Africa: Communities in Action Resource Kit Instructional Guide



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This instructional guide has been written to provide a global education resource to secondary teachers across Canada. The guide was produced with the support of the Government of Canada through the Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA) as part of their Global Classroom Initiative Program.

Africa: Communities in Action Resource Kit Instructional Guide is designed to accompany the documentary *The Gambia:* Communities in Action (Copyright © 2005 Knowledge Network).

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Introduction to the Instructional Guide

Purpose and Organization of the Guide

The *Africa: Communities in Action Resource Kit* is comprised of two resources: this *Instructional Guide*, and a DVD of the award-winning Knowledge Network documentary *The Gambia: Communities in Action.* The DVD documentary is designed as a case study, providing students and teachers with a compelling, positive look at the West African Rural Development (WARD) program and trained community development workers putting their skills in action in rural Gambia, one of the poorest countries in the world. Many development issues introduced in the documentary, such as gender, cultural and religious challenges, poverty, rural-urban divisions, are further explored in the *Instructional Guide*.

This *Instructional Guide* contains readings and more than 40 interactive, classroom-tested activities in critical development areas activities applicable to the broad study of development issues throughout Africa and much of the developing world, while the documentary focuses on The Gambia as an African microcosm. These two parts of the *Africa : Communities in Action Resource Kit* are complementary and mutually reinforcing, with the same overarching theme: We all share the same planet with its limited resources and interconnected environment. We can no longer afford a "them and us" attitude. What affects Africa affects all of us.

By seeing the human face of Africa in this positive and inspiring documentary, and then exploring global issues further through well-designed, experiential activities, students will gain a greater appreciation for the global community we are all a part of and become more engaged in solving the human and environmental problems we collectively face. As narrator Mary Bissell concludes in the documentary while passing out Canadian flag pins to WARD graduates, "I had come expecting to find a poor nation, but instead I have discovered one that is rich in potential and overflowing with community spirit. Maybe Canadians have something to learn from The Gambia."

We ask that you treat the *Instructional Guide* as a rich resource of readings and classroom activities rather than a specific curriculum guide. Although the content covered in the handbook material, as well as the documentary itself, applies to many social studies, history, English and global education courses across the country, this guide is not intended for any one course. Instead, we hope it will be a practical, provocative collection of student activities, resource materials and global education ideas that will be used by educators working in a broad range of situations and levels and teaching a variety of courses.

As a resource, we encourage you to modify these activities to meet your specific objectives, and your students' interests and skill levels. To make this accommodation easier, the *Instructional Guide* on this CD is in two versions, a PDF file and an MS Word version.

As well, rather than treating each unit as discrete package, we urge you to examine the material as a whole and select those activities, from whatever section, that best fits your situation and needs. The material presented, while classroom tested, are just ideas for you to select, modify

and use to make your classroom a more exciting and engaging forum for examining the increasingly critical issues related to global citizenry.

Don Sawyer Graham Gomme Wayne Fowler Alpha Jallow

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Table of Abbreviations and Acronyms

(UN)HDI	(United Nations) Human Development Index		
ADWAC	Agency for the Development of Women and Children (Gambia)		
AUCC	Association of Universities and Colleges of Canada		
CAD	Canadian Dollar		
CD	Community Development		
CIA	Central Intelligence Agency		
CIDA	Canadian International Development Agency		
CODE	Canadian Organization for Development Through Education		
DC	Developing Country		
GCI	Global Classroom Initiative		
GDP	Gross Domestic Product		
GNP	Gross National Product		
GRAT	Ghana Rural Animator Training (Program)		
GTTI	The Gambia Technical Training Institute		
HIPC	Heavily Indebted Poor Countries		
HRD	Human Resource Development		
IMF	International Monetary Fund		
IYIP	International Youth Intern Program (CIDA)		
KN	Knowledge Network (BC)		
LCD	Less-Developed Country		
MDC	More-Developed Country		
MDG	Millennium Development Goals		
NAFTA	North American Free Trade Agreement		
NEPAD	New Partnerships for Africa's Development		
NGOs	Non-Government Organizations		
NSAC	Nova Scotia Agricultural College		
NSGA	Nova Scotia-Gambia Association		
ODA	Official Development Assistance		
OECD	Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development		

OUC	Okanagan University College		
PRA	Participatory Rural Appraisal		
PRSP	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper		
RCDP	Rural Community Development Practitioner (Diploma)		
SAP	Structural Adjustment Program		
SWOT	Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, Threats		
UDS	University for Development Studies (Ghana)		
UK	United Kingdom		
UN	United Nations		
UNDP	United Nations Development Program		
UNESCO	United Nations Education, Science, and Cultural Organization		
UPCD	University Partnerships in Cooperation		
UTG	University of The Gambia		
VDC	Village Development Committee		
WARD	West African Rural Development (Centre, Gambia)		
WB	World Bank		

Instructional Strategies

- 1. **Classroom application**: The strength of this resource is its direct, practical and effective application to the classroom. Teachers often wish to promote global education, but there are very few resources that provide practical, student-tested activities designed by classroom teachers. In this case, the combination of a compelling DVD, full of colour and life, and a usable, relevant guide of ideas for further expanding on the documentary and exploring international development issues in more depth should greatly assist teachers in British Columbia and throughout Canada in truly connecting their students to global realities while making their classrooms centres of global education. The appeal of the documentary to secondary students has been established through the piloting of the film with over 150 Social Studies 11 students. Similarly, all of the activities have been used successfully in high school or adult education settings.
- 2. Accommodation of learning styles: Because the core resource is a video, students with limited literacy skills, as well as those with a more visual/aural learning style, will immediately be drawn into the subject matter. The guide, with its emphasis on experiential activities such as simulation games, group consensus-building exercises, and small-group discussion activities, are effective with students with a wide range of speaking, reading/writing skills, and interest areas. Where the activity revolves around a more challenging reading, specific suggestions for working with the material to accommodate students at different reading levels is provided in the exercise.
- 3. **Target audience**: The primary target audience for this resource is teachers working with students enrolled in Grade 11 Social Studies in BC and in similar social studies courses across Canada. As well, teachers working in other social studies and English programs will find the material an invaluable resource, as will instructors of other courses containing units on international relations, community development, political science, and global citizenship. As noted above, the documentary has been piloted with students in Social Studies 11 and has proven effective in changing attitudes toward Africa and introducing development issues.
- 4. Activities: The more than 40 activities included in this instructional guide are specifically designed to engage students, to challenge their perceptions about Canada as well as Africa and the larger world they live in, and to be enjoyable. The strong emphasis on interactive, experiential activities is meant to provide instructors with exercises that turn the study of development into a participatory, interactive process that encourages discussion, exploration and research, and an examination of personal values and perceptions. Note that many of the activities are based on exercises used in training African development workers and, in some cases, allow students to compare their responses with those of Gambians working at the grassroots in various areas of development. Several activities incorporate real case studies drawn from the contributions of African colleagues. These will provide authenticity and help students look at the issues from a realistic, African perspective.

Assessment Methods

How shall I evaluate my students?

How we assess is based upon what we want our students – and ourselves as instructors – to gain from the learning experience. Do we want them to learn a set of facts, become better critical thinkers, make a personal connection to the topic, develop empathy for the struggles of AIDS orphans?

Teaching to meet cognitive and skills objectives is common place and often appropriate. However in subjects such as global education, affective learning is at least as critical a learning domain. Affective learning goes well beyond simply developing the motivation to learn; it also includes allowing -- and assisting -- students to develop their own attitudes about the topic and to develop genuine feelings for the people caught in the conditions being studies. A constant reliance on cognitive learning assessments that focuses upon correct answers or the ability to fully develop an idea at the first attempt can cause students to view assignments simply as tests of correctness rather than an opportunity to test and develop an idea in partnership with their teacher and peers and enter into a genuine dialogue on the issues.

To promote intellectual risk-taking, teachers need to provide an environment where students feel safe expressing their ideas. At the same time a set of standards must be in place to guide student work. Learning Logs or Learning Journals (referred to here as Logs) are one means for providing such an open forum. Here, student reflections are marked in a pass/fail format that reflects effort more than correctness and skill levels, allowing students to put forward their ideas, have them challenged, and revise their ideas before summative evaluation occurs in a low risk setting.

Similarly, debates, panel discussions, cooperative projects and class presentations, interviews conducted by pairs outside the classroom, small group collage and poster construction, consensus activities, case study analysis and other participatory activities provide instructors with a less formal (and constricting) means for engaging students, assessing current knowledge, encouraging open discussion and dialogue, and evaluating learner outcomes.

The ultimate goal is to develop an authentic conversation between students themselves as well as with the instructor, helping them to critically examine their own ideas and to be open to other points of view and new information.

Of course at some point teachers generally have to assign grades. However, if the teacher has created an atmosphere of openness, acceptance, debate and lively discourse, the use of student self-assessment, and even peer assessment can be used to extend on this process and contribute further to honest reflection and increased critical thinking. These self-assessments can be paired with instructor assessments in evaluation conferences where the instructor can share his or her observations and contrast these with the student's own perceptions.

Such methods allow teachers and students to examine development in the often neglected affective domain, and these techniques can be combined with more conventional evaluation strategies. Which ever techniques you employ, remember that assessment always provides the

teacher with as much information about his or her instructional effectiveness as the student's learning.

Within this section you will find a number of methods to assess student knowledge, skills and attitudes at every phase of a lesson.

When and How To Evaluate

Considerations	Evaluation Techniques			
	(Some possibilities)			
Starting The Unit				
Participant expectations, interests, uses for	Brainstorming (individual and group),			
what they learn	learning log, student personal goal			
	identification, quick writing			
Experience- What previous experience,	Brainstorming (individual then group),			
knowledge, and resources do they bring?	quick writing, lists			
Fears and Concerns	Learning Log			
During The U	nit (formative)			
Are participants achieving the intended	See list of possible evaluation techniques			
objectives?	on the next page.			
Are they enjoying the program? Satisfied	Attitude Scale, Learning Log			
with it?				
Are they achieving their personal goals?	Learning Log			
Is the group working well together?	Individual Interviews, Learning Log			
Is the pace, organization, and presentation	Learning Logs, formative testing and			
of material satisfactory?	evaluation, class check-ins			
After the Lesson o	r Unit (summative)			
Have the learning objectives been	Essays, exams, quizzes, learning logs, class			
achieved?	presentations, self-evaluation, quick writes			
	(see list of possible techniques on			
	following page)			
Have the individual goals been	Self Assessment			
accommodated?				
How do participants feel about the unit?	Attitude scales, learning logs, questionnaire			
Has the learning been relevant/usable to	Learning Log, buzz groups			
them?				
How well did the group work together?	Learning log, student questionnaire, peer			
	assessment			
How well organized/prepared was the unit?	Written questionnaire for students, buzz			
	groups, large group debriefing			
What further lessons are needed for follow	Brainstorm			
up?				
How effective were your skills and	Written questionnaire for students, teacher			
methods as a teacher?	self reflection, peer observation			
What unintended results occurred as a	Learning log			
result of the activities?	Evaning 105			

Some Evaluation Techniques

- 1. Demonstration
- 2. Simulation
- 3. Performance Observation
- 4. Personal Interview
- 5. Written Questionnaire
- 6. Focus or Buzz Group
- 7. Oral Explanation
- 8. Circle Discussion
- 9. Checklists (desired actions have/have not occurred)
- 10. Role Play or Performance
- 11. Picture or Visual Representation (e.g. posters, collage)
- 12. Attitude Scale (I feel...1 -10)
- 13. Work Samples or Portfolio
- 14. Self-Assessment
- 15. Peer Assessment
- 16. Multiple Choice, short answer, True/ False or Matching Exams
- 17. Essays
- 18. Quick writes
- 19. Learning Log
- 20. Class Presentation (including debates, reports, research results, panel discussions, poem, dance, role play or drama)

Assessment Tools

1. Learning Logs (Journals)

What are Learning Logs?

Learning logs are a way to help students connect content, process, and personal feelings. Learning logs are based on the idea that students learn from writing about their learning rather than writing what they have learned. The common use is to have students make entries in their logs during the last minutes of class or after each completed week of class. The message here is that short, frequent bursts of writing are more productive over time than are infrequent, longer assignments.

What is its purpose?

Learning logs are a vehicle for exchange between teachers and students. The most valuable result of learning logs is that as students write to learn, they also learn to recognize their own and other's good work.

How do I do it?

Learning logs can be free-flowing and subjective, relying on opinion and personal experience, or concise, objective, factual and impersonal in tone.

The following questions could be used to guide students in making thoughtful entries in their learning logs:

- What did I do in class today?
- What did I learn?
- What did I find interesting?
- What questions do I have about what I learned?
- What issues am I more aware of?
- How do I see things or think differently as a result of today's lesson?
- What was the point of today's lesson?
- What connections did I make to other lessons?
- What did I feel about today's work and what I learned?

How can I adapt it?

Turning a Log into a Blog

A very popular form of information exchange found on the Internet is the blog. People post their ideas and opinions and other people discuss these, responding with their own reactions and comments. Student blog sites can be passed out to the entire class with the understanding that the entries written will be public and open to comments and reaction. The original writer could respond to the feedback. Student could be required to post a certain number of entries a week and respond to a number of posted blogs.

Writing From Another Perspective

Students respond to a lesson from the point of view of someone who is experiencing the situation studied – such as one of the development workers in the DVD such as Saikou Touray. In their

responses, students focus on how the person assigned would feel, think or reflect on the lesson. This not only builds empathy, it provides the teacher with an opportunity to gain an understanding of the student's capacity to see the world through other's eyes and to genuinely understand the issues being dealt. A variation of this technique is to have students write a dialogue between themselves and another person, focusing on the issues presented in the lesson. This can be an interesting pre- and post-lesson assessment technique.

Focused Writing (Quick write)

Focused writing is an excellent way to begin a new unit or lesson. Students write non-stop for five minutes (or longer, depending on subject and skill level of students) on a specific topic they are studying. The purpose is for students to find out what they know about the topic, to explore new ideas, and to find out what they need to learn about the topic. For example, before beginning a unit around the DVD *The Gambia: Communities in Action*, you might ask students to complete a five-minute quick write on what they know or think they know about Africa. A similar activity could be used at the end to determine, for both the student and the teacher, what has been learned.

Holistic Rubric Model

Not all logs should be marked using a Rubric such as that presented below or the learning log can simply become another assignment to "get the answer right" (at least what the student guesses the instructor thinks is right). This will reduce the use of the log to develop intellectual risk taking, honest reflection and serious exploration of personal feelings and points of view. Nonetheless, rubrics can have value for some log assessment, especially if the log is more content oriented and the students know before hand what is expected in their log and how it will be evaluated. They can also be applied to other writing samples and assignments.

4 Exceeds Standard	The response is very specific to the task. Information is accurate and response shows penetrating insight. The task is referred to in the answer. Writing is fluent and lively. Answer is concise and to the point. Conclusions and/or opinions are logical. Overall impression: complete and satisfactory.
3 Meets Standard	The response refers to the task. Information is accurate. A logical conclusion or an opinion is offered. Writing is fluent but not interesting. The answer is lengthy rather than concise.
2 Standard barely met	The response refers to an unspecified task. Information provided is generally accurate but no insight is offered. There may or may not be a conclusion or an opinion. If one or the other is offered, there may be problems with accuracy and logic.
1 Standard not met	The response does not specify the task. Information may be missing or inaccurate. No insight is shared. Any conclusion or opinion offered may be judged to be off-task. There are problems with accuracy and logic. Overall impression: incomplete and unsatisfactory.

Learning Log Responses

2. Evaluating Essay Writing

The following is a holistic method of evaluating an essay. It allows for easy identification by students of the expectations for a high quality, acceptable, and unacceptable essay.



A or B: Superior or excellent essay

Area 1: Focus, Content, Ideas, Analysis, Interpretation

- Focuses on what the question asks. Does specifically what the question requires: Fulfills the demand of the action verb: compare, synthesize, critique, evaluate, etc.
- Analyzes the actions and motives of people (individuals and groups) and what they did.
- Incorporates the actual words of people (primary sources) into the essay.
- Attempts to explain (interpret) key issues specified in the question, such as causation or comparison.
- Briefly identifies the people mentioned, identifies sources quoted in the text, and defines specialized terms.

Area 2: Inclusion of Relevant Historical Evidence

- Supports all thesis statements (assertions, explanations, interpretations) with specific, warranted evidence (examples, illustrations, concrete historical actions).
- Establishes direct links between events and the writer's interpretation of those events.
- Draws evidence (supporting examples) from ALL the required readings.
- Includes statistical evidence, especially when making social or economic arguments (raw numbers, percentages, charts, graphs).

Area 3: Organization, Logic, Integration of Sources

- Organizes ideas and themes into logical sequences and subtopics appropriate to the question.
- Includes a brief, clear introduction that aptly summarizes the paper's major focus, most important points, and guides the reader on what to expect in the body?
- Includes a final, logical summation or conclusion.
- Each paragraph focuses on and supports a single idea; one topic per paragraph. Logical transitions between paragraphs create a clear flow from point to point through the essay.

Area 4: Writing Clarity and Correctness

- Presents ideas in direct, clear, concise sentences.
- Expresses ideas in vigorous active-voice prose.
- Exhibits strong sentence fluency--the language flows cleanly and clearly, like a good speech.
- Employs strong, vigorous action verbs.
- Uses correct spelling, grammar, and punctuation.

C: Competent, Developing Essay--on track but still has a ways to go

- Simply narrates events or tells a story, rather than explaining, interpreting, analyzing.
- Strays from the question; includes information, people, and events not directly related to what the question asks.
- Fails to make a logical argument. Information is simply spewed forth in no particular order.
- Fails to provide specific relevant, appropriate supporting evidence for every general statement.
- Includes some evidence that is not relevant and/or factually correct.

D or **F**: Early draft or emerging essay

- Not yet there needs more thought, more revising, more hard work.
- Does not focus on nor answer the question asked.
- Shows little knowledge or understanding of the assigned readings.
- Many simple assertions that lack relevant evidence or illustrations.
- Exhibits poor writing, such as typos, sentence fragments, subject-verb disagreements, considerable overuse of the passive voice, grammatical and word use errors.
- Often appears hastily written, as a first draft, with careless errors and little evidence of careful thought.
- Makes unsupported assertions based on prejudice or preconception, not on evidence.

3. Oral Presentation Rubric

Name: _____

Teacher:

Date Submitted:

Title of Work: _____

	Criteria				Points
	4	3	2	1	
Body Language	Movements seemed fluid and helped the audience visualize.	Made movements or gestures that enhanced articulation.	Very little movement or descriptive gestures.	No movement or descriptive gestures.	
Eye Contact	Holds attention of entire audience with the use of direct eye contact.	Consistent use of direct eye contact with audience.	Displayed minimal eye contact with audience.	No eye contact with audience.	
Introduction and Closure	the attention of the	Student displays clear introductory or closing remarks.	Student clearly uses either an introductory or closing remark, but not both.	Student does not display clear introductory or closing remarks.	
Pacing	Good use of drama and student meets apportioned time interval.	Delivery is patterned, but does not meet apportioned time interval.	not meet apportioned time	Delivery is either too quick or too slow to meet apportioned time interval.	
Poise	Student displays relaxed, self- confident nature about self, with no mistakes.	Makes minor mistakes, but quickly recovers from them; displays little or no tension.	Displays mild tension; has trouble recovering from mistakes.	Tension and nervousness is obvious; has trouble recovering from mistakes.	
Voice	Use of fluid speech and inflection maintains the interest of the audience.	Satisfactory use of inflection, but does not consistently use fluid speech.		Consistently uses a monotone voice. Total>	

Teacher Comments:

Knowledge Network and the Making of the Documentary

With support from CIDA through its Mass Media Initiative, Knowledge Network sent a professional film crew to The Gambia in 2004 to film a segment for their *Leading Edge* program on the West African Rural Development Centre (WARD), an innovative CIDA-funded project training community development practitioners in one of the poorest regions of the world. The results were so compelling that Knowledge Network, with additional CIDA and private donor support, expanded the original 17-minute segment into an acclaimed half-hour documentary, *The Gambia: Communities in Action* that has aired six times since May 2005 to nearly one million viewers.

In the summer of 2005, the documentary was entered in the prestigious Columbus (Ohio) International Film Festival, where it won the festival's second highest award, the Bronze Plaque. This award is "presented only to productions of high merit, which in the opinion of the judges will be effective and useful contributions to their subject area. Bronze Plaques are presented to productions receiving a rating of six out of seven."

Educators in the Shuswap saw the classroom potential of the Knowledge Network documentary. With support from School District #83 (North Okanagan-Shuswap) administration and Knowledge Network, a committee was established to raise funds to create a marketing/distribution plan and prepare a comprehensive study guide to accompany the program in order to ensure extensive distribution and use in the BC school system.

To determine the documentary's effectiveness with students, the DVD has now been shown to over 150 secondary students. In February 2006, a formal student assessment was conducted with 36 students in two classes of Social Studies 11. The assessment began with a baseline exercise to establish students' current level of knowledge about Africa. This was followed by a brief introduction to the DVD and a screening of the half-hour documentary. Students were then asked to complete a written evaluation of the program, and a follow-up discussion was conducted that focused on the strengths and weaknesses of the video and what students felt should be contained in an instructional guide.

The research confirmed that students found the documentary both informative and interesting. Some of the responses to questions designed to determine what students liked about the film were particularly interesting:

- I liked how it showed us some of the lifestyles of the rural areas. We got to see how people lived, what they eat, how they dressed.
- I liked how it raised the issues without dragging on forever about them.
- I liked just watching the people and how strong they were, always working.
- The Canadians were not just telling the people what they need. They were helping them get to the point where they can function without the help of other countries.
- [The documentary] made me think about travelling there or becoming a teacher of some sort or to have a government job to help out there.
- It really shows what the aid is doing for them.

- I liked seeing how Africans live and what a normal life is to them. Our view of normal is so different from their views.
- I liked how the main speakers were African people and the results were visible already.
- Presented the human side of Africa. Poor communities rich in other areas.

Perhaps most encouragingly, several student comments illustrated the documentary's capacity to change attitudes as well:

- I thought there would be almost no chance of it getting better, but there is a chance.
- My impression that all countries in Africa are poor and always will be was challenged by the documentary.
- They do need some help, but not as much as we think. Not everyone is starving and yes, they need bigger schools but it is important that people in the community want what you are giving.
- I heard a lot of things about bad stuff in Africa. This documentary showed the good side.
- My views of Africa were very shady and all I had were my views of Africa through shows like World Vision.
- I had no idea Africans were so community driven. Everyone does things together to benefit the community.
- Africa doesn't look as horrible as the media projects it to be.



Knowledge Network film crew members John Dowell and George Colman filming in WARD classroom.



George Colman and John Dowell, with the assistance of Saikou Touray, set up for filming in downtown Serrekunda, The Gambia



Film crew George Colman and John Dowell with Producer David Billman.



John Dowell and George Colman, along with Director/Writer Mary Bissell, film at the Njawara Agricultural Training Centre.

CIDA and the Association of Universities and Colleges of Canada

The Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA): CIDA is Canada's lead agency for development assistance. It has a mandate to "support sustainable development in developing countries in order to reduce poverty and to contribute to a more secure, equitable, and prosperous world."

CIDA defines its mandate further on its website, www.acdi-cida.gc.ca:

Canada's development cooperation policy and programs will:

- advance Canadian values of global citizenship, equity, and environmental sustainability, as well as Canadian interests regarding security, prosperity, and governance;
- deliver visible, durable impact on the world's key development challenges as identified in the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs);
- focus on reducing poverty through an effective and focused approach which will match Canadian niches with developing countries' needs in coordination with other donors;
- recognize and promote sustainable solutions to address the critical linkages between environmental degradation, poverty, and social inequity; and
- mobilize Canadians to build our society's capacity to contribute effectively to global poverty reduction.

Humanitarian assistance will remain a key part of Canada's international engagement.

Funding for the West African Rural Development Centre was provided by CIDA through its Partnership Branch in cooperation with the Association of Universities and Colleges of Canada. Funding for the production of the Knowledge Network video was provided through CIDA's Mass Media Initiative, and the production of this guide and the distribution of the DVD were made possible through support of CIDA's Global Classroom Initiative.

The Association of Universities and Colleges of Canada (AUCC): AUCC is "the voice of Canada's universities." AUCC represents 92 Canadian public and private not-for-profit universities and university-degree level colleges. Formed in 1911, AUCC's mandate is to facilitate the development of public policy on higher education and to encourage cooperation among universities and governments, industry, communities, and institutions in other countries public policy and advocacy communications, research and information-sharing scholarships and international programs.

The WARD project was awarded to Okanagan College (then Okanagan University College) in 2000 through AUCC's University Partnerships in Cooperation and Development (UPCD) program. Administered by the Association of Universities and Colleges of Canada, this Canadian International Development Agency program "funds knowledge partnerships between Canadian universities and higher education organizations in developing countries in Africa, the Middle East, Eastern Europe, Asia and Latin America."

According to its website (<u>www.aucc.ca</u>), "Since its launch in 1994, the UPCD program has funded more than 100 Tier 2 projects throughout the developing world in an array of disciplines including education, natural sciences and the humanities. Projects funded through the UPCD program respond to Canada's Official Development priorities, CIDA's poverty-reduction mandate, as well as the development priorities of developing countries in Asia, Africa, the Middle East, Latin America and Eastern Europe where the projects take place. These projects typically include a range of activities, for example: curriculum development, strengthening academic departments and training and further education for professors. Activities involve teams at each of the partner organizations, making them institutional linkages, as opposed to individual grants or collaboration between two professors."

The WARD project would not have been possible without the funding provided by CIDA and AUCC and their ongoing support and encouragement.

The West African Rural Development Centre (WARD)

The following description of WARD was provided by its Program Director, Alpha Jallow: (Note: This summary was written in 2005; since then the number of participants and graduates has increased dramatically.)

The West African Rural Development Project (WARD), as the name implies, is an initiative intended to develop a centre of excellence for the training of community development practitioners in The Gambia and West Africa. Five years after its inception, WARD has indeed become a Centre of Excellence in the training of community facilitators and middle level managers whose enhanced skills are now benefiting multiple development projects in Rural Gambia.

WARD is a comprehensive project that has shown remarkable success in a number of key areas:

Curriculum Development

The project began with thorough needs assessments to determine skill areas needed by development practitioners in the rural West African environment. Based on consultations with rural animators in the region, a foundational program, Community Development Foundations (CDF), was developed. Based on feedback and direction from development practitioners themselves, who identified priority content areas, three additional courses, Human Relations and Development, Economics and Development and Management and Development, were developed, piloted and delivered. Together, these four courses comprise the Rural Community Development Practitioner Diploma (RCDP).

The RCDP curriculum, consisting of four courses and 18 modules, is the culmination of a highly collaborative, need-driven, intensive curriculum development process. The result is a set of unique training activities that are well designed, adapted to local realities, and successfully meeting the training needs of individuals and institutions in both public and private sectors.

In The Gambia, the WARD curriculum (modules and courses) is now being used as resource and reference material by individuals, facilitators and institutions offering community development, management and other development related courses. The provision of both local and overseas training in curriculum design and development to several Gambians drawn from different institutions has undoubtedly built capacity in an area where the skill and expertise was in great demand but lacking. WARD participants have been utilizing their skills to develop curriculum for other organization as well as skills transfer through training.

Human Resources Capacity Building

One key area where WARD has registered tremendous successes is in the training of staff members from over 40 different organizations and institutions in both the private and public sector. WARD has registered a total of 18 deliveries, 498 participants in one or more courses and 73 RCDP Diploma graduates. Initially each course was piloted by a Canadian facilitator and a Gambian co-facilitator, but now all courses are being delivered completely by Gambians. WARD has also successfully delivered the Human Relations and Development course to nine

development practitioners in Ghana, involving two Ghanaian lecturers at the University of Development Studies (UDS) as co-facilitators with their Gambian counterparts.

Facilitator Training (Local and Overseas)

WARD has recruited and successfully trained (locally) a total of 32 facilitators drawn from staff of government departments, private sector organizations, and NGOs operating in The Gambia. To date at least five WARD facilitators have had their skills recognized by being sponsored for overseas training and exchanges. Another four are heads of their organizations/institutions and are actively contributing towards strengthening the institutional and human capacity base of their organizations and the communities they work with.

