	10
Forest	5-10
Water (sun near horizon)	50-80
Water (sun near zenith)	3-5
Thick cloud	70-80
Thin cloud	25-50
Earth and atmosphere	30

Figure 8.21:
Albedo
(Reflectivity)
of Various Surfaces.
(Source:
[http://www.ees.roc
hester.edu/fehn-
lab/ees215/table16
_2.jpg](http://www.ees.roc
hester.edu/fehn-
lab/ees215/table16
_2.jpg))

TEACHING TOOL 8.1B

Solar Cookers

Indeed, all students are aware of albedo in reality; they all know that on a sunny hot day, a white T-shirt is much a better choice to wear than a black T-shirt. Not all students, however, are of the relevance of albedo to global warming, or of a very practical use of this knowledge, for instance in solar cookers.

Solar cookers use a combination of a highly reflective material – mirrors - and a highly absorbing material – black pots – to use solar irradiance for cooking meals. There are many different designs of solar cookers (available, for instance, at <http://solarcooking.org/plans/>) using various shapes and materials. A sophisticated use of parabolic mirrors concentrates all the reflected energy to the focal point in which the pot is placed. Large parabolic mirrors can achieve temperatures sufficient for melting metals in their focal point and can be used as solar furnaces or concentration solar power plants. It is, however, not necessary to have the ideal parabolic mirror shape for cooking the meals.

For slow cooking, temperatures above 60-70 C are sufficient and they can be reached in very simple improvised solar cookers such as the two in Figures 8.14 and 8.15 which are made of cardboard and reflective foil (aluminum foil). Cooking in such simple cookers is possible in Central European conditions from spring until autumn but requires a longer time (typically several hours) depending on the volume of cooked food, the size of reflective mirrors, the time of day, date and the cloud and wind conditions. To avoid the pot being cooled by wind while cooking outside, the pot may be placed in a transparent, heat resistant plastic bag or, in the case of a box-cooker, under sheet glass. To increase the efficiency of box cookers, the outer walls of the cooker may be painted black, while internal walls are covered by reflective foil. To avoid loss of heat from the pot by heat conduction, it is good to place a piece of board under the pot.



Figure 8.22: Improvised solar cooker A.
Made of folded sleeping pad and box cooker.
(Source: <http://solarcooking.org/plans/>)

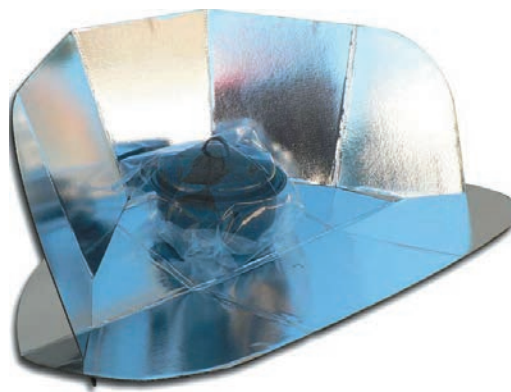


Figure 8.23: Improvised solar cooker B.
(Source: <http://solarcooking.org/plans/>)

Teaching students about solar cooking does not only provide a better understanding of basic climate change physics but also provides them with a low cost, home-made technology which can provide energy for one of the most fundamental needs of people – energy for cooking. In developing countries, cooking energy is the main energy need for hundreds of millions of people and harvesting wood and biomass for cooking and charcoal production contributes significantly to the destruction of ecosystems, in particular around towns and cities, which of course adds as well to the production of greenhouse gases. Moreover, cooking on open fires, which is still very common in many countries of Africa, presents a major health risk to the women who do the cooking because of the possibility of breathing large amount of concentrated smoke. Solar cooking is thus a practical and very low cost climate change mitigation technology as well as a health improvement measure.



TEACHING TOOL 8.2

Liquids and Gases, Retention or Release - Opening a Soda Bottle

Changes in the earth's energy uptake from the sun resulting from periodical changes in the earth's orbit are known as Milankovitch cycles⁹ but these alone are not sufficient to explain the large global temperature swings between ice ages and interglacial periods. Analysis shows that orbit changes serve as triggers which set into motion reinforcing feedbacks through releasing CO₂ and methane (CH₄) dissolved in the oceans.

Oceans serve as massive sinks for CO₂ and CH₄ diluted in their water. Cold water is able to hold diluted higher concentrations of gases than warm water. As oceans start to warm up due to a small increase in solar energy uptake by the earth due to Milankovich cycles, warming oceans start to release diluted CO₂ and CH₄ to the atmosphere, thereby strengthening the atmospheric greenhouse effect.

While physical equations enable students to calculate the exact amounts of gases which can be diluted in the water at various temperatures, a simple demonstration can teach less mathematics- and physics-savvy students the basic concept. All a teacher needs for such demonstration is two cans of soda drink.



Cool one can in the refrigerator and keep one in warm environment, for instance behind a window in a sunny day. Ask the students what happens to CO₂, CH₄ and other greenhouse gases dissolved in the seas and oceans as the water temperature rises? After letting students answer (or guess), hand the cans to two selected students and ask them to open them in front of all students, starting with the cold one. Do not mention the difference in the temperature of the two cans. Let the student with the cold soda open the can: probably not much happens. Then let the student with warm soda open their can: the content propelled by the bubbles of expanded gas will jet out of the opening like a geyser. (tell the student to be careful and keep their distance from other students).

Just like the soda in the warm can, warming seas and oceans release gases diluted in sea water, thus adding reinforcing (positive) feedback, further accelerating global warming.

⁹For explanation about Milankovich cycles and their relationships with glaciation in geological times see for instance http://www.indiana.edu/~geol105/images/gaia_chapter_4/milankovitch.htm

TEACHING TOOL 8.3

Cold Conserved in Polar Ice Caps and Glaciers - Cooling Hot Tea

The melting glaciers and polar ice sheets and the consequent rise in sea level is a climate change related issue broadly covered by the media and debated by people despite the fact that the process of melting and the sea-rise is – by human standard – rather slow and is most likely to remain slow over the next decades. Some other effects of global warming – such as droughts, heatwaves, wildfires, devastating storms, floods, insect infestations and the like – will be felt much sooner. In fact, they are being felt already.

The reason for the delay in the sea water levels due to the melting of continental ice sheets results from the thermal properties of ice and water. Latent heat is the amount of energy needed for matter to change its state; in the case of water, 0°C “warm” ice to melt to 0°C cold liquid water. The latent heat value ice is 334J/g. The meaning of this figure becomes much more evident when we compare it to the heat capacity of water which is the amount of heat needed for an increase in the temperature of liquid water by one degree. The heat capacity of liquid water is 4.18J/g/K.

What this means is that at 0°C, we need 334KJ of heat to melt one Kg of ice to 0°C cold water. The same amount of heat could increase the temperature of the same kilogram of liquid water from 0°C to almost 80°C! ($334/4.18 = 79.9$). In layman’s language, the earth’s ice sheets and glaciers can be considered massive ‘cold storages’ on our planet: a huge amount of heat is being used in the process of their melting, preventing thus faster growth in average global temperature. However once melted, this “warming brake” would be lost and the temperature growth speeds up.

The task for students

A simple experiment done frequently in real life situations can demonstrate the cold storage capacity of ice (in physics, the term is: latent heat). For the demonstration you need:

two large cups
two teaspoons
very hot / near boiling tea or water
cold tap water
a few ice cubes

Pour the very hot tea or water into two equally large cups, filling approximately a third of the cups with an equal amount of hot tea. Give a cup and a teaspoon to two students who will be in competition regarding who can drink his/her tea faster and in more concentrated form. One student is given ice cubes, the other one is given a cup of cold tap water.

Depending on the volume and temperature of the hot drink in the cups and the size of ice cubes, one or two ice cubes may be sufficient for rapid cooling of the tea without diluting it to an unpalatable beverage. On the contrary, even filling the whole cup with the cold tap water may be insufficient for a quick reduction in the temperature to a drinkable level: by that stage, the tea is diluted and has lost its flavour.



TEACHING TOOL 8.4

Geography



The subject of geography provides a lot of opportunities for teaching about climate change and its consequences. As we have seen, an average global temperature increase of 0.8°C is geographically diverse, with a smaller increase in average temperature at the latitudes closer to the equator and a larger increase towards the poles. Another extremely important factor is the distribution of world oceans as those absorb around 90% of the overall heat reaching our planet from the sun. As a result of this, today, the average annual temperature increase in the latitudes of Slovakia or the Czech Republic is around 1.6°C, whereas in the high Arctic it is reaching 4°C already.

A faster increase in the average annual temperature in higher latitudes has and will continue to have very significant consequences depending on specific local conditions. Debating the possible consequences of global warming and climate change on the local environment which is intimately known to the students may be one of the best teaching approaches in the classroom.

A legitimate and proper goal currently being considered by world politicians is to limit global temperature growth to a maximum of 2°C by the year 2100 compared to the pre-industrial period. There is significant number of scientists, and mathematical models, who consider 2°C an unrealistically low goal and think this increase may be reached by 2050, while in 2100 our children and grandchildren may be confronted with a 4°C or even higher increase in the average global temperature (IPCC, 2007a). These higher estimates are based on known as well as unknown data. Among the known data are: paleo-climatological data suggesting 25m higher sea level – and that means a huge volume of melted glaciers and much higher temperatures – two to three million years ago, when atmospheric CO₂ concentration was 360-400ppm, that is below the level reached in 2014. Among many unknown data is the strength and intensity of the many reinforcing feedbacks such as changes in the earth's albedo due to less area and shorter periods of snow and ice coverage and darker snow due to a growing frequency and intensity of dust storms. Another big unknown is the extent and frequency of major droughts and wildfires destroying huge tropical and boreal forests in Amazonia, Siberia or Canada, thus releasing extra amounts of CO₂ from burning wood and decreasing the CO₂ absorption capacity of burned and dry forests. Similar consequences occur from the mass infestations of forests by wood-destroying insects. And yet another may be the release of large amounts of methane from the melting permafrost in vast regions of the Arctic and from methane-hydrates deposited on the bottoms of shallow Arctic seas.

However, for teaching purposes, let us consider a +2°C increase in average global temperature compared to the pre-industrial level. In Central European latitudes, where a 0.8°C increase in average global temperature translated into approximately a 1.6°C increase in average local temperature, such an increase would mean twice the remaining 1.2°C (2 °C – 0.8°C); that is +2.4°C compared to the current annual average.

The task for students

Ask students to find the recent average annual temperature statistics of the country or city/district where they live. For instance, in the case of Bratislava, it is 10.8°C (<http://www.bratislava.climatemps.com/>), for Prague as well as for Warsaw it is 7.8°C, for Budapest 11.2°C and so on. To which cities would the current average annual temperature of Bratislava be similar after reaching the “permissible target” of + 2°C? (10.8°C + additional 2.4°C = 13.2°C)

Which cities in Europe or elsewhere in the world currently have an average annual temperature of around 13.2°C? What kind of climate exists in those cities? What kind of natural ecosystems exist around those cities? What is the agricultural productivity of those regions?

After doing their own research, students will probably come up with cities like Bologna in Italy (<http://www.bologna.climatemps.com/>). It will be around one degree centigrade warmer in Bratislava than it is currently in Spanish Valladolid or Casablanca or Ankara in Istanbul (currently 11.7°C) and only one degree Celsius cooler than the current annual temperature in Madrid, Spain (<http://www.madrid-retiro.climatemps.com/>) or Istanbul (<http://www.istanbul.climatemps.com/>).



The common denominator of all the locations identified by students is that they all are significantly south of Bratislava. The comparison of their climates will be much trickier; students will need to take into consideration other important factors such as altitude above sea level and distance from major water masses, e.g. oceans and seas. All locations mentioned are difficult to compare with Bratislava as they all are strongly influenced by the Atlantic Ocean (Spain) and the Mediterranean or Black Seas (Italy, Turkey). Yet the students may notice that already today large parts of Spain, especially in the parts of the country south of Madrid, are, despite proximity to the ocean, under a serious threat of desertification.

The debate may also be steered towards the limitations of information provided by artificial statistical figure such as “average annual temperature”. The same average annual temperature may have two locations with very different conditions. For instance a continental location with extremely cold winters and extremely hot summers may have a similar average annual temperature to a coastal location with relatively mild winters and mild summers: the ecosystems and agriculture in such different locations certainly varies very widely. Therefore students may be asked to look into more detailed climate characteristics of the identified locations such as their average temperatures in the coldest and in the hottest months and rainfall profiles.

TEACHING TOOL 8.5

Using Movies as Educational Tools

Climate change is a topic which is not completely ignored by popular culture, although in some sci-fi movies the science part is much weaker than the fiction part. Among those is, for instance, the popular 2004 movie *The Day After Tomorrow* by film director Roland Emmerich. In the film, the melting and breaking apart of polar ice has started to disrupt the North Atlantic current by a sudden influx of cold freshwater, setting in motion a series of quick events leading to a new Ice Age, re-glaciation of North America and the mass evacuation of the North American people south to Mexico.



In 2008, Yahoo! Movies listed *The Day After Tomorrow* in the Top 10 Scientifically Inaccurate Movies – so it may serve as a good tool for debunking some of its mistakes after showing the whole movie to students or asking them to watch it as homework.

The idea of this film originates from the scientific understanding of the Younger Dryas cold era, a 1,300 year-long cold spell 12,800-11,500 years BP near the end of transition from the last glacial period to Holocene. Current theories suggest the Younger Dryas was most likely caused by a massive pulse of freezing cold freshwater slowing down and halting the North Atlantic current by disrupting the thermohaline circulation. The deluge resulted from a sudden disintegration of the ice walls of the glacial mega-lake Agassiz. Located in current southern Canada during the retreat of the Laurentide Ice Sheet (see Figure 8.24), this mega-lake accumulated and eventually released volumes of fresh water much larger than the volumes stored in the largest lakes of the current world.

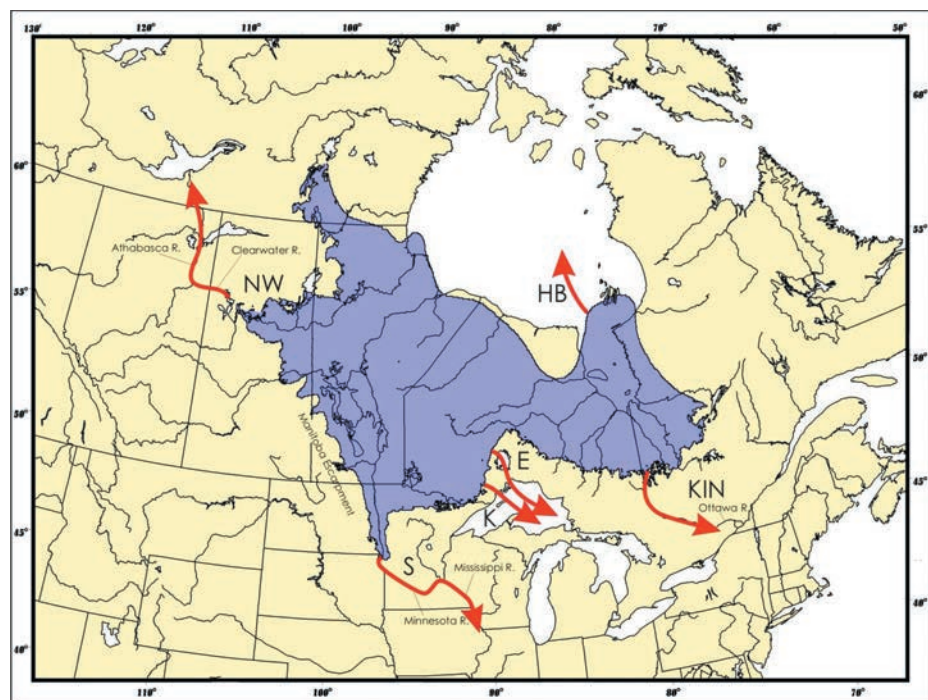


Figure 8.24: Location and cumulative extent of Lake Agassiz during its 5,000 years of existence. Red arrows indicate the direction of melt water out-spills. (Source: David Leverington, Texas Tech University, http://www.web-pages.ttu.edu/dleverin/quaternary_envs/quaternary_environments.html)

Screening the movie, and explaining where the science behind the film comes from, can be used to facilitate debate about the feasibility of such a scenario in current times.

- * Could Younger Dryas II be triggered by the melting of glaciers and continental ice sheets in the current era?
- * Could the temperature drop in such a case be as fast and as deep as in film?
- * Could the re-glaciation of North America happen in current conditions and could it happen as fast as shown at the finale of the movie?
- * Where would the ice for fast re-glaciation come from?
- * Is there a more realistic scenario which could result in a sudden drop in average global temperature?

The answers to these questions require independent study facilitated by a teacher's guiding questions such as:

- * Is there a sufficient amount of ice anywhere in the Northern hemisphere to allow for such a scenario to happen?
- * Are there any glacial lakes formed in recent times? If so, how large are they?
- * What are the preconditions for the growth of glaciers and ice sheets (e.g. re-glaciation)?
- * What were the atmospheric concentrations of CO₂ and methane in the times of Younger Dryas?

TEACHING TOOL 8.6

Using a TV Documentary as Educational Tool

Another possibility of using existing films is screening an episode of the TV documentary *The Dust Bowl* and using it to explain the environmental, economic and historical context of the Dust Bowl era in Central USA in 1930s. Possible follow-up questions include:

What would happen if the droughts of 1930s were to return today?

What will happen when the Ogallala aquifer is exhausted?

What would be the global repercussions of extended drought in the Dust Bowl region in recent times - would the consequences also affect other regions of the world? If so, which parts of the world are most vulnerable and how?



CHAPTER 9

Food Production: Global Business, Local Consequences

by: Grace Walsh

Introduction

'Eating is an agricultural act' as Wendell Berry famously said. It is also an ecological act, and a political act, too. Though much has been done to obscure this simple fact, how and what we eat determines to a great extent the use we make of the world - and what is to become of it.

Michael Pollan (2006: 11)

Food systems are the processes and infrastructure involved in satisfying a population's food security needs (Porter, 2014: 490) and are of critical importance to the area of sustainable development. Over the last century, food systems have become increasingly globalised. Powerful economic and political interests influence what people consume, as well as how food is produced and distributed. This has serious repercussions for the natural environment, as well as equity and social justice within societies.

The aim of this chapter is to provide a general overview concerning how the global food system directly impacts community development at a local level, throughout the Global South and increasingly across Europe and within new member states (NMS). This chapter provides historical and scholarly context to debates and identifies several themes which may be used as potential classroom topics to facilitate further student learning. These include the history and environmental impacts of peasant farming in Europe; industrialisation and the emergence of market based approaches to food production; modern agribusiness and food production after the 20th century; food insecurity despite food surplus; features of the European Common Agricultural Policy; land grabbing and foreign investment; and, feeding a growing global population in a time of climate change.

Tools, resources and suggested activities follow at the end of the chapter and will allow for the introduction of these topics with third level groups in formal settings, with an emphasis on non-formal and participatory learning methods. These activities will focus on the acquisition of new knowledge through creative and innovative means, the development of critical literacy skills, and will challenge perspectives and attitudes in relation to the topic.

The Global Food System: Peasant farming in pre-industrial Europe

The industrial revolution in Europe, beginning roughly from the mid to late eighteenth century, radically transformed food production systems and eclipsed the advances made over the last ten thousand years since people first began settled agriculture. The tumultuous political events of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries were accompanied by profound economic, social and cultural transformations, advances in technology, as well as the formation of sophisticated networks of trade and international finance (Hobsbawm, 1962). These changes spread globally and remain recognisable components within current food production models and global agribusiness.



Prior to the eighteenth century, Europe, like many parts of the world, was overwhelmingly rural and the production and consumption of food highly localised. Environmental impacts of pre-capitalist agriculture included de-forestation, erosion and valley sedimentation (Bork and Lang, 2003). Central and Western Europe had probably experienced modest levels of land clearing by 1000BC which steadily increased throughout the medieval period with accelerated rates of deforestation associated with technological change and population growth (Kaplan et al., 2009). Studies of Carbury Bog in Ireland, for instance, reveal that between 1130CE to 1440CE the surrounding landscape was largely forested. Land clearing increased by the late fifteenth century and by the seventeenth century most of the area had been deforested (Geel and Middledorp, 1988).

Industrialisation and the new economic order



By the eighteenth century, Europe's population was approximately 118 million which increased to 187 million over the next century as a result of increased agricultural investment, intensification, improved production methods as well as the exploitation of new staple crops brought from the Americas including corn and potato (Anderson, 1968). Transformation of agricultural production was also predicated on the restructuring of rural societies through the enforcement of private property rights. Large landowners in Britain responded to new market opportunities and began evicting small tenants, enclosing land and denying access to the commons, and by the seventeenth century, nearly a quarter of the land in England was enclosed (Linebaugh and Rediker, 2000). The rural economies of north-western Europe tended to be more developed than their southern and eastern neighbours and in some densely populated parts of Holland, subsistence farming had already been abandoned by the seventeenth century in favour of producing purely commercial crops such as flax, tobacco, hops and woad (Anderson, 1968).

Rigid social structures and periodic famine were features of peasant society, but they also provided social support through patronage, communal reciprocity as well as maintaining rights to communal resources such as forest and common land. The English Historian, E.P. Thompson, argued that during the transition from a feudal to rural capitalist economy, food riots in England signalled the collapse of the old feudal system of charity as well as the limitations of the market approach despite increases in food production. Thompson suggested that peasant societies had previously functioned within a 'moral economy' characterised by the concept of a 'fair price' for commodities (Thompson, 1971). Under the new economic model, which was exported globally through the colonial system, the poor and the needy would be left exposed to the cold, invisible hand of the market. The attitudes of British colonial administrators to both the Irish (1845) and Indian famines (1876, 1899) were that free markets not only generated efficiencies but were sensitive to price signals and would be therefore more effective at addressing scarcity than government intervention. In reality, the system proved woefully inadequate, as grain exports continued while people starved. By the turn of the century, India was supplying a fifth of Britain's wheat consumption at the expense of its own food security (David, 2001).



Modern agribusiness

The transition to a nascent, globalised and productivist food system was encouraged through the expansion of European imperial power as well as commercial interests aimed at exploiting new markets and sources of raw materials. Lucrative opportunities were available within the imperial system through the appropriation of new colonial territories, the availability of cheap or slave labour as well as the migration of capital (Jenks, 1971). Non-perishable goods like sugar, tea, spices and grains could be easily transported and had been traded before the eighteenth century. Improvements in the merchant shipping and storage, however, enabled a broader selection of commodities to be traded and, following the development of the refrigeration processes in the late nineteenth century, beef and mutton from as far as Australia and New Zealand were being supplied to the European market (Critchell, 1912).

While the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries can be understood as providing an economic blueprint for the modern food system, current production models have also been shaped by relatively recent technological advances as well as increased market deregulation. From the mid-twentieth century, collaboration between agricultural research organisations and national governments facilitated the development of new cultivars as well as pest and weed controls. The so-called 'Green Revolution' led to increased food and cash crop production across the developed and developing world (Evenson and Gollin, 2003). Trade liberalisation has led to increased global sourcing of commodities, investment by transnational agribusinesses as well as the general dismantling of regulatory frameworks aimed at supporting local farming sectors within nation states (Ufkes, 1993).