Need-Based Course Development and Delivery

A few months ago, a WARD participant walked into the office expressing excitement that a new computer had been installed in his workplace. He then proceeded to explain that he didn't really know how to use it. It is for him and those like him in the field of community development wanting to improve their skills, knowledge, and level of comfort with a computer that a WARD Computer Basics course was developed, introducing the basic hardware involved, software programs like Microsoft Windows, Word, and Excel as well as an introduction to the Internet and email. To every extent possible, the curriculum has been developed in such a way that it be delivered in the same participatory manner as our other courses. In the field of community development, computers are used to carry out a wide variety of tasks from writing proposals to creating budgets to researching donors. It cannot be overemphasized that even a basic knowledge of how to work in a computer driven environment will be most beneficial to the career development of West African's in the field of community development and many other career fields.

It is this kind of client-driven, practical program development capacity, besides it regular course delivery, that makes WARD such a unique and valuable project.

Professional and Career Development

WARD is committed to providing professional and career development support to Gambians and other West Africans. A total of four WARD participants and facilitators have enrolled at the University of The Gambia (UTG) to pursue the Development Studies Degree program. Two graduates of the St. Mary's University Extension (SMU) Program, holding BAs in International Development Studies Economics, having discovered the relevance and quality of the WARD trainings, registered as participants and successfully completed the WARD Community Development Foundation certificate course. WARD has recently registered additional five RCDPD graduates (including a refugee from Sierra Leone), for the International Development Studies Degree program of the University of The Gambia.

Negotiations with the University of The Gambia regarding accreditation of prior learning (Advance standing) for RCDP graduates wishing to transit to the University of The Gambia are well underway.

Building Institutional Capacity

Another social infrastructure building feature of the WARD project is the building of institutional capacity. WARD is currently serving as an important link and between several post-secondary institutions in The Gambia and has used its close relationship with the University of The Gambia to advocate for the inclusion and recognition of the RDI as a rural development campus of the University and a delivery site for RCDPD courses. This is very exciting as it suggests a "made in Gambia" arrangement that could have widespread implications for the University and its ties to the rural sectors of the country as well as the possibility of locating WARD program deliveries in a rural residential setting.

Building Organizational Capacity

WARD has also played a positive capacity building role with NGOs and Community Based Organizations (CBOs). The WARD project held curriculum development and in-service training workshops for literacy facilitators for two organizations, Holland Foundation Adult Education The Gambia and Wuli Development Association (WAD). To fulfill its mandate of providing research and customized training services to NGOs and other grassroots organizations, WARD personnel have been involved in researching the importance of local language literacy and effective instructional methodologies for teaching literacy to adults in their first language. Several of the trained facilitators with WARD, have extensive experience in creating, implementing and teaching literacy programs in West Africa.

At least five WARD trainees who assumed positions of high office in their organizations have personally written or made public statements largely attributing their current leadership positions and the successes registered by their Organizations to the training they had received from WARD. These include Mr. Alieu Badara Jobe, Director of Njawara Agricultural Training Institutute (NATC); Mr. Bakary Sanneh, Executive Director of Fund for African/ African-American Cultural and Educational Solidarity (F.A.C.E.S); Mr. Mbemba Camara, Manager of Holland Foundation Adult Education The Gambia; and Mr. Yusupha Gomez, Programme Manager, Christian Children's Fund (CCF) The Gambia.

The participatory nature of WARD has changed the outlook of the participants in the field and has created a positive impact on rural development. If you look at the situation in The Gambia, 80% of the population lives in rural areas. The farmers essentially form the backbone of the country. The WARD project contributes immensely to the development of the skills of rural development workers who together with the farmers and the poor work towards advancing the rural development agenda. This helps the rural sector while contributing to economic sustainability at the national level.

Regional and International Initiatives

WARD is a regional project mandated to provide services to both governmental and non-governmental organizations and institutions in West Africa.

1. Ghana – WARD had very close collaboration with The University of Development Studies (UDS), in the area of curriculum development and training. The project secured the involvement of Mr. Sylvester Gala and Dr. Frances Bacho, both lecturers at UDS, as Co-Facilitators and Supervisors in some RCDPD pilot deliveries in The Gambia. WARD

also sent two Gambians, Mr. Alpha Jallow, Programme Director, and Mr. Baturu Mboge, Principal Facilitator, to Ghana to co-facilitate a successful pilot of the Human Relations and Development (HRD) with the cooperation of the University of Development Studies.

- 2. Sierra Leone WARD initiated some positive moves towards partnering with organizations in Sierra Leone to conduct a training workshop for community development practitioners there. However, because of the civil war and continuing political instability, more contacts and groundwork followed by a visit will be required before training can be delivered. WARD shall continue to explore opportunities to partner with organizations that operate in both Gambia and Sierra Leone such as CCF, Action Aid and Nova Scotia Gambia/ Sierra Leone Association.
- **3. Guinea Bissau** WARD has also made successful attempts to extend services and has negotiated a similar arrangement with ICAP an NGO in Guinea Bissau. A series of consultative and planning meetings were held in 2004, following which the ICAP Director consulted with G-B government institutions, NGOs and CBOs and recruited potential facilitators and participants for induction and training. This Guinea-Bissau initiative has since been endorsed and the necessary funds secured. WARD will implement this regional delivery once the political climate in Guinea Bissau becomes stable and conducive. External regional programs for the Community Development foundations and other modules will continue to be organized in co-operation with regional institutions in West Africa.
- 4. Nigeria Most recently, a Nigerian-Canadian professor at the University of Windsor has requested WARD partnership in a potential social work development project to be based at Benin University. WARD enthusiastically agreed, and the project proposal, with WARD as an integral training component, has been submitted to the Association of Universities and Colleges of Canada (AUCC). This request, originating in Canada but focusing on service delivery in the West-African sub-region, is further evidence of WARD's growing regional and international reputation and profile.

Internship Placement Program

As part of WARD's international and local operations, we facilitate the placement of visiting independent volunteers and pre-sponsored youth interns in The Gambia. For five years now, WARD has been directly involved in the placement and supervision of a total of 11 CIDA funded International Youth Internship Program (IYIP) Canadian interns. WARD has been instrumental in supporting interns by offering language and cultural training, and many interns have also been able to learn from and experienced WARD training first-hand by taking several modules in the Community Development Foundations course. As part of WARD's international and local operations, we facilitate the placement of visiting independent volunteers and presponsored youth interns in The Gambia. As our internship program grows, we hope to facilitate placements throughout the greater West African region.

By all accounts, WARD has become an "outstanding example of what good development projects look like – co-operative, sustainable, aimed at the poorest sectors of the community, creative, cost effective, and demonstrably helping local people attack the roots of poverty."

Having created a Centre capable of developing new curriculum, offering diploma programs on an ongoing basis, assisting community development personnel with in-service workshops, and expanding into other countries, WARD has certainly become a major and increasingly important part of the social infrastructure of the region. The WARD Centre Project has registered enormous successes in The Gambia and has touched the lives of thousands of West Africans.

In October 2005, WARD was named as a finalist in the 13th Annual Canadian Awards for International Cooperation, "recognizing the excellent work of Canadian businesses and organizations in developing countries and countries in transition" and organized by the Canadian Manufacturers & Exporters' Association (CME). In its program the CME nominated Okanagan College

WARD acts as a regional centre dedicated to providing cost-effective, culturally-appropriate training for in-service and aspiring community development workers from West African NGOs and government organizations. WARD graduates are having a significant impact on development in West Africa and are helping the poorest of the poor and most disenfranchised community members to identify key problems, assess and mobilize their resources, and take action to improve the quality of their lives. This project was funded through CIDA's University Partnership in

Unit 1 – Introduction to the Instructional Guide

Unit 2 – Historical and Culture Context

This unit contains:

- Introduction to Colonialism and Modern African History
- Key Reading: "The Conspiracy Against Africa" and suggested activities
- The Gambia: An African Microcosm
- Maps and Geography of Africa

The unit is designed to provide the instructor and student with key information to use as a foundation in the larger study of international development, Africa, and global education. The reading, an article by Gerald Caplan that first appeared in *The Walrus*, is a challenging but remarkably comprehensive look at Africa's problems, their historical roots, and the contemporary policies that aggravate them. Many central issues, organizations and concepts are introduced in the essay. The last two sections provide useful information on Gambia's historical, social and economic situation, linking it to the experience of other African nations.

DVD Connections: The activities and information in this unit are designed to provide an historical and social context for the documentary, *The Gambia: Communities in Action*, either as an introduction or as a follow-up. The readings and information explicate many of the issues presented in the DVD and provide a more comprehensive look at the tiny country of The Gambia.

British Columbia Curriculum Connections: Socials 8-11, English 11 & 12

Unit 3 – Development

The following are the activities for the Development unit:

- Name the Developing Country
- Glossary of Development Economics Terms
- Defining Development
- Theories of Development
- Thinking About Development
- Sustainable Development

The unit begins with an interactive activity that helps put Canadian development into an historical and economic context, making the issue of development more relevant to students and providing a sense of what development is. The remaining exercises focus on having students wrestle with the idea of what development is and isn't, and some of the major trends in development thinking.

DVD Connections: The DVD is about the success of the West African Rural Development Centre (WARD), where development is at the very heart of the program. Students can see the

nature of development, and the ability of people to assess their development needs and mobilize their resources to achieve them, in the documentary and then explore these ideas more fully using the activities in this unit.

British Columbia Curriculum Connections: Socials 8-11, English 11

Unit 4 – Poverty

The following are the activities for the Poverty unit:

- Defining Poverty
- Measuring Poverty
- Poverty and the Big Five
- Causes of Poverty Opposing Views
- Unequal Slices

Each of these activities delves into the topics of poverty and Africa. Questions are raised such as how do we define poverty, how should it be measured, what causes it and how can it be stopped. The last activity presents poverty in a different light to students by making connections between uses, or misuses, of resources in the developed world and the lack of resources in the developing world.

DVD Connections: This DVD presents the poverty in The Gambia in a very real and vivid way. It also provides possible solutions to poverty through the application of the WARD program by Canadian Colleges, CIDA and The Gambian Government.

British Columbia Curriculum Connections: Socials 8-11, English 11

Unit 5 – Economics

The following are the activities in the Economics unit:

- The Chain Game
- International Trade
- Fair Trade
- Sustainable Development

This unit introduces students to the complex topic of economics and the developing world by first presenting a basic glossary of terms for students to use when discussing the topic. After, activities such as the Chain Game, International Trade and Fair trade provide articles and role play simulation games to help students better understand the economic plight of the developing world. The unit culminates with by presenting and inviting the students to think about possible solutions, namely sustainable development for the future.

DVD Connection: The DVD provides looks at the economics of The Gambia, the difficulties it faces and through the training of rural development workers a model for a sustainable economic future.

British Columbia Curriculum Connections: Socials 8-11

Unit 6 – Culture

The following are activities in the Culture unit:

- Defining Culture
- What is Canadian Culture?
- Who Are These People? Looking at West African Lives
- Building on Cultural Strengths
- Working Effectively in Rural Areas

This unit examines the elements of culture and probes how these elements can affect development planning and project implementation. The section begins with two exercises designed to help students see culture in a neutral or Canadian context before examining it in an African framework. The last three use case studies that will help students understand Africans and their culture, its strengths as well as its weaknesses, from a more human and holistic perspective.

DVD Connections: At the heart of any effective development project is an understanding and accommodation of the cultural context in which it operates. This principle is illustrated in the DVD, where successful examples of development projects are discussed in terms of how they complement and utilize the cultural patterns that operate in the communities. Note also that the last three activities are adaptations of exercises used in the WARD training and incorporate real case studies of West Africans, their communities, and why projects sometimes fall apart.

British Columbia Curriculum Connections: Socials 8-11, English 11 &12

Unit 7 – Human Development

This unit contains:

- Defining Human Development
- The Purpose of Literacy
- The Social Context of Literacy
- Life Expectancy
- Disease and its Impact on Africa
- The Impact of Malaria
- The HIV/AIDS Pandemic
- GDP Per Capital Economics

The activities in this unit help students develop a critical understanding of the three elements of the United Nations Human Development Index (HDI): per capita GDP, literacy rate, and life expectancy. But the unit uses these only as a starting point, looking at the elements in a larger social, economic and historical context. As well, related issues such as disease – with an emphasis on malaria and HIV/AIDS – are examined in to help students better understand their impact on economic, social and human development in Africa as well as how they affect Africans' quality of life.

DVD Connections: Since human development and community development are inextricably linked, this unit relates to and expands on almost all issues presented in the documentary, including health and health care, poverty reduction, and relevant skills acquisition.

British Columbia Curriculum Connections: Social Studies 8-11, English 11 & 12

Unit 8 – Gender and Development

The following are activities in the Gender and Development unit:

- Why Gender?
- Occupations Over Time
- Take a Stand on Sex and Gender
- All in a Day's Work
- Gender and Development Case Studies: A SWOT Analysis

This unit takes on the critical and controversial issue of gender. Westerners are often baffled at the role of women in many traditional societies and why women accept these. This unit attempts to view gender roles as a part of culture, always changing and adapting. The first activity begins by having students look at how gender roles have changed dramatically in the last three generations even in Canada, and they are also challenged to look at – and discuss – their own attitudes toward gender roles in Take a Stand. The final two exercises look at the difficulties women often face in rural Africa, sometimes humorously, using actual case studies.

DVD Connection: One of the major themes in the documentary is the importance of women in any successful development initiative. One of the NGOs visited, the Agency for the Development of Women and Children (ADWAC), is committed to the issue of improving the role of women in Gambian society, and illustrates the challenges and importance of this undertaking. The activities in this unit expand on this critical topic.

British Columbia Curriculum Connections: Socials 8-11, English 11 &12, History 12

Unit 9 – Aid and Development Assistance

The following are unit in the Aid and Development Assistance unit:

- About Aid
- Does Aid Matter?
- Non-Governmental Organizations and Development Assistance
- UN Millennium Development Goals
- CIDA and Development Aid

These activities deal with the Development Aid and how it is applied to The Gambia and Africa in general. Questions are posed in these activities about how much aid should be given, what type of aid is provided and who provides the aid. These activities will not only inform the students about aid development provided by Canada, and the world, but also engage them in conversations about what might be better or more effective methods of providing aid.

DVD connections: The DVD discusses the non-governmental organization The West African Rural Development Agency (WARD) and the aid it provides to The Gambia. This information is provided in the DVD activity questions. As well CIDA is discussed and the DVD and the aid it provides WARD and The Gambia.

British Columbia Curriculum Connections: Social Studies 11 and English 11

Appendices

- A. Building Global Community
- B. Canadian Aid Organizations Working in Africa
- C. Additional Resources

Questions to Accompany the Documentary

Use the online sources, <u>http://www.ward.gm</u>/ and https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/index.html to help answer the following questions.

- 1. Describe the location of The Gambia in Africa.
- 2. How many people live in The Gambia?
- 3. What is The Gambia's population density?
- 4. What is the size of the country in square kilometers?
- 5. How is CIDA involved in helping people in The Gambia?
- 6. Where does Jorjo Drammeh receive her funding to work as a social worker in The Gambia? Who trained her?
- 7. What is WARD?
- 8. Who is Don Sawyer?
- 9. What are students learning in the WARD program?
- 10. Who is Alpha Jallow?
- 11. What does Alpha Jallow say the WARD program will do, specifically, for the people of The Gambia?
- 12. What does Saikou Touray say WARD has done for him?
- 13. What percentage of Gambians live in the countryside?
- 14. Why is the focus of WARD on rural development?
- 15. Describe education and schooling in rural Gambia.
- 16. Why do women need to be more actively included in the development of The Gambia?
- 17. How was the daily activity grid used in the documentary? What were the main activities that took up the women's time each day?
- 18. On average, how many children are born to every woman in The Gambia?
- 19. What is the mortality rate for children under five years of age in The Gambia?
- 20. What is the mortality rate for children under five in Canada?
- 21. Describe the state of health care in rural Gambia.
- 22. Why did Touray's father deny him a western-style education?

Extension Questions

- 1. What was your first visual impression of The Gambia? Provide several descriptive sentences about what you saw in the video.
- 2. What is urban drift? What percentage of the population in developing countries now live in cities? Given the appalling conditions in most cities in developing countries, why do so many rural people move to urban areas?
- 3. What is WARD doing for students in its program in The Gambia? What are they learning? Why is the focus of WARD rural development?
- 4. Why does Saikou Touray feel people need to be "on board" for development in The Gambia to succeed? Why does he feel development must be from the "bottom up" or from the "grassroots?"
- 5. Choose a recent development in your community. Was the community involved in the decision making process? Describe whether or not it was a "grassroots" development.
- 6. What is "community animation?" Provide an example of how community animation would be applied in your community.
- 7. What was your overall impression of the WARD program in The Gambia? Will it be successful in future? Explain why or why not.
- 8. At the end of the documentary, the narrator comments, "Maybe Canada has something to learn from The Gambia?" What does she mean? Is she right?
- 9. What does "development" mean? How is The Gambia underdeveloped? How is it "developed." What about Canada?
- 10. How do the cultural beliefs and attitudes of The Gambia hamper human development? How can they be an asset?

Unit 2 – Historical and Cultural Context

The history of Africa, the second largest continent on the globe, is arguably more complex, fascinating and deep than that of any other region on earth. The birthplace of modern man, all of us can trace our origins back to Africa; the latest evidence suggests that the ancestors of all non-African human groups burst out of Africa about 80,000 years ago. Of the approximately 6,000 languages spoken in the world, about 1/3 are in Africa.

Despite this, according to David Morris, a South African anthropologist, to the extent that African history was acknowledged at all, it was viewed, as late as 1965 in *The Oxford History of South Africa*, "the unrewarding gyrations of barbarous tribes in picturesque but irrelevant corners of the globe." But with new interest in the "universal human story," new attention is being paid to Africa, not only in terms of its archaeological significance, but for its own history, civilization and cultural richness. The names of great empires – Mali, Oba, Fulani, Ashanti, Songhai – have begun to emerge as we take the time to better understand the roots of current Africa. We are just beginning to recognize the key role of Sub-Saharan African empires in controlling vast, well-established trading systems into North Africa and the resulting cultural exchanges. We're becoming more aware of the African development of exquisite pottery styles, brass and iron smelting, agriculture and weaving technology.

So why has the stereotype of African history as the "gyrations of barbarous tribes" endured? The answer is complex, but in large part is due to the European colonial exploitation of the continent and, especially with the slave trade, to maintain the myth of Africans as hopelessly backward and even semi-human. Any honest reading of the struggles of Africa in the contemporary era recognizes the horrors of the slave trade, which saw as many as 15 million people sent to plantations in the new world, a depletion from which African has still not recovered.

Nor can it ignore the so-called "Scramble for Africa" that reached its frenzy at the Berlin Conference of 1884-85, a scramble that not only carved Africa into arbitrary and politically disastrous colonies, but also introduced brutality and exploitation on a horrific scale. (During his reign, King Leopold of Belgium was responsible for the death of half of all people living in the Congo through his ruthless enslavement of Africans to work in his personal rubber plantations. Leopold also introduced the charming practice of cutting off the hands of workers who did not meet quotas or violated minor rules.)

Today, fed by unrelenting TV fundraising campaigns by charities dependent on donations from the guilty and shocked; reporting on Africa limited to wars, corruption, disease and famine; and an almost total blackout of analysis of contemporary Africa and its historical roots, most Canadians – and nearly all Canadian high school students – continue to harbor some version of the "barbarous tribes" concept of Africa.

Not only is this inaccurate, it is terribly damaging. An appreciation for how current problems – in Africa and elsewhere – almost always have clear socio-political roots at the heart of history and greater global understanding. And we are both complicit in and affected by Africa's situation. Not only have we profoundly contributed to Africa's predicament (and continue to do so), but what happens in Africa inevitably has an effect on us. Until we see the issues of Africa as ours,
there is little hope of creating a world based on greater equity, mutual appreciation and understanding

The heart of this introductory section on Africa, its problems, and their social and historical roots is an article by Canadian Africa specialist Gerald Caplan. A former professor at the University of Toronto, Caplan has many years of experience in Africa as part of CUSO, an investigator of the Rwandan genocide, a senior expert with the United Nations, and a consultant for the Economic Commission for Africa, UNICEF, the World Health Organization, and the African Union. He is a personal friend and professional colleague of Stephen Lewis.

Unit 2 – Context

Activity 1: "The Conspiracy against Africa": An historical and political overview

<u>Purpose:</u> To provide students with a compact but comprehensive overview of the problems Africa faces and its historical and contemporary roots

Time: Variable

<u>Materials:</u>

- Copy of article *The Conspiracy against Africa* for each student
- Flip chart and markers
- Access to research tools

Notes on Use:

This may be a challenging article for some students, especially those with weaker reading skills, but the effort is well worth the payoff. Caplan begins with an unflinching look at the problems Africa faces, problems students know all too well, but then takes the reader through a systematic, informed and comprehensive examination of how these issues are related to historical, colonial and more contemporary economic policies. Despite its relative brevity, it is as a remarkably thorough look at these very complex issues and will provide your students with a strong starting point for examining Africa, international development, colonialism, globalization, and the issues presented in the DVD, *The Gambia: Communities in Action*.

1. Adapting for the weaker reader:

- Review the article, summarizing it, substituting less difficult vocabulary, simplifying sentence construction and providing a less difficult version for easier reading.
- Form students into groups of four or five that combine stronger and weaker readers. Have the groups read the article aloud, alternating readers, with stronger readers taking more reading responsibility and assisting other students with unfamiliar terms and vocabulary. This can also be done in pairs.
- Read the article aloud yourself, as students follow along in their print copies. Have students circle unfamiliar vocabulary and note questions in the margins as you read. Pause periodically to check comprehension and answer questions.

2. General strategies for using the article:

• Pre-reading vocabulary study. Identify key terms and vocabulary in the article and provide vocabulary sheet with terms defined (see Unit 5, Glossary of Economic Terms).

- Prior to reading, place key terms on 3x5 cards. Read terms aloud, asking if students are familiar with the term. If so, have a volunteer define the term. Discuss until class is comfortable with the concept or term, and place it in the "Defined" pile. If students are not familiar with the term or you feel the definitions are inadequate, place the card in the "Need More Information" pile. When you have gone through the cards, list the terms that need further research. Assign to individual students or pairs a term for research, definition and reporting.
- Use a three-step reading approach: 1) Students begin by reading the article on their own, noting questions and circling unfamiliar terms in the text. 2) Form students into small groups of about four and have them go over the questions individual group members generated and help each other define unfamiliar terms. Have group note questions and terms they were unable to resolve. 3) Have students reform as a class and discuss the results of the small group discussions. What questions did the group focus on? What ideas did they discuss? What questions would they like to bring to the large group? What terms did they struggle with? Then review the article noting key areas for clarification and further exploration.
- Caplan uses an inductive approach that begins with the problems of Africa and then proceeds to illustrate their historical, economic and social causes. Divide a flip chart into three columns:

African Problem	Historical Causes	Contemporary Causes

As you debrief the first section that delineates the many problems Africa faces, have students volunteer issues and problems Caplan notes in his essay. List these in the left-hand column. Then, as he proceeds to analyze these issues in an historical and contemporary context, list the factors he identifies as contributing to each problem and place them in the appropriate columns. This will help student see the cause-effect relationship more clearly and gain a better understanding of the complexity of these issues, their deep historical roots, and contemporary economic and political factors that maintain or even exacerbate them.

Extension Questions and Research Topics

This article introduces a great deal of information specific to Africa, but also relevant to any discussion of international development, global citizenry and development economics, and world history. Here are some ideas for using the article for further student research and discussion, individually or in small groups. These notes can also be useful in debriefing the article and having students focus on key concepts and ideas presented.

- Caplan notes that of the 177 countries in the UNDP's Human Development Index (HDI), the bottom 24 are African. What is the HDI? What criteria does it use for ranking nations? Where is Canada? Why might African countries so dominate the lower tiers of the HDI?
- The article names a number of what he calls "monstrous" tyrants: Mobutu, Idi Amin, Abacha, Bokassa, Sam Doe, Charles Taylor, Mugabe, Habre, Mengistu, Moi, Bashir.

Research the lives and deeds of these men. Who were/are they? How did they fail their countries? What made them that way?

- Caplan states that "Africa is in a mess and it's not going to get better anytime soon." What factors does he cite to illustrate the "mess" Africa finds itself in? Why is it unlikely the situation will improve in the near future?
- Caplan states that "the most depressing phenomenon is the situation of girls and women [in Africa]." He goes on to say that life for most "African girls and women is truly Hobbesian." What does he mean by this? Do you agree?
- In answering his question, "How do we account for Africa's plight, and what can be done?" Caplan says "Westerners are a very substantial part of the problem and have been for years." How has the developed West contributed to Africa's problems? Pick one factor and research it and its impact on African nations.
- Caplan points out that Africa had strong culture before the arrival of Westerners. "We'll never know the outcome had Africa been permitted to develop on its own skills and resources, as Europe was, but it was allowed no such luxury." Based on Caplan's article and other research on pre-contact African culture, project where Africa would be today without the disruption of Western colonialism.
- "History matters," Caplan writes, "and for Africa the slave trade and colonialism matter enormously in understanding its subsequent evolution. In many respects the continent has never recovered from either." Research the slave trade and its impact on Africa. Even though the active slave trade ended over 150 years ago, what has been the negative legacy of the slave trade on the people and nations of Africa?
- Read about the 1884-85 Congress of Berlin and the Scramble for Africa. What was the purpose of the Congress? What was the impact on Europe? On Africa?
- Ghana became the first independent sub-Saharan country in 1957. Research the emergence of Ghana as an independent nation. What obstacles did the nationalists face? What problems did they encounter after independence? How are these typical of other newly independent countries?
- Colonialism meant "dictatorship, violence, coercion, oppression, forced taxation and racial humiliation." How have these elements of colonialism continued to shape contemporary Africa?
- Read King Leopold's Ghost, a gripping account of the Belgian rape of the Congo in the late nineteenth and early 20th centuries. Give a book report to the class as a whole, outlining the nature of Belgian colonial rule and its aftermath.
- Caplan points out that the European colonization of Africa created artificial and arbitrary nation states, imposed new and alien government systems, developed little or no national identity, used minority tribes as colonial administrators, and demonstrated how control of the state could be used as a "means to reward the rulers' ethnic followers and to exploit, oppress or ignore all others." How did these policies serve to inflame tribal conflicts and lead to tyranny and political instability after independence?

- The article demonstrates how political parties in many African countries tend to form along tribal and ethnic lines rather than ideology. How has colonialism helped create that situation? How do tribally-oriented politics affect the development of strong democratic institutions and practices? Why is this problem more acute in Africa than in other nations?
- Caplan says that contemporary Africa is an "old pattern under new circumstances." Who are the post-colonial players? How do they maintain old patterns of exploitation and disempowerment?
- Caplan says that the enduring attitude in the West is that "Africa is the problem; the West is the solution" and that Western countries have to "save African from itself." What kind of aid policies would emerge from this sort of thinking? What political attitudes would prevail? What would the attitude be to indigenous institutions and practices?
- In the article Caplan states that "Hardly a single rogue government would have attained power, and remained in office, without the active support of one or another Western government, primarily the US and France." Examine the history of The Democratic Republic of the Congo (formerly Zaire). How does Zaire's post-colonial history illustrate this statement?
- Caplan points out that each year "More money flows out of Africa...in the form of debt service payments than goes into Africa in the form of aid." Research the issue of the "African debt crisis," its origins, effects, and current status.
- Caplan lays much of the blame for the "African mess" on the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and World Bank policies. Research the IMF and World Bank. When were they created? For what purpose? How do they operate today?
- IMF Structural Adjustment Programs (SAPs) come in for particularly harsh criticism. What were SAPs? What were they intended to do? What were the actual results? Why did African nations accept them? What is their equivalent today?
- Because of the nature of investment in Africa, primarily the extraction of raw materials, Caplan points out that it tends to do more harm than good. He sites the following problems with this kind of investment: no or very low tax payments, creates little or no infrastructure, pay low wages, encourages corruption, causes great environmental damage, leads to greater political destabilization, and fuels local conflicts. What sort of international investment would truly benefit Africa and Africans? What kinds of regulations on investment in developing countries should be maintained and who should monitor and enforce them?
- Yet another cause of Africa's difficulties is the "brain drain," which is one of the major reasons for inadequate health care and education provision in African countries. Complete an inventory of doctors and nurses in your community. How many have come from other countries? Which countries are most represented? Why did the medical professionals immigrate to Canada? How has their departure affected their home countries?
- Unfair Western subsidies, especially on agricultural products, which according to Caplan amounts to \$1 billion a day, has a terrible impact on Africa both in terms of food self-sufficiency and international trade. Why would these subsidies have such a negative effect? Why don't African nations subsidize their own products or impose tariffs on Western imports?

- In 1970, the developed countries of the world promised to give .07% of their Gross Domestic Product (GDP) for overseas development aid (ODA). What countries have met this target? How much does Canada donate? The US? Why have so few countries met their target?
- What other problems with international aid does Caplan cite (e.g., use for debt relief, politically motivated, tied aid). Research these issues and describe how they affect aid effectiveness.
- Caplan says Africa faces a "permanent tsunami." What does he mean by this?
- Despite everything, Caplan still sees hope. In the table below note the "Dos" and "Don'ts" he cites in terms of real African development:

African Development "Dos"	African Development "Don'ts"
 African Development "Dos" Support efforts leading to genuine democracy and transparency Support local groups and NGOs fighting for social justice, clean government, children's rights, and protecting the environment Support efforts toward gender equity, especially with organizations working at the grassroots level Focus on advocacy groups promoting the rule of law and a free press Provide adequate and properly administered assistance Promote local solutions to local problems 	 African Development "Don'ts" Use discredited WTO, IMF, and WB "free market nostrums" Dump surplus food and other goods Force down prices of commodities on the world market through subsidies Promote growth without redistribution Accept tax havens where corrupt leaders can hide their bribes Strip Africa of its non-renewable resources Continue the "brain drain" by actively recruiting professionals working in Africa Charge prohibitive prices for drugs

• Caplan makes it clear that providing real, substantial and meaningful financial aid is not charity. Instead he says we would just be paying back "the incalculable debt we owe Africa, compensation for crises, conflicts, exploitation, atrocities, and underdevelopment for which we bear so much responsibility." Organize a debate with a negative and affirmative. Research and debate the following resolution:

"The developed world is morally obligated to give back to Africa what we have looted and plundered."

Debriefing:

The intent of this activity is to provide an overview of Africa, its problems and their complex historical roots, and the contemporary policies that are aggravating the situation. A great deal of information is provided. As you debrief, ask students what they have learned about the problems of Africa and how the West, presently as well as in the past, has and continues to contribute to these problems. What did they know about African history before they read the article? (You might want to have begun the unit with a simple pre-test: "What do you know or think you

know about Africa?") What did they learn? What surprised them? How does what happen in Africa affect us? How does what we do affect Africa? What strategies and solutions do you advocate for contributing to the solution of Africa's problems?

This introduction can be used as a follow-up or introduction to the DVD, *The Gambia: Communities in Action.* As an introduction, use the program to generate a list of challenges that face Africans and how they are coping with them. Contrast this list with the issues presented in the Caplan article. How are they the same? Different? Which one is more hopeful? Why? As a follow-up, use the program to illustrate the issues presented in the article – gender inequity, inadequate health care, poverty, local NGO effectiveness -- and the action Africans are taking to deal effectively with them.



The Conspiracy against Africa

Africa is a mess and it's not going to get better any time soon. That's the awful truth that's so hard to face —or to state publicly —for those of us who have had a long, intimate relationship with the continent. Mine has lasted for almost forty-five years. But from the very start, my experiences in Africa began conflicting with my hopes, indicating trouble afoot, foretelling that our utopian dreams were going to lead to crushing disappointments. Of course, we should have known what the entire twentieth century taught: that all utopian dreams fail, not least those wrapped in progressive rhetoric. Still, the reality in so much of Africa has been infinitely more appalling than anything we might have feared.

The regret, disappointment, even the cynicism runs deep, but alongside the many wonderful, committed, and dedicated Africans I know from one end of Africa to the other, the struggle for a more just and equitable continent must continue. All too often it feels like a Sisyphean task.

Besides the fear of spreading hopelessness, there's a genuine risk in publicly facing Africa's mess. Reasonably enough, Westerners of goodwill want to know how to account for Africa's apparently endless list of problems. But behind the question often lurks the unspoken implication that the answer has to do with race: are Africans really incapable of governing themselves?

Most people are aware of the African condition: corruption, conflict, famine, aids, wretched governance, grinding poverty. At the time of its independence in 1957, Ghana — the second sub-Saharan African country to free itself of colonial rule and the white hope (as it were) of the emerging continent — was in development terms on a par with South Korea, near the bottom of the scale. Today, the United Nations' Human Development Index ranks South Korea twenty-eighth among 177 nations, Ghana 138th. For many, this is a vivid and fair symbol of the African record in the past half-century.

My own direct experiences have overwhelmingly been with Africans from what is usually called sub-Saharan Africa. Arab North Africa seems, in many ways, a separate continent. I ran into troubling omens from my first immersion in Africa as a graduate student in London in the early 1960s. When I was working on my doctorate at the University of London's School of Oriental and African Studies, one of my friends was Gilchrist Olympio, from Togo, a tiny former French colony in West Africa. Gil failed to appear one day, and on the following day we read in the Times that his father, the first president of independent Togo, had been ousted in the first coup of post-colonial Africa. No one had foreseen the military threat to the new Africa, yet soon enough military governments became as commonplace as the heat.

In white-ruled Southern Rhodesia (now Zimbabwe), where I was based for part of my doctoral work, a few of us used to unwind at a dance hall in one of the segregated African townships. After two years of teaching, researching, and regularly demonstrating against the government, I was arrested. Later, I learned that the racist security service

knew every rocking Congo jive number I ever danced to and that African informers had been paid to keep an eye on us white liberal troublemakers. In Zambia, living by the Upper Zambezi River, the traditional elite of an anachronistic kingdom struck an alliance with South African apartheid leaders against the new nationalist government of Kenneth Kaunda — another shocking lesson to a nice ignorant boy from Toronto. In 1968, back in Canada, I hosted a zapu "freedom fighter" from Rhodesia, only to listen to him viciously badmouth the competing liberation movement, zanu, composed mainly of members of Rhodesia's other major ethnic group. He could not have detested his white oppressors more. Much later still, I marvelled at another bitter irony — that I had gone to prison in old Rhodesia to help Robert Mugabe become president of Zimbabwe.

From the relative comfort of Toronto, I became deeply involved in a Canadian advocacy group supporting the right of the Igbo people of eastern Nigeria to secede. Soon after independence Nigeria was already in chaos, having undergone murderous coups and internecine conflict among its three main peoples, and now the majority were prepared to starve the entire Igbo "nation" to death rather than allow it to secede. I soon realized that the Igbo never had a chance, and that the leadership, with our blind support, was prepared to see its people starve to death for a wholly chimerical cause.

Ten years on, I was the director of the CUSO volunteer program in Nigeria, where more than 200 Canadians served as low-paid teachers, nurses, physiotherapists, and the like. Then, as now, Nigeria's reputation on the continent was unique, and overwhelmingly awful. Despite many marvellous Nigerians, collectively the country is belligerent, fractious, and always on the verge of erupting into violence. I feared that many of my young wards would return home as confirmed racists. The problem was convincingly explaining to them why Nigeria is the way it is.

Now the task is explaining why almost all of Africa is the way it is. Finding myself plunged into a study of the 1994 Rwandan genocide and its aftermath, the calamitous wars of the neighbouring Democratic Republic of the Congo, does not make the task any easier. Not much does. I was frequently in Addis Ababa early in this new century as two of the world's poorest countries, Ethiopia and Eritrea, former allies led by promising new leaders, slaughtered each other's young soldiers over an economic disagreement. Rural Ethiopia faced a desperate famine, and the government appealed to the world for relief; at the same time, the markets of Addis sold a gorgeous abundance of fresh fruits and vegetables, and in luxury hotels the sumptuous buffets never ran out. During most African famines, people starve because of a lack of money, not a lack of food. In December 2005, I spoke at a series of conferences and marches across Canada about the Lord's Resistance Army in Uganda, the quasi-genocide in Darfur, and the instability still threatening the Great Lakes region of Africa. It seems as if the horror stories never stop.

Writing in 2001, BBC correspondent George Alagiah noted that since independence there have been over eighty violent or unconstitutional changes of government, and in twenty countries such eruptions have been repeat occurrences. In A Passage to Africa, Alagiah concludes that it is in the nature of African politics that by the time any such statistics are published they are likely to be out of date. Indeed, over the years African leaders have become synonymous with monstrous tyranny —Mobutu, Idi Amin, Abacha, Bokassa, Sam Doe, Charles Taylor, Mugabe, Habre, Mengistu, Moi, Bashir. The list is very long. It is not possible to calculate the millions of people murdered by these men, or the amount of suffering they caused, or the amount of money they stole: Africans slaughtering Africans,

Africans immiserating other Africans, Africans brutally exploiting other Africans. None of this is in dispute.

Nor is the corruption so widely associated with Africa an exaggeration. Police, civil servants, even teachers regularly demand bribes in order to make ends meet on their meager salaries; the well-connected are just insatiably greedy. According to a muchquoted report prepared for the African Union, African elites steal \$148 billion (all figures US) a year from their fellow citizens while national budgets often total less than \$1 billion a year. African countries routinely dominate Transparency International's Corruption Perception indices; predatory African leaders have clearly turned the skill of manipulating political systems to their own advantage into a fine art. Africa is not a poor continent, and not all Africans are poor. Merrill Lynch's World Wealth Report for 2006 calculates that there are 82,000 African millionaires—a mere bagatelle out of some billion people, but surely a surprising number nonetheless. Their total worth is \$786 billion. But instead of providing moderate prosperity for all, many African nations are the most unequal places on earth. You see it immediately: the gated communities and guarded monster homes of expatriates and local elites right next to mile upon mile of squalid townships with their tiny hovels, filthy water, open sewers, piles of rubbish. Even the rich can't escape the broken roads, the ubiquitous garbage, the gridlocked traffic, the suicidal drivers, the gangs of feckless young men, the beggars so thick on the ground that even liberals keep the windows closed in their air-conditioned SUVs.

These are the external signs of the larger economic reality. Of the 177 countries on the UNDP's Human Development Index, the bottom twenty-four are all African, as are thirtysix of the bottom forty. Most of these countries can't be expected to improve their lot because they lack the basic institutions and capital needed to develop. Future generations will likely be more numerous, poorer, less educated, and more desperate. According to the Economic Commission for Africa's flagship Economic Report on Africa 2005, African poverty "is chronic and rising. The share of the total population living below the \$1 a day threshold is higher today than in the 1980s and 1990s — this despite significant improvements in the growth of African GDP in recent years. The implication: poverty has been unresponsive to economic growth. Underlying this trend is the fact that the majority of people have no jobs or secure sources of income."

Forty thousand branches of international aid agencies now operate throughout Africa. Many make a significant contribution through small local projects. Yet as American travel writer Paul Theroux found when he returned to areas where he had worked as a Peace Corps volunteer in the 1960s, virtually everywhere today things are shabbier and less hopeful than they were four decades earlier. Who can resist sharing Theroux's disillusion about foreign aid or his dour overall view of the continent forty years later?

In the face of these disappointing developments, African leaders continue to bring shame on their countries. South Africa's Thabo Mbeki and his barking-mad minister of health are undermining serious attempts to deal with one of the world's greatest aids crises. Zimbabwe's Robert Mugabe has systematically devastated his country. In Malawi, which ranks 165 of 177 on the Human Development Index, the newly elected "reform" president chose the huge legislative building for his official residence, bought a halfmillion-dollar Chrysler Maybach 62 (and, in so doing, kept up with the reckless king of impoverished, aids-ridden Swaziland), and was to have an official portrait painted at a cost of \$800,000. Uganda's Yoweri Museveni, a long-time favourite of the US and Britain and head of state for twenty years, changed the constitution so that he could run for a third time. He had his leading opponent charged with treason and rape. It is as if these men are deliberately seeking to humiliate their continent in the eyes of the world.

Failed or ruined non-states are commonplace. ANGOla, Liberia, Burundi, Sierra Leone, Ivory Coast, Central African Republic, southern Sudan, and the Republic of Congo are all emerging from ghastly fighting, all of it internally driven. The challenges each faces even to reach normal levels of African underdevelopment border on the intractable. Conflicts of varying degrees of destructiveness continue in western Sudan (Darfur), between Sudan and Chad, in northern Uganda with the Lord's Resistance Army, in Somalia, throughout the vast Democratic Republic of the Congo (aided and abetted by Rwanda and Uganda). Nigeria is in a state of imminent implosion. The resumption of war between Ethiopia and Eritrea is a distinct possibility. Across southern Africa, the spread of HIV/aids threatens the very existence of Lesotho, Swaziland, Botswana, and Zambia; South Africa, whose well-being is key to Africa's future, has more HIV/AIDS sufferers than anywhere else on earth save for India.

Perhaps the most depressing phenomenon is the situation of girls and women. Many African countries boast the most egalitarian protocols and regulations imaginable promoting the status of women. Rwanda's parliament has a higher percentage of women members than any other country in the world. Africa has produced a significant number of powerhouse women as well as impressive feminist NGOs. Yet the distance between this development and the reality facing the majority of African women seems unbridgeable. In many African countries, in fact, women have no rights at all — they are regarded by customary law as minors, their lives in the hands of their husbands. >From legal status to education to manual labour to social obligations to family responsibilities to sexual victimization, life for many, perhaps most, African girls and women is truly Hobbesian.

This portrait, of course, is not the entire reality of Africa today. The continent is endlessly diverse, and all generalizations have exceptions. Hundreds of millions of Africans are just like the majority of people everywhere — hardworking, trying to cope, and full of the multiple complexities of our species. Nonetheless, it's virtually impossible not to be stunned by the pages and pages of horrid news that constitute the reality of modern-day Africa in a way that's not true of any other part of the world. In the forty-odd years since my first visit, the dream of a continent that would show the rest of us new possibilities for the human condition has turned into a grotesque nightmare.

How do we account for Africa's plight and what should be done? The conventional wisdom is that the problem is African and the solution is for the rich, white Western world to save Africa from itself, its leaders, its appetites, and its apparent incapacity for civilization. We give, they take. We're active and entrepreneurial, they're passive and dependent. We help, they're helpless.

There is in this neat equation more than a hint of centuries-old racist attitudes toward Africans, our era's version of the white man's burden. But there's an alternative perspective on the "African problem," one that is not nearly as self-congratulatory and dishonest. This interpretation says that rather than being the solution to Africa's plight, Westerners are a very substantial part of the problem and have been for centuries. None of this condones or justifies African malfeasance. But it does help to explain it and to indicate different directions that need to be taken if Africa is to find its path to a better future.

The very notion of Africa as "the dark continent" - dark in skin colour, in obscurity, in primitivism—is a major distortion of historical reality. Over the millennia before colonialism, sub-Saharan Africa was home to a series of great civilizations. Mali, Bornu, Fulani, Dahomey, Ashanti, Songhay, Zimbabwe, Axum — all powerful empires that made their mark on the world. Here is Basil Davidson, the British historian who did much to rescue Africa's remarkable history from oblivion and Western derision: "The great lords of the Western Sudan grew famous far outside Africa for their stores of gold, their lavish gifts, their dazzling regalia and ceremonial display. When the most powerful of the emperors of Mali passed through Cairo on pilgrimage to Mecca in the fourteenth century, he ruined the price of the Egyptian gold-based *dinar* for several years by his presents and payments of unminted gold to courtiers and merchants." No one who has seen the underground churches of Lalibela in northern Ethiopia or the magnificent bronze and brass Ife sculptures of western Nigeria can doubt the extraordinary potential of African technology and creativity. For much of its history, Europe had little to surpass these achievements. We'll never know the outcome had Africa been permitted to develop based on its own skills and resources, as Europe was, but it was allowed no such luxury.

History matters, and for Africa the slave trade and colonialism matter enormously in understanding its subsequent evolution. In many respects the continent has never recovered from either. Enlightenment Europe had guns and ships, and it unleashed them against Africa. The slave trade ended barely 150 years ago, three and a half centuries in which an estimated twenty million Africans — an astonishing proportion of the continent's population — were uprooted from their lands. Perhaps twelve million finally arrived alive, and their labour enabled the development of both the United States and Europe, a relationship between Africa and the West that has remained largely unaltered. Arab slavers shipped millions more Africans out of eastern Africa. The continent was left reeling.

Hard on the heels of the slave trade came full-blown Western colonialism, institutionalized with the "scramble for Africa" at the Congress of Berlin in 1884-85. Undeterred by ignorance and driven by greed and racism, Europe's leaders blithely partitioned almost the entire continent among themselves. To this day, probably every single border in Africa arbitrarily divides at least one ethnic or cultural group. South Africa has been free from white rule for only a dozen years, and until their very last moments of power, the white minority kept nearly 40 percent of the continent destabilized. From Angola, Zambia, and Tanzania south, no normal governance was possible while apartheid wielded its formidable power. The rest of the continent has been independent for a mere forty to forty-five years, and every country endured colonialism for many decades longer than it's been independent.

The paternalistic fashion of the moment is to rhapsodize about the good old colonial days. What Africa needs, we are told, is a form of benign colonialism or liberal imperialism. British scholar Niall Ferguson, for example, has gained prominence arguing that imperialism was the greatest thing that could have happened to Africa (and Asia). Nothing could be further from the truth. Colonialism by definition and in practice was based on dictatorship, violence, coercion, oppression, forced taxation, and daily racial humiliation. Not a single colonial power — France, Germany, Britain, Portugal, Belgium, Italy —is innocent. Look at King Leopold's Congo: half of its twenty million people dead. In the name of bringing civilization to Africa, Belgium introduced the practice of amputating arms as punishment, an abomination replicated a century later by Africans in Sierra Leone's civil war. The list of atrocities perpetrated by Europeans is long and bloody

— Belgian-like tactics emulated in the surrounding French and Portuguese colonies, Germany's genocide against the Herero people of South West Africa (now Namibia), the blatant theft of land by Afrikaners and Cecil Rhodes's British-backed gang of marauders across southern Africa, the wars of the British in the Gold Coast, the cruelty of the Portuguese in Angola and Mozambique, the indiscriminate slaughter of Ethiopians by Italy. In today's terms, every single European power in Africa was guilty of multiple crimes against humanity.

Africa's partition by European powers was implemented with a fine disdain for existing realities. Families, clans, ethnic groups, and nations were all divided from each other in a purely arbitrary manner. Those unrelated to each other suddenly found themselves locked together under new and alien governments. For many Africans, identifying with artificial colonial constructs made little sense. The imposition of new nations in Africa served to reinforce original ties of ethnicity or clan. Identifying with these new artificial colonial constructs made little sense; rather than adopting Nigerian or Rwandan or Kenyan nationality, they found it more natural to reaffirm their identities as Yoruba or Hutu or Luo. Paradoxically, then, the imposition by Europe of new nations in Africa served instead to reinforce ties of ethnicity or clan.

In most colonies, with only a tiny number of whites actually on hand, indirect rule prevailed. The European occupier, frequently in collaboration with Christian missionaries, privileged a particular group to help administer the new territory, invariably causing the hapless majority to deeply resent the chosen minority. Together with the meaningless boundaries, such divide-and-rule strategies undermined loyalty to the new nation. Instead, as the end of colonial rule and the emergence of independent African governments drew nearer, the state came to be seen as an ethnic preserve rather than a national entity. Control of the state became the means to reward the rulers' ethnic followers and to exploit, oppress, or ignore all others.

This phenomenon is still prevalent. Political parties and liberation movements became and often remain— the instruments of specific ethnic groups. This made untenable the notion of a loyal opposition that could form a new government after winning a free election. It would be tantamount to turning the state over to an illegitimate, antagonistic, and hitherto excluded ethnic group. For the loser, surrendering control of the instruments of the state meant losing everything under a new ethnicity-based government. The role of government came to be seen not as developing the entire nation but as maintaining the loyalty of the rulers' followers and clients. Political dictatorship became the form of government most appealing to ruling groups. Conversely, violent coups to usurp those dictatorships, often led by factions within the military, seemed the logical means for marginalized groups to dislodge them. Voluntarily surrendering power was unthinkable, sometimes literally suicidal. A substantial chunk of post-independence African history, from the Biafran War to the genocide in Rwanda, can be accounted for in this way.

Much of the tumult that has engulfed Africa over the past half-century results from policies imposed by European powers during the colonial era. All metropolitan governments criminally neglected the welfare of their colonies. Colonies had one purpose only —to serve the interests of the metropole. Only when the spectre of independence finally loomed after World War II was some small thought given to local interests. Even then, until the very last moment, the Belgians in the Congo, the British in Kenya, the French in Guinea, and the Portuguese in Mozambique demonstrated all that was most malignant about colonialism.

Historian Walter Rodney caught the spirit with his powerful indictment of the colonial system, neatly summarized in the title of his 1972 book *How Europe Underdeveloped Africa*. In country after country, independence was ushered in under ethnic leaders pretending to be nationalists, in countries with minimal infrastructure or human capacity, with a heritage of violence and authoritarianism, and through structures that drained Africa's wealth and resources to the rich world.

Throughout the 1940s and 1950s, the struggle to end colonial rule spread inexorably through the Third World. In the imperial homelands, the anti-colonial movement was one of the great causes of the mid-twentieth century. Progressive internationalists were convinced that independence would open a dramatic new chapter in the history of human emancipation. Africa, especially, embodied the boundless dream of a continent that would show the world how to live without racism, violence, oppression, exploitation, and inequality. But almost everywhere, what in fact followed the raising of national flags was the continued underdevelopment of Africa. An implicit bargain was struck between the new African ruling elites and their old oppressors in Western governments, plus the corporate world, plus the new international financial institutions, to perpetuate old patterns under new circumstances.

Instead of building nations that repudiated the policies and behaviour of the colonial era, the reign of the "Big Men" spread across Africa, bringing with it terrible brutality, bottomless venality, and an almost sadistic callousness. All the while, Africa's resources continued to pour out of the continent into the coffers of the rich world. The difference now was that the new African elites—whether Jomo Kenyatta and his Kikuyu cronies in Kenya, Mobutu Sese Seko in Zaire, or the new rulers in every one of the former French African colonies save for maverick Guinea — split the plunder with their former Western overlords.

The betrayal by the new elites is not the entire story of the continent's continuing crises. For centuries Africa's history and development had been profoundly influenced by outsiders, both Europeans and Arabs, and external influence by no means disappeared with independence. And just as most of the pre-independence impact was exploitative, so has it remained. Yet the conventional wisdom remains the opposite: Africa is the problem, the West is the solution. The Blair commission on Africa, the 2005 Gleneagles summit and the Geldof/Bono singalongs are all manifestations of the West fulfilling its sacred moral obligation to save Africa from itself.

The reality is demonstrably different. The fact is the West is deeply complicit in the crises bedevilling Africa, and we're up to our necks in all manner of retrograde practices, virtual coconspirators with monstrous African Big Men in underdeveloping the continent and betraying its people. In almost every case of egregious African governance, Western powers have played a central role. Hardly a single rogue government would have attained power and remained in office without the active support of one or another Western government, primarily the United States and France, with the United Kingdom and Belgium in the game as well. And few of the conflicts that have ravaged the continent would have lasted long without the active intervention of mainly Western governments or, in certain cases, the USSR, including the promiscuous provision of weapons to any and all parties.

Both Ronald Reagan and Margaret Thatcher had soft spots for the apartheid rulers of South Africa, who were, after all, passionate fellow anti-Communists; it was Bob Woodward who exposed the close personal working relations between Bill Casey, Reagan's CIA director, and key South African government officials, including its intelligence service. In Angola and Mozambique, the US came in behind Portugal and South Africa to train and arm rebel groups against African governments. To the satisfaction of Belgian mine owners and the US, Belgium conspired with Congo secessionists to murder Patrice Lumumba, the Congo's first and only democratically elected president. France propped up an array of tinpot tyrants in nearly all its former sub-Saharan colonies, most notoriously the sadistic "Emperor" Jean Bédel Bokassa in the Central African Republic. Virtually all researchers agree that the Catholic Church and the Belgian, French, and US governments bore some of the responsibility for the Rwandan genocide.

Oil companies grow fat from the Gulf of Guinea, increasingly a source of American oil supplies, while the citizens of half a dozen countries go without lights, clean water, good health, and jobs. The US colludes with the government of Sudan in the "war on terrorism," while accusing that same government of orchestrating a genocide in Darfur. Africa's most deadly and intractable crisis, in the Democratic Republic of the Congo, has its roots in America's thirty-year unconditional support for Mobutu in Zaire (which is now the DRC).

But Western governments, international financial institutions, and transnational corporations do far more harm than merely bolstering and arming tyrannical regimes. Western commercial and financial activities in Africa, as a wealth of research by Human Rights Watch, among others, confirms, are overwhelmingly exploitative and destructive. Research carried out by the well-respected Washington-based NGO Africa Action comes to this startling conclusion: "[Africa] subsidizes the wealthy economies of the world through a net transfer of wealth in the form of payments for illegitimate debts. More money flows out of Africa each year in the form of debt service payments, than goes into Africa in the form of aid."

Southern African academic and researcher Patrick Bond looked at other variables: "Although remittances from the Diaspora now fund development and even a limited amount of capital accumulation, capital flight is far greater. At more than \$10 billion each year since the early 1970s, collectively the citizens of Nigeria, the Ivory Coast, the DRC, Angola and Zambia have been especially vulnerable to the overseas drain of their national wealth." Based on the evidence at hand and contrary to popular belief, it is likely that since the West and Africa first began their multiple interactions, more wealth has drained out of Africa to the West than has been infused into Africa by all Western sources.

In truth, not a single African country has the sovereign right to introduce policies that would significantly direct or alter its own destiny. Governments must either implement the demonstrably failed policies of the International Monetary Fund and the World Bank or forfeit aid, loans, debt relief, and general international acceptance. This is the new imperialism, or neo-colonialism, in practice. As noted by prominent American economist Jeffrey Sachs, "The IMF routinely works with the finance ministers of impoverished countries to set budget ceilings on health, education, water, sanitation, agricultural infrastructure and other basic needs, in the full knowledge that the consequence is mass suffering and death." As a Zambian pediatrician told me, for him IMF will always stand for Infant Mortality Fund.

Joseph Stiglitz, former senior vice-president of the World Bank and author of *Globalization and Its Discontents*, calls it market fundamentalism. He means the extreme

version of free-market nostrums that the IMF and World Bank, backed by Western governments, have unilaterally imposed on Africa over the past twenty-five years. These policies have overwhelmingly failed to grow African economies, but they have succeeded magnificently in increasing poverty and the gap between rich and poor, both between Africa and the West as well as within African countries. Failures when known as Structural Adjustment Policies, these same prescriptions were cynically renamed povertyreduction strategies with the same destructive consequences.

Forcing Africans to pay for schooling and health care meant that fewer went to school or attended health clinics, an outcome that apparently came as a shock to the experts at the IMF and World Bank. Imposing tight ceilings on health and school staff, slashing funds to schools, health clinics, and hospitals, and failing to maintain or expand health infrastructures, have inevitably led to deteriorating health and school systems across the continent. All these deliberately severe austerity programs were imposed at exactly the same moment the aids pandemic was surging out of control. According to the NGO Essential Action, when the World Bank demanded that Kenya begin charging \$2.15 for services at clinics for sexually transmitted diseases, attendance fell by as much as 60 percent.

At the same time, Western financiers offered generous loans to African leaders, including the most monstrous among them. Then interest rates rose usuriously, and the debt crisis became yet another component of the African reality. This crisis led to an enormous outflow of scarce capital from Africa to the West, a direct reverse transfer from the poorest of the poor to Western governments and their financial surrogates at the World Bank. According to the UN Conference on Trade and Development, between 1970 and 2002 sub-Saharan Africa received \$294 billion in loans, paid out \$268 billion in debt service, and yet still owed \$210 billion. Even while the G8 industrialized nations were promising debt relief in 2005, African countries had to surrender \$23.4 billion in interest and principal payments. The consequence for individual African countries is breathtaking. In 2003, Senegal and Malawi spent about one-third of government revenues on debtservicing. Angola and Zambia spent more on debt-servicing than they did on health care and education combined.