Modern technological approaches to food production appear, on the surface, successful, whereby developed nations, in particular, are capable of producing huge food surpluses. The United States is one of the largest grain producers in the world whereby production and yield per acreage has increased consistently since the late nineteenth century (Figure 9.1). But enhanced production globally has also come at an increased environmental and social cost. In addition to increased pressures of land and water, modern agriculture is reliant on finite resources such as fuel and nutrient inputs which contribute to climate change. In addition to diminishing oil supplies, phosphate rock reserves could be depleted within the next hundred years with peak production occurring around 2030 (Cordell et al., 2009). Driven by burgeoning demand for meat in our diet, beef production continues to be a major cause of carbon emissions as well as land cover change, demonstrated by extensive deforestation in major beef producing nations such as Australia, Brazil and Columbia (McAlpine, 2009). Market deregulation has also 'de-nationalised' food production priorities as well as accentuating economic disparities between the north and the Global South. Deflated commodity prices, as a result of surplus and over-production, means that developing countries struggle to compete and this is compounded when developed nations maintain barriers to foreign imports.

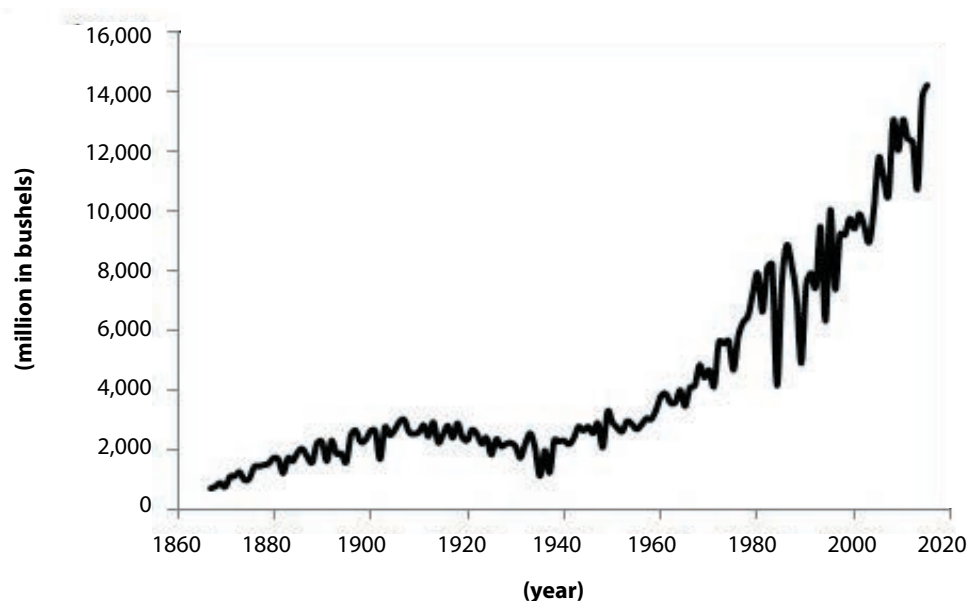


Figure 9.1:
Bushels of corn,
sorghum, barley,
and oats pro-
duced in United
States 1861-2015.
(Source: USDA
2015)



Figure 9.2: Global agribusiness and local impacts. Clearing brigalow forest for cropping and cattle grazing in central Queensland, Australia, 1960. (Source: John Oxley Library, Australia, neg no. 119706)

Feeding the world or feeding profits?



Besides structural problems within current global agribusiness, critics question the ethics and efficiency of a market-based approach to food production. One of those most controversial topics related to the Green Revolution and the role of transnational agribusiness has been the commodification of seeds and the emergence of transgenic seed production. Companies such as Monsanto promote technological developments in the areas of seed and pest control as a means by which food production can be increased, particularly in the Global South. However, many argue that patenting of seeds and transgenic seeds is fundamentally contrary to notions of food sovereignty. (De La Perriere and Seuret, 2000). This is illustrated by the innovations such as controversial terminator seeds whereby growers are dependent on agribusinesses to provide future seed stock. The patent was first introduced in 1998 and awarded to an American firm and the US Department of Agriculture, which would serve the interest of seed traders (De La Perriere et al., 2000).

Threats to seed sovereignty have increasingly become an issue for EU members, in particular NMS, which, in some cases, are more dependent on agriculture and less competitive in the global food industry. Seed production is of critical importance in Romania, which is the largest producer of cereal seeds in the EU. Gallerand (2014) outlines the issues clearly, linking the presence of global corporations with the loss of biodiversity and erosion of food sovereignty. The presence of global interests has seen a lower variety of seeds being produced and decisions being led by research institutes and foreign companies. A reduction in the biodiversity of seed makes farms and crops more vulnerable to climate hazards and more susceptible to diseases. It is, of course, in the interest of major corporations and multinationals to access the vast natural resources and production possibilities of a country like Romania, illustrated by the decision of Monsanto and Dupont-Pioneer, the two largest seed companies in the world, to locate major operations there. These companies are focused on corn and wheat seed production, controlling seventy per cent of the market, of which nearly half is exported. As well as creating a near monopoly on the system, thereby knocking small seed production actors out of the market, the loss of biodiversity that results from this kind of corporatisation of seed creates vulnerabilities in the food system, in a country already struggling with poverty and the eroding of traditional and resilient practices in food production. In Croatia too, bird communities and other elements of the eco-system have been drastically altered by the intensification of agricultural land use (Radovic et al., 2013).

Other contradictions within global food production concerns the fact that the world theoretically produces enough to feed itself. A large proportion of global cereal production is diverted for industrial purposes (fuel generation) as well as raising livestock. The conversion to meat protein to support the diets of wealthy consumers represents an inefficient use of resources which could be potentially used to feed the world's malnourished. Patel (2013) characterises global food production as a system that leaves '800 million people undernourished and a billion overweight'. The broader ramifications of increased environmental pressures, finite resources and the need to radically alter the current system is shared by Alonso (2013):

The global food system is not just under stress – it's broken. It's broken because we produce enough food for everyone and still we have nearly 900 million people hungry and around two billion suffering from malnutrition. And it's broken because it is not fit to cope with extreme weather events, or the scarcity of natural resources. We need to change that. (Alonso, 2014)



The European Common Agricultural Policy

While increased liberalisation has been a feature of global economic agreements over the last decades, the European Common Agricultural Policy (CAP) maintains features of the protectionist economic models of the twentieth century, whereby national governments sought to shield their manufacturing and agricultural sectors from outside competition. The Common Agricultural Policy (CAP) is one of the oldest and most important trade agreements in Europe, as it is responsible for more than 40% of the EU budget. It is a complex structure of subsidies and payments intended to support and regulate the agricultural sector. Following a period of immense economic and political uncertainty after the Second World War, the CAP was implemented in 1962 to achieve the following objectives:

- * Increase agricultural output
- * Secure living standards for communities engaged in agriculture
- * Stabilise markets
- * Improve food security at affordable costs to consumers

Within its protectionist framework, trade agreements such as the CAP, have the potential to address major societal challenges such as food security and environmental sustainability (Alonso, 2013). Financial investment and technological innovation has enabled European farmers to produce vast agricultural surpluses. Farm subsidies can enable the support of small 'family' operated farms or biologically important agri-ecosystems that might otherwise be economically unviable. Environmental protection across Europe faces challenges due to the involvement of multiple actors and government ministries, however, after the 1990s, regional policy makers were made directly responsible for funding environmentally damaging projects (Lenschow, 2002) with possible repercussions in the form of reduced EU payments.

In terms of criticism of the CAP, within EU member states support for the scheme often varies with less advanced or rural based economies seemingly benefitting more than highly industrialised or service based economies such as Britain and Germany. Farmers benefit from stable commodity prices but trade barriers limit access to cheaper imports for consumers. EU payments also benefit highly productive or factory farm operations and, in addition to increasing reliance on fossil fuels and nutrient inputs, this has increased pressure on land and water resources, affected bio-diversity as well as transformed unique cultural landscapes. Hedgerows (Figure 9.3) constitute remnant wildlife corridors and their removal to support more efficient cropping has been associated with declines in farmland bird populations over the late twentieth century (Burel and Baudry, 1995). With the expansion of the EU these impacts are likely to be repeated throughout NMS (Donald et al., 2002). Landuse intensification across Europe has been heterogeneous and in some cases marginal or alpine land has actually been 'abandoned'. As some parts of Germany have reverted back to forest, this has also raised concerns about the loss of biologically and aesthetically significant grasslands (Pfadenhauer, 2001; Haase et al., 2007).



Figure 9.3: Mosaic of hedgerows along field edges, new plantations and remnant forest patches in south west England. The removal of hedgerows has been associated with bio-diversity loss. (Source: Google Earth, Getmapping Image, 2015)

From a broader developmental perspective however, criticisms of the CAP relate to the way in which its combination of productivity and protectionism has had profound impacts beyond the EU. The accumulation of vast stockpiles of grain and dairy products by the EU has the potential to deflate commodity prices as they are released on the international market. Developing nations lacking private capital or generous government subsidies cannot compete or develop their own industries and may become dependent on cheap foreign imports as summarised by the Agriculture and Rural Convention:

Unfortunately, the CAP does not support or stimulate enough sustainable practices. It has encouraged a model of agriculture that damages the environment, promotes factory style farming, and takes jobs away from farmers in rural areas. Through increased import of cheap raw materials produced in socially and environmentally damaging ways, and cheap exports to the Global South, the CAP's impact is felt much wider than within the EU alone. (ARC 2020 2014)

Foreign investment and land grabbing



The acquisition of agricultural land by foreign interests has been a feature of globalised food production since it emerged as a key pillar of the European imperial system. But, since the dismantling of colonial empires, it has returned, albeit re-configured through contemporary market deregulation and the enhanced transferability of foreign capital. The practice of 'land-grabbing' in the Global South has received considerable attention and typically involves land purchases by foreign companies seeking to develop large vertically integrated agribusiness operations (Borras et al., 2011). Backed by foreign governments, the acquisition of the land, has often been predicated on enhancing the food security of the investor nation (Praskova, 2012) but may also include other investments such as in bio-fuels and carbon offsets. Market volatility and increasing food prices since 2008 (Fig. 3), encouraged new agribusiness enterprises from land-deprived, but relatively wealthy countries, such as China and Gulf States.

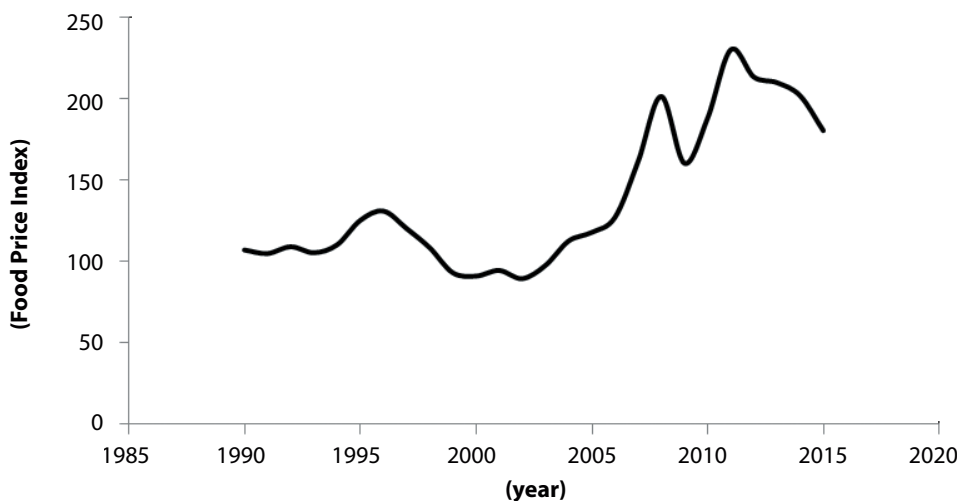


Figure 9.4: Food Price Index and market volatility showing spike in prices in and after 2008 (FAO, 2015)

By providing foreign capital, agribusinesses can play an important role in developing agricultural land in the host country. But critics highlight that the interests of investors are often divorced from the actual developmental needs of local people, and that corporations not only seek to exploit cheap land but also loose government regulation or even corruption. While Sub-Saharan Africa has received considerable attention as being one of the major areas of predatory land acquisition, Eastern Europe, and NMS have also been affected. Though land prices are potentially higher, NMS possess vast areas of under-utilised land (estimated to be between twenty and forty million hectares), which is fertile and with relatively good levels of existing infrastructure (Visser and Spoor, 2011).

In terms of foreign land acquisition in new NMS countries, critics highlight the failure of the CAP to prevent land monopoly. The twelve million farms in the wider EU represent 3% of the total number of farms, but 50% of the land (Franco and Borrás, 2013: 6). Romania is one example of where the correlation between acute poverty and large land ownership has deepened, as the country becomes more entrenched in the global food system (Szocs, 2014). Farm structures are typified by large, foreign ownership, and land consolidation is particularly evident in the poorest regions in the Northeast, Southeast and Southwest. In Romania, the typical structure of peasant farming, has been overtaken by large-scale production for external markets. In 2013, 4.7 million tonnes of wheat, 3.2 million tonnes of corn, and 1.4 million tonnes of sunflower seed was exported (Szocs, 2014). Szocs juxtaposes this alongside a poverty rate and social exclusion rate of 42% in 2012, placing Romania as one of the poorest countries in the EU. The impact of land-grabbing and land consolidation of this nature for Romania means less access to land for young and peasant farmers, increases in urbanisation and social insecurity, and local farmers being pushed into price wars with large-scale agribusinesses (Szocs, 2015).

This pattern of land consolidation and land grabs by foreign interests in NMSs is repeated in a number of countries. The size of farms in the EU-15, compared to that of the NMS is vastly different, but the NMS are rapidly increasing (Kryda, 2013). In Hungary, for example, 93% of the country's total farming population was excluded from subsidies (Franco and Borrás, 2013: 14) giving the advantage to large-scale holdings. In Bulgaria, investment from China in the Northern region of Boynitsa, will see produce grown on over two-thousand hectares all being exported to Asia (Rodríguez Beperet, 2015). Croatia also struggles to consolidate its practices of traditional agriculture and rural living, with the policies and practices of the global market (Dominkovic, 2007). These traditional models are often more sustainable, strengthen local communities and are inherently linked to the local eco-systems, therefore protecting and promoting existing biodiversity and independent practices. Overall, NMS countries have had a greater diversity of farm structures which included subsistence and semi-subsistent farms, since challenged by the trade agreements which have applied post-accession, namely the CAP (Csáki, 2013). Although there has often been an increase in yield and productivity in the areas of crop and livestock, as food chains become more vertically coordinated, and the market has become much larger and more competitive, small-scale farmers are finding themselves at a disadvantage. Subsistence and semi-subsistent farms cannot compete with the larger actors, employment in rural areas declines, and the urban-rural divide widens.



Population growth in a time of climate change

Projections that the world will exceed nine billion by 2050 will place increasing pressure on environmental resources as well as posing new challenges to produce enough food (Tomlinson, 2013; Foley et al., 2011). In the early nineteenth century, the influential political economist Thomas Malthus claimed that 'unchecked exponential population growth would outpace food production, plunging humanity into long periods of famine' (Rees, 2014). Malthusian ideas were reflected in some of the callous institutional responses to nineteenth century famine, but his argument that there is a fundamental limit to growth remains popular within modern environmental thought, finding expression in Ehrlich's (1968) Population Bomb as well as the works of the ecologist and popular environmental historian Jared Diamond (1999) who suggests the world is currently courting Malthusian catastrophe:

Forced to choose between limiting population or trying to increase food production, we chose the latter and ended up with starvation, warfare, and tyranny.

The capacity to support future sustainable food systems, as well as meet the needs of the planet's growing population is fundamentally threatened by climate change. In addition to temperature and sea level rise, atmospheric warming is predicted to increase the frequency of extreme weather events including drought and severe storms. According to the IPCC 2014 report, the effects of climate change on crop and terrestrial food production is already evident across several parts of the world. Communities which are reliant on local, traditional food systems, and who lack purchasing power within global food exchanges, will be vulnerable. Attempts to mitigate climate change have brought about unintended consequences throughout the Global South. Bio-fuels, which have been increasingly integrated into Europe's energy consumption, have allowed countries to reduce greenhouse emissions by externalising the environmental impacts of crop and bio-fuel production. Palm oil production remains a major cause of deforestation in Malaysia and Indonesia.

The current massive wave of investment in energy production based on cultivating and industrial processing of . . . corn, soy, palm oil, sugar cane, canola, etc., will neither solve the climate crisis nor the energy crisis. It will also bring disastrous social and environmental consequences. It creates a new and very serious threat to food production by small farmers and to the attainment of food sovereignty for the world population. It is claimed that agro-fuels will help fight climate change. In reality, the opposite is true . . . If we take into account the whole cycle of production, transformation, distribution of agro-fuels, they do not produce less greenhouse gases than fossil fuels, except in some cases. (Borras and Franco, 2010: 6)

The connection between social justice, climate change and feeding the world remains the focus of several development organisations which seek to raise awareness of the threats to food security but are frustrated by a belated and ineffective response:

In early June 2008 an emergency meeting of the UN was called to address the crisis of climate change and the food crisis. As expected the same corporate influences that have created the two crises tried to offer the disease as a the cure – more fossil fuel-based chemical fertilisers, more non-renewable genetically engineered and hybrid hash seeds bred to respond to the intensive use of chemicals, more corporate control of food, and more globalised trade. Shiva (2006: 2)

With perpetual increases in food production since the industrial revolution, Malthus', or indeed Jared Diamond's, dire predictions have not, broadly speaking, occurred. But environmental limits compounded by climate change will be an increasing threat to food production, particularly if structural problems and priorities within the current food system remain unaddressed.



Conclusion

The mechanisms by which food is produced, distributed and consumed remain a critical aspect of sustainable development, whereby the act of eating might be considered simultaneously prosaic and political. In order to equip readers with an overview of the debate concerning food production, this chapter identified several themes which can act as points of discussion within classroom settings. As this chapter has illustrated, current food production models tend to be market orientated and concentrated in the hands of corporations and powerful governments. Subsequently, these systems are receptive to the demands of consumers, not necessarily to the basic nutritional demands of people.

The ongoing negotiations taking place around the Sustainable Development Goals, which are set to replace the Millennium Development Goals in 2016, reflect growing interest in the promotion of sustainable agriculture, food security and sustainable consumption. There has been interest among farming communities and consumers to address the contradictions between capitalist food production and sustainable development. Civil society organisations that represent farmers and peasants have advocated for the transformation of the world's food system and offered alternatives to reform it which is encapsulated by the Via Campesina movement's call for food sovereignty:

Food sovereignty includes the right of farmers and peasants to produce food, and the rights of consumers to be able to decide what they consume, and how and by whom it is produced.
(Patel, 2012: 81)

Community Supported Agriculture (CSA), cooperatives, community gardens, agroecology are examples of more sustainable forms of food production, however, they must also arguably form part of a much wider economic, political and technological transformation to achieve an equitable and environmentally sustainable food system.



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TEACHING TOOLS 9

Educational Resources

Films

“Food Inc.” examines the costs of putting value and convenience over nutrition and environmental impact. From factory farms to slaughterhouses, the film-maker talks to authors, advocates, farmers and CEOs about the industrial food industry in the US.

Available online: www.filmsforaction.org/watch/food_inc/

“Seeds of Freedom” follows the story of seed “from its roots at the heart of traditional diversity-rich farming systems across the world, to being transformed into a powerful commodity, used to monopolise the global food system”. It also looks at the debate on GMO and industrialised farming. Available online: www.seedsoffreedom.info/watch-the-film/watch-the-film-english/

“Seeds of Sovereignty” explores the topics through the testimonies of local and indigenous farmers, focusing on the revival of traditional food systems in communities around Africa.

Available online: <https://vimeo.com/79790350>

“Food not Fuel” is produced by the development organisation Trócaire, and looks at the bio-fuel industry and its affect on food production in the Global South.

Available online: www.filmsforaction.org/watch/food_not_fuel/

“Land Rush” tracks the rush for land grabbing that followed the hike in grain prices in 2008, as wealthier countries attempted to secure themselves against future shocks to their food supply chains. Available online: www.filmsforaction.org/watch/land_rush_2012/

Animations / multimedia

What’s the problem with Wasting Food? By Society of Biology in the UK in partnership with Global Food Security for Biology Week 2013 - www.youtube.com/watch?v=ioCzxxqgLf0

TedX talk by Vandana Shiva Solutions to the food and ecological crisis facing us today - www.youtube.com/watch?v=ER5ZZk5atIE

What is the Transatlantic Trade Investment Partnership? by international campaigning organisation Attac - <http://youtu.be/Y4OQeekSD6s>

Green Reform of Agriculture by Bird Life Europe and the EEB - <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=XP5xah72YDI>

Europa Africa have an excellent collection of short films available in the multimedia section of their website - <http://www.europafrika.info/en/multimedia> .

Anna Lappé and Food MythBusters -- Do we really need industrial agriculture to feed the world? Do We Need Industrial Agriculture? Film - <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=uem2ceZMxYk>

Feeding Nine Billion Video 1: Introducing Solutions to the Global Food Crisis by Dr Evan Fraser - <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=raSHAqV8K9c>

A multimedia project documenting the growth of urban agriculture and local food systems in several underserved San Diego neighbourhoods – www.talkingfoodsystems.org



Images



The "Seeds of Freedom" website has some excellent images including stills from the film. Available online: www.seedsoffreedom.info/image-gallery/stills-from-the-film/
www.seedsoffreedom.info/image-gallery/seeds-of-freedom/

The development organisation Trócaire has photo packs on particular topics available on their website including the following which explore hunger, and the impact of extreme weather patterns on communities in the horn of Africa:

www.flickr.com/photos/trocaire/sets/72157607468096564

www.flickr.com/photos/trocaire/sets/72157627130082791

Greenpeace have a selection of photos available online on a range of environmental issues, including sustainable agriculture:

www.greenpeace.org/international/en/multimedia/photo-essays

The Global Education Project website is a platform for teaching and education resources (from the Australian school curriculum perspective) and has great activity plans and multimedia resources available online:

www.globaleducation.edu.au/resources-gallery/resource-gallery-images.html

Online educational activities



The development organisation Trócaire has a range of educational resources for school children. Those for the 16+ age group can be adapted to adult learners. These include activities on trade, the world food system, hunger and climate justice:

www.trocaire.org/education/resources

This Consumer Citizens Network publication gives an excellent outline of how to use images and photos in development education:

[http://www.developmenteducation.ie/media/documents/ESD%20Toolkit\[1\].pdf](http://www.developmenteducation.ie/media/documents/ESD%20Toolkit[1].pdf)

The National Youth Council of Ireland has a number of resource packs available for work with youth and young adults, many of which cover topics such as sustainability, resilience, development and food:

<http://www.youthdeved.ie/nyci/publications>

The website, www.developmenteducation.ie which is collaboration across the development education sector in Ireland is a great source of multimedia resources, as well as educational activities. One in particular that explores hunger using an interactive map is available here:

<http://www.developmenteducation.ie/issues-and-topics/hunger-map/hunger-map.html>

Organisations

La Via Campesina is the international movement which brings together millions of peasants, small and medium-size farmers, landless people, women farmers, indigenous people, migrants and agricultural workers from around the world. It defends small-scale sustainable agriculture as a way to promote social justice and dignity. It strongly opposes corporate driven agriculture and transnational companies that are destroying people and nature. www.viacampesina.org

GRAIN is a small international non-profit organisation that works to support small farmers and social movements in their struggles for community-controlled and biodiversity-based food systems. Our support takes the form of independent research and analysis, networking at local, regional and international levels, and fostering new forms of cooperation and alliance-building. Most of our work is oriented towards, and carried out in, Africa, Asia and Latin America. www.grain.org



We campaign on today's most urgent environmental and social issues. We challenge the current model of economic and corporate globalisation, and promote solutions that will help to create environmentally sustainable and socially just societies. www.foe.org

Slow Food is a global, grassroots organisation, founded in 1989 to prevent the disappearance of local food cultures and traditions, counteract the rise of fast life and combat people's dwindling interest in the food they eat, where it comes from and how our food choices affect the world around us. www.slowfood.com

Action Aid are an international organisation, working with over 15 million people in 45 countries for a world free from poverty and injustice, including a campaign on land rights: www.actionaid.org

Greenpeace is an independent global campaigning organisation that acts to change attitudes and behaviour, to protect and conserve the environment and to promote peace, and has one area of focus on ecological farming and food: www.greenpeace.org

Oxfam is an aid and development organisation, which also has a big focus on climate change and food security: www.oxfam.org

The Agricultural and Rural Convention (ARC 2020) is a civil society platform calling for a green, fair, and local reform of the EU's Common Agriculture Policy (CAP). Their website is a source of up-to-date overviews and reports on all debates and developments in agriculture in Europe: www.arc2020.eu

TEACHING TOOL 9.1

World Wide Web

Themes: Food Systems

Aim:

To explore the concept of local and global food systems and the impact of the modern global food system on communities.

Materials:

Ball of twine, Large adhesive labels, Blue Tack, Flipchart, Markers.

Group Size:

18+ This activity is limited to the number of elements included in the first stage. With bigger groups, the activity can be carried out with sub-groups, or with pairs instead of individuals.

Duration:

1 hour

Method:

Interactive Activity and Discussion

Traditional, localised food system

Prepare some large labels with the words listed here:

Bees / Insects; Animals; Land; Water; Seeds; Tools; Fertility; Sun; Wind; Plants; Woodland, Soil, Farmer; Baker; Butcher; Grocer; Consumer; Waste...

Hand out the labels and ask the group to stand in a circle, facing inwards. Everyone sticks their label to the top of their chest. The ball of string is then passed across and around the circle, the only rule being that as you pass the string to someone you must make clear what your relationship is to them. The students should hold onto their end as they pass the ball of string onwards. After a while you end up with a complex web of string between everybody. When it is finished, get everyone to pull the web tight, and put their hands on top of the string to see how strong it is. Once the web has been created you can make the following observations:

This web and all its elements represent a traditional, localised food system. It is resilient, interdependent and acts as a vehicle to connect the consumer with the producer. However, these types of food system are becoming less and less common. The modern industrialised and global food system has introduced many more elements to the system we rely on.

Invite questions or observations from the students before finishing the activity

- * What did this activity show you?
- * What examples of local, traditional food systems do you know?
- * What is the difference between this food system and a modern food system?
- * What elements would be added in a modern food system?



Modern, globalised food system

Introduce the image of the food system (it can be drawn on flipchart, projected or printed on hand-outs).

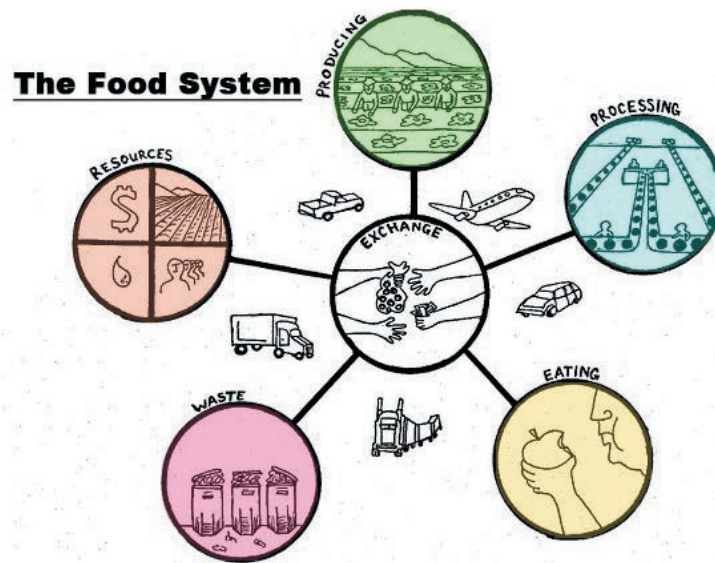


Figure 9.5: The Food System

It might also be helpful to show the students the definition of a food system (this can be prepared beforehand on a flipchart or white board):

A food system is all processes and infrastructure involved in satisfying a population's food security, that is, the gathering/catching, growing, harvesting (production aspects), storing, processing, packaging, transporting, marketing, and consuming of food, and disposing of food waste (non-production aspects). (Porter, 2014: 490)

In groups of 3 or 4, the students should draw a web for the modern, globalised food system on flipchart paper. They should add in all the elements they feel are present in a modern food system, taking into account all the areas presented in the diagram. When they are finished, they can present their diagrams one by one. As the groups take their turns, they can just contribute the additional elements rather than repeating those that other groups have included.



Suggestions can include:

Labourers; Bankers; Suppliers; Warehouse Manager; Distribution Company; Factory Worker; Supermarket; Multi-national; Government Bodies; Advertising Industry; Seed Companies; Pesticide Manufacturers; Machinery; Fertiliser Companies.

Debrief with the following questions:

- * What impact could these additional elements have on small farmers, traditional communities, small-scale food producers, etc....?
- * Who benefits most in this situation?
- * What role can consumers / farmers play in this system?

TEACHING TOOL 9.2

Cartoon Carousel

Theme:

Food production and Development

Aim:

To explore perspectives on food production and development and to develop new understandings of the global dimensions of the topic.

Materials:

Printed Cartoons, Flipchart Paper, Markers / Pens, Paper glue (Pritt Stick), Blue Tack.

Group Size:

20+ This activity can be adapted to suit smaller groups, by removing some of the suggested cartoons, or with larger groups by dividing the groups into larger divisions i.e. 5 people per group and so on. For very large groups, the cartoons can be printed out and the groups can work on them all within their sub-group with guiding questions.

Duration:

1 hour

Method:

Small group discussions with images

Instructions:

The cartoons (Figures 9.6-9.15) can be used in a number of different ways. In this exercise, the cartoons are being used to stimulate debate among the group. Each image is printed and stuck on flipchart paper, and then hung on the wall in different parts of the room. The group is divided into smaller groups of 3 or 4 (depending on the overall size of the group) and invited to move around the room. At each cartoon they should spend time writing key words or questions that come up from the image, and discussing them with their group members. The key questions can be prompted by the teacher / facilitator or written on each page.

- * What is the topic being explored?
- * What is the image raising about this topic?
- * What do you find interesting about this image?
- * What questions does it bring up?

After each group has had 5 minutes at an image, the teacher / facilitator can invite them to move on to the next image and add anything that hasn't already been written down by the previous group(s). When all the images have been visited, invite the groups to share a little about the image they are standing at. Prompt further discussion with questions by inviting feedback if the group has more to share.

Variations:

This activity can also be done with statements on flipcharts around the room (i.e. definitions of development or other key topics), or with photos or images taken from newspapers. It can also be used to host a "moving debate" i.e. invite the students to look at all the images, and to stand beside the one they feel is most interesting or they feel strongest about. Additional images are available at the following link: www.developmenteducation.ie/cartoons-and-photos/cartoons.



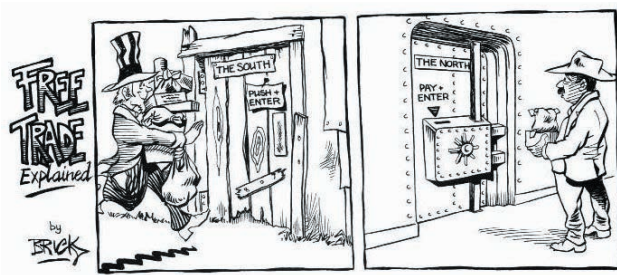


Figure 9.6: Cartoon A. (Source: www.developmenteducation.ie/cartoons-and-photos/cartoons)

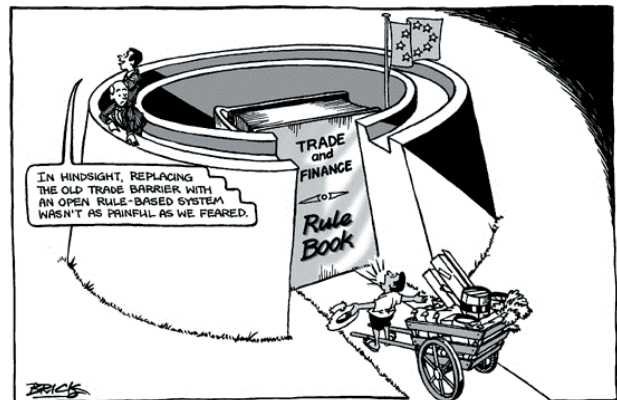


Figure 9.7: Cartoon B. (Source: www.developmenteducation.ie/cartoons-and-photos/cartoons)



Figure 9.8: Cartoon C. (Source: www.developmenteducation.ie/cartoons-and-photos/cartoons)

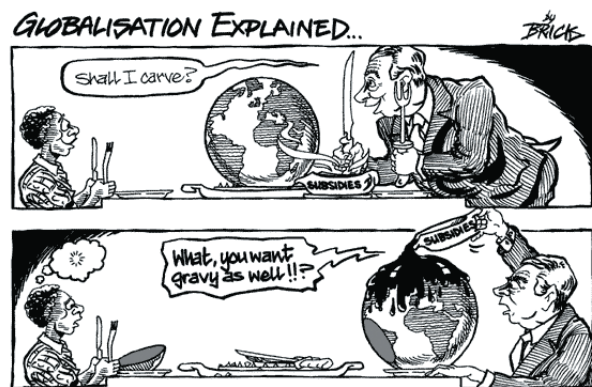
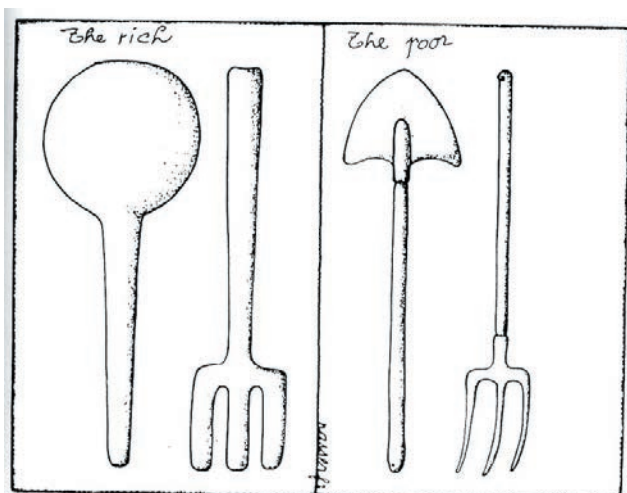


Figure 9.9: Cartoon D. (Source: www.developmenteducation.ie/cartoons-and-photos/cartoons)



Nasser Egypt

Figure 9.10: Cartoon E. (Source: www.developmenteducation.ie/cartoons-and-photos/cartoons)



Figure 9.11: Cartoon F. (Source: www.developmenteducation.ie/cartoons-and-photos/cartoons)



Figure 9.12: Cartoon G. (Source: www.developmenteducation.ie/cartoons-and-photos/cartoons)



Figure 9.13: Cartoon H. (Source: www.developmenteducation.ie/cartoons-and-photos/cartoons)



Figure 9.14: Cartoon I. (Source: www.developmenteducation.ie/cartoons-and-photos/cartoons)



Figure 9.15: Cartoon J. (Source: www.developmenteducation.ie/cartoons-and-photos/cartoons)

TEACHING TOOL 9.3

Whose Land is it Anyway¹?

Theme:

Land-grabbing

Aim:

To examine the issues of land-grabbing and how communities can develop resilience

Materials:

Old pieces of paper, music

Group Size:

12+ The warm-up activity is best suited to smaller groups, but can be duplicated or left out with larger class sizes. Much larger groups can take part in the case study activity, as they can be divided into sub-groups without limitation.

Duration:

40 minutes

Method:

Group game and case studies with discussion

Instructions:

Part 1:

Lay pieces of old paper on the ground. Explain that each piece of paper is land and that the objective is to hold onto as much as they can. Tell participants to begin walking around the space. When the music stops, everybody must try to stand on a piece of land. Those not on land after a 5 second countdown are out of the game. As players move around the space, announce that there has been a flood, drought, earthquake or war and there are now fewer pieces of land available. Remove pieces of paper after each round. Anybody on the last piece of land is announced as the winner.

Part 2:

Break into four groups. Give each group a different case study and ask them to discuss the following questions:

- * Why is having land so important to some people?
- * What influences people in deciding how they use the land?
- * Who benefits most in this situation?
- * Who is negatively affected?
- * Is what's happening fair?
- * What might the impact be on those who lose their land?
- * What solutions might there be to stop people having land taken from them?

Part 3:

Now, play the game backwards. Starting with the last piece of paper, ask the last remaining player from part one to invite somebody to join them on their land. If there is room for another, invite them too. When that is full, add another piece and ask somebody to fill it and invite others to join. Encourage players to help each other. After a few rounds, if everybody is on a piece of paper, see how many pieces of land you have left over and show the group.

Variations

The case studies can be rewritten to explore specific examples of land-grabs relevant to the group.



¹The case studies and this activity are all taken from the National Youth Council of Ireland's Resource, Bouncing Back, except for the case study from Bulgaria which was added by the author. Bouncing Back is available online: www.youthdeved.ie/sites/youthdeved.ie/files/NYCI_Bouncing_Back.pdf

Case study A

The Chaco forest in Paraguay, South America is roughly twice the size of Ireland. Cattle farmers from Brazil are burning so many trees every year to make room for beef cattle that the forest will be gone in 30 years. Most of the beef is exported to Russia and South Africa. The amount of beef people eat has a direct impact on the life of the forest and its inhabitants

(Source: New York Times, 24 March 2012)

Case study B

The Government of Israel built a wall in the West Bank which they say is to protect against terrorism. The wall is 8m high and more than 700km long, nearly twice the length of Ireland. The wall cuts through Palestinian lands and many homes were destroyed during construction. Farmers were separated from their fields and others from their jobs and families.

(Source: <http://www.amnesty.ie>)

Case study C

The Boynitsa region of North-western Bulgaria, is often referred to as the poorest region in Europe, with the highest rate of unemployment in Bulgaria. Following the collapse of state-socialism and economic liberalism, which eventually led to the reconsolidation of land excluding the majority of the rural population. Boynitsa was predominantly a grain producing region, and came to media attention in 2011, when a Chinese agribusiness company leased 2,000 hectares. The land was used to grow export-oriented flex crops, namely maize. There was no fundamental change in land use. The deal is only one of the first planned by the corporation and in 2011 it announced plans to acquire another 10,000 hectares in the region. The locals were not consulted before or after the deal, and the municipal authorities had no prior warning. In 2012, the Chinese company withdrew its business to move elsewhere in the country.

(Source: http://www.tni.org/sites/www.tni.org/files/download/10._bulgaria.pdf)

Case study D

In Ghana, West Africa, the land is fertile and has been used for generations to grow nutritious food. In one area, 69 families lost their homes and livelihoods because the land owner wanted to grow crops to make biofuel for Europe. Biofuel is made from plants and is non-toxic. However, land which was used to grow food is now used to grow plants for biofuel. Another 1,500 families are in danger of losing their homes in Ghana. People who once had land to grow food to eat now have to find new homes with no compensation.

(Source: www.oxfamireland.org)

TEACHING TOOL 9.4

Moving Debate

Theme:

Hunger, Development, Global Food System

Aim:

To debate issues surrounding the food crisis.

Materials:

Labels / paper with Agree / Disagree written on them, Blue Tack to hang them on the wall.

Group Size:

12-24 This activity can be adapted to use with larger groups, but it will minimise the inputs that can be made by individuals.

Duration:

20-30 minutes, depending on how much discussion comes up (and you can add more statements)

Method:

Moving Debate

Instructions:

If you haven't used the walking debate before, explain to the students how it will work, before you invite them to stand. Label the room with AGREE and DISAGREE on opposite walls. Invite the students to gather in the middle of the room. Read out a statement without discussing it further and ask students to move to the position they are happy with, which can range from strongly agree to strongly disagree. Standing in the middle, for example, suggests that the student does not fully agree or disagree or is undecided. Without talking to one another, ask a few students to express their opinion on the statement. Offer students the chance to adjust their position after some opinions have been given and ask them why they moved. Perhaps for the 2nd or 3rd statement, ask other students why they think their classmate is standing where he/she is. It is important that students do not talk unless asked, so that opinions are listened to and respected. You could also invite the students to propose new statements for discussion.



Statements:

- * People are hungry because they live in hot countries where it doesn't rain.
- * People are hungry because they live in countries with corrupt governments.
- * Tropical countries need to grow more food for world consumption.
- * More bio-fuels need to be grown for our energy consumption, so that we aren't so dependent on oil.
- * We need to grow our own food, instead of relying on the world market to satisfy our taste buds.
- * Governments need to create agreements so free trade is possible between countries.
We need new technologies to change agriculture and feed the world's population.

TEACHING TOOL 9.5

Food Choices

Theme:

Ethical Consumption, Sustainable Food Systems

Aim:

To look at the ethical and development implications of certain food choices; To explore the complexities of “ethical” food choices and all their dimensions.

Materials:

Flipchart paper; Pens; Markers; Information cards (see text in boxes).

Group Size:

15-30 By creating larger sub-groups this activity can be adapted upwards but ideally the smaller groups would be kept to 3 people minimum, and 6 maximum.

Duration:

45 minutes

Method:

Discussion / Group-work

Instructions:

Using the information cards, students work in small groups to prepare a short presentation on flipchart in support of a particular food choice. This is followed by a discussion to look at the different alternatives. Additional points can be added to the flipchart as the discussions proceed. Prompt the students to consider environmental, social, economic and personal impact of the choices.

Finally, invite the students to come up with a check-list to consider when making decisions around food – e.g. country of origin, use of chemical pesticides or fertilisers, transport, impact on the environment, protection of labourers, waste and packaging, etc....

INFORMATION CARDS

Buy organic food

My food is healthy. I don't use chemicals and they are sold fresh to supermarkets and other shops all over the country. It is quite expensive to buy but people will pay a little extra for good quality. My farm is in the countryside and so I need to transport my vegetables using trucks and vans. I think that my food is really healthy for people to eat.

Buy and pick your own local food

This takes a bit of effort but you can come to my farm and pick the fruit that you want. I sell a lot of strawberries this way. My strawberries are fresh and go straight from my field to your kitchen. There is no transportation involved. Most people do come in their own cars. They only travel a few miles though. I don't have any greenhouses to heat either. That means that my strawberries are only available during the summer though.

Buy from the supermarket

My supermarket gets food from all over the country and all over the world. It is brought to the supermarket by many different kinds of transport. That means that I can always have fruits and vegetables available. You can buy strawberries and salad in the winter and things like bananas that do not grow in this country at all. My customers really like the choice. There are lots of parking spaces as well. People can come in their cars and take away enough shopping for the whole week.

Buy from the local shops

The high street has got a few food shops. There is a butcher, a grocer and a baker. You can get a good variety of food but the parking is not that good. You really need to take the bus. The shops sell food that is local and also some food that they have imported from abroad. The tomatoes often come from Spain. We don't sell organic vegetables as they are too expensive for our customers.

Fair trade food

My food and the coffee that is grown in my country is very good. We need to sell a lot because it helps to keep many people in jobs. It is true that we need to send the food many miles by sea. But without the jobs that our food exports bring, it would be very hard for the people in my village to survive.

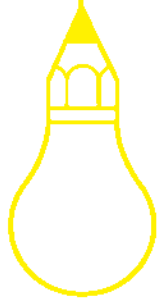
CHAPTER 10

Global Health: New Challenges

by: Tom Melvin

Introduction

Global health is a relatively new and rapidly developing discipline. Global health is commonly defined as the 'study, research and practice that places a priority on improving health and improving equity in health for all people worldwide'¹. As such, global health is a broad church that draws from disparate experts in medicine, economics, politics and many other professions. Global health uses the resources and knowledge of diverse groups to address health challenges throughout the world. Global health is allied to other health specialties such as international and public health and, while they were largely interchangeable twenty years ago, they have now each found their own identity.



	Global Health	International Health	Public Health
Geographical reach	Focuses on issues that directly or indirectly affect health but that can transcend national boundaries	Focuses on health issues of countries other than one's own especially of low-income and middle-income	Focuses on issues that affect the health of the population of a particular community or country
Level of cooperation	Development and implementation of solutions often requires global cooperation	Development and implementation of solutions usually requires binational cooperation	Development and implementation of solutions does not usually require global cooperation
Individuals or populations	Embraces both prevention in populations and clinical care of individuals	Embraces both prevention in populations and clinical care of individuals	Mainly focused on prevention programmes for populations
Access to health	Health equity among nations and for all people is a major objective	Seeks to help people of other nations	Health equity within a nation or community is a major objective
Range of disciplines	Highly interdisciplinary and multidisciplinary within and beyond health sciences	Embraces a few disciplines but has not emphasised multidisciplinary	Encourages multidisciplinary approaches, particularly within health sciences and within social sciences

Figure 10.1: The definition of global health when compared to allied specialties²

The purpose of this chapter is to describe the challenges that the global health community face and where these challenges might take us. To do this, I will introduce the discipline of global health by briefly describing its history and current status. I will also explain a number of the most important challenges that we face currently and into the future.

¹Koplan JP, Bond TC, Merson MH et al. (June 2009). 'Towards a common definition of global health'. *Lancet* 373 (9679):1993–5.

²ibid.

The field of global health developed from what was once called 'tropical medicine' or the study of 'important diseases which usually originate or are more prevalent in warm climates'³. Every medical school has a faculty of tropical medicine although these were often less prominent than other specialities. Global health also finds lineage in public health and the medicine and science applied to communicable disease. Many of us know someone, personally or tangentially, who suffered from tuberculosis. This was a major health challenge of the last hundred years and is still proving difficult to control in countries such as India and parts of Eastern Europe. Whereas the focus of public health is to control and treat outbreaks, global health has a much broader remit as we will discover throughout this chapter.

Today, global health departments are being founded in many medical schools. Students can study for primary and masters degrees in global health and establish a career solely in that specialty from the offset. It has been noted that global health is now 'fashionable'⁴. The reasons for this are not entirely clear, however, with the onset of the internet and free dissemination of information, more and more people have access to material concerning health inequality and are finding interest in this topic. One other possible reason for the popularity of global health is the fact that we live in a remarkably unequal world where the village, township or city of your birth determine a remarkable number of likelihoods for your health, education, life expectancy and quality of life. I will now discuss what I feel are some of the most important topics and greatest challenges faced by global health today.

Millennium Development Goals



The Millennium Development Goals were announced with some fanfare at the Millennium Summit of the United Nations in the year 2000. The timeline set for the achievement of these goals was the end of 2015. The goals are disparate and cover issues such as hunger and child mortality to less tangible goals such as ensuring environmental sustainability. The Millennium Development Goals represented a shift of focus of the international community. The forerunner to the Millennium Development Goals was the United Nations Copenhagen Social Summit in 1995 which focused on donor aid and the amount of money that should be given to help the world's poor. The Millennium Development Goals encouraged people to shift their agenda from donor inputs to outcomes such as halving poverty and cutting child mortality⁵. This has encouraged closer cooperation between international organisations and developing countries to make actual progress.