In a sane world, where commerce yields to justice, much of Africa's debt to Western institutions and governments would be considered odious and cancelled. Yet not even in the case of Rwanda, where a \$1-billion debt was incurred by a government largely responsible for the 1994 genocide, or of South Africa, which inherited a debt of \$22 billion from its apartheid predecessor, or in some sixteen other states left unbearable debts by their Western-backed dictators, is there discussion of unconditionally cancelling these debilitating debts. Contrast this with the Bush administration's successful call for the full cancellation of Iraq's debt incurred under Saddam Hussein.

The IMF and World Bank's Heavily Indebted Poor Countries Initiative and its successor, the Multilateral Debt Relief Initiative (G8), have delivered debt relief. However, it amounts to far less than the 100-percent debt cancellation the world was deliberately led to expect. Furthermore, in order to become or remain eligible for debt relief, all countries must comply with the same free-market policies that have already damaged Africa so brutally.

Even when it seems the West is actually investing in Africa, the reality is almost exactly the opposite. With few exceptions, Africa's fabulous natural riches — from Nigeria to Angola to Chad to eastern Congo to southern Sudan — have become a "resource curse."

Of Africa's less than 3-percent share of the world's foreign direct investment, almost all goes to extractive industries — oil, minerals (gold, diamond, coltan, platinum), and timber. Two-thirds of American capital entering Africa goes into mining and petroleum. But to label this "investment" badly distorts the concept. Although there are exceptions, in the majority of cases foreign companies pay little or no taxes, increase corruption by bribing their way to their objectives, build no lasting infrastructures, pay starvation wages, destabilize communities, become involved in local conflicts, then disappear, leaving behind an environmental and social disaster. Last year, the Guardian undertook a major investigation of resource-plundering and corruption in three African countries —Angola, Liberia, and Equatorial Guinea; their harsh conclusions led them to label the situation "The new scramble for Africa."

The bribes paid by Western companies to loot Africa's natural resources are useful reminders of what should be self-evident: it would be quite impossible for Africans to steal the quantities involved without outside help. In fact, such bribes are just one component in what Patrick Smith, editor of London's Africa Confidential magazine, calls "a system run by an international network of criminals: from the corrupt bankers in London and Geneva who launder the money; the lawyers and accountants in London and Paris who set up the front companies and trusts to collect the bribes or 'commissions'; the contract-hungry Western company directors who offer the bribes and pocket some for themselves." As Michela Wrong illustrates in her book In the Footsteps of Mr. Kurtz, the scale of theft carried out by Mobutu suggests his foreign financial backers must have been aware that much of the aid and loan monies intended for Zaire were actually destined for this African kleptocrat's Swiss bank accounts. The most conservative estimates state that Mobutu had a \$50-million nest egg when he ended his twenty-two-year reign. During the same period, Zaire's debt grew to an astonishing \$13 billion.

Natural resources and cash are by no means the only items being drained out of Africa. As it did during the slave trade, the continent is once again giving the West its most precious resource — its best, brightest, healthiest, and most productive people. In effect, African countries are using their meagre resources — often from foreign aid ostensibly aimed at "capacity building" — to train professionals who end up in Europe or North America. Thus, a good chunk of our foreign aid to Africa actually benefits us, not them.

This includes university graduates and professionals in all fields, but is most extreme in the health sector. No African country can afford to lose a single health-care professional. The US has 937 nurses per 100,000 people, Uganda has 61. Canada has 214 physicians per 100,000 people, Ghana, one of the continent's more stable countries, has 15. Collectively, African countries already fall far short of the WHO minimum standard of 250 health-care workers per 100,000 people, while the brain drain continues to suck doctors and nurses out of Africa and into the developed world.

At every step, Africa finds itself the victim of double standards. The continent is routinely forced to play by the rules of free trade though the West ignores these rules at will. According to NGO Christian Aid, sub-Saharan Africa is \$272 billion worse off thanks to the free-trade policies forced on it as a condition of receiving Western money. At the same time, the countries of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) spend \$1 billion a day in agriculture subsidies (mainly to large agribusinesses), allowing them to flood Africa with commodities at lower prices than African producers can match. This protects their own farmers and makes it virtually impossible for African products to gain a foothold in Western markets. Bizarrely enough,

it's now cheaper for a Ghanaian to buy an imported European-raised chicken than a locally raised one. According to CorpWatch, in 1992 domestic poultry farmers supplied 95 percent of the Ghanaian market; by 2001, their market share had dwindled to 11 percent. The pattern has been the same elsewhere; poor African countries lose substantial and sustainable local industries as they are forced to open their markets to cheap imports.

As for the overseas development assistance (ODA) that all Western governments include in their budgets, there's a dirty little secret about all those billions. It's not just that most countries could easily be far more generous; the real story of ODA is how much less has been delivered than almost everyone believes. Many bemoan the billions of aid dollars that have flooded into Africa over the past forty-odd years with precious little to show for it. Now recent research by the British NGO ActionAid, among others, has demonstrated the pathetic reality behind the official numbers. It's often difficult to determine what constitutes ODA in any country's budget; debt relief, for example, is often lumped in as a form of aid, and some countries still commonly receive aid money for geopolitical rather than developmental purposes, badly distorting the data. Much aid, in fact, directly benefits the donor country, as it is tied to the purchase of goods and services from the donor. This makes little sense in terms of costs or efficiency: food purchased through tied aid, for example, is 40 percent more expensive than what could be acquired through open market transactions. As a result, sub-Saharan Africa effectively loses between \$1.6 and \$2.3 billion of the annual aid it receives. Though the US and Italy are the worst offenders, Canada is not much better. By most estimates, more than half of all Canadian aid is tied to the purchase of Canadian goods and services.

Tied aid is but a manifestation of a larger category known as "phantom aid." As described by ActionAid, in addition to tied aid, phantom aid involves a "failure to target aid at the poorest countries, runaway spending on overpriced technical assistance from international consultants, tying aid to purchases from donor countries' own firms, cumbersome and ill-coordinated planning, implementation, monitoring and reporting requirements, excessive administrative costs, late and partial disbursements, double counting of debt relief, and aid spending on immigration services." All of these factors deflate the value of actual aid being delivered. Of the \$79 billion reported as aid granted by the OECD in 2004, ActionAid insists that only \$42 billion was actual aid. In real aid terms, the US spends 0.06 percent of its Gross National Income, less than one-tenth of the UN's 0.7-percent target. With the exceptions of five small northern European states, the prospect of the developed world ever reaching a real 0.7 percent of GNP in ODA is a cruel hoax. Not a single one of the large European countries is even close.

Between meagre aid, phantom aid, tied aid, and aid pilfered by recipient governments, it's far from evident how much of an impact aid actually makes on Africa. While there's little question of the benefits aid confers upon the private sector in donor countries, for Africans the consequences of the aid scam, together with other facets of the great collusion between Western and African elites, could hardly be clearer. Africa faces a permanent tsunami, almost entirely ignored by the rest of the world. Every week an estimated 130,000 Africans die of causes that, in most cases, are easily preventable. Four major killers of children are diarrhea, malaria, pneumonia, and measles; for all of these, cheap, safe, available interventions already exist.

To meet their bottomless pit of urgent needs, African governments have available resources so grossly inadequate that it's almost laughable. Many Westerners travel to Africa with more health paraphernalia than can be found in typical African clinics. When I visited a clinic in Rwanda responsible for the care of thousands of local widows who had been raped and infected with aids during the genocide, there were fewer drugs in its fridge than I had in my hotel room. In Canada, we spend annually approximately \$3,000 per capita on public and private health care; Malawi spends \$13, Rwanda \$7, Ethiopia \$5. In Canada, annual drug spending per capita is \$681; in Africa it's two bucks.

Things change. Until 1945, Europe had been a hopeless war zone for millennia. South Korea has changed beyond recognition in the past half-century. China and India are changing. And Africa will change too, though it's always been Africa's bad luck that it has no Africa of its own to exploit. What will expedite that change in the right directions?

A facile mantra is now widely recited by politicians both Western and African: African solutions for African problems. At best, that's only a half-truth. Certainly Africa's political, business, and professional elites must change. We have a new African Union — the continent's equivalent of the European Union — which already outshines the shoddy record of its predecessor, the Organization of African Unity, scornfully known as the African Dictators' Club. But as the disappointing experience of the AU forces in Darfur revealed, it is so dependent on the West for resources and is so divided by all the troublesome African fault lines — French versus English speakers, north versus south, Christian versus Muslim, South Africa versus Nigeria, terribly poor versus very poor —that it will take years before it plays a truly significant continental role. In reaction to Western demands, African governments initiated the New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD), described grandly as "a vision and strategic framework for Africa's renewal." But since NEPAD from the first has rested on discredited neo-liberal assumptions about growth and development, it is a frail reed on which to rest the continent's hopes. It's destined to play a modest role, at best, for the foreseeable future.

The best hope for Africa lies with two developments. First is the increased number of countries that are experiencing political democracy, however tenuously. Second is the emergence of local civil society groups determined to entrench the idea that governments must rule on behalf of all their citizens, not merely cronies and kin. Everywhere, local NGOs fighting for social justice, democracy, clean government, gender equity, children's rights, the environment, the rule of law, and human rights are well placed to have an impact. Many women's groups and aids support groups play an especially inspiring and often courageous role. Heaven knows it's a slow, frustrating, dangerous crusade, but you don't reverse centuries of entrenched patterns and monstrous deeds overnight. If you're looking for places where funds are well spent, here's a pretty good bet.

But whatever steps Africa takes, unless the West radically changes its role few positive results can be expected. What we should do is obvious enough: the evidence from success stories beyond Africa tells us that rejecting the dogmas and programs that the World Bank and IMF unilaterally impose on poor countries is a sine qua non of successful development and poverty reduction.

If the West were truly serious about helping Africa, it would not use the World Trade Organization as a tool of the richest against the poorest. It would not dump its surplus food and clothing on African countries. It would not force down the price of African commodities sold on the world market. It would not insist on growth without redistribution. It would not tolerate tax havens and the massive tax evasion they facilitate. It would not strip Africa of its non-renewable resources without paying a fair price. It would not continue to drain away Africa's best brains. It would not charge prohibitive prices for medicines. In a word, it would end the hundred and one ways in which the West quietly ensures that more wealth pours out of Africa each day than the West transfers to Africa.

But that's the catch. It's the assumption that we want to help that needs to be questioned. I've no doubt ordinary Westerners sympathetic to Africa's plight take for granted that our policies are meant to help; after all, that's what they're invariably told. In the face of palpable reality, rich countries largely continue to insist that their interest in Africa is based on compassion, philanthropy, and generosity. Let the word go forth: the white man's (and woman's) burden lives again. Occasionally, our missionary duty becomes so taxing, so exhausting, so damn boring, that we westerners suffer from bouts of "compassion fatigue." We feel sorry not for those in need but for ourselves. But we pull ourselves together and re-embark on our "civilizing mission" — saving Africa from its leaders, its incapacity, its self-destructive tendencies.

But all this nobility serves to conceal the real obligation of the rich world — to pay back the incalculable debt we owe Africa. We need to help Africa not out of our selflessness and compassion but as restitution, compensation, as an act of justice for the generations of crises, conflicts, atrocities, exploitation, and underdevelopment for which we bear so much responsibility. Many speak without irony of the desire to "give something back," not realizing the cruel reality of the phrase. In fact, that's exactly what the rich world should do. We should give back what we've plundered and looted. Until we face up honestly to the West's relationship with Africa, until we acknowledge our culpability and complicity in the African mess, until then we'll continue—in our caring and compassionate way — to impose policies that actually make the mess even worse.

Source: Gerald Caplan, *The Walrus*, "The Conspiracy Against Africa: How the West's Solutions Become Africa's Problems," Nov 2006. Used with permission.

Unit 2 – Context

Activity 2: The Gambia – An African Microcosm

Purpose: To provide students and teachers with general historical, political, and geographic background on The Gambia, which can be used to put the DVD *The Gambia: Communities in Action,* in a context and allow students to apply this information more generally to the issue of African development.

Time: Variable

<u>Materials:</u>

- Copy of article A Brief History of The Gambia for each student
- *The Gambia: A Country Profile* for each student
- Maps: (1) Countries of West Africa (political); (2) The Gambia (agriculture and land use); (3) The Gambia (physical and administrative); (4) The Gambia (population and ethnic groups

Notes on Use:

Unlike other exercises in this guide, this material is provided for general background use at the discretion of the instructor. Many activities related to geography, social studies, economics, cultural studies and political science could be constructed around the material provided. The resource material is included to give instructors and students a broad background on The Gambia, the small African country they saw profiled in the DVD and help answer some questions that might arise.

Procedure:

As noted, no particular procedure is recommended for using these materials. However, after viewing the DVD *The Gambia: Communities in Action*, you might ask students what questions arose about the country itself as they watched the documentary. Based on classroom experience, these and other questions might arise:

- Where is The Gambia, anyway?
- The narrator says it's a small country. How small is it? How many people live there?
- The country looks poor. How poor is it?
- It's a funny looking country. How and why is it shaped the way it is?
- What's the weather like there?
- How do most people make a living?
- Are there lots of ethnic group living there or just one?
- Most of the people we saw spoke English. Is that their national language? Were they a British colony?
- How do people there live?

• Don't some people have normal houses and kitchens?

Using the material in this activity as a starting point, help students discover answers to these questions and discuss their findings.

Debriefing:

In debriefing after students have had a chance to focus on The Gambia, their geography, history and social conditions, ask students to project to the rest of Africa. How similar are the conditions and histories of other African nations. How do they differ? Why? What is the colonial legacy in Africa? How do they vary?

Thus this section can be a starting point for further discussion about Africa, its history and current challenges.



Unit 2 – Context Activity 2 Handout A

A Brief Political History of The Gambia

The Gambia has deep and rich pre-colonial history. A wide variety of ethnic or tribal groups have lived side by side for centuries. There has been a minimum of inter-tribal friction, each tribe preserving its own language and traditions. The Mandinka tribe is the largest followed by the Fula, Wolof, Jola, Serahuli and about a half a dozen smaller groups. Over a thousand years ago The Gambia was once part of the Empire of Ghana and the Kingdom of Songhais. In the 9th and 10th centuries Arab traders established the Trans-Saharan trade route for slaves, gold and ivory in The Gambia River Region. In the 15th century The Gambia was a part of the Kingdom of Mali. At this time the Portuguese became the first European influence. The Portuguese took over as the main trading nation for the region by establishing maritime routes.

The fall of the Mali Empire around 1580 coincided with the King of Portugal granting exclusive trading rights to The Gambia River to English merchants and this was confirmed by letters of patent from Queen Elizabeth I. England and France were in constant conflict throughout the 17th and 18th centuries for political and economic control of the region until 1783 when the Treaty of Paris gave Britain control of The Gambia River Region. However, the French still controlled the Senegal to the north.

The Gambia has had a horrible history of slavery that lasted for over three centuries. It is estimated that at as many as three million slaves may have been taken from the region. The majority of the slaves taken were sold to Europeans and used as servants in Europe until the market for labour opened up in the West Indies and North America. Finally, the slave trade was abolished in the British Empire in 1807. Even though Britain establish a military post of Bathurst (now Banjul capital of The Gambia) to curb the illegal practice of slave trading, it continued for decades.

The present boundaries of The Gambia were established in 1889 with an agreement between Britain and France. At this time The Gambia officially became a British Crown Colony. The Gambia was a British protectorate until it achieved independence in 1965. In 1970, after a referendum, The Gambia became a republic.

For the next three decades The Gambia was led by Dawada Kairaba Jawara, who was elected President five times. However in 1981, while President Jawara was visiting London, England, his regime was almost toppled by an attempted coup d'etat. The coup was attempted by Kukoi Samba Sanyang but was thwarted after Jawara appealed to neighbouring Senegal for help. The Senegalese army defeated the rebels; subsequently Jawara entered into a Confederation Agreement with Senegal. This agreement was to have seen the two countries combine armed forces, economies and currencies. However, The Gambia withdrew from the agreement in 1989. In 1994, the Armed Forces Provisional Ruling Council (AFPRC) took power in a military coup d'etat. Yahya A.J.J. Jammeh, head of the AFPRC, replaced President Jawara.

In 1996 a new multiparty constitution was established, but three major political parties remained prohibited from taking part in elections; Jammeh was elected president that same year. Since 1996 Jammeh has won three presidential elections and has ruled the country. Jammeh's presidency has been controversial with repeated allegations by political opposition members regarding improper elections. Recently, in 2007, UN development envoy Fadzai Gwaradzimba was expelled for criticizing the President's assertion that he can cure AIDS.

Sources: <u>http://news.bbc.co.uk/2/hi/africa/country_profiles/1032207.stm</u>, 2007 Macmillan Publishers: The Gambia Social Studies Atlas, 1989 US State Department, Background Notes: The Gambia, 1996



Unit 2 – Context Activity 2 Handout B

The Gambia: A Country Profile

The following is a summary of a country profile of The Gambia taken from *The Republic of The Gambia's Participatory Poverty Assessment Report, 2002.*

Geography and Climate

The Republic of The Gambia, which has a total land area of about 10,689 square kilometers, is situated on the West Coast of Africa. The country consists of a narrow strip of land nearly 10 kilometers wide on either bank of The Gambia River stretching from its mouth inland and eastward for about 400 kilometers.

The climate is subtropical with a dry season from mid-November to mid-May and a wet season for the remainder with most of the rain falling from July to October. Recent rainfall data indicate that the annual average rainfall has been declining steadily over the past years.

The Economy

The Gambia is a small country, with a narrow economic base, heavy reliance on agriculture and on a limited number of cash crops, mainly groundnuts (mainly peanuts). Consequently, the economy is highly susceptible to shocks both internal and external. Agriculture is the main stay of the economy where more than 70 per cent of the population is engaged in crop production, livestock raising, fisheries and forestry activities. Women constitute 86 per cent of those engaged in subsistence farming. It should be noted that the incidence of extreme poverty is highest among groundnut farming socio-economic groups whose conditions have deteriorated since 1992. Poverty rates are lower in urban areas than in rural areas; 40 per cent in Greater Banjul Area, 62 per cent in other urban areas and 70 in rural areas.

The agricultural sector accounts for a major component of economic activity both in terms of output (about 22 per cent of GDP) and employment (about 70 per cent of the total labour force). The economy continues to be heavily dependent on a single cash crop, groundnuts, for foreign exchange earnings (40-45 per cent). Groundnut production fell from 81,000 metric tons in 1994/ 95 to 75,000 metric tons in 1995/96 (a decline of 7.4 per cent); and by 1997, it had fallen to 45,000 metric tonnes. This decline is attributed to inadequate seed nuts and adverse climatic conditions.

Economic Activity

The main economic activity and therefore livelihood system in the rural areas is farming, which is a rainy season activity. However there is quite a lot of dry season vegetable cultivation mainly undertaken by women. The other livelihood systems include breeding of small ruminants such as sheep and goats, petty trading, income generating skills such as weaving, pottery making and batik, sale of forest products such as firewood and honey, hired labour and remittances from relatives abroad.

In the urban areas people depend on formal employment and informal unskilled casual labour and remittances. They are also engaged in petty trading activities.

Political Framework

The Gambia gained internal self-government in 1963 and became a full independent country in 1965. The country became a Sovereign Republic within the Commonwealth in 1970. In 1994, it came under military rule following a coup d'etat. After a two-year transition period, presidential elections in September 1996 led to restoration of democratic rule in 1997. The President of the Republic, who is elected every five years by universal suffrage, heads the Government.

The Gambia is divided into the capital territory and seat of government, Banjul, Kanifing Municipal 4 Council (KMC) and five divisions headed by a commissioner, for administrative purposes. The divisions are further divided into a total of thirty-five districts locally administered by chiefs.

Population

The population is currently estimated at about 1.3 million (2002 estimates), based on the 1993 Census figure of 1.03 million with annual growth rate of 4.2 per cent. With a land area of 10689 square kilometers translating into a population density of about 121 persons per sq. km, one of the highest in the region.

Fertility levels are high and have changed only slightly over the past three decades. The crude birth rate (CBR) is 46 per thousand while the total fertility rate (TFR) is 6.04. Mortality rates, though falling, are still high. Life Expectancy at birth is still low at 55 years overall and 54 years and 57 years for males and females respectively. The high fertility levels have resulted in a very youthful population structure. According to the 1993 Census, nearly 45 per cent of the population is below 15 years and 19 per cent is between the ages 15 and 24.

Socio-cultural Situation

There are five main ethnic groups in The Gambia: Mandinka, Fula, Wolof, Jola and Serahuli and about half a dozen other smaller groups. The various ethnic groups share similar social structures and this gives them a unifying bond. English is the official language. About 95 per

cent of the population is Muslim and the remaining 5% mainly Christian, African, Western and Arabo-Islamic cultural patterns co-exist.

In spite of the cultural variation among the ethnic groups, male dominance is common among them. Women have little decision-making power and are valued for their procreation roles. It is generally accepted by a majority of both men and women that the status of women is inferior to that of men.

Early marriage is widely practiced and is one of the contributing factors to low literacy, especially in the rural areas. Other cultural practices such as female genital mutilation, and various post-natal rituals aggravate the risk of maternal and child mortality and morbidity. Reproductive roles coupled with domestic chores makes females less available for schooling and with little time and energy for self-improvement. Children are silent and are hardly involved in decision making.



The Gambia and West Africa

Agricultural and Land Use Areas





Physical and Administrative Areas

Population and Ethnic Groups



Unit 3 – Development

The term "development" is unavoidable when we talk about global issues: developing countries, sustainable development, community development, human development index, and international development. Indeed, the documentary *The Gambia: Communities in Action* focuses on the West African Rural **Development** (WARD) Centre dedicated to provide **development** workers with the skills necessary to contribute to the social and economic **development** of some of the poorest communities in the world. But what does the word "development" actually mean?

Dictionary definitions aren't very helpful. *The Random House Dictionary of the English Language* has to rely on the term itself for its definition: "the act or process of developing; progress." And the *Oxford Canadian Dictionary* tells us simply that, in this context, development means the "industrialization or economic advancement of a country or area." Even studying the etymology of the word doesn't help much. Develop comes from the Old French word *desveloper*, which means to wrap up and is akin to the words envelope and envelop. A more useful definition of development underscores the complexity of this term:

[development] is a concept that lacks a universally accepted definition, but it is most used in a holistic and multi-disciplinary context of human development – the development of livelihoods and greater quality of life for humans. It therefore encompasses governance, healthcare, education, crisis prevention, infrastructure, economics, human rights, environment and issues associated with these.

But what do these ideas mean? And how do the synonyms for development offered in a thesaurus – growth, expansion, progress, increase, maturity, enlargement, improvement – really apply here? What are we to make of this word which is so central to the dialogue on global social justice and the eradication of poverty but so little understood?

"Development" is as old as human society, but the term as we use it – a conscious effort to assist groups of people to "improve" in a linear and verifiable manner on a number of specific (though shifting) criteria – has been argued to have really begun in the 20^{th} century. On January 20, 1949, to be precise, when Harry S Truman committed the United States – and by proxy Europe and the "developed" world – to a new vision of international relations and development aid:

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

But that inaugural pledge has rung hollow to many "Less-Developed Countries" (LDCs) and peoples of the world. Moreover, development thinking itself has gone through dramatic changes. In the early years, "development" meant a program of assessing needs (usually with little or no local input) and problem solving with the solutions depending on outside human and financial resources. Given the conditions of absolute and relative poverty and disadvantage in many LDCs, this makes some sense. But over the years the "development industry" has found that the

"focus on needs and deficiencies can make people lose sight of what they have already accomplished and what they have the capacity to do."

Booy and Sena (Nov. 2000) give a concise evolution of development practices from those early years to the current philosophy (in many quarters, at least) of a more "empowerment-centred" approach to international development work:

- 1950-60 Do development to the people
- 1960-70 Do development for the people
- 1970- 80 Do development through the people
- 1980-90 Do development with the people
- 1990-2000 Empower the people to do development

While far from universal, there is a growing focus on developing local capacity for selfdevelopment. Perhaps for the first time, recipients are seen as the primary focus and owners of the process as well as the outcomes, and new approaches (e.g., Participatory Rural Appraisal – PRA – and Asset Based Community Development) that involve community members in a much more central role are gaining wide acceptance.

This unit explores this whole issue of "development," helping students to look critically at the concept, put development into an historical (and Canadian) context, understand the elements of development, and explore various interpretations of this ubiquitous term.

Unit 3 – Development

Activity 1: Name the Developing Country

<u>Purpose</u>: To introduce the concept of development through an analysis of one "developing" country's challenges in key development areas while helping students to see that all countries were once "underdeveloped."

<u>Materials:</u>

- Name the Developing Country handout for each student
- Flip chart and markers

<u>**Time:**</u> $\frac{1}{2}$ to 1 hour

Notes on Use:

This activity is designed as the introductory exercise in the Development unit. It depends on students not being tipped off to the country being described – Canada in 1907 – and for the teacher to solicit ideas at various points in the delivery without confirming or denying suggestions; all ideas are to be entertained.

Some students may see the activity as a "trick." Point out that the activity has been delivered to hundreds of learners at all levels always with the same result – few if any of the students are able to name the country until the very end of the exercise.

Be sure as well to point out that the purpose of the activity is to help them to look critically at the concept of development and to see that Canada too was once an "underdeveloped" country. Part of the value of the exercise is for them to identify for themselves the elements that made Canada underdeveloped 100 years ago – and what we did (and most importantly what resources and circumstances contributed to the process) to reach the human development standards we enjoy today.

Note that the figures provided in the exercise have been carefully researched, taken from old Canada census reports and other sources. While the statistics come from reports as early as the 1880s and as late as 1926, as much as possible the data describes conditions in Canada around 1900-10.

Procedure:

1. Explain to students that in the next few lessons they are going to be looking at the whole issue of global "development" and what it means. Ask students to volunteer terms they are familiar with that include the word development and write these on the board or flip chart. Students might suggest terms such as sustainable development, economic development, community development, the Canadian International Development Agency, or the United Nation's Human Development Index. They may also volunteer real estate

development or related concepts. Write all of these down, clarifying terms where necessary.

- 2. Place the term "development" in an international setting by introducing the term "developing countries." You might begin by reading the definition of "developing countries" from the Oxford Canadian Dictionary: "a country that is becoming economically more advanced and more industrialized." Ask them to mention a few examples of developing countries in the world and make sure everyone understands the concept.
- 3. Explain that to help students better understand what underdevelopment is, you are going to read an account of an actual developing country. Tell them that as you read the account they should try to use clues from the case study to identify the country.
- 4. Read *Name the Developing Country* aloud, stopping two or three times for student to suggest what country is being described. Don't discuss ideas; just note the suggested countries and continue the reading.
- 5. When the reading is complete, ask students again what country they think is being described. As students give their suggestions, ask them why they think their country was being described. What clues did they hear? With the inclusion of the term "Dominion Day," some students may have figured out you are describing Canada of the past. If one or more students suggest Canada, ask them to share what aspects of the account led them to believe Canada was being described. After all the sharing is complete, confirm/reveal that the country is indeed Canada 100 years ago.
- 6. Using the flip chart so the material can be saved, have students identify the areas that made the county "underdeveloped" (e.g., low education levels, short life expectancy, high infant mortality rates, subordinate position of women, lack of availability of good and affordable health care). Point out that these are traditional indicators of a country's development level.
- 7. Referring back to the areas identified, ask students how has Canada moved from the conditions described in the reading to "developed" status we enjoy now? In other words, how did Canada become developed? Here you and your students might touch on a wide variety of variables: exploitation of rich natural resources, emergence from colonial rule, taxes and a growing tax base, imposition of tariff barriers to protect fledgling industry, development of a transportation infrastructure, popular demands for decent wages and social justice, and so on.
- 8. Follow up on this discussion by asking students to examine the Canadian experience with those of nations today: Can developing countries follow the same pattern Canada has to development? Why or why not? What is different? The same? Is the pattern of development Canada followed best for all countries? Is it sustainable on a global basis? What alternatives are there? Can development mean different things in different societies and cultures?