As the deadline rapidly approaches and we look to build an agenda for the future, the global health community has an important role to play in ensuring that those most in need are pushed towards the front of the queue. The Millennium Development Goals have undoubtedly improved the lives of millions by focusing our efforts, however, as the deadline approaches, we must ask ourselves what is the most efficient way to improve even more lives.

³Meleney H, "A History of Tropical Medicine". American Journal of Public Health. Sep 1940; 30(9): 1122

⁴ibid.

⁵Collier P, (2007) "The Bottom Billion: why the poorest countries are failing and what can be done about it" Oxford University Press Chapter 11

Economist Paul Collier has noted that of the five billion people living in developing countries there are one billion who are 'stuck' and not making any progress⁶. In the post Millennium Development Goal era we must 'narrow the targets and broaden the instruments' to help this specific subset of people. Collier suggests that we broaden our armoury from the usual interventions often involving aid to include trade policies, security strategies and international charters to enable those countries that have not benefited from the push of the last fifteen years to take the baby steps of progress⁷. The future for the post Millennium Development Goal era is not at all clear, however it is hoped that a cogent and targeted plan will help those most in need and push the agenda with realistic goals.



Strengthening Healthcare Systems

It is true that all governments want to improve the healthcare they offer to their populations. When we look at how this care is organised, the 'healthcare system', we see that this is arranged in vastly different ways across the world. Each country and government has to tailor their healthcare system according to their individual needs. However the building blocks of a basic healthcare system are largely the same – doctors, nurses, drugs and devices. In this section, I will look at the background to the work done in strengthening healthcare systems, where it currently stands, and where it might develop, as well as introducing some tools to help you examine individual systems.

To begin, I have to introduce some of the language used. When describing interventions taken in a healthcare system, they are often described as 'vertical' and 'horizontal'. A horizontal healthcare system is the general healthcare available to treat the prevailing conditions in any particular country. A vertical system is one which seeks to tackle a single problem, for example malaria, HIV or TB. These systems usually have three elements – the intervention, delivery and evaluation⁸. If you think of any of the health crises of the past few years, you will realise that both elements are important. Most of the action taken in the past was directed at vertical interventions and helping countries to tackle the crisis affecting their country at that time. The provision of general horizontal healthcare was left to individual governments to arrange in the way they felt best fit their circumstances. Beginning in 1976, a push to help strengthen horizontal healthcare has developed. Entitled *Health for All by 2000*, the then Director General of the World Health Organisation sought to bring healthcare 'within the reach of everyone in a given country.'⁹ Since then, the development of horizontal healthcare has developed and it is something which is now often talked of in terms of a right. The right of people to seek to attain the highest possible level of health is something which was mentioned as early as the 1946 Constitution of the World Health Organisation. The Millennium Development Goals make reference to access to healthcare in Millennium Development Goal #5 which concerns maternal and child health, however there is no general provision. The push for individual governments to provide universal health coverage is something which is gaining increasing political support and will feature in the post Millennium Development Goal agenda.

So how do we examine horizontal healthcare? A useful point to start with when examining healthcare systems is financing. This is usually arranged via a mix of public and private money with insurance, various types of voluntary and non-voluntary contributions and out of pocket schemes. Why is this important? When we look at how these various schemes are implemented across rich and poor countries we see that it is not at all even. As you will see from the Figure 10.2, out of pocket payments account for 50% of the money used to finance healthcare systems in poor countries. In rich countries, this figure is just 14%¹⁰. As you will see in the Teaching Tools, this can create a barrier to access to healthcare and hits the most vulnerable hardest.

⁶ See Teaching Tool 10.6 for a link to a talk by Paul Collier on the 'bottom billion'

⁷ *ibid*: 243

⁸ Gijs E. 'Vertical–horizontal synergy of the health workforce'. World Health Organisation Bulletin, 2005, <http://www.who.int/bulletin/volumes/83/4/editorial10405/en/>

⁹ Mahler, Halfdan (1981) "The meaning of Health For All by the year 2000", World Health Forum, Vol. 2, No. 1

¹⁰ Mills A, (2014) 'Health Care Systems in Low- and Middle-Income Countries'. New England Journal of Medicine, 370:552-557 http://www.nejm.org/doi/full/10.1056/NEJMra1110897?query=featured_global-health#t=article

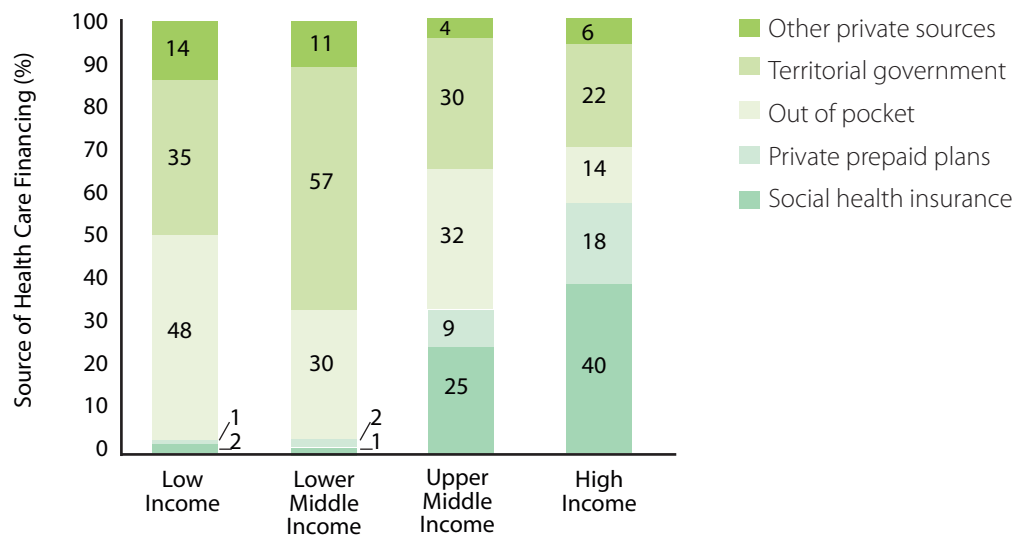


Figure 10.2: Sources of Healthcare Financing in Countries sorted by Income

The key question for governments in low income countries is how to ensure that a healthcare system has sufficient breadth (i.e. that everyone in the country has access) and depth (the standard of healthcare provided). This is a question which all low and middle income countries are grappling with, with lots of different approaches being used. For example, in Vietnam and the Philippines, a system of voluntary contributions to health insurance is being used to help state funding. However in India, this approach of voluntary contributions has been rejected in favour of public funding by the state. However, despite which plan for financing is used, the most important question remains the same – are we getting the breadth and depth of coverage for the population right? Some low income countries have adopted voluntary contribution schemes that have been criticised for getting the breadth–depth balance wrong. In Rwanda for example, there is over 90% coverage of the population in their insurance scheme, however the depth of coverage available under that scheme has attracted criticism for not going far enough.¹¹

So what are the characteristics of an ideal healthcare system? This is a difficult question which will inevitably vary between societies and people, however there are some characteristics that are universal. Some commentators discuss an ‘ideal health-system’ but it has been noted that this is impossible as it is like trying to describe an irregular geometric form to someone who cannot see it¹². The World Health Organisation have described six building blocks for any health system as follows¹³:

1. Service delivery
2. Health workforce
3. Health information systems
4. Access to essential medicines
5. Financing
6. Leadership

The involvement of the global health community in the running of individual healthcare systems will always be a difficult balance, however, moving towards greater support for strengthening horizontal healthcare will undoubtedly save lives.

¹¹ Lu C, Chin B, Lewandowski JL, Basinga P, Hirschhorn LR, et al. (2012) Towards Universal Health Coverage: An Evaluation of Rwanda Mutuelles in Its First Eight Years. PLoS ONE 7(6): e39282. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0039282

¹² Zerda A, ‘Essential Medicines and Health Products Information Portal’, World Health Organization

¹³ World Health Organisation, ‘Monitoring the Building Blocks of Health Systems’, http://www.who.int/healthinfo/systems/WHO_MBHSS_2010_full_web.pdf



Healthcare Systems and New European Member States

The governance of global health issues in new European member states is complex and multifaceted with involvement of numerous stakeholders including the European Union's institutions and numerous organisations such as the World Health Organisation. There are particular challenges such as Tuberculosis (TB) and multi-drug resistant TB, high prevalence rates of HIV as well as challenges faced by all of Europe such as ageing populations, diabetes and cardiovascular disease. There are also areas such as mental health in which certain European member states have made exceptional gains and where experience can be shared.

The delivery of healthcare is also highly dependent on the health system in each individual country and this is highly variable across the European Union. Global health can contribute by comparing successful healthcare systems to those that are doing less well. It goes without saying that this is a complex area in which indigenous governmental approaches, history and society all have an important role to play.

I would like to take one specific example, the provision of public health in Estonia, to explain some of the individual challenges faced. In 2008, the World Health Organisation conducted a comprehensive examination of the health challenges faced by Estonia. To do this, they involved many stakeholders, such as the Ministry of Social Affairs, the Estonian Health Insurance Fund, the National Institute for Health Development and the Health Protection Inspectorate as well as other academic and non-governmental organisations. As you can imagine, drawing together the collective wisdom, research and knowledge of these disparate groups is complex from the outset.

The report, which is available online, is an excellent summary of the major public health issues facing Estonia at that time and many of the issues raised in that report (for example HIV and TB) are discussed further in the following paragraphs¹⁴. It is useful to read the report via the prism of vertical / horizontal healthcare and the building blocks of a successful health system discussed already.



Communicable Disease

As I write, the tragic effects of the most recent ebola epidemic are prominent in our media. At the time of writing, the death toll in western Africa stands at 7,000 and many think that this figure in fact may be much higher¹⁵. We are currently seeing a slight slowing of the weekly number of new infections in Liberia however the number is rising in neighbouring Sierra Leone. There have been a number of confirmed cases in developed countries, however, there has not been a sustained outbreak. From a global health perspective we must examine the reasons as to why poorer countries are suffering most and what we can do to help.

The Food and Agriculture Organisation of the UN have noted that since ebola took grip of Sierra Leone, up to 70% of the population have been surviving on one meal a day and are at high risk of malnutrition¹⁶. The link between malnutrition and overall survival from a variety of diseases has been well proven and in 50% of all death in Sub-Saharan Africa it plays a role. This topic is discussed further in the next section.

There are a number of other important factors to take into account in the management of this crisis in West Africa, one of the most important is politics. There have been many accounts of the lack of resources and haphazard management of the outbreak early in the crisis¹⁷. Sierra Leone is one of the most corrupt states in the world and the administration of health in that country has been beset by difficulties in recent times, even before the ebola crisis arrived¹⁸.

¹⁴ Public health in Estonia 2008, An analysis of public health operations, services and activities, World Health Organisation, 2008, <http://ee.euro.who.int/Public%20health%20in%20Estonia%20E92578.pdf>

¹⁵ Johnson C, Number of Ebola cases in West Africa passes 16,000, Guardian website, <http://www.theguardian.com/world/2014/nov/29/ebola-infections-west-africa-16000>

¹⁶ Food and Agriculture Organisation of the UN, Executive Brief, Ebola Virus Disease Outbreak in West Africa, http://www.fao.org/fileadmin/user_upload/emergencies/docs/FAO_EVD_ExecutiveBrief_20140922.pdf

¹⁷ Nossiter A, Lockdown Begins in Sierra Leone to Battle Ebola, New York Times, http://www.nytimes.com/2014/09/20/world/africa/ebola-outbreak.html?_r=0

¹⁸ Nossiter A, Sierra Leone's Health Care System Becomes a Cautionary Tale for Donors, New York Times, <http://www.nytimes.com/2013/04/14/world/africa/sierra-leone-graft-charges-imperil-care-and-aid.html?pagewanted=all>

While the management of an epidemic is a matter of public rather than global health, the global health community needs to contribute by examining the broader reasons as to why we are not winning the battle against ebola in countries such as Sierra Leone and tackling poor governance and nutrition are two of the most important fronts in this ongoing battle.

Another factor that was important in this case was the lack of trust that existed between the public and health care workers. There have been reports of communities attacking ambulances and healthcare workers. Working within cultural boundaries is necessary to ensure that effective measures can be implemented. It has been noted that in prior epidemics in countries with poor health infrastructure, such as the Ebola outbreak in what was then named Zaire in 1995, working with village elders was vitally important¹⁹. Their support allowed healthcare workers to access villages, remove the deceased, clean and spray affected areas. When interventions such as this are started as quickly as possible, this drastically improves the chances that the epidemic can be quashed.

The future poses a number of interesting challenges for communicable disease and we can look at the threats through a number of prisms. The threat from potentially disastrous outbreaks such as SARS and Avian influenza / H5N1 has been posed in terms of a security threat, especially to developed societies²⁰ and echoes of this can be heard in the current news reports of sporadic cases of ebola in developed country cities. These diseases pose interesting ethical considerations as rich developed countries seem to apply endless resources to ring fencing against outbreaks of easily communicable diseases at home yet are far less concerned about those less communicable diseases such as HIV which do not pose as obvious a threat to their populations. The reasons for this have been described in economic terms as diseases such as SARS or avian influenza can be rapidly debilitating and can effect the wealth and security of infected states²¹. Thanks to data tracking and public health we now have excellent information systems to detect the early stages of outbreaks. The challenge in the future for global health will be to ensure that the necessary resources are directed rapidly to control future epidemics in their infancy.

Poverty and Malnutrition



The greatest contribution we can make to world health is not through any particular medical intervention. It is a sad indictment of our society that the simplest problem remains the most important: hunger. Addressing hunger is the single greatest intervention we can make to benefit world health and this is presumably why Millennium Development Goal #1 (eradication of extreme poverty and hunger) was given predominance of place. Millennium Development Goal #1 has three specific targets, namely: halving the number of people who earn less than \$1 a day, halving the number of people who are hungry and achieving full and productive employment²².

There are approximately 870 million people in the world who are undernourished²³. This figure has fallen from an all-time high of 1.023 billion people in 2009²⁴. The link between undernutrition and health is obvious, the intake of sufficient, nutritious food is a fundamental prerequisite to good health. In simple medical terms, adequate nutrition is an important element in the prophylaxis and treatment of the common conditions affecting people in developing countries. Despite the simplicity, hunger is often befuddled with economic, agricultural and political concerns. It has been noted that if undernutrition was viewed purely as a disease such as H1N1, and adequate nutrition as a drug or vaccine, we would have the full attention of the international community²⁵.

¹⁹ For a further discussion on this topic, please see the following transcript of an interview featuring UN Secretary General Ban-Ki Moon and the president of Sierra Leone, available at: <http://www.theguardian.com/global-development/2014/nov/04/ebola-crisis-global-health-podcast-transcript>

²⁰ Elbe S, "Security and Global Health" (2012) Polity

²¹ *ibid.*

²² We Can End Poverty 2015 (2010) Website [Internet]. New York. United Nations.

<http://www.un.org/millenniumgoals/poverty.shtml>

²³ World Hunger Education Service, 2013 World Hunger and Poverty Facts and Statistics,

<http://www.worldhunger.org/articles/Learn/world%20hunger%20facts%202002.htm>

²⁴ Food and Agriculture Organisation of the United Nations. (2010) The State of Food Insecurity in the World. [pdf] New York: Food and Agriculture Organisation of the United Nations. <http://www.fao.org/publications/sofi/en/>

²⁵ Editorial. (2009) The undernutrition epidemic: an urgent health problem. *The Lancet*, 374(9700): 1473.

Malnutrition is a contributing factor to many of the causes of preventable death amongst the worlds poor. Undernutrition has been shown to be a contributing factor in over half of all deaths in under 5 year olds²⁶. Solving undernutrition in developing countries is not as simple as the old paradigm of donor aid previously mentioned. Much of the current efforts in this regard are targeted at helping developing countries to develop sustainable and reliable agricultural systems. As this and other chapters in this book show this renders a huge number of health, economic and security benefits. We have made huge gains in tackling hunger under the auspices of the Millennium Development Goals but much remains to be done and we need to take every available avenue open to us.



HIV

HIV is a worldwide issue but it is one of great importance to developing countries where it has ravaged populations. In the context of global health it has devastated poor families and communities, especially in impoverished Sub-Saharan Africa. The health effects of HIV have been well documented and HIV is a disease that many of us have encountered in media reports and elsewhere. With regard to global health, I would like to take one country as an example in order to describe the need for the holistic approach that global health offers. Zambia is a peaceful stable democracy however it has been ravaged by HIV. The average life expectancy of the population, as of the most recent data (2012) is 57 years, this has risen dramatically from 41 in the year 2000, when the Millennium Development Goals's were being drafted. If you walk the streets of Lusaka you will commonly see billboards advertising coffin insurance. HIV is one area that has benefited to a remarkable extent from a multidisciplinary effort and this is one disease that the global health community has made great gains in, although a lot more remains to be done. The future challenges are clear with regard to ensuring that the widespread dissemination of education, anti-retrovirals, preventative measures and good access to medical care are each contributing to real changes and are already improving the quality and life expectancy of previously ravaged communities.



Economic Development

At the turn of the millennium, the economic climate looked promising for developing countries; the Millennium Development Goals set specific targets regarding malnutrition and the World Trade Organisation, Doha round of trade negotiations launched in 2001 placed developing countries at the centre of negotiations. Many of the Millennium Development Goals have not seen progress and the Doha round is at an impasse, the political impetus to progress having been lost due to the current economic crisis.

Globalisation' is a term familiar to us all and its inclusion in our lexicon is as a result of the trade liberalisation on goods and services that occurred in previous trade rounds in the World Trade Organisation. In this regard agriculture is the last bastion and dark corner of trade liberalisation. So why is agriculture important? Firstly, agricultural development is necessary to bring food security to some of the poorest developing countries in the world. Secondly, agriculture is sustainable and thus helps North and South to break the charity dynamic that exists. Thirdly, money is distributed directly to communities and the inevitable inefficiencies of charities and NGOs are avoided. Finally, agricultural development provides the green shoots that allow fledgling economies to develop organically over time, eventually graduating as newly industrialised countries such as India or Brazil²⁷.

The past twenty years have seen an unprecedented growth in international trade. Free trade has transformed many countries, notably the BRIC countries (Brazil, Russia, India and China) and has transformed the living standards of much of their populations. Much of the fuel for this progress came from trade liberalisation and the lifting of tariffs or taxes on the trading of certain products between certain member states of the World Trade Organisation (WTO). The explosion of free trade agreements, whereby two states decide to drop all tariffs on goods and services between themselves has encouraged growth and development that has benefited many of the worlds poor.

²⁶ Bryce, J. 'WHO estimates of the causes of death in children' The Lancet, Volume 365, Issue 9465 <http://www.thelancet.com/journals/lancet/article/PIIS0140673605718778/abstract>

²⁷ Koekoek KA. On the Case for Graduation. *Intereconomics*. 1983; 18(5): 225-9.

However this transformative effect has been uneven and many societies have stagnated. There are many possible reasons for this. One important and controversial reason for the stagnation is the imposition of strict tariffs and internal subsidies for agriculture. This is a recurring political issue, especially in Europe where strikes by farmers are commonly seen in member states when subsidies are changed or threatened.

If we examine the BRIC countries and many of the newly emerging successful economies of the past twenty years, it is clear that the initial stepping stone towards industrialisation was developing a sound agricultural base. The importance of food security with regard to developing countries has been discussed elsewhere in this book. Practitioners in global health need to be cognisant of the fact that to allow developing countries to gain economic independence we have to help them to develop agricultural exports.

So how does the future look for developing countries? Sadly it is not bright. The most recent round of trade negotiations in the WTO, initially named the Doha 'Development' round as the focus was supposed to shift to developing countries. This round has been at an impasse for over ten years now and the political impetus has fallen away due to the developed world economic crisis. You might rightly ask what can be done on an individual basis to help. Much of the answer lies in the adage that 'knowledge is power'. As the field of global health continues to grow in power and prominence and our population's knowledge of the issues grows, the political impetus to address these issues will too. This is discussed further in the Teaching Tools.

There are many green shoots in this area and one I find particularly impressive is the concept of 'aid for trade'.²⁸ This is an initiative set up by the UN to encourage farmers in developing countries to work on building safer, more reliable crops that are more likely to feed indigenous populations and perhaps yield an excess that can be used for sale and export. These economic baby steps help to develop a stream of money into developing countries that can then be used to help take further steps into light industry and start along the path already beaten by the BRIC countries. It is hoped that in the future, trade restrictions will be lifted that will allow sensible initiatives like this be allowed develop to their fullest extent.

The Future for Global Health



So where does this leave us? As this chapter has shown, global health has many tentacles, however one thing we must never do is lose track of the fact that these multiple initiatives are all aimed at one single simple goal: improving the quality of life for the world's most vulnerable people. The future is bright for this, as yet fledgling, specialty and as it grows in importance and political power it will hopefully serve as an ever stronger force for good.

²⁸ World Trade Organisation, "Aid for Trade", http://www.wto.org/english/tratop_e/devel_e/a4t_e/aid4trade_e.htm



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TEACHING TOOL 10.1

Why Do We Need Global Health?

Having read the section in the main text regarding the definition of global health and how that compares to the predicate disciplines of tropical health, public health and somewhat similar disciplines such as international health, it is useful to ask why we need global health at all? Why do we not just use the old institutions of public health and tropical medicine? Global health is a newly defined topic and, as is discussed in the opening section of this chapter, one which is not aligned strictly to any one profession or body.

The topics discussed further in Teaching Tool 10.2 will hopefully inform students on the importance of strengthening health systems and using a sensible evidence base to drive the most efficient interventions.

TEACHING TOOL 10.2

What is Health?

The World Health Organisation (WHO) in the past described health in a somewhat negative manner employing the phrase 'absence of disease'. However over time this definition has changed and evolved. As doctors, we now seek to improve a person's quality of life and add 'life to years' rather than 'years to life'. In this section we will describe the evolution of the definition and how this is of importance to global health. A useful topic for class discussion is to ask participants to try to describe 'health' before moving onto the following section.

Prior to the era of Hippocrates, health was perceived as a divine gift. Hippocrates was credited with pioneering the move away from divine notions of health, and using observation as a basis for acquiring health knowledge. Hippocrates shifted the focus to environmental sanitation, personal hygiene and, in particular, balanced diets – 'let food be thy medicine; and let thy medicine be food'.

The current WHO definition of health, formulated in 1948, describes health as 'a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity'.

Further reading on this definition can be found at:
http://www.who.int/bulletin/bulletin_board/83/ustun11051/en/

As you can see from the definition this is a remarkably broad definition. At this point it could be useful to compare the definition from class discussion to this.

Why is it useful to have a broad definition of health? If we consider health in a broad global context you can see that the perception of health in a rich western city is remarkably different to that experienced in a developing country refugee camp. Health is largely socially constructed; of course acute or serious disease like terminal cancer are almost universally accepted as deviations from healthy state. Counter to this, we must remember that social and environmental determinants quite often influence what we perceive as healthy.



Apart from the environmental and societal factors, there are also a number of personal factors that affect how we as individuals perceive health. A good example of work in this regard is the 'health behaviour model', which was developed in the 1950's by the United States Public Health Service to examine why many of the population did not undergo screening tests for the early detection of often asymptomatic conditions. This model broke health down into four determinants²⁹:

1. Perceived susceptibility
2. Perceived severity
3. Perceived benefits
4. Perceived barriers

This theory of health is largely applicable to asymptomatic populations, however in the context of global health, there are many conditions such as HIV or malnutrition which, as we discussed already, can have a severe impact on your quality of life and life expectancy but have a prolonged latent period. It is also interesting to note that retrospective and prospective studies carried out throughout the 1970s and 80s showed that perceived barriers was attributed the greatest significance by study populations³⁰. This finding is interesting given that barriers to medicine are a very important aspect of health in developing countries. The topic of barriers to medicine is discussed further in Teaching Tool 10.4. It is also useful to be aware of the fact that different cultures have vastly different conceptions of health. A useful example of this is the Aboriginal definition of health³¹:

A community based conception of health such as this is used in many parts of the world and often encompasses a holistic approach where the physical, mental and spiritual aspects are considered inseparable. As you can see, health is regarded in vastly different ways by different groups and an understanding of this is of utmost importance when studying or developing strategies in global health.



Aboriginal health means not just the physical well-being of an individual but refers to the social, emotional and cultural well-being of the whole Community in which each individual is able to achieve their full potential as a human being, thereby bringing about the total well-being of their Community. It is a whole-of-life view and includes the cyclical concept of life-death-life.

²⁹ Becker M.H., 'The Health Belief Model: A Decade Later', Health Education Quarterly (1984) 11(1): 1

³⁰ Mark Edburg, 'Essential Readings in Health Behavior: Theory and Practice', Essential Public Health, Chapter 1231

³¹ AHMRC website, 'Definition of Aboriginal Health'

http://ahmrc.org.au/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=35:definition-of-aboriginal-health&catid=4:about-ahmrc&Itemid=37

TEACHING TOOL 10.3

What is the Single Best Way to Improve the World's Health?

Leading on from our discussion of the definition of health, a useful next question is to consider how we rationalise and prioritise all of the different health challenges. It would be useful at this stage to throw this topic open to class discussion as to what they think is the single greatest challenge in global health and what is the best way to tackle this.



When we think about the global burden of disease, it is easy to quantify mortality and the number of people who die because of a certain condition and we have quite reliable figures on mortality for much of the world. The situation becomes more difficult when we try to consider those conditions that do not kill someone but leave them with a degree of disability or impairment of their quality of life. This is something that health researchers often call the global burden of disease. In order to place an objective basis around these competing interests, health researchers have developed a model called 'disability adjusted life years' (DALYs). This is a model that calculates the number of years of life lost due to illness, disability or early death. This therefore helps us to quantify not only the number of people who die at an earlier age than would be expected but to calculate to some extent the degree of suffering of what is often the world's poorest people.

Another useful class exercise is, having explained the concept of DALYs, is to throw it open to class discussion to debate what they feel the greatest DALYs in rich and poor countries are before moving on to examine the table in Figure 10.3³².

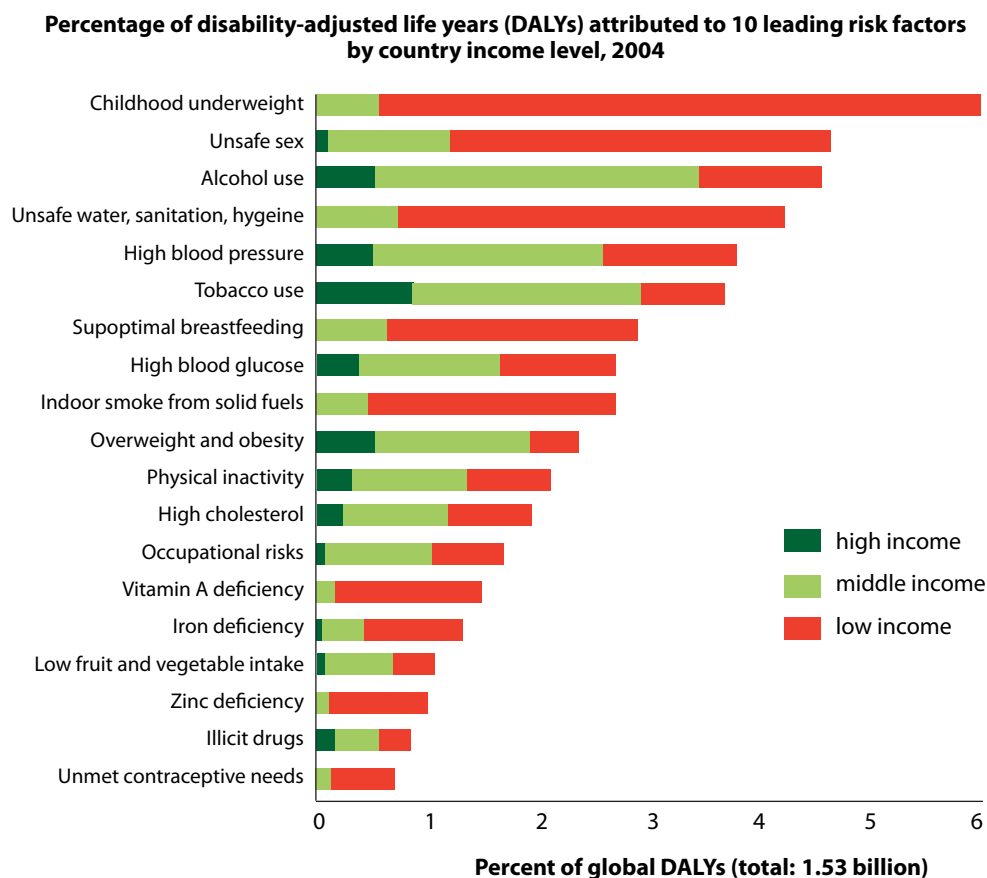


Figure 10.3: shows the top 19 global causes of morbidity or disability adjusted life years (DALYs) divided by high / middle / low income countries

³² WHO, 'Global Health Risks, Mortality and burden of disease attributable to selected major risks', available at http://www.who.int/healthinfo/global_burden_disease/GlobalHealthRisks_report_full.pdf

As you can see from the table in Figure 10.3, the greatest cause of DALYs by far is childhood malnutrition. One important aspect of this to understand is that malnutrition in childhood causes disability in all causes, whether mortality, ill-health or disability. Malnourished children, as has been previously discussed, live shorter lives, encounter more illnesses and have a poorer quality of life with sequelae that persist throughout their lives. It may be useful at this point to refer back to the section on malnutrition.

TEACHING TOOL 10.4

What are the Barriers to Healthcare?



A good topic for class discussion is to discuss how a family living in a remote area in a developing country access healthcare for their sick child. What are the type of challenges that families such as this face? It is useful after this to introduce the concepts of demand and supply side elements to the barriers to healthcare. These are phrases most commonly associated with the discipline of economics whereby the 'supply' side encompasses those health services available and the 'demand' side those services which are sought.

To give a practical example, imagine a family in Sub-Saharan Africa. The family consists of mother, father and three children under the age of five. The youngest, aged two, has been vomiting for two days and has had diarrhoea for three days. The baby, who had been crying loudly, now lies limply in its mother's arms. The parents are worried, although they are not sure what exactly they can do. They have little money but they go to the market and buy 'medicine' (which in fact is paracetamol). They give this to the baby but because of the vomiting they are not sure if this helps. The following day the baby is limp and barely rousable. The parents know that they now need to get to hospital but cannot afford to take the bus and there is no ambulance or similar service. After borrowing money, they manage to take the bus and arrive that night to their closest accident and emergency department with a gravely ill child.

Scenarios such as this happen to thousands of children every day. After explaining a scenario such as this one, it is useful to then go back and break down each of the elements that could be worked upon to improve the outcome for that child and family and to then divide them into supply and demand side considerations. Included in Figure 10.4 is a table which forms part of a report by the World Bank into the barriers to access to healthcare that exist in Bangladesh for women who need peri-natal care³³. Examples such as this reinforce the point that one of the most important jobs of global health is to strengthen health systems and to ensure that there is a good evidence base for our interventions to help patients know how, when and where to get to healthcare and that there are appropriate, accessible services available.

³³Ensor T, 'Overcoming barriers to health service access: influencing the demand side' Health Policy and Planning 19(2), available at: <http://info.worldbank.org/etools/docs/library/122031/bangkokCD/BangkokMarch05/Week2/4Thursday/S1BeyondHS/EnsorCooperDemandSideBarriers.pdf>

Figure 10.4: Supply or Demand?

Supply or demand	Reason	Percentage
DEMAND	Do not know about emergency problems	59.5%
DEMAND	Financial costs are relatively high	45.5%
DEMAND	Do not know about the availability of specific service at the facility	39.3%
SUPPLY	Required medicines not always available	38.2%
DEMAND	In-laws object	35.6%
DEMAND	Religion does not permit going outside of the house, especially during pregnancy	35.3%
DEMAND	Shyness	32.3%
DEMAND/SUPPLY	Facility too far from home	28.3%
SUPPLY	Doctor not available when needed	25.2%
DEMAND	Poor communication to facilities	17.8%
DEMAND	Husband objects	17.0%
SUPPLY	Difficult to get admission	14.1%
SUPPLY	Attitude of service providers to clients not very friendly	5.6%

TEACHING TOOL 10.5

What Can We Do?

Educate yourself, get involved, find a way to apply political pressure. For an example of the use of soft measures to put pressure on politicians see for example the following report: <http://www.interaction.org/document/introduction-global-health>



TEACHING TOOL 10.6

Miscellaneous

Ted talk by Paul Collier available at: http://www.ted.com/talks/paul_collier_shares_4_ways_to_help_the_bottom_billion/transcript?language=en#t-625000



CHAPTER 11

Human Rights Based Approaches to Development: Towards Better Understanding and Practice in EU-13 Member States

by: *Snježana Bokulić*

Introduction

For some time, the European Union (EU) and its member states have held the noble title of the World's Largest Donor of Development Aid. Having spent €56.5 billion on official development assistance (ODA) in 2013, they provided more than half of global public aid in the fight against poverty. A survey by Eurobarometer, carried out in 2013, showed that 80% of EU citizens believed development aid was important, with almost two-thirds of respondents agreeing that tackling poverty should be one of the EU's main priorities. At the same time, half said that they knew nothing about where EU aid went and fewer than half were of the opinion that this should be a priority of their national governments.

In recognition of its political commitment to development cooperation, the EU has declared 2015 the European Year for Development. However, even the target of allocating 0.7% of gross national income (GNI) to ODA, agreed as far back as the 1970s, to which the EU committed itself to reaching by 2015, remains elusive. Individual targets of 0.7% apply to the 15 states that were EU members before 2004; the interim target for the newcomers was set at 0.33%. In 2013, 10 member states increased and 8 maintained their ODA levels, while 10 member states reduced it. Only four member states reached the target in 2013: Denmark, Luxembourg, Sweden and, for the first time, the United Kingdom; for the first time since 1974, the Netherlands fell below 0.7%. No EU-13 member state, and few of the EU-15, have come close to meeting their respective targets. In the words of former EU Commissioner for Development, Andris Piebalgs, 'clearly, the EU still has a long way to go to meet our collective commitment, but measures taken by some member states show that we can deliver on our promises, even in difficult budgetary circumstances, provided the political will is there'.

Political will is, indeed, an important precondition not only to meeting ODA targets but also to ensuring that development cooperation is effective. With the notable exception of Malta, all EU-13 member states will not only miss the 0.33% target for 2015, but will also miss the intermediate target of 0.15% set for 2010, in the company of peers such as Italy, Greece and Spain. Challenges abound, not least because of the economic crisis the member states have faced for a number of years now. Despite the positive findings by Eurobarometer, the lack of public awareness and understanding of development issues, stemming from a presumably different historical experience of development, translate into insufficient public support for national development cooperation policies, another precondition necessary for meeting the targets on ODA and its effectiveness.

Human rights-based approaches to development, a paradigm shift in international development which is making inroads over the past couple of decades, may not only provide compelling arguments to advance the development discourse at the domestic level, but also assist governments in strengthening their international development policies. Including human rights-based approaches to development education is fundamental in this regard. This chapter explores the international development context relevant for EU-13 member states, framing it in terms of a human rights-based approach. It then provides suggestions for practitioners of development education in EU-13 member states on how to present and discuss human rights-based approaches to development in practice.





The Human Right to Development

From its outset, development was considered in terms of economic growth: investment into and industrialisation of developing countries would lead to growth which, in turn, would benefit the poor and contribute to combating poverty. It has by now become clear that economic growth alone is insufficient: “While standards of living have improved, the gap between the rich and the poor on the global and national level continues to grow worldwide, as does the feminisation of poverty.” Disadvantaged communities have faced significant challenges in improving their situations, as poverty reduction policies have not been sufficiently responsive to their circumstances. Ethnic minority communities and women, for instance, remain particularly affected. This inadequacy has demanded a shift of paradigm. Over time, consequently, development has increasingly come to be understood as sustainable human development concerned with the human being and his or her participation in resource allocation and management (Hamm, 2001: 1006-1010).

The UN Declaration on the Right to Development, in the Preamble, recognises development as ‘a comprehensive economic, social, cultural and political process, which aims at the constant improvement of the well-being of the entire population and of all individuals on the basis of their active, free and meaningful participation in development and in the fair distribution of benefits resulting therefrom’. In Article 1, the Declaration states that “the right to development is an inalienable human right by virtue of which every human person and all peoples are entitled to participate in and contribute to and enjoy economic, social, cultural, and political development in which all human rights and fundamental freedoms can be fully realised.” Article 2 places the human person at the centre of development as both an active participant and beneficiary of the right to development. Moreover, the Declaration creates the obligation for all states not only to formulate international development policies and create national and international conditions favourable to the realisation of this right, but also to cooperate with a view to promoting, encouraging and strengthening universal respect for and observance of all human rights and fundamental freedoms.

A few decades in the making, the Declaration was adopted by the UN General Assembly in 1986, with 146 votes in favour, eight abstentions from current EU member states Denmark, Finland, the then Federal Republic of Germany, Sweden and the United Kingdom, as well as Iceland, Israel and Japan; the United States voted against. The split in the vote epitomised the Cold War rift between the West and the East, and the difference in their respective approaches to civil and political, and economic, social and cultural rights. The South, for its part, kept making the case for the right to development. The perennial debate between “individual” and “collective” rights compounded the issue. The principal opposition to the right to development from the West, according to some commentators, stemmed from the emphasis on the global dimension this right placed on what used to be a conventional understanding of rights as being about the relation between the state and persons under its jurisdiction.

Pointing to the inequalities between North and South, [the right to development] stresses the collective obligation of all states to create a just and equitable international environment for the realisation of the right to development. It emphasises a collective duty of all states to eliminate barriers such as unfair trade rules and the debt burden, effectively pointing an accusing finger at the industrial countries (Cornwall and Nyamu-Musembi, 2004: 1422).

Thus the Declaration has come to be seen as the return to integrated and indivisible human rights, as originally envisioned in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (Sengupta, 2001: 2527). This indivisibility and interrelatedness of human rights, in addition to their universality and interdependence were reconfirmed at the UN World Conference on Human Rights in Vienna, in 1993. The controversy surrounding human rights, their 'generations' and thus, ultimately, different levels of perceived worth, seemed to have been resolved, and the East–West and North–South divides bridged. Perhaps more importantly for the issue at hand, the Vienna Declaration and Programme of Action asserted that democracy, development and respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms are interdependent and mutually reinforcing. It also reaffirmed the right to development, as established in the Declaration on the Right to Development, as a universal and inalienable right and an integral part of fundamental human rights. In ensuring development and eliminating obstacles to development, states should cooperate with each other.

The reiteration of the obligation for states to cooperate at the international level for the purpose of the realisation of the right was not a novelty. Indeed, 'international co-operation in solving international problems of an economic, social, cultural, or humanitarian character, and in promoting and encouraging respect for human rights and for fundamental freedoms for all without distinction as to race, sex, language, or religion' is one of the principal purposes of the United Nations, laid down in Article 1 of the UN Charter. States have pledged to cooperate internationally under its Articles 55 and 56, as well as Article 2 of the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights. Nevertheless, what made the right to development as a human right controversial is that it raised issues about which the world has been fundamentally divided – such as issues related to the ideas of justice, equity, and priorities of international policy (Sengupta, 2001: 2528).

The Declaration must be read together with international human rights law which provides the normative basis and a clear framework of reference for states concerning their obligations. International human rights law places the duty on the states to respect, protect and fulfill human rights. Flowing from the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, specific human rights have been elaborated in a series of UN human rights treaties. They are based on the fundamental principles of universality and indivisibility, equality and non-discrimination, participation and inclusion, as well as accountability and the rule of law. These treaties include:

- * International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination (ICERD)
- * International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR)
- * International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR)
- * Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW)
- * Convention against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment of Punishment (CAT)
- * Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC)
- * Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families (CMW)
- * Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (CPRD)

Which rights are relevant for development? They all are. Given that development and human rights are intertwined, the one cannot be realised without the other. Because human rights are interconnected, the enjoyment of one right is indivisibly interrelated to the enjoyment of other rights and violation of one will lead to the violation of a range of other rights.

Because they are mutually reinforcing, they help secure the wellbeing and dignity of all people. Examples of rights include:

- * Civil and political rights
- * The right to liberty and security of person
- * Freedom of movement
- * Equality before the law
- * Independence of the judiciary
- * The right to privacy
- * Freedom of thought, conscience and religion
- * Freedom of expression
- * Freedom of association
- * The right to take part in the conduct of public affairs
- * The right to vote and to be elected
- * The right to freely determine political status
- * The right of ethnic, religious or linguistic minorities to to enjoy their own culture, to profess and practise their own religion, or to use their own language
- * Economic, social and cultural rights
- * Right to work, to form trade unions, and to safe and healthy working conditions
- * Right to the highest attainable standard of physical and mental health
- * Right to education
- * Right to an adequate standard of living, including adequate food, housing and clothing
- * Right to take part in cultural life
- * The right to freely pursue economic, social and cultural development

The Perspective of EU-13: Challenges and Advantages of International Development Cooperation



A degree of deference and defensiveness prevails in the discussions of the international development experience of EU-13 member states prior to their EU accession. This deference and defensiveness is explained with reference to the politics and ideology of the purported goal of promoting socialism and communism (Staszewska, Esplen and Dion, 2010; Bučar and Mrak, 2007; Lightfoot and Lindenhovious Zubizarreta, 2010; Horky, 2010). The implication here seems to be that such aid was, at the very least, different, if not of less worth, than that of other “traditional” development cooperation actors from among the EU-15. It remains unclear how the experience of the former compares with the experience of the latter whose development policies have been acknowledged as promoting former colonial ties and political ideologies akin to their own.

Even a cursory examination of the prevailing geographical distribution and concentration of development aid reveals that EU member states which had colonies tend, in general, to concentrate their aid on these countries, as is the case with, for instance, France and the UK (Muerle, 2007: 11). Alesina and Dollar reiterate that the pattern of aid-giving is dictated by political and strategic considerations. “An inefficient, economically closed, mismanaged non-democratic former colony politically friendly to its former coloniser, receives more foreign aid than another country with similar level of poverty, a superior policy stance, but without a past as a colony” (Alesina and Dollar, 2000: 1). Perhaps similarly, EU-13 member states tend to focus aid on their neighbouring countries (Muerle, 2007: 11).

Given that many EU-13 member states have a considerable history of engagement with the developing world, they see themselves as re-emerging donors. This is primarily the case with the Visegrad countries; the Baltic states, on the other hand, became new donors. Following the collapse of the Soviet Bloc, their engagement with the developing countries and any aid programmes became significantly reduced.

As the transition period came to an end and following their EU accession, EU-13 member states acquired the obligation to adopt and fully implement EU's *aquis communautaire*, including provisions on international development cooperation. For the Czech Republic, Hungary, Poland, and Slovakia, as well as subsequently Estonia and Slovenia, this meant also complying with the intergovernmental norms and standards for international assistance programs set by the Development Assistance Committee of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD DAC) (Bučar and Mrak, 2007: 5). These states, thus, had to re-orientate themselves from being recipients of aid to becoming donors. "In terms of how they responded to the challenge of creating development policy, some countries were slow starters while others appeared to respond to the challenge quickly" (Lightfoot and Lindenhovius Zubizarreta, 2010: 175-177).

The Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union (TFEU) sets out the principles and objectives of EU's development cooperation. According to Article 208 TFEU, the primary objective of the Union's development cooperation policy is the reduction and, in the long-term, the eradication of poverty. Moreover, both the Union and the member states are obliged to comply with the commitments and take account of the objectives they have approved in the context of the United Nations and other competent international organisations.

In 2005, the EU took a step further in its development policy: for the first time in five decades, the Commission, Parliament and the Council agreed the framework of common principles in the implementation of the EU and member states' development policies. Known as the European Consensus on Development, it reiterated the importance of poverty eradication - the primary and overarching objective of EU development cooperation - and sustainable development, recognising the concept that, although developing countries have the prime responsibility for their own development, developed countries too bear responsibility. Partnership should underpin this joint effort. Importantly, the document reaffirmed that sustainable development includes good governance and human rights, among other aspects, and that all people should enjoy all human rights in line with international agreements. Specifically, it committed the EU to "promote the respect for human rights of all people in cooperation with both states and non-state actors in partner countries" (Paragraph 86). Moreover, the empowerment of women was reasserted as the key to all development and gender equality as a core part of all policy strategies.

The Consensus commits the EU to maintain its support to conflict prevention and resolution and to peace building by addressing the root-causes of violent conflict. These include poverty, degradation, exploitation and unequal distribution and access to land and natural resources, weak governance, human rights abuses and gender inequality. Preventing social exclusion and combating discrimination against all groups are paramount in the context of poverty eradication. The EU will therefore promote social dialogue and protection, in particular to address issues such as gender inequality, the rights of indigenous peoples and the condition of disabled people.

It spells out the EU commitment to allocating 0.7% of GNI to development cooperation by 2015, and the shared interim goal of 0.56% by 2010. It prioritises support for the least developed countries and the low- and medium-income countries, earmarking half the increase in aid for Africa. Finally, it recognises the value of concentrating the aid activities of each member states in areas and regions where they have comparative advantages and can add most value to the fight against poverty.

In recognition of the economic and political reality of the EU-13 member states, the aid targets that apply to them were set to 0.17% of GNI in the interim by 2010, then increasing to 0.33% by 2015. As to their comparative advantages, although the EU may have planned to capitalise on their experience and facilitate their gradual emergence as donors, the question remained about what, specifically, their advantage may be, as well as their priorities and interests for development cooperation (Bučar and Mrak, 2007: 8). The sectors in which this advantage has been recognised include democratisation, market liberalisation, and managing transition to EU membership, especially the transition from aid recipients to donors. The bilateral development cooperation activities in African, Caribbean and Pacific (ACP) countries, however, have been very limited.

This is partly explained with coherence and complementarity as it is said to make little sense for states to try to play a significant role in geographical areas in which they have little expertise (Lightfoot and Lindenhovius Zubizarreta, 2010: 184). In fact, foreign policy and economic interests related to the neighboring regions of the southeast and east Europe, as well as their keenness to share transition and EU accession expertise, have provided the impetus for development assistance of most EU-13 member states, as they have regarded ODA as a significant policy instrument for maintaining regional stability (Bučar and Mrak, 2007: 5).

Challenges that EU-13 member states face in international development cooperation appear at the levels of policy, legislation, compliance with international obligations, human resources, financial resources, administrative mechanism, project management and public awareness. They include, for instance, designing development assistance policies and legislation and setting priorities in line with OECD DAC recommendations and EU development cooperation policies; increasing the amount of funding allocated to ODA; establishing project cycle management mechanisms and building administrative project management capacities, and raising political and public awareness about development policy domestically to obtain support for increased resource mobilisation. Moreover, the EU-13 member states have yet to solidify their position in the EU donor community. Combining well-focused priorities, based on their distinct expertise, with meeting their responsibilities to support development in less-developed countries has also proved difficult (Bučar and Mrak, 2007: 28; Lightfoot and Lindenhovius Zubizarreta, 2010: 178-179; Lovitt and Rybkova, 2007: 28-29).