Debriefing:

When did the students figure out the country being described was Canada 100 years ago? What tipped them off? Were they surprised at the conditions Canadians lived with just a century or so ago? What has been the most dramatic change? What is most responsible for this change? What negative changes have taken place over the same period of time?


Unit 3 – Development Activity 1 Handout A

Name the Developing Country

Can you identify this developing country? The country, a former colony of a European nation, had achieved independence about 40 years before this description. Here are some clues:

Education: Illiteracy is widespread; most children quit school before Grade 8; just over half of all school-aged children are enrolled. They have to drop out to work on the land or at odd jobs. Children are economic units, essential to their families' survival. There is no time for them to go to school or to train for professions. Less than 2% of the population attends college or university.

Disease and Health Care: The infant mortality rate is high with more than 12% of children dying before the age of five. Death in childbirth is risked by every mother. The sanitation diseases – dysentery, typhus, typhoid, diarrhea – kill young and old alike. Children are afflicted with parasites and worms, the cures for which are primitive and difficult to obtain. Tuberculosis is another major killer. Hospitals are few, hard to reach, and generally only affordable by the well to do. Medicine is just emerging from its medieval traditions. There are no publicly funded medical plans: health care, even if it is available, is too expensive for the average person. Dental care consists mainly of extractions. By the time a person reaches thirty, chances are he has few teeth left. The 30-year-old has a life expectancy of 25 more years. Life is "solitary, poor, nasty, brutish and short".

Birth Rate: People have many babies – 5.5 per mother. Parents want to be taken care of when they get sick or too old to work, and they must have many children to ensure that one son will survive to adulthood, especially with the high levels of infant mortality. There are no old age pensions, welfare benefits or extended care facilities for the elderly.

Work: The majority of people are engaged in subsistence farming and fishing – more than two-thirds live in the rural areas and work on small farms. Work is endless. Every hand is needed because there are so few machines. Conditions in the mining and logging industries are particularly harsh. In the cities, factory working conditions are terrible – low wages, long hours, no holidays, a six-day week, no

employee benefits. The few mercantile and professional jobs are limited to those with advanced education and family connections.

Movement: Mobility is limited and expensive. Finally, a national railway system was completed only 20 years ago, but it misses many communities. Beyond the railways, the only way to travel is by horse, by boat or on foot. What public transportation is available is so expensive that few people can afford to use it. Some trips that would take two hours by car take three days. Most people are born, grow up and die in the same village.

Money: Subsistence farmers and wage-earners can rarely acquire anything beyond the basics. Per-capita GDP is less than \$1000. Up-to-date consumer products are available, but most people have no money to purchase them,

Energy: Fuel is a precious commodity. Wood and coal are the primary fuels for heating, cooking and industry. Labour on farms is done mostly by muscles – animal and human. Precious coal oil is saved for the lamps at night.

Women: Career and life options for women are severely limited with many college and training programs still excluding females. Women are forbidden to vote and have little voice locally or nationally. Most women remain on the farms working long, exhausting hours

You have just read a description of a nation 40 years after it achieved independence. Since Independence Day (the natives call it Dominion Day), these people have thrust aside colonial status and now govern themselves. This country has a long way to go, but success is certainly possible. It takes a long time to improve health care, transportation, education and working conditions. Forty years is not long at all!

Unit 3 – Development

Activity 2: Glossary of Development Economics Terms

Purpose: To introduce key development economics concepts and terms.

<u>Materials:</u>

- Glossary of Development Economics Terms for each student
- *Glossary* cut into separate strips for each term
- 2 boxes marked Understand and Don't Understand/Need More Information
- Copy of *The A to Z of World Development* for the instructor

<u>Time:</u> 1 to $1\frac{1}{2}$ hours

Notes on Use:

This second activity is designed to familiarize students with key development economics terms they will encounter during the unit while giving them some background in a variety of relevant concepts and definitions. Most of these are basic to all development theories and economics in general

It is imperative that the teacher have a working knowledge of the terms presented and can elaborate and explain as necessary. To check some terms you might not be sure of, you might want to refer to *The A to Z of World Development* and to use this text to expand on terms that participants are struggling with or would like more information on.

Explain to participants that this exercise provides just the most basic of introductions to the terms and ask them where they could go for more information. Solicit input from the group and write their ideas down. Suggestions could include specific references, Internet resources, or individuals with background in the area of development economics. (See Appendix C, Additional Resources, for suggestions)

Point out as well that the glossary will come in handy over the period you are studying development, but are also essential to many areas of economics, social science, political science and development studies.

Important: There are over 70 terms included here. The full list will be useful to only the most advanced classes. Adapt the list by omitting, adding and/or rewriting terms to make them relevant and appropriate for your learners and their skills and knowledge levels.

Procedure:

1. Ask participants what their background is in economics. Has anyone taken an economics course? Read a book on economics? How have they acquired our information on economics? What the heck is economics, anyway?

- 2. Tell the group that this activity is going to introduce some key development economics vocabulary and concepts. Some of the information they will be familiar with; some of it will be new. Explain that many of the terms they will be working with are essential to both development and to economics in general.
- 3. Hand out a copy of the *Glossary of Economics and Development Terms* to each student. Point out that there are more than 70 terms (or the number as edited) included in the glossary, and that students are to go through the entire list, reading the terms carefully. Once they have read the item, they are to mark beside it one of three responses:
 - U: Understand
 - DU: Don't Understand
 - NMI: Need More Information
- 4. Once they have completed their individual coding (30 –35 minutes), break the participants into groups of about four. They are to go over their coded glossary item by item. If one member does not understand the term, the group should discuss it and try to reach an understanding of what it means. If the member(s) not understanding the term feel that they now have an adequate comprehension, they can change their code. If one or more members feel that they need additional information, this too can be discussed in the group. Groups can also review some of the items they understand but would like to discuss further. Allow about 30-45 minutes for this phase.
- 5. Now have small groups return to the group as a whole. Take the items from the glossary cut into strips and place them in a box. Have two additional boxes in front of you, one marked U: understand; one marked DU/NMI: don't understand/need more information. Read each term aloud. Ask the group where it should be placed. If one person or more does not understand the term or feels he or she needs more information, it cannot be placed in the Understand box. It must be placed in the DU/NMI box. If everyone understands the definition and feels adequately conversant with the concept, place it in the Understand box.
- 6. Once you have gone through all items, review the ones in the DU/NMI box by reading each one over again. As you read out the term, ask for volunteers to elaborate and explain as necessary. This is also where you come in. Be willing to draw on your own knowledge and refer to *The A to Z of World Development* and other resources as necessary to explain the terms in question. Once you've discussed the term as a large group, ask by a show of hands if the term is now understood sufficiently. If it is, place it in the U box. If someone feels it is still unclear or that he or she still needs further information, place it back in the DU/NMI box.
- 7. Go back through the terms left in the DU/NMI box. Where can people go to get additional information? How can we use the Internet? The library? Human resources in the area?

Debriefing:

How comfortable and familiar with these terms were the participants? Did group members have different levels of knowledge they were able to share? How are these terms relevant to our knowledge of international development and economics? Why is it important to have a working knowledge of these terms and concepts?



Unit 3 – Development Activity 2 Handout A

GLOSSARY OF DEVELOPMENT TERMS

Go through the following terms carefully. After reading them, code each as follows in the space next to the terms:

- U: Understand
- **DU:** Don't Understand
- **NMI:** Need More Information

You will then get into small groups and try to clarify terms that are unclear and expand on concepts on which you would like more information.

African Development Bank (ADB) – A regional bank started in 1966 to support the development of Independent African states through loans and assistance.

Basic Needs – The essential items of private consumption and basic services needed by every person to maintain a reasonable standard of living. These include adequate food, shelter, clothing and household equipment, together with essential community services such as safe drinking water sanitation, health services, education, transport, and cultural facilities.

Bottom-up Development – A theory of development that calls for funds and projects to be aimed directly at the rural poor in an effort to reduce poverty and meet basic human needs. It is the opposite of "trickle-down" development which was the main theory behind foreign aid until the late 1960s.

Bretton Woods (see also IMF and World Bank) – The Bretton Woods Conference was held in 1944 to design the rules for restructuring the world economy after World War II. This system of international financial rules led to the foundation of the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD) also known as the World Bank.

Capital – The money or wealth needed to produce goods and services. See also *human capital* and *physical capital*.

Capitalism – An economic system dominant in the Western world, under which most of the means of production are privately owned, preferably with minimal state intervention. It encompasses freedoms of ownership, production, exchange, acquisition, employment, movement, and open competition. Production is determined and income distributed through the operation and impact of markets. The term "market" describes an economic system defined by the existence of private capital and wage labour.

____Cash Crops – Crops that are produced only for the market.

Commodity – A commodity is anything that is produced for sale or that enters into trade. However, the term is commonly used to refer to the raw materials and primary products which are traded internationally. These include food crops, fibre crops, base metals, oilseeds, fuels and other cash crops.

Communism – A movement and economic system based on the principle of communal ownership of property.

Cultural Alienation – People lose confidence in their own culture, values, and way of life. Alien or foreign values are imposed by a small minority.

Debt Service – The amount of money and interest that must be regularly paid by borrowers. This can be at a personal loan level or, in a development context, the money and interest a country pays to the World Bank or other lending agencies to "service" development loans.

Devaluation – Devaluation occurs when the government lowers the value of the exchange rate from one fixed rate to another.

Developed Countries – Northern industrialized nations also referred to as the First World.

Developing countries – Low- and middle-income countries in which most people have a lower standard of living with access to fewer goods and services than do most people in high-income countries. There are currently about 125 developing countries with populations over 1 million; in 1998, their total population was more than 5.0 billion.

_____Division of Labour – In modern manufacturing the production of any item may be subdivided into several tasks carried out in a repetitive fashion by many people, with none of them responsible for producing the final product. This division of labour is a way of maximizing productivity and is seen a as symbol of development and modernization.

Economic depression – A period marked by low production and sales and a high rate of business failures and unemployment.

Economic Exploitation – Unfair distribution of wealth. Owners of farms and factories keep large profits which are made from the work of the labourers.

Economic Growth – Typically refers to an increase in a country's output of goods and services. It is usually measured by changes in real GDP (see GDP).

Environment – The complex set of physical, geographic, biological, social, cultural and political conditions that surround an individual or organism and that ultimately determines its form and nature of its survival.

Export-led Growth – An expansion of an economy partly driven by an increase of exports over imports. Exports are considered to have a positive impact by increasing investment which in turn leads to more manufacturing and greater employment.

Fair Trade – Refers to a movement which values trade that contributes to environmental protection, higher standards of living for workers, and human rights. Fair trade also refers to the actual trade of goods produced under decent working conditions, for fair wages, using methods that are not harmful to the environment.

Foreign Direct Investment – Investment that results in a physical presence in a foreign country; for example, when a company builds a production facility in another country or has a stake in a business or natural resource overseas.

Free Trade – Trade of goods and services and investment across national borders without tariffs, quotas, and other restrictions to the pursuit of corporate profits.

G7/G8 – The G8 countries are the US, Canada, Japan, France, UK, Germany, Italy, and Russia. The G7 included the first 7 countries, excluding Russia, which joined in the 1990s, making it the G8.

_____GATT (General Agreement of Tariffs and Trade) – The General Agreement of Tariffs and Trade, an international agreement and organization, was set up in 1947 to reduce barriers to free trade. It was renegotiated though eight different rounds, resulting in 1994 in the World Trade Organization (WTO). Trade liberalization through the reduction of tariffs and non-tariff "barriers to trade," like agricultural subsidies and government regulations, was its primary objective.

GDP (Gross Domestic Product) – A measure of economic activity, Gross Domestic Product (GDP) is a measure of national income. It is the total value of all goods and services produced over a given time period (usually a year) excluding net property income from abroad. It can be measured either as the total of income, expenditure or output.

_____GNP (Gross National Product) – The value (in U.S. dollars) of a country's final output of goods and services in a year. The value of GNP can be calculated by adding up the amount of money spent on a country's final output of goods and services, or by totaling the income of all citizens of a country including the income from factors of production used abroad.

GNP per capita – The dollar value of a country's final output of goods and services in a year (its GNP), divided by its population. It reflects the average income of a country's citizens. Knowing a country's GNP per capita is a good first step toward understanding the country's economic strengths and needs. Note that both the GNP and GDP are problematic as economic indicators as they fail to adequately reflect the full extent of the informal economy (especially

large in developing countries), do not factor in environmental "costs," and provide no indication of wealth distribution.

_____Growth rate – The change (increase, decrease, or no change) in an indicator over a period of time, expressed as a percentage of the indicator at the start of the period. Growth rates contain several sets of information. The first is whether there is any change at all; the second is what direction the change is going in (increasing or decreasing); and the third is how rapidly that change is occurring.

____Globalization – The name for an ongoing process in which trade, investment, people and information travel across international borders with increasing frequency and ease. During periods of globalization economies are increasingly integrated with one another, leading to greater worldwide instability since problems afflicting one country carry over to other countries, and corporations and capital investments are highly mobile, leaving a nation whenever they find a better opportunity elsewhere.

HIPC Initiative – The Heavily Indebted Poor Countries (HIPC) Initiative is the first international response to provide comprehensive debt relief to the world's poorest, most heavily indebted countries. Launched by the World Bank and IMF in 1996, the Initiative broke new ground by removing the debt overhang for countries pursuing economic and social reform targeted at measurable poverty reduction, reducing multilateral debt, and helping countries exit from endless debt restructuring.

Human Capital – People and their ability to be economically productive. Education, training, and health care can help increase human capital. See also *capital* and *physical capital*.

Human Development Index – An annual assessment of the progress of nations in improving living standards produced by the United Nations Development Program (UNDP), which assumes that economic growth does not necessarily equate to human development.

IMF – The International Monetary Fund is an international multilateral organisation that attempts to monitor the global financial system and to offer assistance to countries that are experiencing balance of payments problems.

Import – To buy goods and services from another country.

Import Substitution – A policy often adopted by developing countries to protect domestic industry and natural resources. Imports are blocked by tariffs and/or quotas. This allows a nation to develop its own local manufacturing ability and eventually develop an export trade.

Inflation – A steady rise in prices which results in a steady fall in the value of money. Inflation can occur when demand for goods exceeds supply; or when costs of production increase independent of the state of demand; or when government expand the money supply by printing more money.

Informal Economy – The exchange of goods and services not accurately recorded in government figures and accounting. The informal economy, which is generally untaxed, commonly includes goods and services including day care, tutoring, or black market exchanges.

Investment – In the global economy, investment refers to direct investment in plants or services, indirect investment in stocks and bonds, and real estate (including mining, timber, oil, and gas rights).

Laissez Faire – A term referring to the idea that the state's role is to protect property rights and to interfere as little as possible in the free play of market forces which are based on self-interest and the profit motive.

Least Developed Countries (LLDCs) – The very poorest of the Less Developed Countries. In these countries, the average person would live on less than \$2.00 a day.

Less Developed Countries (LDCs) – Countries who are generally characterized by low levels of GDP and income per head. LDCs usually have a heavy dependence on the primary sector of the economy.

Low-income Country – A country having an annual gross national product (GNP) per capita equivalent to \$760 or less in 1998. The standard of living is lower in these countries; there are few goods and services; and many people cannot meet their basic needs. There are currently about 58 low-income countries with populations of 1 million or more. Their combined population is almost 3.5 billion.

Middle-income Country – A country having an annual gross national product (GNP) per capita equivalent to more than \$760 but less than \$9,360 in 1998. The standard of living is higher than in low-income countries, and people have access to more goods and services, but many people still cannot meet their basic needs. There are currently about 65 middle-income countries with populations of one million or more. Their combined population is more than 1.5 billion.

Natural Resources – Materials that occur in nature and are essential or useful to humans, such as water, air, land, forests, fish and wildlife, topsoil, and minerals.

Neo-colonialism – A condition of economic dependency when the ability of politicallyindependent Third World countries to control their own development and destiny is constrained by the actions of Western states, transnational corporations, and/or international financial agencies.

Neoliberalism – An economic ideology that calls for free markets and a minimal role for the government. Free trade, privatization, cuts in social spending and structural adjustment are all neoliberal policies.

Official Development Assistance (ODA) – Government aid policy that describes the priorities of national aid initiatives and the giving of loans and grants at favourable rates.

Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) – An intergovernmental organization of 25 industrialized countries established in 1961 which tries to coordinate the economic policies of member states.

Physical Capital – Things, such as machinery, tools, equipment, furniture, parts, and buildings, that are needed to produce goods and services. See also *capital* and *human capital*.

Political Domination – Laws and decisions are made and enforced by a small minority in their own interests.

Poverty – Absolute poverty is a level of poverty when only the minimum levels of food, clothing and shelter can be met. Relative poverty is the level of poverty in a country expressed in term of certain level of income such as half of the average wage

Primary Goods or Products – Goods--for example, iron ore, diamonds, wheat, copper, oil, or coffee-that are used or sold as they are found in nature. They are also called commodities.

____Privatization – The sale of publicly owned goods and services to private companies.

Protectionism – The practice of protecting domestic markets and industries by restricting or prohibiting competition from abroad, usually through tariffs or quotas or any other mechanism to restrict the flow of imports.

Renewable – Able to be replaced or replenished, either by the earth's natural processes or by human action. Air, water, and forests are often considered to be example of renewable resources. However, due to local geographic conditions and costs involved, strong arguments can be made that water may not be a completely renewable resource in some parts of the world, especially in developing countries or in areas with limited groundwater supplies. Minerals and fossil fuels are examples of non-renewable resources.

_____Resources – The machines, workers, money, land, raw materials, and other things that a country can use to produce goods and services and to make its economy grow. Resources may be renewable or nonrenewable. Countries must use their resources wisely to ensure long term prosperity.

Socialism – A system of social organization where private property and the distribution of income are subject to control by society rather than being determined by individuals pursuing their own self-interest or by the market forces of capitalism.

Social Services – Services generally provided by the government that help improve people's standard of living; examples are public hospitals and clinics, good roads, clean water supply, garbage collection, electricity, and telecommunications.

South – Another term for "Third World" or "developing" countries. The terms North and South are widely used to denote the "rich" nations of the industrialized world and the "poor" nations of the developing world.

_____Structural Adjustment Programme – A programme of free market and supply side reforms that multilateral agencies such as the IMF lay down as conditions for lending funds. As free-standing programmes, SAPs were discontinued in the early 1990s, but elements of SAPs persist in WB/IMF lending policies.

Subsidy – Money given to producers to reduce costs and hence the market price of a good or service. These are particularly common in the agricultural area where developed country governments provide subsidies to their farmers to enable them to with cheaper commodities from poorer countries.

Sustainable Development – Development that meets the needs of the people today without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs.

_____Tariff – Taxes applied to goods imported into a country.

Terms of Trade – How much a country earns for what it exports compared to what it pays for imports. This ratio provides an indication of a country's purchasing power of imported goods.

Tied Aid – Foreign aid that is given on the condition that the recipient country uses the funds to purchase goods and services from the donor country.

_____Transnational Corporations (TNCs) – The same as multinational corporations, TNCs are corporations that operate in more than one country. Of the world's 100 largest economies, 51 are TNCs and 49 are nations. TNCs are growing in size and number.

Trickle Down – The theory that the gains from economic growth, even if they are concentrated in the hands of a small economic elite, pass down throughout the entire society, eventually giving rise to development

<u>Urbanization</u> – The process by which a country's population changes from primarily rural to urban. It is caused by the migration of people from the countryside to the city in search of better jobs and living conditions.

World Bank – An international financial institution that provides funds for development. Created in 1944 -- one of the "Bretton Woods" institutions -- to help with European reconstruction after World War II, the World Bank today funds many large infrastructure and other development projects around the world. Like the IMF, the World Bank is controlled by developed nations and since the late 1970s has insisted on the implementation of structural adjustment policies as a condition for poor countries to receive its loans.

World Trade Organisation (WTO) – The WTO was formed during the 1994 GATT negotiations. It is a permanent institution whose main purposes are to promote free trade and settle trade disputes. As a member of the WTO, all national, state and local laws must conform to WTO rules or a country risks facing sanctions.

Adapted from: *The A to Z of World Development. Training for Transformation* by Anne Hope and Sally Timmel. Biz/ed website: <u>http://www.bized.ac.uk/virtual/dc/resource/glos1.htm#a</u> World Bank website: <u>http://www.worldbank.org/html/schools/glossary.htm</u> *Globalization Glossary* by the Tennessee Industrial Renewal Network

Unit 3 – Development

Activity 3: Defining Development

Purpose: To further examine the concept of development, what it is and isn't, and encourage students to work toward a common definition.

<u>Materials:</u>

- Development or Not Development handout for each student
- Development or Not Development illustration on transparency
- *Eight questions* on overhead or flip chart
- Definitions of Development handout for each student
- *Definitions of Development* on transparency
- Overhead projector

<u>**Time:**</u> 1 to $1\frac{1}{2}$ hours

Notes on Use:

This activity provides a more focused opportunity for general reflection on and defining of the concept of development. This exercise provides a chance to look at the broader concept of what is and isn't development as well as an extensive list of development definitions by economists, social activists, community members, and politicians. The objective is to further broaden students' thinking on development.

Procedure:

- 1. Tell students that they are going to further examine the concept of development in this exercise, building on the information they generated in previous activities.
- 2. Place the *Development or Not Development* transparencies on the overhead. Discuss the two pictures. What do students see? What general questions do they have?
- 3. Divide the students into four groups. Hand out a sheet with the eight questions below and also have them written on a flip chart or overhead. Assign the first two questions to group one, the second two to group two, and so on. Instruct them to study the diagrams on the overhead in their groups then answer their assigned questions. Have them select one member as a recorder who notes the group members' comments and conclusions. They will present the group answers to the large group.

Questions for the groups (two each):

- 1. Who benefits most from the development? Note that some of the beneficiaries may not be living in the area or even in the same country.
- 2. Who suffers most from the development?

- 3. What would the changes mean to the lives of the people living in the villages and town in the first picture?
- 4. If you were living in village A in the first picture, what alternative developments would you like to see take place? Why?
- 5. In the "before" picture, if you could get aid to do only one thing, what would you do. Why?
- 6. Describe or draw your own ideal "after" scenario.
- 7. Based on your concept of development, would all community members benefit equally or would some do better than others? Explain.
- 8. Is this development? Do the pictures show development? Does the answer depend on who is answering?
- 4. Going through the eight questions one at a time, have each group report back on their questions to the class. Allow time for class discussion
- 5. Hand out the list of 18 *Definitions of Development*. Assign each definition to a dyad (two students). If the group is smaller than 36, assign more than one definition to groups as necessary. Ask students to read their definition aloud in their pairs discuss their definition for five minutes. Now combine dyads into groups of six. Have students share their definitions with the group and discuss the various definitions. After about 10 minutes, place the transparency of the definitions on the overhead and read each one aloud. Ask those with that definition to comment on what it means to them and whether they agree with it.
- 6. As a large group, work with the students to come up with a definition of no more than 50 words for development that everyone can at least partially agree upon. Once the definition has been refined and revised to everyone's satisfaction, write the final definition on a piece of flip chart paper and post it on the wall.

Debriefing:

What are the key elements of development as decided by the group? Would these elements be shared by everyone? Who might disagree? Why?



Unit 3 – Development Activity 3 Handout A / Overhead A



Development or Not Development



Unit 3 – Development Activity 3 Handout B / Overhead B

Definitions of Development

- 1) The process of improving the quality of all people's lives within a country.
- 2) Development is the advancement of a society in all its humanity. (Dennis Goulet)
- 3) The process by which a country increases its ability to produce goods and services.
- 4) In science, "development" describes the way in which an organism achieves its proper form and achieves its full genetic potential.
- 5) In order for someone to conceive the possibility of escaping from a particular condition, it is necessary first to feel that one has fallen into that condition. For those who make up two-thirds of the world's population today, to think of development of any kind of development requires first the perception of themselves as underdeveloped, with the whole burden of connotations that this carries. (Gustavo Estava)
- 6) Development is entering into the predominant culture, accepting first its methods of action bulldozers, tractors, and all the rest and ending up by having to adopt its ways of thinking. It works as a Trojan horse, which destroys from within the host cultures which have adopted those methods, thinking that those methods, which are actually alien to them, will better their own situation. (Raimon Panikkar)
- 7) The political mobilization of a people for attaining their own objectives. (Julius Nyerere)
- 8) Development must include the need to "look within" and "search for our own culture" instead of using borrowed and foreign views. (Rodolfo Stavenhagen)

- 9) Development must come from the bottom up, not the top down. (Jimoh Omo-Fadaka)
- 10) The key theme of development [is] actually enclosure, expropriation, taking away people's land, enclosing knowledge, denying access to resources, creating resources out of the environment, creating the notion of resources, and then denying people access to their water, to their forests, to their land, using those lands for others, transferring power to a small minority, transferring control to a small minority. These are the issues that really matter on the ground and, unless those issues are addressed, I don't see much hope for either the planet, or for social justice. And I think social justice is now the key issue." (Nick Hildyard)
- 11) 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. (Gustavo Esteva)
- 12) Alternative conceptions of development believe that development is about people. It follows, then, that the best development process would be that which allows the greatest amount of improvement in people's quality of life. What is quality of life? How do we measure it? Alternative Development believes that the quality of a person's life depends on the possibility that people have of meeting their basic human needs. These needs include the traditional basic human needs [food, shelter, clothing] but also protection, affection, understanding, participation, idleness, creation, identity, and freedom.
- 13) Decentralization and democratization of day-to-day living are also necessary to meet basic human needs. Self-reliance is critical for true development. Development must be ecologically sustainable. Equity and justice in the distribution of resources is also important. Respect for the diversity of people and communities is critical. Thus, there cannot be one universal path to development.
- 14) A process by which a community or a country develops the capacity to manage its own resources in a sustainable way to meet the needs of its people. (David Korten)
- 15) Underdevelopment is something that forces you at an early age to think someone else's thoughts and to feel something on your own you do not feel

and to somehow be unable to stand on your own two feet. They train you to be paralyzed, then they sell you crutches. (Eduardo Galeano)

- 16) Development is building up the people, so that they can build a future for themselves. Development is an experience of freedom as people choose what to do. It is a difficult experience for those who have lived in dependence and without hope for a long time. To decide and do something brings dignity and self-respect. Development efforts should therefore start with the people's potential, and proceed to their enhancement and growth. (Anne Hope and Sally Timmel)
- 17) Development is the reduction and elimination of poverty, inequality and unemployment within a growing economy. (Dudley Seers)
- 18) Development should expand the range of economic and social choice to individuals and nations by freeing them from servitude and dependence, not only in relation to other people and nation states but also to the forces of ignorance and human misery. (Michael Todaro)
- 19) What is necessary for development?
 - a. Meeting peoples basic human needs
 - b. Decentralization and democratization
 - c. Ecologically sustainable development
 - d. Equity and respect for diversity (Bjorn Hettne)
- 20) Broadly conceptualized, development requires the sustained elevation of an entire society, and social system including three basic core values:
 - a. Life sustenance basic needs, including food, shelter health care, and security/protection.
 - b. Self-esteem a sense of worth and self-respect.
 - c. Freedom from servitude not necessarily only in an ideological/political sense – but in the fundamental sense (as well) of freedom to choose, freedom from social servitude, ignorance, misery etc. (Robert Sargent)

Unit 3 – Development

Activity 4: Theories of Development

<u>Purpose:</u> To explore different theories of development and identify how they apply to Developing World realities.

<u>Materials:</u>

- Handout and transparency of Importance of Theory diagram
- Handout of Competing Views of Development and Social Change for each student
- Flip chart and markers

<u>**Time:**</u> 1 to $1\frac{1}{2}$ hours

Notes on Use:

This exercise examines four specific theories of development. Make sure you take the time to go over what a theory is and discuss what role theories play in strategic planning, policy making, research and funding. This concept is reflected in the *Importance of Theory* diagram below.