While the EU-13 member states have been keen to share the lessons they have learned in the process of political and economic transition within the framework of their development cooperation, prioritising poverty reduction is said to be resisted (Lundsgaarde, 2011: 2-3). The main countries recipients of their ODA are the neighboring non-EU countries or ex-Soviet countries, those where they see their comparative advantage arising from their understanding and knowledge of domestic political realities due to their own historical experience. Thus, for instance, Poland has prioritised Ukraine and Belarus; the Baltic states have focused on Belarus and South Caucasus, while Slovenia has channeled a large portion of its bilateral assistance to the Western Balkans. Moreover, states such as Poland and Hungary also allocate part of their development assistance to the minorities in those neighboring countries that are still eligible for ODA financing. Conversely, Malta and Cyprus are primarily oriented towards promoting good governance, market economy, democracy, civil society development, etc., in the countries of North Africa and the Middle East, as well as in the poorer countries of the Commonwealth (Bučar and Mrak, 2007: 14-15).

There is a need to foster not only more public awareness of development cooperation priorities, but also greater co-ordination and more active involvement of NGOs, research institutes and other expert groups to formulate informed debate regarding national priorities related to development cooperation, as well as the EU's current and future policies in the field (Lovitt and Rybkova, 2007: 28-29). Although increasing over the past decade, the awareness of development issues in the South among civil society has remained limited and their activities primarily focused on the Neighbourhood. Development continues to be understood differently and there are often great divisions between civil society and government within these countries. Though by now civil society development platforms have been established in all EU-13 member states, availability and access to funding, as well as organisational capacities remain a challenge. Moreover, although the level of public awareness of development issues appears not to be significantly lower than in EU-15 member states, there is some confusion regarding humanitarian and development aid. Sustainable and effective support for development cooperation has yet to be secured: in many states, this situation is compounded by a view that poverty within each state should be resolved first and that EU funds should be used for this purpose. It is, therefore, of utmost importance to effectively involve in the public awareness process a broad range of stakeholders such as government and its institutions, parliamentarians, NGOs, and the private sector. Moreover, development education programs need to become a standard element of development cooperation policies (Bučar and Mrak, 2007: 27; Lightfoot and Lindenhovius Zubizarreta, 2010: 180-181).



Human Rights-based Approaches to Development: Strengthening Development Discourse and Practice

If development is a human right, it necessarily follows that it can only be realised in human rights-compliant way. The term human rights-based approach (HRBA) to development has appeared in the discourse of international development agencies since the 1990s. Yet, it is not new. “Struggles for the realisation of social, economic and cultural, as well as civil and political, rights have long been a feature of the political landscape in many developing countries” (Cornwall and Nyamu-Musembi, 2004: 1420). Indeed, “the notion that every human being is entitled to some basic rights was the inspiration behind most of the revolutions in history including the English, American, French, Mexican, Russian and Chinese” (Sengupta, 2001: 2530). Nevertheless, as in the post-WWII period development became part of international cooperation, development and human rights were seen as separate domains: development was the business of the economists, human rights the jurisdiction of lawyers and activists. It is said that it was the entry of newly independent southern nations into the UN in the 1960s and 1970s that saw attempts to bridge the two domains. (Cornwall and Nyamu-Musembi, 2004: 1421-1422).

Mainstream human rights NGOs based in the West only began to turn their attention to the economic, social and cultural rights since the mid-1990s, having previously remained largely aloof to issues of economic and social justice. Mainstream human rights groups adopted the language of rights-based approach to development at the beginning of the millennium (Cornwall and Nyamu-Musembi, 2004: 1422-1423). Since then the HRBA to development has become widely embraced by the UN agencies, bilateral donors and NGOs alike, OECD and the World Bank included (Kindornay, Ron and Carpenter, 2012: 479-481).

While the rights-based approach may not have been particularly revolutionary given that many rights-based principles have been long-established components of development doctrine, it emphasised the interrelation and interdependence of all human rights, paying special attention to economic and social rights as the authentic concern of development policy (Hamm, 2001: 1006; Kindornay, Ron and Carpenter, 2012: 479). Perhaps the most important contribution to the development discourse stems from the HRBA’s role as a catalyst that can transform the practice of development from a focus on identifying and meeting needs to enabling people to recognise and exercise rights. This entails strengthening the capacity of duty-holders, and building the capacity of citizens to claim their rights, either by working alongside them as advocates and/or by seeking to provide opportunities for people to empower themselves. HRBA thus augurs a move towards a more genuinely inclusive and democratic process of popular involvement in decision-making over the resources and institutions that affect people’s lives (Cornwall and Nyamu-Musembi, 2004: 1424-1430).

Essential principles underpinning HRBA to development are the human rights framework, empowerment, participation, non-discrimination and accountability. International human rights law provides a set of objective and universally applicable standards to measure the impact of laws and policies. It also influences the policy dialogue between donors and recipients.

When human rights become a frame of reference for development policy, the perspective changes from a moral commitment [...] to legal claims of the right-holders, duties of donors, and governments receiving development aid. Thus, adequate food, education, and health are no longer a matter of charity, but every person has the right to have his or her basic needs met. This requires duty-bearers (donor and recipient states and international organisations) to design their development policies so that they respect, protect, and fulfill human rights. State parties to human rights treaties not only are obliged not to violate human rights but also to contribute to political and socio-economic conditions favorable to respect, protect, and fulfill human rights on the national and international level. (Hamm, 2001: 1011-1014).

Empowerment is one of the outcomes of HRBA in that it empowers socially vulnerable groups to advocate for their rights giving them a voice in the process: marginalised communities such as ethnic minorities, women, the elderly, children, persons with disabilities are brought into the fold of development. Essential in this regard is participation, vital to achieving the right to development and a fundamental human right in itself. Participation changes the direction from top down to one that integrates from the bottom up, allowing the people to determine their path to development. It includes control of planning, process, outcome and evaluation. For instance, all strategic documents should be developed in consultation with civil society representatives at the national level, as well as in partner countries (Hamm, 2001: 1019; Staszewska, Esplen and Dion, 2010: 7). Development activities should be carried out in ways which eliminate and not do perpetuate discrimination of socially vulnerable groups; particular attention needs to be paid to the fact that different groups, as well as women and men within groups, have unequal access to and control over resources, including money, education, land and property, and decision-making and political power given their different experiences framed by social expectations which assign them different and unequal roles, responsibilities and entitlements on the basis of their gender, ethnicity, religion, etc. These inequalities must be taken into account and redressed through policy-making and budgetary processes at all levels. This is key to ensuring that policies and public spending meet the different needs and priorities of different groups and women and men, and transform rather than reproduce gender and other biases and inequalities. In particular, gender equality and women's rights must be central to development cooperation because development is about reducing poverty and the majority of the poorest people in the world are women – a result of pervasive gender inequality (Staszewska, Esplen and Dion, 2010: 8-9).

Moreover, participation contributes to ensuring local ownership as well as accountability. Development strategies must contain legal, institutional and administrative mechanisms to ensure the accountability of duty holders. These mechanisms must be transparent, accessible and effective. In a HRBA to development, there are multiple duty holders and an intricate system of accountability:

A bilateral development agency's primary accountability is to citizens/tax payers in its own country, through the treasury. Accountability to the recipient state's government is of a loose diplomatic nature, rather than a legal one with clearly defined rights and obligations. Direct accountability to the communities who are ultimate recipients is non-existent. This is as much, if not especially, the case for NGOs, most of whom lack any defined accountability and are even less amenable to being held to account than multilateral or bilateral development actors. The only formal accountability communities can expect is from their own government. Likewise, recipient governments have only a loose accountability to donor governments – accountability based on the power differential rather than on legal obligations (Cornwall and Nyamu-Musembi, 2004: 1432-1433).

The HRBA is not without challenges. International human rights standards are a distant and vague concept to which most poor people have little recourse in their struggle to access the institutions which might enforce them. Moreover, finite financial resources demand the establishment of priorities, which in turn undermines the principle of indivisibility and highlights the dilemma of dealing with competing rights. (Cornwall and Nyamu-Musembi, 2004: 1418). The transition to rights-based development requires that actors, governmental and non-governmental alike, acquire new skills in analysis, public advocacy, legal strategising, awareness-raising, evaluation, and reporting, as well as knowledge of international human rights standards and mechanisms. In addition, participation requires time and care must be taken that recipient communities are not overburdened with excessive requests for participation (Kindornay, Ron and Carpenter, 2012: 488-489). Nevertheless, because of the paradigm shift it offers compared to the previous understandings and approaches to development which have proved unsatisfactory, the HRBA provides a solid legal, moral and political basis for the articulation of more effective and coherent development policy interventions.



HRBA to Development: What are the Benefits for EU-13 Member States?

For EU member states, development cooperation is a legal obligation under EU law. It is, moreover, a legal obligation under international human rights law. While Chapter 1 TFEU on development cooperation is undisputed and its spirit reiterated in the European Consensus on Development, the readiness of EU member states to undertake “[...]to take steps, individually and through international assistance and cooperation [...]” to achieve the full realisation of the rights recognised in the ICESCR is less explicit. Yet, according to Hamm, though not recognised in practice, international cooperation for this purpose has been a legal obligation for the state parties to the Covenant. “Development policy has not been part of the reporting process of donor states to the various human rights committees and has been neither monitored nor discussed with the treaty members by these committees” (Hamm, 2001: 1015). It is time it became part of it, and the EU-13 member states, most of which had ratified the ICESCR before it entered into force, are well placed to lead by example. This would not only contribute to strengthening international human rights, much under threat lately given the resurgence of cultural relativism and emphasis on traditional values, the effects of the global counter-terrorism effort over the past decade and direct assaults on international law, as evidenced by the developments in Ukraine, but would also increase the effectiveness of their development cooperation policies.

Because all human rights are interrelated and indivisible, the HRBA to development would provide both a conceptual framework and a justification for the shift in the development cooperation policy of EU-13 member states to include poverty eradication. This would facilitate their alignment with the fundamental objective of EU development cooperation which is poverty eradication.

According to Sengupta, ‘when development is seen as a human right, it obligates the authorities, both nationally and internationally, to fulfill their duties in delivering (or in human rights language, promoting, securing, and protecting) that right in a country. The adoption of appropriate policies follows from that obligation’ (Sengupta, 2001: 2530). Moreover, the claim for a social order based on equity and justice espoused by the right to development is concordant both with the values on which the EU is based as well as the values embraced by the EU-13 member states in their constitutions.

Development policies of EU-13 member states would benefit from the participatory processes which are inherent to HRBA to development given that “the degree and quality of dialogue between decision-makers and national civil society organisations varies, [and] consultation with governments and civil society in priority partner countries is lacking” (Staszewska, Esplen and Dion, 7). Consultation at the domestic level would enable the governments to articulate better quality interventions while at the same time building public support and taking advantage of the capacities and expertise of civil society. Consultation at the level of recipient countries would allow for better, targeted solutions and local ownership of interventions, a fundamental precondition for aid effectiveness.



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TEACHING TOOL 11.1

Interconnectedness of Human Rights

Objective:

Learners will develop an understanding of the interconnectedness of human rights in practice.

Background:

Worldwide, half of the 57 million children out of school live in conflict-affected areas. And the number of children being displaced from their home region is increasing. Without the chance of a decent education, these children know their future is slipping away. The education of children displaced in emergencies is a problem that has never been more urgent.

For the first time since World War II, the number of refugees has exceeded 50 million. Half of all refugees are children – and, once a refugee, they likely to stay a refugee for a very long time. According to the UN High Commission for Refugees report last year, on average, a refugee spends 17 years of his or her life in exile. For a child, that is their entire primary and secondary education gone. Out-of-school children are always at greater risk of violence, trafficking, recruitment into fighting, prostitution and other life-threatening, often criminal, activities. <http://www.unhcr.org/537334d0427.html>

Task:

Read the article 'If I am alive, I must have an education': the refugee girl who crossed a border to go to school available from:

<http://www.theguardian.com/global-development/2015/mar/06/if-i-am-alive-i-need-education-war-zones-need-school>.

Familiarise yourself with the content of the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, <http://www.ohchr.org/en/professionalinterest/pages/ccpr.aspx>, the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights:

<http://www.ohchr.org/EN/ProfessionalInterest/Pages/CESCR.aspx>,

and the Convention on the Rights of the Child,

<http://www.ohchr.org/en/professionalinterest/pages/crc.aspx>.

For discussion:

- * What does the right to education entail?
- * How will the violation of the right to education result in violations of other rights?
- * (Consider, for instance, the right to work, right to housing, right to health, right to political participation, etc.)
- * How might the right to education be enjoyed differently by boys and girls?
- * How might the right to education be enjoyed differently by children belonging to ethnic, national, religious or linguistic minorities or indigenous peoples?
- * How could development cooperation projects ensure that the right to education of refugee and internally displaced children is safeguarded? (Note the difference between development cooperation and humanitarian assistance. Consider a long-term perspective.)



TEACHING TOOL 11.2

Land Rights and Development: The Case of the Enderois in Kenya

Objective:

Learners will develop an understanding of how development projects can lead to violations of human rights when carried out in a non human rights compliant manner and how strategic human rights litigation can assist in seeking remedies.

Background:

In the 1970s, the Kenyan government evicted hundreds of Endorois families from their land around the Lake Bogoria area in the Rift Valley to create a game reserve for tourism. The Endorois, an indigenous people, had been promised compensation and benefits, but these were never fully awarded. Restrictions on accessing land prevented the community from practicing their pastoralist way of life, using ceremonial and religious sites, and accessing traditional medicines. The vast majority of the community live in severe poverty, have little or no electricity, walk miles to collect water in an area stricken by drought, and are consistently dependent on relief food. The case was brought before the African Commission on Human and Peoples' Rights after domestic legal remedies were exhausted.

In a landmark ruling, the Commission found that the Kenyan government had violated Articles 8, 14, 17, 21 and 22 of the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights, namely the Endorois' rights to religious practice, to property, to culture, to the free disposition of natural resources, and to development. Moreover, the Commission stated that lack of consultation with the community; the subsequent restrictions on access to the land; and the inadequate involvement in the process of developing the region for use as a tourist game reserve, had violated the community's right to development under the UN Declaration on the Right to Development. The Commission recommended that the government recognise rights of ownership, reconstitute to the Endorois' their ancestral lands, compensate their losses, and ensure the Endorois benefit from the royalties and employment opportunities within the game reserve.

Task:

View the video Rightful Place: The Endorois' Struggle for Justice. The video consists of three segments available from:

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=wwHaeY5OTFM>,

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=THWfOwf9ow8>,

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=roV7aAzOK84>.

Browse the website of the African Commission on Human and Peoples' Rights, <http://www.achpr.org>, and read the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights, <http://www.achpr.org/instruments/achpr/>, as well as the UN Declaration on the Right to Development, <http://www.un.org/documents/ga/res/41/a41r128.htm>. Read the Commission Decision available from <http://www.minorityrights.org/download.php?id=748>.

View the video on how video advocacy was used to build the case before the African Commission. The video is available from <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Vc0XiiQzprg>

For discussion:

- * What are the problems faced by the Endorois community? (Who are the Endorois? What are indigenous peoples? How are they different from ethnic, national, religious or linguistic minorities?)
- * How are men and women affected differently?
(View also <http://www.minorityvoices.org/news.php/en/546/kenya-endorois-activist-says-womens-rights-need-to-be-fulfilled>)
- * Which human rights are engaged? (Why is discrimination relevant?)
- * How can the Commission decision best be enforced?
- * How should the Endorois be included in development processes?
- * How would you present the Endorois case to the audience in your country?



TEACHING TOOL 11.3

Discrimination and Economic Exclusion: Afro-Descendants in Latin America

Objective:

Learners will develop an understanding of how racial and ethnic discrimination contribute to disproportionately high levels of poverty among minority communities.

Background:

There are clear links between Afro-descendant communities in Latin America and poverty, however there is a need for disaggregated data to provide a more precise picture, and to enable better planning and financing of development programmes for this highly marginalised group. Because Afro-descendant populations are marginalised economically, socially and institutionally, there are few development programmes that specifically target their needs. While most development agencies would argue that their mandate is to help the marginalised, Afro-descendants do not usually benefit from general development programmes.

Most Afro-descendants live in rural areas. In a region characterised by great disparities between wealth and poverty, a disproportionate number of Afro-descendants suffer a lack of infrastructure and utilities, no health services, few schools, high unemployment and low income. Afro-descendants make up over 40 per cent of the poor in Latin America while being only a third of the population.

Task:

Read the study Afro-descendants, Discrimination and Economic Exclusion in Latin America available from:

<http://www.minorityrights.org/download.php?id=78>.

Familiarise yourself with the content of the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights:

<http://www.ohchr.org/EN/ProfessionalInterest/Pages/CESCR.aspx>

the International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination;

<http://www.ohchr.org/EN/ProfessionalInterest/Pages/CERD.aspx>,

and the UN Declaration on the Rights of Persons Belonging to National or Ethnic, Religious or Linguistic Minorities:

<http://www.un.org/documents/ga/res/47/a47r135.htm>.

Read the first report of the then UN Independent Expert on Minority Issues, Specific Groups and Individuals: Minorities, available from:

<http://daccess-dds-ny.un.org/doc/UNDOC/GEN/G06/101/26/PDF/G0610126.pdf?OpenElement>.

For discussion:

- * Who are minorities?
- * What are minority rights?
- * What is discrimination? (Consider direct and indirect discrimination, institutional discrimination.)
- * How does discrimination affect men and women from minority communities differently? (What is intersectional discrimination?)
- * What is the benefit of disaggregated data collection? (How can this be done? Why are persons belonging to certain ethnic groups reluctant to declare themselves as such? Consider protection of privacy issues.)
- * How should international development actors ensure that marginalised minority communities also benefit from development cooperation?
- * What campaigns could be undertaken in your country to promote awareness about the right to development of marginalised minority communities in the Global South?



TEACHING TOOL 11.4

Persons with Disabilities and Development Cooperation: Exclusion and Inclusion

Objective:

Learners will develop an understanding of challenges and human rights considerations arising from ensuring the inclusion of persons with disabilities in international development cooperation.

Background:

The World Health Organisation estimates that 1 billion people live with some sort of disability – about one in seven people. 80% of them live in developing countries. People with disabilities are statistically more likely to be unemployed, illiterate, to have less formal education and less access to support networks. They are further isolated by discrimination, ignorance and prejudice. There are 1 billion disabled people in the world.

Most have received little benefit from international development and aid programmes. The prevalence of moderate to severe disability increases from 2% in newborns to 55% among the over-80s. As life expectancy increases, the number of disabled people is expected to rise. Similarly, as infant mortality plummets, the survival rate of babies being born with disabilities will increase. Research shows that children with disabilities are three to five times more likely to suffer sexual and physical violence. Equally, of the 58 million children worldwide estimated to still be missing out on school, almost a third are children with a disability.

Task:

Familiarise yourself with the Convention on the Rights of the Persons with Disabilities, available from: <http://www.un.org/disabilities/convention/conventionfull.shtml>.

Peruse the following articles:

People with disabilities 'simply don't count' in many developing countries:

<http://www.theguardian.com/global-development/2014/oct/23/people-disabilities-dont-count-developing-countries-lynne-featherstone>

Provision of mills to persons with disabilities:

<http://www.swedishcommittee.org/provision-of-mills-to-persons-with-disabilities>

Sri Lanka's rehabilitated ex-combatants struggle to adjust:

<http://www.irinnews.org/report/100303/sri-lanka-s-rehabilitated-ex-combatants-struggle-to-adjust>

Study the Disability Framework: Leaving No One Behind, formulated in 2014 by the UK Department for International Development (DFID):

https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/382338/Disability-Framework-2014.pdf.



For discussion:

- * What is the definition of disability? How does it differ from the conventional understanding and approach to disability?
- * What have been some of the obstacles to the effective inclusion of persons with disabilities in development interventions? How have these obstacles differed in relation to men and women with disabilities?
- * How can development cooperation interventions be made more inclusive of persons with disabilities?
- * Why is it important to include persons with disabilities in development activities?
- * How are the considerations different for children, adults and older people with disabilities?
- * How would you go about raising awareness of the need to include persons with disabilities in development cooperation policy of your country?



TEACHING TOOL 11.5

From the Right to Participation to Poverty Eradication

Objective:

Learners will develop an understanding of how the realisation of the right to participation contributes to more effective development cooperation projects.

Background:

The right to participation is a fundamental human right. Participation is, moreover, a fundamental aspect of the right to development. At the same time, lack of power is a universal and basic characteristic of poverty. Poverty is not solely a lack of income, but rather is characterised by a vicious cycle of powerlessness, stigmatisation, discrimination, exclusion and material deprivation, which all mutually reinforce each other. Powerlessness manifests itself in many ways, but at its core is an inability to participate in or influence decisions that profoundly affect one's life, while decisions are made by more powerful actors who neither understand the situation of people living in poverty, nor necessarily have their interests at heart.

In some regions such as in resource-scarce East Africa, poverty affects minority groups the most, not least because they face major challenges over the control of and access to land and other natural resources. Despite national policy regimes that are developing in a positive direction, the reality for minority groups and their neighbouring ethnic groups is that land and natural resources continue to be a major trigger of violence. Minorities find themselves competing with other communities, with the state, and with corporate interests for control of resources upon which they depend for their livelihood, cultural integrity and future development.

Task:

Familiarise yourself with the content of the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, <http://www.ohchr.org/en/professionalinterest/pages/ccpr.aspx>, the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights:

<http://www.ohchr.org/EN/ProfessionalInterest/Pages/CESCR.aspx>.

Read General Comment no. 25 of the UN Human Rights Committee on The Right to Participate in Public Affairs, Voting Rights and the Right of Equal Access to Public Service available from: http://tbinternet.ohchr.org/_layouts/treatybodyexternal/Download.aspx?symbolno=CCPR%2fC%2f21%2fRev.1%2fAdd.7&Lang=en.

Read the Report of the Special Rapporteur on extreme poverty and human rights on the right to participation of people living in poverty, available from:

<http://daccess-dds-ny.un.org/doc/UNDOC/GEN/G13/117/94/PDF/G1311794.pdf?OpenElement>.

Read the report Land, livelihoods and identities: Inter-community conflicts in East Africa, available from: <http://www.minorityrights.org/download.php?id=1076>.

For discussion:

- * What is participation? How is it exercised? By whom? What are the obstacles to the exercise of the right to participation? What is effective participation?
- * How is the right to participation exercised differently by men and women? By minority communities?
- * What is poverty? How is it manifested? Which groups are most affected and why?
- * How can development cooperation alleviate poverty?
- * What is the relationship between participation and development? What is the relationship between conflict, participation and development?
- * How can development policies and interventions be developed in a participatory way? Who should be included?
- * How would you explain the right to participation in development to an audience of policy- and decision-makers in your country?



CHAPTER 12

From an Armchair to the Field. Civil Society and Social Activism: How to be Relevant and Engaged

by: Zuzana Fialová

Introduction and Definition of Basic Terms

I was naïve all my life long. I believed naïvely that it makes sense to be engaged in underground movement, or to sit in a prison. It never shocks me when somebody tells me I am naïve.

Adam Michnik (Forró, 2015)

Adam Michnik, a living symbol of both civil society and social activism in post-Communist Europe, still believes that it is worth struggling for ideas of a better world. Is the same true for young people from Central and Eastern Europe (CEE)? What are the issues people in this part of the world are ready to stand up for? Is it possible to mobilise substantial portions of society for any social cause? Or is 'clicktivism' (Obar et al., 2012) the only way of being engaged? These are the questions we discuss in this chapter.

Here are the definitions of basic reference terms we are using:

Civil society:

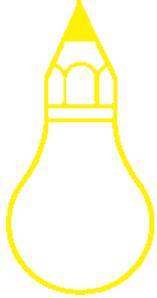
For the purpose of this chapter, the liberal understanding of the term, which sees civil society mainly in terms of rights, democratic representation, and rule of law (Veltmeyer, 2012) (Kamat, 2003) is broadened by international development perspective. The civil society is an intermediate realm between the state and the family, populated by organised groups and associations that have some autonomy in relation to the state and are formed voluntarily by people to advance their interests, values, or identities (Veltmeyer, 2012). It includes various informal groups and individuals active in fulfilling their social or political needs without expecting economic profit or being a part of a state power apparatus. Civil society has a certain value charge. It includes organisations and actions respecting (in broader terms) human dignity and freedom, tolerance and non-discrimination, democratic governance and civic participation.

Social activism:

Social activism is the most dynamic element of civil society. It means striving for social change using democratic freedoms (of speech, assembly, access to justice, etc.) and tools (e.g. blogging, rallies, petitions, public hearings, boycotting, and litigation) collectively or individually. Social activism means influencing public decision-making by methods other than participating in elections or referendums.

Central and Eastern Europe (CEE):

Most of the examples and case studies used in this chapter are from V4 countries of Central Europe: Slovakia, Czech Republic, Hungary, and Poland. Special interest is paid to Ukraine from the point of view of its own civil society development on the one hand, and as a reference point influencing the situation in the whole of Europe on the other hand.



Citizens or Consumers? General Trends and Challenges for Civil Societies in CEE



Polarisation of societies and rise of social conflicts: terrorism, migration, war in Ukraine, social inequalities – these are only some of the aspects of globalisation that strongly influence CEE societies at present. Rupture of stability in a globally interconnected and extremely quickly changing world may lead to rise of social conflicts. Martin Bútorá (2014) sees their sources in the high polarisation of CEE societies, the visible presence of ethnic minorities or migrants, and the dedicated revival of historical stereotypes for political reasons. Rejecting others is one of the forms of combating one's own fear of the unknown and of an uncertain future. It is shown in the mobilisation of groups promoting intolerance, exclusion, or restriction of rights. Bútorá speaks about the 'cultural–civilisational schism of our societies where promotion of so called "traditional values" stands against the tolerance towards minorities'.

As examples we can take PEGIDA, an anti-Islamist movement popular mostly in former Eastern Germany, or Alliance for Family, a Christian movement in Slovakia initiating a referendum on introducing constitutional restrictions of rights of homosexuals. Both organisations are trying to personify the serious problems perceived in the majority of their societies (e.g. lack of moral authorities, relative economic deprivation, problems in governance, consumption approach to politics and society, etc.) into an enemy. Once they are immigrants with Islam religion, once they are LGBT people. We name them 'the others' challenging 'our values'. While these 'our values' are mostly rather vague and stereotyped (e.g. German nation, traditional Slovak family).

The diasporisation of the world leads to a permanent confrontation of values not only in virtual reality but in physical neighbourhoods (Bauman, 2015). Poverty is an issue that appears often in political debates. Relative poverty, perceived by the majority of citizens, is a phenomenon provoked by consumption culture advertising unrealistic life standards. The majority of people are pushed into perceiving relative deprivation and poverty by comparing themselves with pictures in the media promoting the unethical and unsustainable lifestyle of so-called celebrities. At the same time, the real problems of social marginalisation and exclusion are rarely widely or rationally discussed.



Participation v. representation

Democratic participation is widely accepted as one of the measures of quality of civil society and democracy. In simplified terms: the more participation – the better democracy. Especially in post-Communist period in CEE, the empowerment of citizens to influence decision-making was at the centre of democratisation efforts (Miková and Bianchi, 2000). Some authors, on the other hand, point out that too much participation can lead to a silo approach to any policy attempting to satisfy the particular interests of all participating groups rather than public interest. Fareed Zakharia (2004) sees a crisis of liberal democracy in too broad participation and too little responsibility of people's delegates to make unpopular decisions in public interest. Dangers of misuse of democratic freedoms are articulated in the development context as well: 'Civil society [...] may constitute a locus in which civic values and norm of democratic engagement are nurtured, although greater political freedom can be exploited to advance narrow, self-interested agendas that can exacerbate political conflict and undermine good governance' (Veltmeyer, 2012: 220).

Marches of radical right-wing youth, campaigns against immigrants, Muslims, homosexuals, and Roma – all these activities use democratic freedoms of speech, assembly, association, right to petition, etc. Still, the question remains: is it just the loudest and the most intolerant groups who are being heard? Empirical research conducted in some CEE countries shows that neither participation nor representation must necessarily be the domain of civil society. Frič (2014: 107) differentiates four types of civil society organisations (CSOs):

- * Traditional interest/hobby organisations (societies and associations in the fields of sports, culture, recreation, community development)
- * New service organisations (social and health care, education, humanitarian aid and charity)
- * New advocacy organisations (environmental protection, animal rights, human rights protection, consumer rights, minority rights, etc.)
- * Traditional advocacy organisations (trade unions, workers' unions, guilds, professional associations, political parties)

According to research carried out in the Czech Republic (Frič, 2014) and Slovakia (Bútora et al., 2011), hobby organisations keep high membership and mostly apolitical participation. Community development activities, traditionally being classified also as apolitical, are nevertheless very important for developing democratic skills (Henderson and Thomas, 2013). New service organisations and new advocacy organisations have become highly professional and effective in providing services and interacting with the state.

The EU policy has a strong influence on that by promoting effectiveness, accountability and corporate vision of democracy through its grants. These new organisations have just tiny (if any) membership because they do not need it. Rather the opposite is true. Broad membership and internal democracy would be an obstacle to managerial efficiency and expert image. As a result, these organisations get alienated from the public. They are often seen either as government agents or agents of foreign donors. Moreover, the present organisational design of interactions between the state and CSOs draws the latter into the bureaucratic gears, where they often have to get satisfied with petite results or to resign. By that, the civic sector is losing its prestige in the eyes of the public and the media. (Demeš, 2014: 104-105) Unfortunately this is often a case of development CSOs in relation to official development policies of the states. These CSOs struggle with losing legitimacy as civil actors and are combated by a phenomenon of individualised activism. The last of the four, traditional advocacy organisations, stay ossified in their narrow traditional functions (e.g. trade unions) and appear often toothless (e.g. professional associations) when challenged by burning issues of social interest like corruption. Political parties are in crisis of trust. One of the proofs is the rise in the number of non-partisan / independent candidates successful in elections in recent years in Poland, Slovakia, Czech Republic, and other countries, including Ireland.

Many CEE cities have got mayors or city council members affiliated with CSOs or social movements rather than political parties. Activists are entering politics. The present mayor of Prague Adriana Krnáčová is a former worker of Transparency International. Prague and Brno have a strong representation of former CSO people in their councils and executive, the same as Bratislava or Trnava. Cities of Kraków, Wrocław, Poznań and many others are ruled by non-partisan leaders. The most striking example of a CSO representative entering big politics is the Slovak President Andrej Kiska – a former businessman and founder of one of the biggest charities in Slovakia and the Czech Republic.

Transactional activism and participation activism



Císař (2008) sees two types of social activism in CEE. One is transactional activism, which is strong in its ability to do transactions with state and international actors. This is mostly activism conducted by CSOs supported by grants, having professional management and producing expert outputs. They hold regular consultation meetings with state organs, comment on laws or policies, or sometimes even draft government strategies. The second type is participation activism. This is the ability to mobilise people. Whether it be spontaneous events or internet activism, the point is to engage the masses. Transactional activism leads to changes in policies and laws that are not always agreed in broader social debate and consensus. Participation activism can mobilise people, however, often without results.

An example of transactional activism in Slovakia was the Law on Economic Management of Municipal Property, which was introduced in 2009 by an initiative of Via Iuris (CSO). A law regulating the procedure of selling municipal property was a result of expert conferences, lobbying, and independent legislative work. Missing public discussion and awareness-raising work led to difficulties in its implementation in the municipalities themselves. As an example of participation activism one can choose the mass protests in 2012 about the so-called Gorilla case, which unveiled complex corruption with broad political elites involved. The protests were a show of broad public discontent without realistic terms. They finished without any result, just because people got tired of protesting.

Where is the overlap between representation and participation that would be efficient and democratic at the same time?

Privatisation of social activism



Thanks to the technologies and shifts in strategies of volunteerism and social activism, political participation is becoming privatised. People do not need intermediaries anymore. Volunteers search more for their own individual benefit in the form of training and experience than for the 'general good' of belonging to a group. Activists have all the tools for changing the world from an armchair. Ongoing individualisation of life strategies makes, especially young people, believe they do not need to belong somewhere to act publicly. People have become 'managers of their own biographies' (Frič, 2014). Studies, internships, work and leisure has been fragmented into short term episodes. Schools, companies, and CSOs mostly do not offer feelings of companionship or shared identity. Studying, volunteering, or work is just a transaction of services. Individual activism is an attempt to participate and at the same time an attempt to be noticed as an individual.



What to Write on an Activist's T-shirt? Topics (Un)Able to Move us Forward

Despite global problems influencing everyday life, CEE is more concentrated on the internal problems of particular countries. The best examples of activism in CEE are linked to the topics of transparency and good governance. A review of civic initiatives shows that success may lie not so much in representation but rather in participation. Successful causes are those which are able to involve citizens. Accountability of political representatives, oversight of public funds, and local governance – these are the topics that attract public interest in CEE. CSOs that are new service organisations can be very successful in initiating participation. The key is to be consistent in ideas, transparent and independent in financing, and motivate people to act for public interest.



"Boys with helmets" – Start of the biggest lobbying campaign in Czech history named Reconstruction of state. Frank Bold. Photo: © Jan Hromádko



Frank Bold presents itself: "Even when we wear suit and tie, we do not leave our ideals in a wardrobe." Self-irony and nice humour is a part of their image. Photo: © Ibra Ibrahimovič

Frank Bold is an organisation, which consists of a CSO and a law firm, whose profits are invested in socially oriented activities. They provide highly ethical legal services; protect clients against unlawful interference of the state, deal with social problems in areas such as corporate social responsibility (CSR), corruption and environmental degradation. Frank Bold represents an innovative approach to the sustainability of CSOs by launching them with business. Such linkage is of mutual benefit, since it helps businesses to do CSR more reasonably and at the same time it guarantees independence from the state and private donors. Awareness-raising through internet and social media includes booklets on how to execute citizens' rights in practice.

Frank Bold is an interesting example of interconnection between local and global issues. Though acting mostly locally, working on environmental or anti-corruption cases, they keep the public aware of issues like climate change and even do successful lobbying in the European Parliament (Frank Bold, 2014).

Successful civic activism does not mean people have to rise up from their armchairs. Individualistic trend is visible in the effort for empowerment of citizens. For example, take the area of legal advice and litigation: in the 1990s, offices of free legal advice were popular; today, the trend is not so much to educate (in the sense of training, seminars, or educational brochures or films), but instead to provide internet applications or tools for people to complain or to send requests to the government or court (Dobrawy, 2015; Informace pro všechny, 2014). The same is true when talking about good governance and local democracy. An interesting example is a Hungarian site (Fizettem, 2013) constructed in such a way that people can report on corruption cases directly online. In the Czech Republic there is a boom in internet and mobile applications encouraging participation on local government issues. A site, 'budget of a municipality', provides charts and info-graphics on budgeting (Rozpočet veřejně, 2013). This interactive and very user-friendly web application allows all viewers to see the economy of the municipalities, regions and the state in relation to the income of an individual citizen. (Budování státu, 2015) The public has a chance to follow and comment on decisions of their politicians. Moreover, the sites are educating the people on how to read municipal or state budgets. Many projects like this have applications enabling users to directly approach their council member or municipal executive (Naši Politici, 2008).

Besides, there are new issues that were not present in civil society discourse twenty years ago. Three inspiring examples of new advocacy issues come from Poland: On the website of one of the biggest CSOs dealing with domestic violence, there are courses, textbooks and applications to help with financial literacy for victims or women who may potentially become victims (Centrum Praw Kobiet, 2012). Polish CSOs are very advanced in dealing with the issue of cyber-violence, especially among children and youth, in the form of online counselling (Feminoteka, 2014). A new trend is also visible amongst professionals dealing with the protection of the right to privacy on the internet and in relation to various new technologies which governments and private companies are using. Activists use games, films, and info-graphics to attract youth (Panoptykon, 2015).

How to attract CEE societies to the global topics?



It is the question often discussed in development fora. Development CSOs are mostly considered as 'transactional activists' dealing with issues alienated from common citizens of CEE. Professional language avoiding the traditional stereotypical vision of poverty and charity is even less attractive for the masses. Most of the successful development organisations in Slovakia have global development only as a part of its mission. Dealing with domestic issues is the way to secure popular support and legitimacy. For example, the People in Peril Association doing humanitarian assistance in domestic natural disasters, the CSO eRko being the biggest Christian youth organisation providing leisure time activities, or the Pontis Foundation having big domestic grant-giving programs. On the other hand, the Czech humanitarian and development CSO People in Need is the only example of a globally oriented CSO, which is trusted by and attractive for a substantial part of society. It is probably due to very effective work with media and very good "marketing" of global issues they are involved in. Another reason may be the fact that Czech society is more interested in international issues than Slovak society is. There is a stronger tradition of adventurous tourism and journalism reporting directly from abroad.

A topic which illustrates the uneasy position of development CSOs in CEE is the war in Ukraine. Despite the extreme impact this war has had on the politics, economy, and security of CEE, Slovakia is an example of a country with a very controversial approach. The popularity of conspiracy theories together with a lack of broad public discussion leads to ignorance and undermining the relevance of this war for our future. Humanitarian assistance and development projects conducted in Ukraine play a crucial role from the point of view of cultivating the values of solidarity, compassion, and even peace in our close neighbourhood.



Active Pointer? Internet and Social Media

When looking at technology for social activists, the most interesting and useful are probably the internet based programs and applications that allow creation and exchange of, user generated content. This may be text, images, audio, video or combination of them. Obar, Zube, and Lampe (2012) collected the opinions of American advocacy groups on using social media. Among the benefits of social media, they have identified: strengthening outrage efforts; enabling feedback from the public; increased speed of communication strengthening collective action; and a free tool of communication. Drawbacks they and their respondents see: generational/digital literacy gaps; difficulty in sending a coherent message from many individuals in a CSO; separation of personal and organisational use of social media; and weak ties created while effective mobilisation requires a personal connection. Observing revolutions within the Arab Spring 2010-2012 or the present war in Ukraine, social media seemed irreplaceable in mobilising people, instantly informing and connecting people for a common cause.

Kyiv – Majdan, volunteer health care service. February 2014. Photo: Michal Burza ©



During the tragic events in Majdan (Kyiv) in February 2014, people used Twitter to inform others about the positions of snipers shooting protesters. Social media was used to organise independent networks of medical aid and field hospitals in temples called Narodnyi Gospital. As the war in Eastern regions has started, social media has been used for the independent reporting on the war events, collecting humanitarian aid and providing information about its distribution, and helping displaced people to survive.

It seems that social media may be a good tool for fast and temporary mobilisation of people around highly emotional events like a war, a revolution, or a natural disaster. They may be a good tool of mutual help and solidarity. However, the truth is that they reach just a part of the population (the young and the connected) and they cannot replace real action. The problem of 'weak ties' is partially overcome by high emotions around certain causes. It requires sophisticated PR skills to create a cause just by social media and to keep real engagement of some substantial proportion of 'likers'.

Another problem is 'an internet democracy' where all opinions get the same space and technical possibilities. Intellectuals are alarmed that it leads to a devaluation of expertise, since the internet is full of direct lies, propaganda, or the opinions of laypersons without facts. Absolute freedom of speech lowers the quality of discussions and makes users tired and lost (Feranec, 2015). Using, for example, Facebook as a tool for social mobilisation may provoke ethical questions about the misuse of a private product that was created for a different purpose. Social activists are invading peoples' lives with their appeals, requests, or sad pictures of suffering. That may lead to fatigue and escape to other media which are not yet so popular.

In many countries, we can find sites providing tools for internet petitions. It is enough to enter personal data and a petition is signed, civic action conducted. However, sites providing just technical tools look often chaotic and not very serious. There are often many petite or ridiculous issues promoted by one or a couple of persons, e.g. a petition for the public TV broadcasting of a World Championship. When even a serious appeal appears on this kind of site it does not look very trustworthy. The sites that are led by coalition of CSOs or some other agent are more successful and provide a guarantee of the civil character of the petitions promoted. Besides, as is true of everything in internet space, such sites also need permanent feed, care, and promotion by other means.

An interesting trend is websites that use special apps to locate and announce problems to competent authorities. Some of them are oriented to the environmental issues (illegal landfills, etc.), or to highlight problems in the surroundings of citizens (broken public light, damaged public property, no existence of zebra crossings, etc.). At the same time this software allows municipalities to answer and explain their decisions to citizens. There are also many applications mapping, for example, quality of air in cities, criminality, or dangerous roads. Undoubtedly it is a great step towards transparency and overcoming the gap between public offices and people. Still, a case study described in the next paragraph shows that even online complaining may go too far.

The online portal Better Place published an online complaint by a citizen of the city Kolín (Czech Republic) who saw a broken glass bottle on the bicycle pathway. The city clerk promised to solve the problem. The chat between them lasted more than one month while the citizen was stating that rest of the bottle was not removed completely and the officer claimed to have sent a cleaning company there several times. At the end of the conversation some other person noticed: 'Would it not be more efficient to take a broom and do it yourself?' (Lepší místo, 2013) There are limits to the internet, indeed.

Communities Lost and Found: Training a Civic Muscle



How do we overcome peoples' apathy and uncertainty that they can change anything? How do we combat intolerance, extremism, conspiracy theories, fear of the future, and arrogance from the masters of clicktivism? One of the possible answers lies in community initiatives. Paradoxically, community development – a technique so effective in international development projects we implement abroad in countries of the Global South – is underdeveloped in CEE. Functional communities (i.e. communities where people feel the fellowship, and where they are ready to do things together to solve common problems) are rare here, not counting some of the community development projects sponsored by donors and implemented by CSOs dealing mostly with Roma. Experience shows that community development is an excellent tool for 'training civic muscles'. It teaches people to organise, to communicate, to spend real time together. They may create a counterweight to isolated cyber space full of "definitive" truths.

For several years, a Ukrainian CSO, Ahalar, is running the community development portal Dobrodel (good causes/issues). The portal is open for active people who can post their community ideas and then look for allies, raise money, attract experts and lecturers. A profile of each cause consists of a short description of the problem and an explanation as to how the project will help the community. Projects from all over the Ukraine are posted there. Experts in the Ahalar organisation regularly supervise the activists, consult their ideas, and motivate them. Work on the portal is combined with training for active community leaders using Dobrodel successfully.

Community initiatives of building and reconstructing village wells; teaching self-government skills to students; collecting humanitarian aid for displaced families; leisure time activities for children – these are only a few examples of the rich spring of ideas and implemented projects. (Ahalar, 2015)

This example of community work is being conducted for more than six years already, it has been noticed by influential Western European NGOs and will probably be multiplied in other countries as well. Another example of the participatory community development approach was the National Solidarity Program implemented in Afghanistan by UNDP. Its idea is to engage all members of communities into decisions on development priorities. The program had serious positive impacts on security, governance, and development.

Despite a broadly shared stereotypical view on 'sustainability', the fact remains that community initiatives cannot be understood in project cycle terms. Whether it be in CEE or in less rich parts of the world, the principle is very similar. A community needs permanent care and investment of time and energy. Community work must be continuous, systematic and long-term, which requires a different approach from CSOs and community leaders than the usual EU-funded project. It is true that many communities do not need much money to start being active. Projects of local theatre or leisure time activities are easily self-sustained. Often, however, investment is needed for continued support. Community leaders, social workers, or portals like Dobrodel – if this support finishes, often the community life deteriorates.

There are some interesting examples from CEE about how people can use the internet to promote community initiatives. In Poland, there are numerous internet communities organised around animal rights and help for abandoned pets. Another example of self-help community is a support group for parents of homosexual children (Fabryka Równości, 2013).



Frogs in Boiling Water: Mass Protests – When, Why, and How

How does mass mobilisation and collective action start? Case studies show that the metaphor of a frog is still applicable in CEE. Whether it be corruption or fraud or abuse, it is hard to get beyond clicktivism in social discontent. Like a frog in water that gets warmer very slowly and gets used to it and boils in the end. If, however, the water gets hot suddenly, a frog jumps out. Within the EU, usually political water gets warm rather slowly. Some cases of the opposite show that the public can take to the streets as fast as a frog jumps.

Hungarian Prime Minister, Viktor Orbán, serving his third consecutive term in office presumably believed that his two thirds majority in Parliament would allow him to get away with establishing a €0.50 tax per gigabyte use in 2014. He was wrong. A Facebook page was set up against the internet tax which soon attracted 200,000 followers (out of a population of 10 million), and was used to coordinate night-time protest marches where protesters held their telephones aloft, creating a spectacular light show. Following the protests, which brought around 37,000 people onto the streets, the government backed down, announcing a maximum of €2.26 per person and €16 a month for businesses. But people went back out on to the streets demanding that the tax be thrown out completely, which eventually the government has acceded to, saying, 'We're not communists and we don't rule against the wishes of the people' (Dans, 2014).

When asking what guarantees the success of mass protests, the answer may vary from country to country. Still, some common features remain the same since the time of Ghandi. In Slovakia, the most massive protest was the Gorilla in 2011. Why did it fail? Organisers proposed requests that were too broad and unrealistic, which were impossible to realise in a reasonable time, e.g. the investigation of a complex Gorilla case or postponing elections that were already planned in a couple of months. Besides, a change of government after elections caused a lack of immediate responsibility of politicians. The energy of people was wasted. On the other hand, in late 2014 people went on to the streets of Bratislava protesting against a corrupt tender for an expensive diagnostic apparatus for a hospital. The Head of the Parliament was directly involved in the case. After some days, he was dismissed, the tender cancelled and the Minister of Health resigned. What was the difference? The topic of healthcare is very sensitive for the socialist government in power.

Protesters were not only young but also older people – the electorate of the governing party. And for sure, the terms were easy to fulfil. Government wanted to get people back home from the streets and to show that it is combating corruption. Still, there is a long way from the fulfilment of a single demand from protesters to a systemic change in measures against corruption. Corruption and a lack of trust are factors that often strangle civic engagement (Demeš, 2014).

Like a frog in boiling water, civic initiatives jumped out before the municipal elections in 2014 in the Czech Republic. In several Prague districts, civic protests started, provoked by arrogant developers' plans of huge investments at the expense of public green zones or protected parks. Ideas like a city hall for 1 billion CZK (equivalent €36.5 million) construction projects planned in the biggest protected green zone in the city, or destroying a technical historical object – an old railway station, all these provoked social protests and moreover, change in local governments. The protests brought many social activists into municipal politics and changed its character to a great extent (Kunešová, 2015).