There are four main sets of contending view on development and how it occurs in this exercise: Neo-liberal, Structuralism, Interventionist and Populist. It can appear that the main area of disagreement is between the first two, i.e., a simple choice of how to achieve development: market versus state or profit versus planning. A key issue for development in the 21st century is to what extent interventionism, populism or some other approach represents a realistic alternative to the opposing view of New-liberalism.

All four of these readings are adapted from a university-level text. They may prove challenging to some students. Point this out to the group and encourage students to read critically, circling words they do not understand and underlining concepts that are difficult or that they do not understand. Have small groups discuss these. Circulate among the four groups and answer questions about vocabulary and content to make sure students are clear on their readings. If you are working with younger or less skilled readers, take the time to further simplify and adapt the readings.

Procedure

- 1. Begin by discussing what a theory is. What do we understand by the term theory? Give time for participants to think about it. Ask for volunteers to propose several definitions. Then have the following two definitions on a flip chart sheet:
 - a. **The Gage Canadian Dictionary** (1983) defines theory as "an explanation based on thought or speculation; an explanation based on observation and reasoning"
 - b. **Haralambus** (1980) sees theories as "sets of ideas that seek to explain how something works."

- 2. How are these definitions of theory similar to or different from those volunteered by the group? So, what is a theory? What purpose do theories serve? How can they be used positively? Harmfully? Place the transparency of the Importance of Theory diagram on the overhead and discuss how theory informs more concrete development activities and policies later. How does a development agency's development theory affect its choice of projects? Its practice and personnel? How does a nation's development theory impact local organizations and communities? How does the development theory of international organizations such as the World Bank and the IMF affect development practice?
- 3. Once the concept of a theory is clear, pass out copies of *Competing Views of Development and Social Change* to the students. Tell them that they are going to be divided into four groups and that each group will be assigned one theory of development. They are to discuss their assigned theory in their group and write their response to the three key questions (on the board or flip chart) as the relate to their particular development theory only:
 - How would you summarize this theory's view of development and underdevelopment?
 - What is its solution to the problem of underdevelopment?
 - What are the strengths and weaknesses of this theory?
- 4. After about 15 to 20 minutes, have each group share by posting their flip charts on the wall or pin them to a board. A representative from each group, referring to the information on their flip chart sheet, summarizes the theory they were assigned so the rest of the groups fully understand the concept. Allow time for questions, additions and clarification from other groups.
- 5. End by briefly summarizing the four theories. By a show of hands, which theory do group members most strongly support? Write the numbers of adherents on the appropriate flip chart. Then ask one advocate who voted for that theory to briefly summarize why he or she supports that policy.

Debriefing:

How do these four theories differ? To the extent a government or aid agency subscribes fully to one philosophy or the other, how might it influence policy and activity? Which theory is most prevalent in the development community right now?



Unit 3 – Development Activity 4 Handout A / Overhead A

Importance of Theory





Unit 3 – Development Activity 4 Handout B / Overhead B

Competing Views of Development and Social Change

There are at least four major sets of competing views on what development is and how it occurs. These views differ in how they see development as social change in relation to the global capitalist system and the role of the state; they also differ in what are seen as the key agencies in development. As with many social theories, they attempt to both explain how development *does* occur and to suggest how it *should* occur.

1. NEO-LIBERALISM

In the 1980s neo-liberalism (or market liberalism) became the dominant view of development, at least in the industrialized West. Those who today promote this view are the direct descendants of the proponents of "free enterprise" in the 1950s and earlier, and trace their theoretical ideas back to the classical economics of Adam Smith in the late eighteenth century. While essentially an economic theory, modern Neo-liberalism is also an ideology. In this view, the purest form of capitalism is the best. It is said to be both efficient and fair

Market competition is the key to this theory. It is seen as the main force towards economic progress – and hence development. Faced with market competition, the best ways to ensure continued profits are to grow and innovate. These both lead to increased labour productivity: growth does so through economies of scale, and innovation through capital investment in improved production processes. Thus successful capitalists are able to enter a positively reinforcing cycle: profit accumulation – growth – innovation increased productivity-increased profits. They can then use those increased profits to continue the cycle. As a system it is seen as progressive because it allows enterprising individuals to thrive, and this provides benefits for all.

This argument goes back to the famous phrases of Adam Smith: "The hidden hand of the market converts individual interest into the wealth of nations."

The economic aspects of Neo-liberal theory are generally underpinned by psychological arguments about the values, aspirations and motivations of individuals (and indeed, the focus on the individual rather than groups is a key feature of neo-liberal thinking). The market presents a formal equality of opportunity to all that enter it, and distribute rewards objectively. What determines success is what individuals are able to bring; in other words, how well endowed they are before entering the competition.

David McClelland, an American psychologist who claimed to have isolated the vital

motivational factor necessary for economic development, suggested the following metaphor for market competition. "The free enterprise system... may be compared to a garden in when all plants are allowed to grow until some crowd the others out."

Thus, in neo-liberal thinking, individual capitalist entrepreneurs linked through the market provide a dynamic for development. However in the end these gradual changes initiated by many individuals are seen as leading to a total process of change in social structure, political systems and culture; in other words, to modernization as the term was used in the 1950's and 1960's.

Another feature claimed as equally important by many proponents of neo-liberalism is that developed western countries are liberal democracies: they combine the prosperity associated with industrialized economies with a political system based on parliamentary representative democracy. Three main obstacle are put forward to explain different cases of development:

Tradition: The continuation of non-market social relations and systems of obligation can be seen as preventing people from moving from production for their own use to cash crops and other goods that can be traded. Related, racist notions such as that of the ''lazy native'' were particularly prevalent under colonialism, but are by no means uncommon today.

Monopoly: Capitalists naturally try to minimize the regulatory effects of the market as a whole by finding a particular small market or market segment that they can either completely monopolize or at least partly dominate. There are two sorts of monopoly that can act as obstacles to market regulation: Monopolies of capital, i.e., industrial monopolies; and monopolies of labour, i.e., Trade unions.

State regulation: In general, any kind of collective or state action except when the state is acting purely as a shareholder like any other owner, is seen as interfering with the proper working of the market. In the neo-liberal view, the role of the state should be a minimal one: guaranteeing political order, ensuring the conditions for capitalism (Maintaining a "level paying field") and "policing" the casualties of the competitive system.

There is a real dilemma here for neo-liberal thinkers. While they favor "rolling back the state" as far as possible, they also require its policing function, which in practice tends to be considerable. The dilemma is how to guarantee that this policing is done fairly, since it is necessarily done outside the market and hence outside the mechanism which this theory argues is the means of fair regulation.

2. STRUCTURALISM

The word "structuralism" was first prominent in discussions on development in the work of Raul Prebisch and others in the UN Economic commission for Latin America just after the Second World War. Two related but distinct strands of though can be identified here – Marxism and Dependency schools.

In general, such views are concerned with underlying social and economic structures and see development as involving changes in these structures. They differ fundamentally from neo-liberalism both in their view of history and in their approach to capitalism.

Thus, where neo-liberals view history is the sum of individual's' actions, including the actions of individual governments and other organizations, structuralism sees history in terms of political and economic struggles between large social groups, particularly classes, as new structures and systems replace old ones across the globe.

Marxism: Historically the most important of the two views grouped here is associated with the ideas of Karl Marx. Marx viewed capitalism as a particular type of class society, one constituted by antagonistic relations between different social classes, of which the most important are capitalist and workers. Any class system is based on particular relations of production, and in the capitalist system those who own the means of production have the power to appropriate surplus, where as those who do not own means of production have to sell their labour power.

Marx believed that industrial capitalism, in particular, represented a massive advance in the progress of society, particularly in the impetus it gave to the systematic application of science to methods of production. He also saw as very positive the way that capitalism brings people together in an ever increasingly system of co-operation, with integrated production processes organized on the basic of socialized labour, as opposed to the small-scale "privatized" labour of household production.

On the other hand, Marx saw class exploitation and oppression as essential features of capitalism. In short, for Marx capitalism was profoundly contradictory, at two levels. First the development of production capacities under capitalism represents an enormous potential for human emancipation and freedom from want, at the same time as the "class relations" through which the productive forces have developed deny their promise to the majority of people. Second, these class relations embody a contradiction between private ownership and control and increasingly socialized labour. Marx thought that in time private ownership would begin to obstruct the further development of productive capacities. Then conditions would be ripe for the overthrow of capitalism. This would not be automatic, but results from class struggle between capitalist and worker. The latter would organize in a political movement to dispossess the former and then utilize the productive capacities made available by capitalism to go on and from a different kind of society.

The dependency view: The other approach that we call structuralism is that of the dependency school. Here capitalism is seen primarily as a system of exploitation. In their view, the historical process that resulted in the development of the industrialized world was the same process in which the Third World did not become developed. Put simply, western capitalist industrialization created a situation in which Developing World economies were dependent and which tended to lead to and maintain under-development.

If we look at development from the perspective of the government of a Third World country, the implication of dependency thinking could be to advocate withdrawal from the international capitalist system or at least place strong local state controls on it. This might be in order to build up national capitalism or to institute some form of planning development, socialist, or otherwise. It might entail a kind of solo self-reliance or could be in solidarity with other third world countries.

3. INTERVENTIONISM

Here industrial capitalism is viewed positively but at the same time a need is perceived for nonmarket regulation through state intervention. The structural inequalities and contradiction inherent in capitalism are to some extent admitted. This view has a lot in common with structuralism, but instead of hoping to replace the market, interventionism may be said to combine state and market. It is worth noting that interventionism and structuralism were the dominant views of economics and of development up to the 1970's. Neo-liberalism is to a great extent a reaction to this dominance.

Four important arguments have been given for state intervention. First, in the Keynesian view of development, periodic booms and slumps are inherent problem of capitalism, which has no inbuilt mechanism for ensuring a balance between supply and demand as economies grow. John Maynard Keynes proposed state spending to create employment and increase income, thus stimulating demand and restoring business confidence.

Second, there is the view first propounded by the nineteenth century German thinker List, who advanced the case for protecting the "infant industries" of newly industrializing countries from competition by well-established industries elsewhere. List was thinking at the time of protecting German industries from British competition, but contemporary Third World governments have taken up his arguments for protectionism. Today's newly industrializing countries are trying to do so in the face of competition in global markets from powerful industries and transnational corporations whose resources and sales may be greater than the annual income of many Third World countries. This kind of thinking proposes state concessions and other incentives, as well as restricting imports through the use of tariffs and quotas to ensure less foreign competition in the national market.

A third kind of argument may be labeled **Welfarism**. This would require development planners to link investment with the creation of jobs, the eradication of poverty and inequality, and the achievement of other conditions for development such as improved status for women and so on. Finally, there is **Global Environmentalism**. Concern for the environment is often a rather separate motivation for state intervention and intervention by means of agreements between states. Since the problems of managing the "global commons" necessarily require concerted international action, the Bruntland commission and similar bodies always propose more international agreements to regulate the excesses of global capitalism.

Famine, war and environmental catastrophe are all potentially listed in this way of thinking as overriding dangers to humanity. There is wide agreement on the importance of trying to eliminate poverty, and that this at least is an area where both international and state interventions are required. Galbraith (1990), for example, not only sees poverty as an inhumanity in itself but also as the source of oppression and conflict. Thus he advocates economic assistance to achieve economic improvement in the poor countries, not only for the direct benefits of material progress but also for the dangers of war and of violent repression of internal populations.

The most obvious problem with this approach is that there is no international state to implement any policies that may be suggested. The only possibility is to work through international agreements, but the questions remain of how such agreements are to be policed.

4. POPULISM

Neo-liberalism has led to the general weakening of states and to a decreased role for the state throughout the world, especially in developing regions. This weakening has been due to the growing importance of trade blocks like the European Union and the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA); the influence of multilateral organizations such as the IMF, World Bank and World Trade Organization; the emergence of multinational organizations, many with economies larger than most African states; and the limited abilities of states to determine their own social policies due to crippling debt servicing and the external imposition of SAPs and other economic conditions.

These conditions have developed to the point where the very legitimacy of some states is being questioned. This has led to concepts of alternative development, a set of ideas grouped together under the general label "populism." By this is meant an emphasis on people themselves as agents of development, solving their own problems individually or through local organizations and networks. In reaction against large scale and alienating industrialization, this is a current of thought that favors small-scale individual and co-operative enterprise in both industry and agriculture. It's a theory that emphasizes local participation, women's empowerment and sustainable development.

The attraction of the populist idea of direct action to meet one's own need is clear and simple. There is a ready correspondence between many people's dreams and a vision of. "a world of humanized production based on small-scale but modern and scientific technology, a world of co-operation in village and small town, a world of enriched social relationship growing out of a process of production and exchange that is under human control; rather than 'alienated'" Kitching, 1982,p.179. But Kitching (1982) argues that despite the attractiveness of this vision, populism makes a "very unsound and misleading basis for economic theories of development" and that "agriculture and rural development can only occur…within the context of sustained industrialization" so that the choice is still between state-led or market-driven industrialization. However, Kitching also comments that "economics is by no means the whole of life" and that there are good reasons why populism has "engaged the sympathy of both theorists of development and the people of under-developed countries."

Indeed in the 1990s into the current decade there is some sign of consensus on the need to look more closely at the potential for local groups and individuals to be involved as their own development agents, if only because of the manifest failure of the main theoretical perspectives on development to deliver major improvements in living conditions to the world's poorest individuals and communities. Thus, even the World Bank is taking on some of the terminology of populism – its publication_*Putting People First* (Cernea, 1985) echoes the title of perhaps the best known of the latest wave of writing in favor of self-sufficient, grassroots, participatory development programs, Robert Chambers' *Rural Development: Putting the Last First_(1983)*. It remains to be seen whether what has been termed the "new orthodoxy" for development (Poulton and Harris, 1988) can really take over from the "old orthodoxy" (Kitching, 1982) and ensure that the necessity for industrialization be viewed in light of the need for community empowerment and decentralized, bottom-up approaches to development.

Source: Allen .T. et.al., Poverty and Development in the 1990's Oxford University Press 1992.

Unit 3 – Development

Activity 5: Thinking About Development

Purpose: To encourage students to reflect on and discuss the complexities of development.

<u>**Time:**</u> 1 to $1\frac{1}{2}$ hours

<u>Materials:</u>

- Copy of *The Elephant*
- Handout of *Development Means*... for each student and an overhead transparency
- Flip chart and markers
- Overhead projector

Notes on Use:

This activity is comprised of two activities designed to get students thinking about development from different perspectives. The story of *The Elephant* is an appropriate metaphor for development because there are many meanings for the word development, and people tend to use it differently. As well, development has many dimensions – economic, social, environmental, political – and these are interconnected and cannot easily be separated from one another.

While several of the previous activities in this unit were more appropriate for older more skilled students, this exercise can be use with a wider variety of ages and skill levels.

Procedure:

- 1. Place the word DEVELOPMENT in the centre of a sheet of flip chart paper. Ask students to volunteer ideas and elements that they associate with the concept. Web these on the chart. What can we tell from this web?
- 2. Next read the story of *The Elephant* aloud to the group. Ask students to think about what ways talking about development is like the blind people in the story describing the elephant, and to think about why the elephant is a good metaphor for development.
- 3. Distribute handout entitled *Development Means*... Have the students follow the directions on the handout. Allow 10 15 minutes for them to read the list and rank the choices.
- 4. Divide students into small groups of four or five and give them a fresh handout. Have the group try to come up with one set of rankings that the whole group can agree on. Tell them they will present this to the rest of the class, explaining what they could agree on, and what they couldn't.
- 5. After 15-20 minutes in small groups, place the transparency of the ranking sheet on the overhead. Have each group provide the group rankings they could agree on and record

these on the transparency of the ranking sheet. Was there general agreement among the groups? Why or why not? What does this say about development as a concept?

Debriefing

What have we learned about the concept of development? If development means many things to many people, how do you know what kind of development is best? How do we know what agencies and policies to support?

THE ELEPHANT

There were six blind people. They heard that the king was visiting the next village, riding on an elephant. None of them had ever seen an elephant. "An elephant!" they said. "I wonder what an elephant is like."

They went to find out. Each of them went alone. The first held the elephant's trunk. The second held a tusk. The third held an ear. The fourth held a leg. The fifth held the stomach. The sixth held the tail. Then they went home, all sure that they now knew exactly what the elephant looked like.

They began to tell each other. "Oh it's a fantastic elephant," said the first, "so slow and soft, long and strong." "No," said the one who had felt the tusk. "It's quite short, and very sharp." "You're both of you wrong," said the third, who had felt the ear. "The elephant is flat and thin like a big leaf." "Oh no," said the fourth who had felt the leg. "It's like a tree."

And the other two joined in, too. "It's like a wall" "It's like a rope." "They argued and argued, and their argument grew very bitter. They began to fight.

Then someone came up who could see. "You are all right," said this person who could see. "All the parts together are the elephant."



Unit 3 – Development Activity 5 Handout A / Overhead A

DEVELOPMENT MEANS...

Below is a list of assumptions about development. Read through the list. Draw a line through those statements with which you CANNOT agree. Rank order the remaining statements by writing a number one (1) beside the assumption you feel is most important, a number two (2) beside the second most important, and so on.

To me, development means	
	spiritual and social growth
	implementing sustainable production and consumption practices – in the developed as well as the developing world
	recognizing our interdependence with others
	technological advancement
	a more equitable distribution of wealth – globally and within developing countries themselves
	the result of initiative, hard work, and entrepreneurial skills
	dealing with overpopulation problems
	protecting the environment
	transforming social and political structures
	the meeting of basic human needs
	using natural resources to produce wealth
	self-determination and self-reliance
	freedom from oppression and respect for human rights
	integrating the underdeveloped world into the modern global economy
	gender equity
	eliminating poverty
	building on and protecting best traditional cultural and social practices
	adopting Western democratic institutions
	other (define)

Unit 3 – Development

Activity 6: Looking at Sustainable Development

Purpose: To introduce students to the principles of sustainable development.

<u>Materials:</u>

- Declaration of Interdependence handout
- Sustainable Development mini-lecture
- Sustainable Development transparencies 1 and 2
- Sustainable Development Readings handout
- Flip chart and markers
- Overhead projector

Time: 2 hours

Notes on Use:

This is the final activity in this unit. It is designed to put the whole issue of development into perspective. Development that is not sustainable has the capacity to degrade the quality of life of all humans as well as other species with which we share the planet.

Make sure you point out to students that our "footprints" (use of resources and impact on the global environment) are grotesquely greater than those in developing countries. For example, based on a wide range of factors (e.g., carbon production, use of cropland and grazing land per person, forest acreage consumption) assessed by the Global Footprint Network (<u>www.footprintnetwork.org</u>), Canada's footprint is about 5 ½ times that of The Gambia's, and in terms of energy consumption, Canada uses about 15,000 kilowatt hours per person compared to 91 for Senegal, Gambia's neighbour. That means that the average Canadian consumes a mind-boggling 165 times more energy than the average Senegalese. So any discussion about sustainable development has to include our own consumption patterns – and how sustainable they are.

The exercise has four distinct phases: the code, which is designed to engage the students; the discussion of the *Declaration of Interdependence;* the webbing of the meaning of sustainable development and a mini-lecture on the concept; and the reading of a final article that provides a strong overview of the whole issue of sustainable development.

Procedure:

1. Divide the class into small groups of three and pass out copies the *Declaration of Interdependence* to each student. Have the group members read the declaration aloud – a different person can read each section.

- 2. In the small groups, students discuss following questions. They can be written on a flip chart or overhead for students to refer to.
 - What is interdependence? Why is it important?
 - What is the author saying?
 - What is the relationship between the future and the present?
 - What does the declaration say about humans' relationship with nature? Is that view reflected in our society and culture? In your personal lifestyle?
 - What does the declaration say about development?
 - Do you agree with this declaration?

Allow 20-30 minutes for reading and discussion. Then discuss briefly the questions posed and written on the flip chart.

- 3. Back in the large group write the words "sustainable development" on the flip chart. Ask students if they have heard of that term. If so, what does it mean? Create a web around the term, connecting it with brainstormed meanings and associations.
- 4. Read the *Sustainable Development* mini-lecture to the class and have students work through the questions posed in the lecture. Do they now have a better understanding of what sustainable is and isn't?
- 5. Break into small groups again. In their groups, have the students read the final article, *Sustainable Development Readings*. Ask students to again read aloud the article. Encourage group members to circle words they are not sure of and underline concepts or phrases they would like to have discussed. Once the groups are done reading, have them go over the article, addressing questions group members had about the reading or vocabulary. Reconvene as a large group and go over the issues raised in the article. Summarize some of the main ideas and ask for issues students would like further clarification on.
- 6. Finally, return to the web chart done with sustainable development in the middle. Is there anything the group would now change? Add?

Debriefing:

What are the main differences between sustainable development and unsustainable development? Which prevails in the world right now? Why is the issue of sustainable development particularly relevant to rural communities? To developing countries? What gets in the way of implementing sustainable development strategies?



Unit 3 – Development Activity 6 Handout A

Declaration Of Interdependence

Five members of the David Suzuki Foundation team wrote the following *Declaration of Interdependence* in 1992 for the United Nations' Earth Summit in Rio de Janeiro. In 2001, Finnish composer Pehr Henrik Nordgren wrote his Symphony no. 6 "Interdependence" based on the declaration, which also served as lyrics to the piece. It was performed for the first time in Sendai, Japan in December, 2001.

This We Know

We are the earth, through the plants and animals that nourish us.

We are the rains and the oceans that flow through our veins.

We are the breath of the forests of the land, and the plants of the sea.

We are human animals, related to all other life as descendants of the firstborn cell.

We share with these kin a common history, written in our genes.

We share a common present, filled with uncertainty.

And we share a common future, as yet untold.

We humans are but one of thirty million species weaving the thin layer of life enveloping the world.

The stability of communities of living things depends upon this diversity.

Linked in that web, we are interconnected -- using, cleansing, sharing and replenishing the fundamental elements of life.

Our home, planet Earth, is finite; all life shares its resources and the energy from the sun, and therefore has limits to growth.

For the first time, we have touched those limits.

When we compromise the air, the water, the soil and the variety of life, we steal from the endless future to serve the fleeting present.

This We Believe

Humans have become so numerous and our tools so powerful that we have driven fellow creatures to extinction, dammed the great rivers, torn down ancient forests, poisoned the earth, rain and wind, and ripped holes in the sky.

Our science has brought pain as well as joy; our comfort is paid for by the suffering of millions.

We are learning from our mistakes, we are mourning our vanished kin, and we now build a new politics of hope.

We respect and uphold the absolute need for clean air, water and soil.

We see that economic activities that benefit the few while shrinking the inheritance of many are wrong.

And since environmental degradation erodes biological capital forever, full ecological and social cost must enter all equations of development.

We are one brief generation in the long march of time; the future is not ours to erase.

So where knowledge is limited, we will remember all those who will walk after us, and err on the side of caution.

This We Resolve

All this that we know and believe must now become the foundation of the way we live.

At this turning point in our relationship with Earth, we work for an evolution: from dominance to partnership; from fragmentation to connection; from insecurity, to interdependence.

Source: 2007 David Suzuki Foundation http://www.davidsuzuki.org/About_us/Declaration_of_Interdependence.asp

Sustainable Development Mini-Lecture

Place Overhead A on projector.

There are many definitions of sustainable development, including this landmark one which first appeared in 1987:

"Development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs."

From the World Commission on Environment and Development

But what does this mean? What are the needs of the present? Take a minute and jot down five to ten needs that you have in your own life.

Have you listed any needs that conflict with one another? For example, if you listed clean air to breathe, but also listed a car for transportation, your needs might conflict. Which would you choose, and how would you make your decision? If within ourselves, we have conflicting needs, how much is that multiplied when we look at a whole community, city, country, world? For example, what happens when a company's need for cheap labor conflicts with workers' needs for livable wages? Or when individual families' needs for firewood conflict with the need to prevent erosion and conserve topsoil? Or when one country's need for electricity results in acid rain that damages another country's lakes and rivers?

How do we decide whose needs are met? Poor or rich people? Citizens or immigrants? People living in cities or in the countryside? People in one country or another? You or your neighbor? The environment or the corporation? This generation or the next generation? When there has to be a trade off, whose needs should go first?

The Long and the Short of It

People concerned about sustainable development suggest that meeting the needs of the future depends on how well we balance social, economic, and environmental objectives – or needs – when making decisions today. Some of these needs are itemized around the puzzle diagram.

Place Overhead B on projector.

What social, economic, or environmental needs would you add to the puzzle?



Many of these objectives may seem to conflict with each other in the short term. For example, industrial growth might conflict with preserving natural resources. Yet, in the long term, responsible use of natural resources now will help ensure that there are resources available for sustained industrial growth far into the future.

Studying the puzzle raises a number of difficult questions. For example, can the long term economic objective of sustained agricultural growth be met if the ecological objective of preserving biodiversity is not? What happens to the environment in the long term if a large number of people cannot afford to meet their basic household needs today? If you did not have access to safe water, and therefore needed wood to boil drinking water so that you and your children would not get sick, would you worry about causing deforestation? Or, if you had to drive a long distance to get to work each day, would you be willing to move or get a new job to avoid polluting the air with your car exhaust? If we don't balance our social, economic, and environmental objectives in the short term, how can we expect to sustain our development in the long term?

Adapted from World Bank website: www/worldbank.org/depweb/english/whatis.htm
Unit 3 – Development Activity 6 Overhead A

"Development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs."

from *The World Commission on Environment and Development*

Unit 3 – Development Activity 6 Overhead B



Services	Equity	Biodiversity
Household Needs	Participation	Natural Resources
Industrial Growth	Empowerment	Carrying Capacity
Agricultural Growth	Social Mobility	Ecosystem Integrity
Efficient Use of Labor	Cultural Preservation	Clean Air and Water



Unit 3 – Development Activity 6 Handout B

Sustainable Development Readings

Sustainable development means different things to different people, but the most frequently quoted definition is from the World Commission on Environment and Development:

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

Sustainable development focuses on improving the quality of life for all of the Earth's citizens without increasing the use of natural resources beyond the capacity of the environment to supply them indefinitely. It requires an understanding that inaction has consequences and that we must find innovative ways to change institutional structures and influence individual behaviour. It is about taking action, changing policy and practice at all levels, from the individual to the international.

Sustainable development is not a new idea. Many cultures over the course of human history have recognized the need for harmony between the environment, society and economy. What is new is an articulation of these ideas in the context of a global industrial and information society. Sustainable development is a fluid concept that will continue to evolve over time but common characteristics underlie the many streams of thought. Sustainable development emphasizes the need for:

- Concern for equity and fairness ensuring the rights of the poor and of future generations
- Long-term view applying the precautionary principle
- Systems thinking understanding the interconnections between the environment, economy and society

In addition, sustainable development strategies usually highlight the interplay between the local and global, the developing and the developed, and the need for cooperation within and between sectors.

Sustainable development is not a detailed plan of action, a formula that we can all blindly follow. There is no one solution. Solutions will differ between places and times and depend on the mix of values and resources. Approaching decision-making from a sustainable development perspective requires undertaking a careful assessment of the strengths of your household, community, company or organization to determine priority actions.

Equity and Fairness

Sustainable development is concerned with meeting the needs of the poor and marginalized portions of our population. The concepts of equity and fairness are prominent in definitions of sustainable development. Sustainable development acknowledges that if we ignore our effects on others in an interdependent world, we do so at our own peril.

Since a dangerous disparity in access to resources has been established through our economic and public-policy systems, those systems must change. Fairness implies that each nation should have the opportunity to develop itself according to its own cultural and social values without denying other nations the same right to development.

One of the greatest challenges in decision-making is how to protect the rights of the voiceless. Future generations have no ability to speak on their own behalf or to protect their interests in decision-making processes. If development is to be sustainable, it must consider their interests.

Long-term View

How long is long term? In Western society during the past generation, most official long-term planning has been at most three to five years. Many international stock and currency traders now think of a few weeks as long term. Traditional Native American governance, however, focused on planning for "the seventh generation today." Goals and activities are designed with consideration for their impact on seven generations into the future, leading to a planning horizon of roughly 150 years.