Demonstrations on Majdan (Kyiv) can be also mentioned with relation to the 'frog metaphor'. Mostly young people started the civic protest against President Yanukovich who did not sign the association agreement with the EU. Protests started in November 2013 and lasted during harsh winter months. In February 2014, the tragedy almost a hundred people killed by government forces happened. The state power could not find another way to end civic disobedience and mass protests.

Conclusion and Final Remarks



Civil society and civic activism in CEE copy general trends in Western Europe, but only to a certain extent. An important factor is individualisation and privatisation of public participation and activism. CSOs providing professional services are less rooted in society than it was after the end of communism. They became more effective and professional. At the same time, they are often not able to react to burning issues that bother substantial parts of society.

Successful activists or groups are those who can use internet applications and social media, but at the same time are able to mobilise people 'live'. Dangers of virtual activism may be overcome by stress on community initiatives at the same time, so that people keep training 'the civic muscle'. Important issues where activists in CEE are successful are: good governance, corruption, transparency and effectiveness of public spending. Global or international topics (e.g. climate change, war in Ukraine) are not so strong and resonate much weaker than domestic problems. EU funding of CSOs does not enhance broad public participation. Paradoxically enough, community development models from countries in Eastern Europe (Ukraine) or countries of the Global South (Afghanistan) can be a good way of tackling social problems in CEE.

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TEACHING TOOL 12.1

Definitions, General Trends and Challenges for Civil Societies in CEE

Objectives:

After the lesson, students will be able to:

- * Understand the basic terms of civil society, social activism, civil society organisation, civic participation
- * Discuss the examples of various types of CSOs from their country/region
- * Analyse the local and global social problems from the point of view of civic activism

Length:

3.5 hours (for a group of approx. 20 students)

Requirements:

flipchart, markers, colourful sheets of paper, post-its

Description:

Start with an introduction: Explain the purpose of the lesson; explain the methods used and a timeframe.

- a) Civil society, social activism, civil society organisation (CSO), civic participation (method of circulating sheets). 60 minutes.
- b) Four types of CSOs – examples and characteristics; Transactional and participatory activism. 50–60 minutes.
- c) Global and local problems in my county/city/community. 30 minutes
- d) Metaplan: Dealing with a social problem. 50 minutes



TEACHING TOOL 12.1A

Civil Society, Social Activism, Civil Society Organisation (CSO), Civic Participation

Method:

circulating sheets

Overall time:

60 minutes

- * Divide students into groups of 4-5.
- * Each group receives a sheet of different colour with a different term to explain: civil society, social activism, civil society organisation, civic participation.
- * Task: Create a definition of the term in your group. You should do it together so that everybody in the group agrees. You may add examples to your definition. Time: 15 minutes.
- * After 15 minutes each group passes their sheet to the group on their left and receives a new one (see diagram in Figure 12.1). Task: Read the definition of the previous group and discuss it. Do you agree? Try to add or change what you think should be different. Write your version below the previous one. Time: 10 minutes.
- * The same action repeats two more times until each group receives their initial sheet with 4 versions of definitions and examples. Time: 10 + 10 minutes.
- * Groups hang their sheets on the wall and present briefly. Lecturer moderates the discussion. Time: 15 minutes.

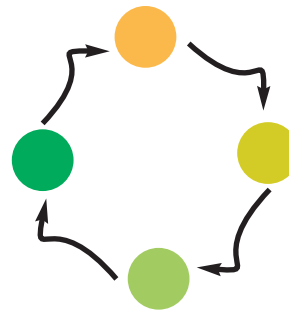


Figure 12.1
Group rotation

Result:

The definitions should contain the main elements written in the theoretical background and summarised in the box.

Civil society – a realm between state and individual or family; apart from business; formal and informal groups; values of freedom and democracy.

Civic activism – striving for change; methods other than elections; respecting democratic values and freedoms.

Civil society organisation (CSO) – formalised organisation; public good; fulfilling needs or interests of founders.

Civic participation – active participation of individuals on public decision-making and social problems solving.

Discussion:

Take an example of an intolerant or xenophobic organisation or movement from your country and ask students whether it belongs to civil society or not and why.

Methodological note:

This activity makes students to think independently and discuss the definitions, so they internalise them more than if they would have received it ready-made. Try to make them think of examples from the school, community life, media news, etc. The discussion about borders between civil and uncivil is important, even when some questions remain open. If so, let the students write them on a flipchart and hang it on the wall to return to them later.



TEACHING TOOL 12.1B

Four Types of CSOs – Examples and Characteristics; Transactional and Participatory Activism

Overall Time:

50–60 minutes



- * Distribute Table 12.1 to the students as a handout and briefly present the 4 types of CSOs according to Frič. Distribute post-its to students. Time: 10 minutes.
- * Task: Try to find at least one example of an organisation you know under each of the four types. Write the name of each organisation/group on one post-it. Time: 10 minutes.
- * Write the content of Table 12.1 on a flipchart. Ask students to stick their examples in the category where they belong. Time: 10 minutes.
- * A student or the lecturer reads the examples. A group makes corrections and discusses the examples. Time: 10 minutes.
- * Explain briefly the terms 'transactional activism' and 'participatory activism'. Use examples that are not on the flipchart yet. Time: 10 minutes.
- * Discussion what types of activism are typical for which organisations. Time: 15 minutes.

Result:

The more examples in each category the better. If students have difficulties figuring them out, help them by giving some examples in each category. Discuss the differences between organisations.

Methodological note:

Enable students to present their opinions on the work of organisations they know or directly participate in their work. Difficulties may appear when discussing religious organisations since they are a special category. It is better to treat them separately, since their position may differ from country to country. Here it is important to provoke critical thinking about the CSOs they know and their work. The lecturer may ask students in advance to prepare for this activity – to search and look for CSOs in their country/region/city and read something on them.

Table 12.1: Handout to accompany Teaching Tool 12.1b. Four types of CSOs according to Frič

Traditional interest/hobby organisations (so-cieties and associations in the fields of sports, culture, recreation, community development)	Examples:
New service organisations (social and health care, education, humanitarian aid and chari-ty)	Examples:
Traditional advocacy organisations (trade unions, workers' unions, guilds, professional associations, political parties)	Examples:
New advocacy organisations (environmental protection, animal rights, human rights protection, consumer rights, minority rights, etc.)	Examples:

TEACHING TOOL 12.1C

Global and Local Problems in My Country/City/Community

Overall time:

30 minutes

- * Introduction: there are many problems in society. What do you think is important? (mind-mapping)
- * Lecturer indicates some examples from the theoretical background. Then asks students to come one by one and write a problem they perceive as important. At the same time they should draw lines between problems which are linked to each other. Example: if somebody writes UNEMPLOYMENT OF GRADUATES s/he can link it with UNFLEXIBLE LABOR MARKET, or LACK OF TRANSPARENCY, or UNCOMPETITIVE ECONOMY, etc.
- * Each student may come and contribute to the map of social problems. If more people perceive the same problem, they may highlight it with colours to make it more visible.
Time: 20–30 minutes.



Result:

A map of social problems perceived by students. It is important to have their local and global problems or problems that can be perceived on various levels. It is beneficial to discuss, e.g. what does POVERTY mean on a global and local level, how is it demonstrated, what are consequences.

TEACHING TOOL 12.1D

Metaplan: Dealing with a Social Problem

Overall time:

50 minutes



- * Distribute Table 12.2 to the students as a handout and divide them into groups of 4-5.
- * Explain the technique 'metaplan'. Let them imagine they are a group of social activists. They should choose a problem from Teaching Tool 12.1c. The problem should be concrete, rather narrow and familiar to them. For example, instead of POVERTY they should formulate it like UNEMPLOYMENT OF YOUNG PEOPLE IN CITY "X". Explain they should write one statement on one post-it, so that later the corrections can be made. Time: 5 minutes.
- * Task: Choose a problem and create a metaplan on a flipchart sheet. Write on post-its and then stick them in the right place. Time: 30 minutes.
- * Hang the sheets on the wall, present and discuss metaplans. Make corrections, if a statement is wrongly placed, move it. Time: 15 minutes.

Result:

Problem analysis according to a scheme. Often people think "what to do" prior to identifying "how it should be". The order is very important. In making final remarks, the lecturer can mention that in social activism it is important to analyse the problem and to plan.

Methodological note:

The most important here, is the work of the groups and discussion within the group. The lecturer should make sure that they answer the questions in the right order and that they discuss the statements. If there is a lack of information, they can use the internet, if available. This activity teaches the basis of planning and problem analysis in the context of social activism. It is important to discuss the reasons for social activism and end the lesson in an optimistic manner, that it is worth being socially active and that there are positive examples of successes.

Name of the problem	
1) How it is (description of a present state)	2) How it should be (description of a desired state)
3) Why it is not as it should be (reasons)	4) What to do?

Table 12.2: Handout to accompany Teaching Tool 12.1d. Metaplan

TEACHING TOOL 12.2

Activism, Internet and Social Media

Length:

3.5 hours (for a group of approx. 20 students)

Objectives:

After the lesson, students will be able to:

- * Understand the differences in using various social media for public activism, benefits and drawbacks of each
- * Use Facebook, Twitter, Instagram, and other social media for purposes of social activism
Assess some of the difficulties of successful using the internet for social activism
- * Requirements: internet connection, at least 5 devices with access to internet (PCs, phones, tablets, etc.), webcam or camera built-in or connected to a device. Notebook computer connected to the projector.



Description:

Start with an introduction: presentation of topics, method, timeframe.

Give a presentation from other chapters in this book: Chapter 3 – Poverty;
Chapter 6 – Migration and Development. Emphasis is put on examples. 30 minutes.

a) Examples of attractive social activism (group work with internet). 90 minutes.

b) Group competition: 'Post your cause'. 60–90 minutes divided into 2 sessions.

TEACHING TOOL 12.2A

Examples of Attractive Social Activism

Group work with internet

Overall time:

90 minutes

Divide students into groups of 4-5.

Task:

Browsing the internet, find an example of social activism that appeals to you by content, form, message, or technical solution. Answer the questions in Table 12.3 (which can be given to the students as a handout). Time: 30 minutes.



Each group presents their favourite webpage, social media profile or activity, or web application showing it through projector to the class and answering the questions from Table 12.3 in the handout. After each presentation a short discussion is recommended. Time for each presentation and small discussion: 10 minutes, altogether: 40 minutes.



Summarising discussion: in a discussion with the whole class, make a list on the flipchart naming the features of successful or an appealing internet campaign/project. Try to refer to examples from the groups and also from the presentation in the beginning of the lesson. Time: 20 minutes. Result: A list of features of a good internet campaign. It should contain attributes like "interactive", "addressing a problem that bothers the audience", "humour", "not aggressive", "appealing", "emotional", "user friendly", etc. The four examples from the groups should refer to civil society examples, not media campaigns of private subjects.

Methodological note:

If it is possible, announce the task to students earlier so that they can think of it in advance. During the group work, it is important that the lecturer talks to the groups and consults their choice within the process, so that they refer to examples of civic activism not some private media campaign or advertisement. When discussing the quality of a civic campaign/project, it is good to touch ethical issues, issues of tolerance (controversial campaigns), and issues of limited access to the internet (old people, people with little social media literacy, people not connected).

Table 12.3: Handout to accompany Teaching Tool 12.2a. The internet and civic activism

Select an example of appealing project of civic activism on the internet. The project should be from your country or an international one covering your country. Fill in this questionnaire:	
Name of the project/campaign:	
Website address:	
Aim. What the project authors want?	
Whom they appeal to? Who are their target group?	
What is the main appeal? What people should do to support the project?	
What is the technical solution of the project? (you can cross more options if combined)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Website - Mobile application - Social media pag-es/events/groups, etc. - Interactive application - Other
Why do you think the project is well designed and appealing?	

TEACHING TOOL 12.2B

Group Competition: 'Post Your Cause'

Overall time:

60–90 minutes (divided into 2 sessions).

First session

Describe the task. On the basis of the information from the presentation of Chapters 3 and 6 of this book (Poverty; Migration and Development) and the background reading, choose a topic you will deal with during the exercise. The topic may be one chosen from the list or one of your own. Groups will have to get informed on the topic and conduct an activity on social networks on the topic. The winner is the group that receives the most “likes” and “shares” for their activity. Likes from the members of the group are not counted. Any type of social network is allowed.



Divide students into groups of 3-4. Let them form groups according to their own preferences. Selection of topics: Write a list of preferred topics to a flipchart. Allow them to choose their own, but the lecturer must confirm their option. Examples of topics:

- * Climate change and environment
- * War in Ukraine
- * Food waste and hunger
- * Corruption and transparency of public funds
- * Right to access to information
- * Migrants, minorities, tolerance, non-discrimination

Examples of actions on social media:

- * Sharing a picture, text, or video
- * Messaging
- * Creating a group of support
- * Blogging (text, video, podcast, photos)

During the session, the groups have to choose precise topic and start working on it (at least 20 minutes) under the supervision of the lecturer. Then they can continue at home or in the campus until the next session. Lecturer should agree with them the exact day or time when the “action” is posted on the web so everybody has the same chance to receive support on the internet.



Second session

Show all group activities on the internet – screen them through a projector. Announce the exact time when competition is stopped. Announce the winner. Show and discuss all activities, give feedback to the groups. Discuss their difficulties within the process and reflections. Time: 30-40 minutes.

Methodological note:

This exercise aims at making students step into the shoes of civic activists and feel some of the difficulties they may face in reality. The time pressure and competition format is important here to simulate the pressure to do action quickly and access as many people as possible. It stimulates creativity and sometimes also disappointment from not being understood by the public. Sometimes conflicts appear within the small groups during the work, which is also normal in activism. It is very important that lecturer approaches each group very sensitively, highlights the advantages of every action, and presents the problems as a part of the learning process. Students should end the exercise with the feeling that internet activism is difficult, though exciting, work.

TEACHING TOOL 12.3

Community Development, Mass Protests



Objectives:

After the lesson, students will be able to:

- * Analyse cases of civic activism and community development
- * Identify factors that influence the success of civic initiatives
- * Know the examples of linkage among various sectors and various social groups within the civil society development

Length:

2 hours (for a group of approx. 20 students)

Requirements:

flipchart, markers, internet connection

Instructions:

- 1) Introduction by the lecturer – presentation of topics, methods, timeframe.
- 2) Presentation of topics covered in chapters 5 and 6. Emphasis is put on examples. 50 minutes.
- 3) Analysis of civic activism case studies (described in Teaching Tool 12.3a). 70 minutes.

TEACHING TOOL 12.3A

Analysis of Civic Activism Case Studies

Overall time:

70 minutes.

Divide students into groups of 4-5.

Each group receives the questions in 'Handout: Analysing case studies of civic activism' and one of the four case studies (material is provided in boxes).

Task:

Read the case study carefully and discuss it. Try to answer the questions on the handout. Try to prepare a flipchart with the title: 'What is important for a social activism case to be successful?'
Time: 30 minutes.

Groups hang flipcharts on the wall and all students walk around and read them. Final discussion in the whole group leads to a common list containing the 5-8 elements all groups agree on.
40 minutes.

Result:

A final list should contain modifications of features like "connecting stakeholders", "attracting people across sectors, classes, social groups", "building identities", "people having fun", "expert knowledge supporting the action".

Methodological note:

The most important here is to make students see that however funny the case study appears, serious expertise must be behind it. Civic activism is impossible to do without experts, as well as without passion and creativity. These elements should be discussed most with the students. If the case studies provided here by the author become out of date, the lecturer could prepare original ones, which would be similar in structure and impact.



Handout: Analysing case studies of civic activism

Read one of the case studies and answer the following questions:

1. Can you find an interconnection between the global and local issues? How they are presented in the case study? Is the case study more local or more global? Why?
2. Was there some expertise needed in the case? What kind? Was it expertise within the team of activists or from outside?
3. Can you find some elements of creativity or humour? Do you think they are important? Do you like them or not?
4. Can you find interconnections between different sectors of the society? (State, district, municipality, business, civic actors, schools, communities, etc.) Do they influence the result positively or negatively?
5. Do you think the case study is successful or not? Why?

CASE STUDY A. WASTE PROCESSING LANDFILL SITE IN PEZINOK (SLOVAKIA) – 1997-2013

Pezinok is a town of 20,000 inhabitants 20km far from Bratislava. It is situated in a famous wine-growing area. It has inherited a landfill from the Communist times, which is only 150m from a residential area. This landfill site contains millions of tons of unprotected waste, including toxic waste. The citizens of Pezinok suffer from cancer more than the average rate in Slovakia. Despite all this, a private company decided to build a new landfill close to the old one. Its depth is the equivalent of a 4-storey condominium, the area is 11.5 soccer fields, and its potential capacity is almost 800,000 tons of waste. It is built only 280m from the residential area. During the planning permission procedure for the construction, the state authorities ignored the incompatibility of the construction with a binding law, they unlawfully kept the decision-making secret, excluded the citizens from the proceedings, and tolerated the illegal construction and illegal use of the landfill. Behind the case there was massive corruption, since the head of the state organ that decided on the construction was a son of the owner of the company and a co-owner of the landfill. They were also members of the ruling party.

Citizens' response went in two directions – public actions and legal actions. Within the legal action, several administrative complaints and court cases were initiated. The case got to the Supreme Court and to the Constitutional Court. The case even went before the Court of Justice of the EU, since it involved rights guaranteed by EU law. The municipality of Pezinok was, at the beginning, not very strong in their resistance. However, as the citizens started public actions, soon it became a strong ally. Protests took place in Pezinok, but later they took place in the capital, in front of the government buildings, court buildings, or in the centre of the city. Big concerts were held to support Pezinok, but also to support the fight against corruption and arrogance of power. Bicycle races went through all the country to inform people about the case, celebrities were keeping guard in front of the Ministry of Environment. Hundreds of families with small children and pushchairs were marching to the site to monitor the construction when owners stated that the landfill was safe for people. A symbol of the protest – a man dressed in a chemical protection costume and a gas mask with the sign 'Citizen of Pezinok – 2020' appeared in all actions. Several influential CSOs from Slovakia took part in the campaign, media covered it very frequently. The litigation was supported by grants from foreign donors. In the end, the Court of Justice of the EU decided in 2013 that the decision-making about the landfill was illegal. Since then, the landfill is not operating.

(Source: <http://www.viaiuris.sk/en/activities/cases/older-concluded-cases/pezinok-landfill-case.html>;

Photos: http://www.nechcemeskladku.szm.com/fotogaleria_zoznam.html)

CASE STUDY B. VOSTOK SOS – HUMANITARIAN ACTION AND ADVOCACY FOR RIGHTS OF PEOPLE SUFFERING BY WAR (UKRAINE), 2014

The initiative Vostok SOS appeared from a basis of a group of human rights defenders when their members were forced to move from Lugansk to Kyiv to escape repressions after the annexation of Crimea by Russia. In Kyiv they organised a centre of humanitarian assistance for people in war zones in Eastern Ukraine. They collected money and material assistance from people from all over the country and organised convoys to bring assistance to isolated people who live in war zones. They brought packages with food, clothes, medication to local healthcare centers, and wood for heating, fuel. Each convoy was documented on social media, Twitter and Facebook, so the supporters knew where they were and what they had to distribute. Additionally, they organised a groups of volunteers – car and bus drivers, who helped evacuate the families who wanted to leave the war zones. Private individuals risked their lives to help.

In addition, they organised a centre of help for IDPs. They assisted in finding shelter, social services, jobs, school for children, and psychological, medical, and legal assistance for people who had left their homes. Advocacy work included legal and public actions for protecting the rights of these people, since most of them were formally registered in separatist regions and the government refused to take responsibility for them. Vostok works with media, has a professional user friendly web page, regularly informs the public about its actions, receives money from individuals, foreign donors, and Ukrainian organisations.

(Source: <http://vostok-sos.org/>)

CASE STUDY C. ŽÍT BRNO – AN ANTI-CAMPAIGN BEFORE ELECTIONS THAT LED TO CHANGE OF POWER, CZECHIA 2014

The campaign Live Brno (Žít Brno) started as a political satire targeting the performance of the local government of the second biggest city in the Czech Republic. The trigger point was an expensive media campaign launched by the municipality which costed about €20,000. The group of activists registered the web domain <http://www.zitbrno.cz/> and started to produce fake news from the city, pretending it to be official site of the municipal campaign. They announced the re-naming of the city Brno for Krno, and issued a discount card for Krno citizens, etc. What began as fun on the internet, started to have more political content as elections were approaching. Activists organised debates and protests, criticising the decisions of the people in power in the city. Finally, the leader of the activists, Matej Hollan, decided to stand as a candidate in the municipal elections and he won. He and his colleagues have dramatically changed the style of governance in the city towards transparency, incorporating the economic management of property with sensitivity to culture, history, and tolerance. They announced the year 2015 as Year of Reconciliation, commemorating the painful history of various minorities in the city. Their language on the internet remained the same as during the campaign. It is direct, nice, simple, using slang or dialect, regardless of their role as official representatives of the city.

(Source: <http://www.zitbrno.cz/>, <https://twitter.com/zitbrno>)

CASE STUDY D. ONE MILLION FOR THE FREEDOM OF PRESS IN HUNGARY, 2011

One Million for the Freedom of Press in Hungary facebook group (Milla) was established in January 2011 as a spontaneous result of the objections of the citizens of Hungary to the government proposal of a new media law. In winter and spring of 2011 the group organised a series of successful demonstrations which mobilised thousands of citizens. Since then, on the two major annual national celebrations, March 15 and October 23, Milla called for people to come out to Free Press Road, Budapest. As a result, tens of thousands of demonstrators showed up regularly. More and more demonstrations were held in Budapest's streets, protesting against new legislation about education and taxing, including laws stripping the media of its freedom as well as against Hungary's political and economic situation more generally. Notably, on 23 October 2011, a demonstration organised by Milla attracted tens of thousands of participants, while at the beginning of January 2012 citizens went on to the street to protest against the new constitution. Demonstrators want not just the Hungarian government but also foreign countries to know that a considerable part of the Hungarian nation is not happy with what is happening. Milla is currently active and organises demonstration in Budapest streets. Reports of their actions appear in foreign media. Still, there are no direct results from their actions yet.

Sources:

https://www.facebook.com/freepresshun/timeline?ref=page_internal

<http://www.cafebabel.co.uk/society/article/dont-occupy-budapest-the-right-to-protest-in-hungarian-streets.html>

http://www.bbj.hu/politics/thousands-join-anti-government-demo_91806

KEY OF SYMBOLS

A guide to the visual symbols used throughout the manual



additional resources



reading material



debate



useful resources



contributors



discussion



use of laptop and/or
smartphone



drawing required



presentation of images



experiment



group work



screening of film



useful organisations



voting required



presentation of work



audio needed



timed exercise



drama / theatre work



useful websites



writing required

This publication has been produced to provide a new teaching resource for academics and educators active in the field of Development Education and related disciplines. It covers twelve themes, each chapter includes both a conceptual overview and a teaching methodology section. The conceptual overview introduces the topic, explores the key concepts, theories and current debates. The teaching methodology section offers educators a set of tools that could help them introduce the topic in both formal and non-formal settings.

The resource has been produced within the framework of *UNIDEV – Bridging the Gap Between Theory and Practice*, a three-year project (2013-2016) funded by the European Commission and implemented by the NGO Support Centre in Cyprus, the Pontis Foundation in Slovakia and Kimmage Development Studies Centre in Ireland.

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The publication has been produced with the financial assistance of the European Union. The content of this publication is the responsibility of UNIDEV and can under no circumstances be considered as the position of the European Union.