A planning horizon somewhere in the middle may be both necessary and realistic. Some experts have suggested that as long as each generation looks after the next – roughly 50 years – each succeeding generation will be taken care of. Of course, if an effect in the yet further future is foreseen, then it too can be taken into account. No generation can be expected to guarantee results it cannot foresee; but equally, none should be allowed to ignore those it can.

People from around the world are looking ahead and building scenarios about what the future may be like. The scenarios they envision range from a world of resource scarcity and violence to one of increased sharing and technological innovation. Which scenario is most likely to occur?

No one is certain.

In an interdependent world, complex interactions are leading to a startlingly high rate of innovation and change. In times of rapid change, the precautionary principle can provide some guidance. It states that when an activity raises threats of harm to the environment or human health, precautionary measures should be taken even if some cause-and-effect relationships are not fully established scientifically.

Systems Thinking

For some two centuries we have known that the Earth is a closed system with finite resources. As planetary explorers completed the task of mapping the lands and waters, people slowly grew to understand that there are no "new" resources. We have only one Earth. All of our activities are but a small part of this larger system. Viewing our human systems as operating within the larger

ecosystem is crucial for achieving a sustainable relationship with the environment, and assuring our own species' continued survival on the planet.

Each natural resource used by human beings – food, water, wood, iron, phosphorous, oil and hundreds of others – is limited by both its sources and its sinks. Resources should not be removed faster than they can be renewed nor disposed of more quickly than they can be absorbed. Although environmentalists used to be concerned primarily about running out of resources, today more people are concerned about running out of sinks. Global warming, the ozone hole, and conflicts over the international shipment of hazardous waste are all problems that have arisen from our attempts to dispose of resources faster than the environment can absorb them.

Systems thinking requires us to understand that while there is only one Earth, it is composed of a multitude of subsystems all interacting with each other. A variety of models have been developed to explain the Earth's subsystems. When measuring our progress toward sustainable development, these models provide useful frameworks for choosing indicators. The differences between the models show the specific perspectives which groups bring to sustainable development and embody their differing values.

These subsystems are connected together by intricate feedback loops. The science of complexity suggests that in some systems a very small occurrence can produce unpredictable and sometimes drastic results by triggering a series of increasingly significant events. We have seen that emissions in the North have thinned the protective ozone layer over Antarctica, increasing rates of skin cancer in the South. Financial crises in Asia have threatened the economies of other countries around the world. And ethnic violence in Central Africa has led to refugee migrations that are overwhelming the support systems of nearby regions, triggering further crises and migrations.

We have learned that the consequences of decisions made in one part of the world quickly affect us all.

Critical Actions

Around the world we see signs of severe stress on our interlocked global economic, environmental and social systems. As the United Nations Environmental Programme's GEO-2000 report points out, the "time for a rational, well-planned transition to a sustainable system is running out fast." And yet we continue to adopt a business-as-usual approach to decisionmaking, which increases the chance that our global systems will crack and begin to crumble. Already we are faced with full-scale emergencies through freshwater shortages, tropical forest destruction, species extinction, urban air pollution, and climate change.

How do we quickly reverse these trends? In 1987 the World Commission on Environment and Development recommended seven critical actions needed to ensure a good quality of life for people around the world:

- Revive growth
- Change the quality of growth

- Meet essential needs and aspirations for jobs, food, energy, water and sanitation
- Ensure a sustainable level of population
- Conserve and enhance the resource base
- Reorient technology and manage risk

Include and combine environment and economic considerations in decision-making. These recommendations are as valid today as they were when first written. They are a call to change our actions and to do things differently. In particular, they underscore a need to:

- Produce differently apply concepts of eco-efficiency and sustainable livelihoods
- Consume differently
- Organize ourselves differently increase public participation while reducing corruption and perverse subsidies

When taken together, these actions can help orient us on a path toward sustainable development.

Produce Differently

Increasing efficiency and reusing materials will play important roles in achieving sustainable development. Eco-efficient companies and industries must deliver competitively priced goods and services that improve peoples' quality of life, while reducing ecological impacts and resource-use intensity to a level within the Earth's carrying capacity.

How much more efficient do we need to become? Globally, the goal is to quadruple resource productivity so that wealth is doubled, and resource use is halved (this concept is known as Factor Four). However, because OECD countries are responsible for material flows five times as high as developing countries, and world population continues to rise, it will be necessary for OECD countries to reduce their per capita material use by a factor of ten.

Implementing Factor Four and Factor Ten strategies will require us to think about the cradle-tograve impact of all goods and services to make wise choices. It will also require a reorientation of industrial economies – reducing the scale of polluting activities and creating new opportunities for entrepreneurs.

The new generation of small, medium and micro-enterprises that operate within a sustainable development framework will expand our understanding of appropriate technologies and their contribution to creating sustainable livelihoods. In developing countries, achieving sustainable development will require overall national income growth of around five to six percent a year. For this to occur, however, without further degrading the environment and society, growth must be qualitatively different than in the past. Capital-intensive production systems may be unattainable and undesirable in many situations. Creating 12 million old-style industrial jobs in India, for example, would require an investment of four to six times that of its GNP. Alternative types of systems must be found that provide for high levels of productivity and meaningful work.

Consume Differently

World consumption has expanded at an unprecedented rate in the 20th century, with private and public consumption expenditures reaching \$24 trillion in 1998, twice the level of 1975 and six

times that of 1950. Consumption in and of itself is not bad – all living things must consume to maintain their biological existence. The real issue is the levels, patterns and effects of consumption.

For many in the developed world, present consumption levels and patterns are unsustainable. The environmental and social impacts of consumption are being felt at both local and global levels. Locally, we see increases in pollution and a growing sense of alienation within our communities. Globally, climate change and the depletion of the ozone layer are but two stark reminders of the impact of our consumption levels.

One useful tool for measuring the extent of our consumption is the ecological footprint. It shows how much productive land and water we need to produce all the resources we consume and to absorb all the waste we make. Already, humanity's ecological footprint may be over 30 percent larger than the ecological space the world has to offer.

The ranking of ecological footprints shows which countries are ecologically most sustainable and which are running an ecological deficit. The average American has an ecological footprint 1.7 times larger than a person in Sweden, 3.8 times that of someone in Hungary or Costa Rica, and more than nine times that of an individual in India. It is important, however, to realize that these averages hide inequalities within countries. More than 100 million people in rich nations suffer from poverty. And a culture of material consumption is gaining ground among the emerging middle classes of such countries as India, Malaysia and Brazil.

Policies must be developed that promote consumption patterns which reduce our ecological footprint while meeting the needs of all people to enjoy a good quality of life. These policies must also raise the consumption of the world's more than a billion poor who are unable to meet their basic food, shelter and clothing needs.

Meanwhile, we need to shift how we make decisions – as consumers – from thinking about means to thinking about ends. For example, governments and businesses may collaborate to meet people's transportation needs by investing in improved public transit rather than building new roads. Even better, they may work together with communities to pass new zoning laws that allow people to live, work, and shop within the same neighbourhood. This would minimize people's needs for transportation while improving the accessibility of what they really want – goods and services.

Organize Ourselves Differently

How we organize ourselves and establish rules to govern our actions will play a major role in determining whether we move toward more sustainable paths.

Good governance will require reforming decision-making processes to increase opportunities for public participation, including a wide variety of activities ranging from consultation hearings as part of an environmental impact assessment, to co-management of natural resources. In its deepest form, public participation seeks to involve civil society in all steps of planning, implementation and evaluation of policies and actions. Public participation can:

- Help to establish good pathways for sustainable development
- Enhance understanding and relationships
- Increase eagerness to participate, leading to better implementation of decisions
- Enrich the community and build social capital

Reducing corruption, the misuse of power for private benefit or advantage, is also necessary to achieve sustainable development. It has proven to be highly destructive since corruption leads to the disregard of public interest and warps competitive markets. It leads governments to intervene where they need not, and it undermines their ability to enact and implement policies in areas in which intervention is clearly needed – whether environmental regulation, health and safety regulation, social safety nets, macroeconomic stabilization, or contract enforcement.

We govern our economies through a complex array of regulations, laws and market incentives. Unfortunately, tax structures, payments to producers, prices supports and the like function as perverse subsidies that have detrimental effects on both the economy and the environment. They are also often distributionally regressive, benefiting mostly the wealthy – often political interest groups – while draining the public budget. As recent studies from the Earth Council and the International Institute for Sustainable Development have noted, the world is spending nearly \$1.5 trillion annually to subsidize its own destruction. That is twice as much as global military spending a year, and almost twice as large as the annual growth in the world's economy. Removing even a portion of these perverse subsidies would provide a large stimulus for sustainable development.

Adapted from SD Gateway website: http://sdgateway.net/introsd/

Unit 4 – Poverty

Poverty is a concept that many people, understandably, want to avoid. However, even though many of us do not confront it in the developed world (at least not as much as the developing world), it is a problem that surrounds us on a global scale. The activities in this unit are full of statistics about poverty, but they also provide the human face of poverty to the students.

We know it when we see it but attributing words to defining poverty can by tricky. Activity 1 delves into various definitions of poverty and then challenges students to come up with their own understanding of what poverty is. Activity 2 deals with the standard question of "How do we measure poverty?" The article, "*Clock turning back for world's poor*," by Larry Elliott provides an interesting vehicle for students to discuss some of the factors contributing to the widening gap between the world's poorest and wealthiest countries and citizens.

Activity 3 involves a role-play scenario for students. Students will be assigned an article that illustrates various social factors that we attribute as reasons for poverty. In small groups students will focus on one factor they have been assigned – *ignorance, disease, apathy, dishonesty,* or *dependency* and express it through a role-play skit. This will challenge the students to internalize the concept of poverty and express it in a unique fashion.

The last two activities have students examining poverty through a two-sided debate about who bares the responsibility for being poor and second through a visual assignment about some surprising facts on poverty. The activities in this unit are as multi-facetted as the causes of poverty. They will help students explore and digest not just facts and figures about poverty, but also their feelings on the topic.

Unit 4 – Poverty

Activity 1: Defining Poverty

Purpose: To allow students to compare definitions and concepts about poverty.

<u>Materials:</u>

- Flip chart paper and markers
- Poverty as a Social Problem handout
- Definitions of Poverty handout
- Definitions of Poverty overhead
- Response journals
- Overhead projector

Time: 1 hour

Notes on Use:

This activity is designed to give the students time to reflect on the varying definitions of poverty and how poverty frames social issues that relate to development. This activity also allows students to draw from knowledge and discussions relating to the poverty activities introduced in the Economics and Development unit.

During the ranking section of this activity, students are encouraged to reach consensus in their small groups. The teacher will want to circulate around the groups to monitor the progress of reaching this goal.

Procedure:

- 1. Divide the class into small groups of three. You will need to have at least six sub-groups to promote effective discussion and consensus building.
- 2. Handout the article *Poverty as a Social Problem*. Have each student read the article silently or have each designate a reader to read aloud. Have the students note any vocabulary in the reading that is challenging. After all groups have read the article, discuss as a large group vocabulary from the article that needs further clarification.
- 3. In their small groups, have the students discuss the article using the following questions:
 - What insight did the article provide on poverty?
 - How was poverty presented as a global concern and issue?
 - To what extent is poverty a local issue or an international problem that needs to be solved at a global level?

- 4. Write these questions on flip chart paper and post them for the groups to see when in discussion.
- 5. While students are in their same small groups, distribute the *Definitions of Poverty* Handout. Have the students review each definition independently. When all students in the groups have read the definitions, explain to them that they will be ranking their definition in order of preference. The groups must rank each of the five definitions by group consensus. Allow the groups 20 minutes to reach consensus and to rank the five definitions in the handout.
- 6. After each group has ranked the definitions, allow each group to present their *number* one definition of poverty to the large group stating reasons for their decision. Each group should have one presenter for this task. Allow each group two or three minutes to present their group's choice stating their collective reasoning. Remind the students that there are no right or wrong answers in this activity and that all decisions reflect the experience and discussion of the small groups presenting. *Place Poverty Definitions* overhead on the overhead projector so that both the groups and the teachers can refer to definitions during presentations and discussion.

Debriefing:

Have the group sit down with a piece of paper and a pen. Read out the following questions, or post them on flip chart paper for the group to see, and have them respond in writing.

- 1. Write down two things that you think of when you hear the word *poverty*.
- 2. Write down three things that you have learned about poverty from this activity.
- 3. Write down any ideas that you may have for addressing poverty and poverty awareness in the future.

Allow students 15-20 minutes to complete the reflection writing assignment. Collect the journal entries at the end of the activity for reading and comment giving. Written responses from the teachers should be returned to the students the following day.

If time does not allow for written responses, pair students up with each other and have them share thoughts and ideas in a short closing discussion.



Unit 4 – Poverty Activity 1 Handout A

Definitions of Poverty

The following are varying definitions of poverty. In your groups, review each definition and rank, from one to five, your preference. Use one to indicate the best definition of poverty and five for the worst. You are asked to reach consensus in your small groups.

Poverty is...

A. _____ "The lack of basic security suggests the absence of one or more factors enabling individuals and families to assume basic responsibilities and to enjoy fundamental human rights. The situation may become widespread and result in serious and permanent consequences. The lack of basic security leads to chronic poverty when it simultaneously affects several aspects of people's lives, when it is prolonged and when it severely compromises people's chances of regaining their rights and reassuming their responsibilities as contributing members of society in the foreseeable future." Father Wresinki, founder of ATD Fourth World, 1987

B. _____ "Opportunities and choices, most basic to human development, are denied such as the opportunity to lead a long and healthy life, to enjoy and access a decent standard of living with freedom, dignity, and self respect, and to respect and live in harmony with others." UNDP Human Development Report, 1997

C. _____ "A human condition characterized by the sustained or chronic deprivation of the resources, capabilities, choices, security, and power necessary for the full enjoyment of an adequate standard of living and other fundamental civil, cultural, economic, political, and social rights." United Nations, UNHCHR, 2000

D. _____ "The lack of basic capacity to participate fully in society. It means not having enough to feed and clothe a family, not having a school or a clinic to go to, not having land on which to grow one's food or a job to earn one's living, nor having access to credit or an economic marketplace. It means insecurity, powerlessness, and exclusion of individuals, households and entire communities. It means susceptibility to violence, and often implies living in marginal and underdeveloped fragile communities with no access to a clean environment with drinkable water and sanitation.' Action to Eradicate Poverty, 1998

E. _____ "Must be seen and understood as the deprivation of basic capabilities rather than merely as lowness of incomes and human laziness. There is a direct link between poverty, development, the economic markets, and overall freedom." Amartya Sen, Noble Peace Prize, Economist, 2000



Unit 4 – Poverty Activity 1 Handout B / Overhead A

Poverty as a Social Problem

'Poverty is not to be suffered in silence by the poor. Nor can it be tolerated by those with power to change it. The challenge is now to mobilize action - state by state, organization by organization, individual by individual.' James Gustave Speth, UNDP



Image: ©Mark Edwards

Access to rights - Poverty is not about money. It is about access. Access to the basic rights of food, clothes and shelter, education, proper health care, clean water - rights which most of us take for granted. In the past 50 years there has been greater poverty reduction than in the previous 500, with more and more people across the world gaining access to these rights. Yet over one billion people still live in severe poverty today - and the clock is turning backwards, with poverty on the increase once again.

Money talk - It may seem pedantic to draw this distinction between human poverty (lack of access) and income poverty (lack of money). In many situations the connection between the two is obvious: money buys access, and to have money means that you are not poor. However, in many other cases income levels do not reflect levels of poverty: in Cuba, for example, where incomes have remained comparatively low, state provision of education and health care over the past 40 years has raised the country to second in the UN's Human Poverty Index of developing countries - ahead of Chile, Singapore and many other 'richer' states.

Poverty among riches - Defining poverty as lack of access also reveals the scale of deprivation in the world's industrialised countries. Although an annual income of US\$10,000 would be more than adequate in many countries of the developing world, a US family on such an income will experience severe want. According to the US Census Bureau, more than 35 million people in the USA live in poverty - 13 per cent of the population. In the UK, which has experienced extensive social disintegration over the past 20 years, government figures show one in three children now grows up in poverty (in 1979 the proportion was one in ten).

The rich get richer - The new rise in poverty levels over the past two decades is no coincidence, but comes as a direct result of the global economic blueprint adopted by some state governments and forced on others in the form of structural adjustment programmes by international donors such as the IMF and World Bank. This model of privatisation and deregulation claimed that the benefits of economic growth would of their own accord `trickle down' to the rest of society. Yet the policies of liberalisation themselves ensured that this could not happen, leading to the massive gaps in income between rich and poor experienced across the world today. The combined wealth of the world's seven richest men could eradicate the poverty of the one billion poorest, according to the UN.

New directions - At last the negative effects of neo-liberalisation are beginning to undermine the confidence with which it was previously defended. The 1995 World Summit for Social Development held in Copenhagen recognised this explicitly, and the UN has now called for `pro-poor' policies to redress the balance. The ambitious target of halving world poverty by the year 2015 demands that states incorporate poverty eradication into their economic strategies. However, real success will depend on the larger choice the world makes between the two basic models of development: economic growth at all cost, or sustainable growth with equity.

OneWorld, August 28th, 2002

Unit 4 – Poverty

Activity 2: Measuring Poverty

<u>Purpose</u>: To review the latest figures on world poverty and to focus on some of the factors contributing to the widening gap between the world's poorest and wealthiest countries and citizens.

<u>Materials:</u>

- Copy of the article *Clock Turning Back for World's Poor* for each student
- 5 sheets of flip chart paper and markers

<u>**Time:**</u> 1 to $1\frac{1}{2}$ hours

Notes on Use:

The activity focuses on an article that summarizes the findings of a UN report on human development released in 2003. The figures on global poverty – and the widening gap between poor and wealthy nations – are both current and sobering. The activity uses the article as a catalyst to provoke discussion about the issue of global poverty, including its causes, relationship to neo-liberal market policies, possible solutions, and the relationship of this macro report to the community level.

The purpose of introducing this snapshot of global wealth and poverty at this point is to keep the discussion of economics and development in a context of the global human condition. It is important to underscore the urgency of addressing not just economic policies such as market reforms, but to come up with an "interventionist strategy" at both the global and local level that will not only result in wealth creation, but also poverty reduction.

As an extension students may also use the Internet to find current findings on UN reports on human development at <u>http://hdr.undp.org/</u>.

Procedure:

- 1. Explain that poverty is a key aspect of economics, and that this activity, which revolves around a recent UN report on human development, underscores the urgency of addressing not just economic policies such as market reforms, but to come up with an "interventionist strategy" at both the global and local level that will not only result in wealth creation, but also poverty reduction.
- 2. Divide the students into five groups. Once they are in their groups, ask them to turn to the article *Clock Turning Back for World's Poor*, which appeared in the July 17-23, 2003 issue of the *Guardian Weekly*. Tell the students that they are going to read the article in their groups and that each group will be responsible for focusing on one of five questions

related to the article. Place the five questions on a piece of flip chart paper so the groups can see them as they read.

Group1: Summarize in one sentence the essential findings of the UN report. *Group 2:* Identify the causes cited by the report for the widening economic gap between poor and wealthier nations.

Group 3: Identify the solutions the report suggests to address the increase in poverty among many developing nations.

Group 4: What evidence of the widening poverty gap between poorer and wealthier countries do you see at the community level?

Group 5: How can this global gap between poor and wealthy nations be addressed at the community level?

With students taking turns reading, have them read the article out loud in their small groups, making notes in their text, especially highlighting areas that relate to their topic.

- 3. Handout a sheet of flip chart paper and marker to each group. Once the group has read through the article, ask them to discuss it, focusing on the information that specifically relates to their group's question. Have a recorder record the comments. When the discussion is completed, have the recorder write the groups question number at the top of the flip chart sheet. Then, with direction from the group, have him or her write the group's comments in response to their question on the chart paper. Post sheets on the walls.
- 4. Have a representative of each group read their question and response. Open up the discussion to the group as a whole after each presentation. Do they generally agree with the presenters' conclusions? Do other students have other ideas? Do they interpret the information differently? Can they identify other causes or solutions? Allow debate but monitor the discussion so it does not drag out too long. This is an opportunity for you as the teacher to expand, clarify and, if necessary, add points that groups may have missed.

Debriefing:

What is most surprising about the results of this report? What does the report say about the nature of poverty in developing nations? How could the suggestions in the report for addressing the growing economic disparity be effectively implemented at the community level?



Unit 4 – Poverty Activity 2 Handout A

International News

Clock Turning Back For World's Poor Larry Elliott Guardian Weekly

- 54 countries saw average income decline during the 1990s
- 21 countries went backwards in terms of human development a measure of income, life expectancy and literacy
- 2147 the year when, on current trends, sub-Saharan Africa can hope to halve the number of people living in poverty
- 30,000 children die each day of preventable illness
- 500,000 women a year, one for each minute, die in pregnancy or childbirth
- 13m children were killed by diarrhea in the 1990s more than all the people lost to armed conflict since the second world war
- 33.1 years is now the life expectancy in Zimbabwe, against 56 in the early 70s. In UK it rose from 72 to 78.2
- 363 children in 1,000 in Sierra Leone do not reach their fifth birthday. In Norway only four children in 1,000 die before they turn five

The widening gulf between the global haves and have-nots was revealed last week when the UN announced that, while the US was booming in the 1990s, the living standards of more than 50 countries fell.

The UN's annual human development report charted increasing poverty for more than a quarter of the world's countries, where a lethal combination of famine, HIV/Aids, conflict and failed economic policies has turned the clock back. Highlighting the setbacks endured by sub-Saharan Africa and the countries that emerged from the break-up of the Soviet Union, the UN called for urgent action to meet its millennium development goals for 2015. These include a halving of the number of people living on less than a dollar a day, a two-thirds drop in mortality for the underfives, universal primary education and a halving of those without access to safe drinking water and improved sanitation.

The report said the 90s had seen a drop from 30% to 23% in the proportion of people living on less than a dollar a day, but the improvement had largely been the result of progress in China and India, the world's two most populous countries. Despite a few successes such as Ghana and Senegal, there was little hope of Africa meeting the 2015 goals; on present trends it will be 2147 before the poorest countries in the poorest continent halve poverty, and 2165 before child mortality falls by two-thirds. Thirty of 34 nations classified by the UN as "low human development" are in sub-Saharan Africa.

Taking issue with those who have argued that the "tough love" policies of the past two decades have spawned a new global middle class, the report says the world became ever more divided between the super-rich and desperately poor. The richest 1% of the world's population (around 60 mil lion) now receive as much income as the poorest 57%, while the income of the richest 25 million Americans is the equivalent of that of almost two billion of the world's poorest people. In 1820 Western Europe's per capita income was three times that of Africa's; by the 90s it was more than 13 times as high.

In Norway, top of the UN's league table for human development, life expectancy at birth is 78.7 years, there is 100% literacy and annual income is just under \$30,000.

At the other end of the scale, a newborn child in Sierra Leone will be lucky to reach its 35th birthday, has a two in three chance of growing up illiterate and would have an income of \$470 a year. Overall human development, measured by the UN as an amalgam of income, life expectancy and literacy fell in 21 countries during the 90s.

By contrast only four countries suffered falling human development in the 80s. "Though average incomes have risen and fallen over time, human development has historically shown sustained improvement, especially when measured by the human development index," the report said. "But the 1990s saw unprecedented stagnation, with the HDI falling in 21 countries. Much of the decline in the 1990s can be traced to the spread of HIV/Aids, which lowered life expectancies, and to a collapse in incomes, particularly in the Commonwealth of Independent States."

The UN said the events of September 11 had created a "genuine consensus" that poverty was the world's problem, but urged the West to abandon the one-size-fits-all liberalisation agenda foisted on poor countries.

Mark Malloch-Brown, the administrator of the UN development programme, said many countries in Africa and Latin America held up as examples of how to kick start development were among the stragglers in the global economy. "The poster children of the 1990s are among those who didn't do terribly well," he said. "There are structural restraints on development. Market reforms are not enough. You can't just liberalise; you need an interventionist strategy."

The report added that: "Over the past 20 years too much development thinking and practice has confused market-based economic growth with laissez faire." The West needed to tear down trade barriers, dismantle its lavish subsidies, provide deeper debt relief and double aid from \$50bn to \$100bn a year. This would provide the resources for investment in the building blocks of

development – health, education, clean water and rural roads. "Poor countries cannot afford to wait until they are wealthy before they invest in their people," said Jeffrey Sachs, special adviser to the UN secretary general, Kofi Annan, on the UN's millennium development goals.

Economic growth alone would not end world poverty, the report said. "Without addressing issues like malnutrition and illiteracy that are both causes and symptoms of poverty the goals will not be met. The statistics are shaming: more than 13 million children have died through diarrhoeal disease in the past decade. Each year more than half a million women, one for every minute of the day, die in pregnancy and childbirth. More than 800 million suffer from malnutrition."

It added: "For many countries the 1990s were a decade of despair. Some 54 countries are poorer now than in 1990. In 21, a larger proportion is going hungry. In 14, more children are dying before age five. In 12, primary school enrolments are shrinking. In 34, life expectancy has fallen. Such reversals in survival were previously rare."

Matthew Lockwood, head of UK Advocacy Team, ActionAid, said: "The shocking truth is that the poor are getting poorer. Leaders, in rich and poor countries alike, are not taking poverty seriously enough.

"You don't solve this problem by making the leaders of poor countries accountable to their richcountry counterparts. They need to be accountable to their own citizens. Poor people must have a voice."

Source: Guardian Unlimited © Guardian Newspapers Limited 2003

Unit 4 – Poverty

Activity 3: Poverty and the Big Five

<u>Purpose:</u> To promote the exploration of the social causes of poverty and to discuss the factors that contribute to keeping people in the cycle of poverty.

<u>Materials:</u>

- Flip chart paper and markers
- *Factors of Poverty The Big Five* handout
- Response journals

<u>Time:</u> 2 hours – In a typical 1 hour block of time for a class this activity would ideally involve one class for groups to prepare their role play activity and one class to present and debrief their role plays.

Notes on Use:

This activity is designed to have the students reflect on the social causes of poverty in their society. The reading provides the group with context, while the role-plays allow the students to take ownership of their understanding and interpretations of the points made in the article. During this activity, the teacher will need to promote and encourage the students to capture their own experiences and ideas about social poverty in their society and culture. The teacher will also need to make it clear to the students that the role plays are to depict poverty while making social commentary on the "factor" they have been assigned in small groups – ignorance, disease, apathy, dishonesty, or dependency.

The role-plays will need to be time-focused and the students will need to be aware of and respect the time allotted for their presentation. Following each of the role-play presentations, the presenting group will need to debrief their message and provide commentary about their assigned 'factor' to the rest of the group. No presentation should be concluded without this kind follow-up commentary aimed at those in the viewing audience.

Procedure:

- 1. Divide the class into five sub-groups. Have the groups select a designate leader and a designated reader for the activity.
- 2. Distribute the *Factors of Poverty The Big Five* handout to all students. Have the designated reader of the group read the article to the other group members. While the reader is reading aloud, encourage the listening students to underline any challenging words found in the article.

- 3. When the reader has finished reading to others, have the groups discuss the challenging words from the article in their small groups. Allow the groups 10-15 minutes to discuss the words and concepts from the article.
- 4. When all groups have completed reading, and have had a chance to have a follow-up discussion, assign each of the sub-groups one of the five social factors, The Big Five, from the article *ignorance, disease, apathy, dishonesty,* and *dependency*.
- 5. With each group now assigned one of the social 'factors' from the article, have the subgroups prepare a <u>five minute</u> role play that will provide the audience with the following:
 - A clear statement with reference to their assigned social 'factor' from the article,
 - Illustration of the role of their social "factor" in a village setting,
 - Illustration of the relationship between the social "factor" and rural poverty in a village setting,
 - A response about poverty from the community members (those who are being affected by poverty) in the situation being role-played.

Allow the groups 20 minutes to prepare their role-plays. When preparing the role-plays, the groups will need to prepare closing commentary or short summary, with reference to their social factor, to be presented by the designated leader of the group.

- 6. Allow each group to present their role-plays in turn.
- 7. Following the role-play presentations, have the groups return to their sub-groups for debriefing questions and discussion.
- 8. Alternative activity: If time does not permit a role play activity, have each student pick one of the big five factors and write, in their own words, a paragraph on why they think this factor is so significant in contributing to poverty as a social problem in developing countries and/or their own community.

Debriefing:

Does viewing and presenting the causes of poverty, the Big Five, as a situational role play help you understand poverty in a better way? Explain how.



Unit 4 – Poverty Activity 3 Handout A

Factors of Poverty – The Big Five

By Phil Bartle, PhD

Poverty as a Social Problem:

We have all felt a shortage of cash at times. That is an individual experience. It is not the same as the social problem of poverty. While money is a measure of wealth, lack of cash can be a measure of lack of wealth, but it is not the social problem of poverty.

Poverty as a social problem is a deeply embedded wound that permeates every dimension of culture and society. It includes sustained low levels of income for members of a community. It includes a lack of access to services like education, economic markets, health care, lack of decision making ability, and lack of communal facilities like water, sanitation, roads, transportation, and communications.

Furthermore, it is a "*poverty of spirit*," that allows members of that community to believe in and share despair, hopelessness, apathy, and timidity. Poverty, especially the factors that contribute to it, is a social problem, and its solution is social.

We learn that we can not fight poverty by alleviating its symptoms, but only by attacking the factors of poverty. This handout lists and describes the "Big Five" factors that contribute to the social problem of poverty.

The simple transfer of funds, even if it is to the victims of poverty, will not eradicate or reduce poverty. It will merely alleviate the symptoms of poverty in the short run. It is not a durable and sustainable solution.

Poverty as a social problem calls for a social solution. That solution is the clear, conscious and deliberate removal of the big five factors of poverty.

Factors, Causes and History:

A "*factor*" and a "*cause*" are not quite the same thing. A "*cause*" can be seen as something that contributes to the origin of a problem like poverty, while a "*factor*" can be seen as something that contributes to its continuation after it already exists.

Poverty on a world scale has many historical causes: colonialism, slavery, war and conquest. There is an important difference between those causes and what we call factors that maintain conditions of poverty.

The difference is in terms of what we, today, can do about them. We can not go back into history and change the past. Poverty exists. Poverty was caused. What we potentially can do something about are the factors that perpetuate poverty today.

It is well known that many nations of Europe, faced by devastating wars, such as World Wars I and II, were reduced to bare poverty, where people were reduced to living on handouts and charity, barely surviving. Within decades they had brought themselves up in terms of real domestic income, to become thriving and influential modern nations of prosperous people.

We know also that many other nations have remained among the least developed of the planet, even though billions of dollars of so-called "*aid*" money was spent on them. Why? Because the factors of poverty were not attacked, only the symptoms. At the macro or national level, a low GDP (*gross domestic product*) is not the poverty itself; it is the symptom of poverty, as a social problem.

The factors of poverty (*as a social problem*) that are listed here, *ignorance, disease, apathy, dishonesty and dependency* are to be seen simply as conditions. No moral judgment is intended. They are not good or bad, they just are. If it is the decision of a group of people, as in a society or in a community, to reduce and remove poverty, they will have to (*without value judgment*) observe and identify these factors, and take action to remove them as the way to eradicate poverty.

The big five, in turn, contribute to secondary factors such as lack of economic markets, poor infrastructure, poor leadership, bad governance, under-employment, lack of skills, absenteeism, lack of capital, and others. Each of these are social problems, each of them are caused by one or more of the big five, and each of them contribute to the perpetuation of poverty, and their eradication is necessary for the removal of poverty.

Let us look briefly at each of the big five in turn.

1. Ignorance:

Ignorance means having a lack of information, or lack of knowledge. It is different from stupidity, which is lack of intelligence, and different from foolishness which is lack of wisdom. The three are often mixed up and assumed to be the same by some people.

"*Knowledge is power*," goes the old saying. Unfortunately, some people, knowing this, try to keep knowledge to themselves (*as a strategy of obtaining an unfair advantage and*

source of power over others), and hinder others from obtaining knowledge. Do not expect that if you train someone in a particular skill, or provide some information, that the information or skill will naturally trickle or leak into the rest of a community.

It is important to determine what the information is that is missing. Many planners and good-minded persons who want to help a community become stronger, think that the solution is education. But education means many things. Some information is not important to the situation. It will not help a farmer to know that Romeo and Juliet both died in Shakespeare's play, but it would be more useful to know which kind of seed would survive in the local soil, and which would not.

2. Disease:

When a community has a high disease rate, absenteeism is high, productivity is low, and less wealth is created. Apart from the misery, discomfort and death that results from disease, it is also a major factor in poverty in a community. Being well (*well-being*) not only helps the individuals who are healthy, it contributes to the eradication of poverty in the community.

Here, as elsewhere, prevention is better than cure. It is one of the basic tenets of PHC (*primary health care*). The economy is much healthier if the population is always healthy; more so than if people get sick and have to be treated. Health contributes to the eradication of poverty more in terms of access to safe and clean drinking water, separation of sanitation from the water supply, knowledge of hygiene and disease prevention – much more than clinics, doctors and drugs, which are costly curative solutions rather than prevention against disease.

Remember, we are concerned with factors, not causes. It does not matter if tuberculosis was introduced by foreigners who first came to trade, or if it were autochthonic. It does not matter if HIV that carries AIDS was a CIA plot to develop a biological warfare weapon, of if it came from green monkeys in the soup. Those are possible causes. Knowing the causes will not remove disease. Knowing the factors can lead to better hygiene and preventive behaviour, for their ultimate eradication.

Many people see access to health care as a question of human rights, the reduction of pain and misery and the quality of life of the people. These are all valid reasons to contribute to a healthy population. What is argued here, further than those reasons, is that a healthy population contributes to the eradication of poverty, and it is also argued that poverty is not only measured by high rates of morbidity and mortality, but also that disease contributes to other forms and aspects of poverty.

3. Apathy:

Apathy is when people do not care, or when they feel so powerless that they do not try to change things, to right a wrong, to fix a mistake, or to improve conditions.

Sometimes, some people feel so unable to achieve something, they are jealous of their family relatives or fellow members of their community who attempt to do so. Then they seek to bring the attempting achiever down to their own level of poverty. Apathy breeds apathy.

Sometimes apathy is justified by religious precepts, "*Accept what exists because God has decided your fate.*" That fatalism may be misused as an excuse. It is OK to believe God decides our fate, if we accept that God may decide that we should be motivated to improve ourselves. "*Pray to God, but also row to shore,*" a Russian proverb demonstrates that we are in God's hands, but we also have a responsibility to help ourselves.

We were created with many abilities: to choose, to cooperate, to organize in improving the quality of our lives; we should not let God or Allah be used as an excuse to do nothing. That is as bad as a curse upon God. We must praise God and use our God-given talents.

In the fight against poverty, the community mobilizer or practitioner uses encouragement and praise, so that people (1) will want to and (2) learn how to -- take charge of their own lives.

4. Dishonesty:

When resources that are intended to be used for community services or facilities, are diverted into the private pockets of someone in a position of power, there is more than morality at stake here. In this training series, we are not making a value judgment that it is good or bad. We are pointing out, however, that it is a major cause of poverty. The amount stolen from the public, that is received and enjoyed by the individual, is far less than the decrease in wealth that was intended for the public.

The amount of money that is extorted or embezzled is not the amount of lowering of wealth to the community. Economists tell of the "*multiplier effect*." Where new wealth is invested, the positive effect on the economy is more than the amount created. When investment money is taken out of circulation, the amount of wealth by which the community is deprived is greater than the amount gained by the embezzler. When a Government official takes a 100 dollar bribe, social investment is decreased by as much as a 400 dollar decrease in the wealth of the society.

It is ironic that we get very upset when a petty thief steals ten dollars' worth of something in the market, yet an official may steal a thousand dollars from the public purse, which does four thousand dollars worth of damage to the society as a whole, yet we do not punish the second thief. We respect the second thief for her or his apparent wealth, and praise that person for helping all her or his relatives and neighbours. In

contrast, we need the police to protect the first thief from being beaten by people on the street.

The second thief is a major cause of poverty, while the first thief may very well be a victim of poverty that is caused by the second. Our above attitude is more than ironic; it is a factor that perpetuates poverty. If we reward the one who causes the major damage, and punish only the ones who are really victims, then our misplaced attitudes also contribute to poverty. When embezzled money is then taken out of the country and put in a foreign (*e.g., Swiss*) bank, then it does not contribute anything to the national economy; it only helps the country of the offshore or foreign bank.

5. Dependency:

Dependency results from being on the receiving end of charity. In the short run, as after a natural disaster, that charity may be essential for survival. In the long run, that charity can contribute to the possible demise of the recipient, and certainly to ongoing poverty.

It is an attitude, a belief, that one is so poor, so helpless, that one can not help one's self, that a group cannot help itself, and that it must depend on assistance from outside. The attitude and shared belief is the biggest self-justifying factor in perpetuating the condition where the self or group must depend on outside help.

The community empowerment methodology is an alternative to giving charity (*which weakens*), but provides assistance, capital and training aimed at low income communities identifying their own resources and taking control of their own development – becoming empowered. All too often, when a project is aimed at promoting self reliance, the recipients, until their awareness is raised, expect, assume and hope that the project is coming just to provide resources for installing a facility or service in the community.

Among the five major factors of poverty, the dependency syndrome should be one factor of great awareness to the community mobilizer and practitioner.

Conclusion:

These five factors are not independent of one another. Disease contributes to ignorance and apathy. Dishonesty contributes to disease and dependency. And so on. They each contribute to each other.

In any social change process, we are encouraged to "*think globally, act locally*." The Big Five factors of poverty appear to be widespread and deeply embedded in cultural values and practices – world wide. We may mistakenly believe that any of us, at our small level of life, can do nothing about them. Do not despair. If each of us make a personal commitment to fight the factors of poverty at whatever station in life we occupy, then the sum total of all of us doing it, and the multiplier effect of our actions on others, will contribute to the decay of those factors, and the ultimate victory over poverty.

Unit 4 – Poverty

Activity 4: Causes of Poverty – Opposing Views

Purpose: This activity examines the causes of poverty from two common and opposing perspectives. The activity allows students to discuss and examine these perspectives as a framework for understanding poverty.

Time: 1¹/₂ hours

<u>Materials:</u>

- *Responses to Poverty A (blank)* overhead
- Responses to Poverty B (completed) overhead
- Causes of Poverty Some Facts handout (for supplementary reading)
- The Haves & the Have-Nots overhead
- Response journals
- Overhead projector

Notes on Use:

This activity compares two common responses to poverty – one response that blames the poor for their poverty and poor position in society, and the second response that believes that poverty is caused by the systems and structures in people's lives, and is viewed as being beyond the control of the poor themselves.

This activity promotes discussion and thought around these two opposing perspectives. Students need to be open to both perspectives as both are commonly found and expressed in society, especially in relation to conservative and progressive government beliefs and political values that exists and operate in communities.

Before starting this activity with the group, teachers should review the information and data outlined in the *Causes of Poverty* Chart B. Knowing and being comfortable with this information will assist in the directing of the brainstorming session at the beginning of the activity.

Procedure:

- 1. Explain that there are two common responses to poverty: one that blames the poor for their poverty, and one that sees broad and inter-related structural factors and reasons for the creation of poverty.
- 2. Place the blank *Responses to Poverty A* grid on the overhead projector.
- 3. Complete the grid with answers and ideas generated from the students in the large group. Fill in sections of the grid as ideas are put forth. Encourage ideas and answers until all sections of the grid have been completed.

- 4. Once the blank *A grid* has been completed with generated and brainstormed answers, place the *Responses to Poverty B* grid on the overhead projector. Compare the class's ideas generated in *A grid* to those in the completed *B grid*. Discuss the differences and similarities. When completing the activity, discuss the students' opinions on which responses are more accurate and useful to them.
- 5. Once completing the activity, place *The Haves & the Have-Nots* overhead up for concept review. Allow the students to view the illustrations and the infogram and solicit feedback from the group.
- 6. Remind the group that a supplementary reading is included, *Causes of Poverty- Some Facts*, and that time should be taken outside of class to read and reflect on this associated information.

Debriefing:

As a response journal entry, have the students respond in writing to <u>one</u> of the following questions:

1. How would you respond to a person who operates with the 'blaming people for their poverty' perspective? Explain.

or

2. How could having the awareness of these two opposing perspectives assist you in you're your understanding of poverty.

or

3. Reflecting on the poverty you experienced or witnessed in this course or your daily life explain what you think are the underlying causes of poverty?

The teacher should collect these entries for review and comment and return them to the students. If time does not permit, this written activity can be given as an out of session assignment to be handed in the following day.

Unit 4 – Poverty Activity 4 Overhead A

Responses to the Causes of Poverty – Grid A

Who is to blame? Why? Why? Wole of culture and social structures Overpopulation Climate Use of resources

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	Causes believed to emanate from within	Causes believed to be external to the poor
Who is to blame?	People are to blame for their own poverty. (Blaming the victim mentality)	Social, economic, and political systems are to be blamed for mass poverty in society
Why?	People are basically lazy and not willing to sweat and work hard in order to change their	People are usually hard working and willing to toil for themselves and their dependents.
Role of culture and social	People are generally backwards, illiterate and primitive. They are too superstitious and	People know their situation and environment better than any outsider. What they don't know is the relationship between their
suructures	traditional. They are unwitting to reach and change. Sometimes they are not even able to learn at all. 'It is up to them to change'' mentality.	poverty and the complex systems around them that perpetuate the cycle of poverty, e.g., corruption, poor leadership, exploitation, unfair prices, top-down policies, etc. People's traditions are the expression of their potential to transform unaccountable structures
Over-population	There are simply too many people. Who can feed them? They multiply their numbers irresponsibly. Over-population is the main issue when we look at poverty in society.	People are responsible and will act responsibly. Having more and more children is an expression of uncertainty about their future security in many areas. One needs to listen carefully to their 'reasons why' and march forward with them to the future as advocates in community development.
Climate	The earth's climatic conditions are too harsh. Why did the people migrate to such a difficult region? They can be re-settled elsewhere. Over-population is destroying the environment and creating conditions that are impossible to live in.	The climatic conditions are only contributing factors to people's poverty. The root causes are usually deeper lying. They sold their best land to move to marginal areas. Why? Perhaps they were evicted to this place. They were nomadic and had all the freedom to look for pastures anywhere but now they find themselves restricted.
Use of resources	Inappropriate and careless use of resources. E.g., Deforestation, which leads to soil erosion desertification, and overall environmental degradation.	People need alternative resources offered by modern technology such as gas, electricity, and fresh water etc. but that they may not be able to afford; they avoided the degradation of natural resources through seasonal migration, shifting cultivation, etc., now they can't move anymore. Efforts to replenish natural resources should be part of the development process.

Responses to the Causes of Poverty – Grid B

Unit 4 – Poverty Activity 4 Overhead B

> Africa: Communities in Action Resource Kit Instructional Guide

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Unit 4 – Poverty Activity 4 Handout A

Causes of Poverty – Some Facts

Poverty takes many forms

Each day 34,000 children die from malnutrition and disease.

In the world's poorest countries, only 34% of people have access to safe drinking water. One in five people in developing countries (about 780 million people) lacks enough food to meet basic daily needs.

Poverty is more than the absence of material means or basic services, such as a lack of food, shelter, clean water, education or health. Poverty creates powerlessness to determine one's quality of life, and compounds vulnerability when conflict or natural disaster strikes.

Although the proportion of people living below the poverty line has fallen since the mid-1980s, the absolute number of poor people has risen to 1.3 billion – eight per cent more than in the mid-1980s.

The International Economic System

It is estimated that developing countries are being denied US\$500 billion of market opportunities every year, as compared with the US\$50 billion they receive in aid. Much of that aid is poorly targeted and does little to meet the priority needs.

Debt repayments continue to impose a huge burden on the poorest countries. In 1989, developing nations paid US\$52 billion more to the developed world in interest payments on debt, than they received in aid and new loans. The economic reform programs devised by the IMF and the World Bank are contributing in many countries to the worsening plight of the poor through rising unemployment, higher prices and cuts in vital social services.

Severe as these economic factors are for the whole Under Developed and Developing World, their effects are particularly crippling on the continent of Africa.

Poverty & The Environment

Inequitable land holding, corrupt and inadequate governments and increasing conflict all add to the burden of the poorest.

Environmental degradation, undermining the livelihoods of poor women and men, is both a cause and an effect of poverty.

According to the UN Development Programme, more than 850 million people live in areas in various stages of desertification. Growing environmental degradation places particularly acute stress on women as providers of fuel, wood, food and water for basic family needs.

Poverty and Gender

Although women form over half the world's population, they receive only a small share of development opportunities. Two thirds of the world's illiterate population are women.

Twice as many men as women are in paid work and if women's unpaid work as careers for the family and the household was counted as productive output in national income accounts, it is estimated that global output would increase by 20-30 per cent.

Global Social Issues & Facts

- Half the world nearly three billion people live on less than two US dollars a day.
- The GDP (Gross Domestic Product) of the poorest 48 nations (i.e., a quarter of the world's countries) is less than the wealth of the world's three richest people combined.
- Nearly a billion people entered the 21st century unable to read a book or sign their names.
- 51 percent of the world's 100 hundred wealthiest bodies are corporations.
- The poorer the country, the more likely it is that debt repayments are being extracted directly from people who neither contracted the loans nor received any of the money.
- 20% of the population in developed nations consume 86% of the world's goods.
- In 1960, 20% of the world's people in the richest countries had 30 times the income of the poorest 20% in 1997, 74 times as much.
- The lives of 1.7 million children were needlessly lost in 2000 because world governments have failed to reduce poverty levels.
- The developing world now spends \$13 US on debt repayment for every \$1 US it receives in grants.
- A few hundred millionaires now own as much wealth as the world's poorest 2.5 billion people.

- The combined wealth of the world's 200 richest people hit \$1 trillion in 1999; the combined incomes of the 582 million people living in the 43 least developed countries is \$146 billion.
- Approximately 790 million people in the developing world are still chronically undernourished, almost two-thirds of who reside in Asia and Africa.
- On average, seven million children die each year as a result of the debt crisis.
- Today, across the world, 1.3 billion people have no access to clean water; three billion people have no access to sanitation; two billion people have no access to electricity- not by choice.
- The richest 50 million people in Europe and North America have the same income as 2.7 billion poor people.
- The world's 497 billionaires in 2001 registered a combined wealth of \$1.54 trillion, well over the combined gross national products of all the nations of sub-Saharan Africa (\$929.3 billion). It is also greater than the total combined incomes of the poorest half of humanity.
- A mere 12 percent of the world's population uses 85 percent of its water, and these 12 percent do not live in the Developing World.

Statistics taken from Global Issues, www.globalissues.org 2002 and Oxfam International 2001



The Haves & the Have-Nots

Source: *The Africa File: Notes, Quotes and Questions about Africa & Development*, Susan Gage. Victoria, BC: Victoria International Development Education Association (VIDEA) 1989

Unit 4 – Poverty

Activity 5: Unequal Slices

<u>Purpose</u>: This activity examines the extreme gap between the rich and poor in the world. The activity allows students to discuss and examine these perspectives as a framework for understanding poverty.

Time: 1¹/₂ hours

<u>Materials:</u>

- Unequal Slices overhead and handout for each student
- Poster Paper and colouring materials or computers (PowerPoint or Publisher)
- Poster marking rubric for each student
- Overhead projector

Notes on Use:

This activity involves the students illustrating their understanding of the poverty gap by creating a poster of one of the UN facts (provided after the debriefing section of this activity) that highlights this huge gap.

Procedure:

- 1. Project the overheads from the *New York Times* on the UN statistics about the inequalities between the rich and poor nations in the world. Read out each of the factual quotes and discuss them with the students. Encourage discussion, questions and comments about the facts. This should take 20-30 minutes.
- 2. Have students choose one of the facts and have them draw a poster communicating that fact. Indicate that the students must quote their fact of choice on the poster. They may draw, use cut out pictures and other interesting facts to support the message in their poster. Alternatively if the teacher has access to a computer lab, students may create a poster. The teacher should provide a 10-minute tutorial in how to use PowerPoint and then it usually takes students another 10 minutes on their own to start feeling comfortable with the program. With PowerPoint students can import pictures, clipart and use creative WordArt text to create a poster. This should take one hour using PowerPoint. It may take longer to create a poster by hand; therefore students may need more class time to complete the project or finish it as homework.
- 3. Assessment for this activity works well as a self/peer/teacher evaluation. Students can view posters in a carousel fashion by having students viewing three posters by moving two desks or computer stations at a time and using the marking rubric (provided at the end of this activity description) to assess the posters informally. Once they sit at their fourth poster they can formally assess them. Students should also be given an opportunity

to assess their own poster and then the teacher may also assess the posters. All three marks can be merged equally to establish a final mark.

Debriefing:

The teacher should lead a discussion after the posters are handed in for assessment by asking the following questions:

- What have you learned about the gap between the rich and poor in the world?
- How did creating a poster better your understanding about this gap?
- How are posters an effective tool in communicating a message?
- What other methods can we use to communicate to the world about this unequal gap between the rich and poor nations?


Unit 4 – Poverty Activity 5 Handout A / Overhead A

Unequal Slices

In 2000 the United Nations Development report looked at a new way to measure the lives of people. Putting aside faceless statistics like per capita gross domestic product or export-import figures, the report burrows into the facts about what children eat, who goes to school and whether there is clean water to drink. The report as looked at what people have – from simple toilets to family cars – and what portion of the world's goods and services are consumed, by the rich and by the poor. Here are some of the report's findings.

The Haves – The richest fifth of the world's people consumes 86 percent of all goods and services while the poorest fifth consumes just 1.3 percent. In fact, the richest fifth consumes 45 percent of all meat and fish, 58 percent of all energy used, 84 percent of all paper, has 74 percent of all telephone lines and owns 87 percent of all vehicles.

The Have Nots – Of the 4.4 billion people in developing countries, nearly 3/5 lack access to safe sewers, 1/3 have no access to clean water, 1/4 do not have adequate housing and 1/5 have no access to modern health services.

Africa – The average African household in 2000 consumes 20 percent less than it did 25 years ago.

The Super Rich – The worlds 225 richest individuals, of whom 60 are Americans, have a combined wealth of \$1 trillion – equal to the annual income of the poorest 47 percent of the entire world's population.

Cosmetics and Education – Americans spend \$8 billion a year on cosmetics, \$2 billion more than the estimated annual total needed to provide basic education to everyone in the world.

Meat – Americans each consume an average of 260 pounds of meat a year. In Bangladesh, the average is 6 $\frac{1}{2}$ pounds.

The Future – By 2050, eight billion of the worlds projected 9.5 billion people (up from about six billion in 2000) will be living in the developing world.

Ice Cream and Water – Europeans spend \$11 billion a year on ice cream, \$2 billion more than the estimated annual total needed to provide clean water and save sewers for the world's population.

AIDS – It is estimated that 40 million people suffer from AIDS in the year 2000. With 16000 new infections every day, 90 percent occur in the developing countries.

\$40 Billion A Year – It is estimated that the additional cost of achieving and maintaining universal access to basic education for all, basic healthcare for all, reproductive health care for all women, adequate food for all and clean water and safe sewers for all is roughly \$40 billion a year – or less than four percent of the combined wealth of the 225 richest people in the world.

Adapted from The New York Times Company, 2000



Unit 4 – Poverty Activity 5 Handout B

Poster Mark Sheet

Name: _____

	Self	Marker
Text - amount (not too much, or too little)	/2	/2
- size and colour (appropriate to message)	/2	/2
 font (typeface is pleasing and attractive) 	/2	/2
Graphics - appropriate (fit with message)	/2	/2
 eye catching (size and placement) 	/2	/2
- effectiveness (work well with text)	/2	/2
Overall - design	/2	/2
- colours are appropriate and coordinated	/2	/2
- effectiveness of poster in achieving goal	/2	/2
- layout and location of text and graphics	/2	/2
TOTAL SCORE	/20	/20

Combined Score: <u>/20 marker + /20 self</u>= /20 2

Artist's comments:

Name of Marker: _____

Marker's comments:

Unit 5 – Economics

Students, and the general population for that matter, often find the concept of economics difficult to grasp or understand. The perception is that the math is hard and the pronunciation of economic terms is even harder. This unit will try to alleviate this attitude toward economics, or at least present it in a way that students will have a good understanding of the economic conditions, and the factors behind them, of The Gambia, Africa and the developing world.

The unit starts with a glossary of development economics terms, repeated from Unit 3, Development. This glossary can be used by students and the teacher to refer to over the course of this unit, but it is suggested that the instructor precede the unit by completing the entire activity as presented in Unit 3. Once students have garnered a base knowledge of development economics terms and concepts, they will be ready to tackle other, more interactive activities in the unit.

The Chain Game is a fun, participatory activity which helps students better understand the interdependence between developed and developing nations. Students will also better understand and the inequalities or injustices that occur from the trading and distribution of resources between these countries. The next two activities look at the unfair trade practices in the world by exploring the export and import of coffee and tea. Choosing these two products is no coincidence, as students usually have some prior knowledge about "fair trade" and coffee and tea.

The last activity looks at economic solutions. The term "sustainable development" has been used a great deal in the past few decades but identifying exactly what is sustainable is often nebulous. The last activity of the unit has students looking at this concept from the perspective of a global citizen and challenges them to expand their ideas about sustainable development. Students are asked to think of practical solutions to conflict between our needs and wants and preserving our global environment.

Glossary of Economic and Development Terms

If students have not completed the activity Glossary of Development Economic Terms in the Development unit (Unit 3), it is suggested that they do it here at the beginning of the Economics unit. Even if they have done the activity reviewing it at this time advised. These terms are integral for the broader understanding of the economics unit and will help the students with subsequent activities and are included here for reference.

- African Development Bank (ADB) A regional bank started in 1966 to support the development of Independent African states through loans and assistance.
- **Basic Needs** The essential items of private consumption and basic services needed by every person to maintain a reasonable standard of living. These include adequate food, shelter, clothing and household equipment, together with essential community services such as safe drinking water sanitation, health services, education, transport, and cultural facilities.
- **Bottom-up Development** A theory of development that calls for funds and projects to be aimed directly at the rural poor in an effort to reduce poverty and meet basic human needs. It is the opposite of "trickle-down" development which was the main theory behind foreign aid until the late 1960s.
- Bretton Woods (see also IMF and World Bank) The Bretton Woods Conference was held in 1944 to design the rules for restructuring the world economy after World War II. This system of international financial rules led to the foundation of the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD) also known as the World Bank.
- **Capital** The money or wealth needed to produce goods and services. See also *human capital* and *physical capital*.
- **Capitalism** An economic system dominant in the Western world, under which most of the means of production are privately owned, preferably with minimal state intervention. It encompasses freedoms of ownership, production, exchange, acquisition, employment, movement, and open competition. Production is determined and income distributed through the operation and impact of markets. The term "market" describes an economic system defined by the existence of private capital and wage labour.
- Cash Crops Crops that are produced only for the market.
- **Commodity** A commodity is anything that is produced for sale or that enters into trade. However, the term is commonly used to refer to the raw materials and primary products which are traded internationally. These include food crops, fibre crops, base metals, oilseeds, fuels and other cash crops.
- **Communism** A movement and economic system based on the principle of communal ownership of property.

- **Cultural Alienation** People lose confidence in their own culture, values, and way of life. Alien or foreign values are imposed by a small minority.
- **Debt Service** The amount of money and interest that must be regularly paid by borrowers. This can be at a personal loan level or, in a development context, the money and interest a country pays to the World Bank or other lending agencies to "service" development loans.
- **Devaluation** Devaluation occurs when the government lowers the value of the exchange rate from one fixed rate to another.
- Developed Countries Northern, industrialized nations also referred to as the First World.
- **Developing countries** Low- and middle-income countries in which most people have a lower standard of living with access to fewer goods and services than do most people in high-income countries. There are currently about 125 developing countries with populations over 1 million; in 1998, their total population was more than 5.0 billion.
- **Division of Labour** In modern manufacturing the production of any item may be subdivided into several tasks carried out in a repetitive fashion by many people, with none of them responsible for producing the final product. This division of labour is a way of maximizing productivity and is seen a as symbol of development and modernization.
- Economic depression A period marked by low production and sales and a high rate of business failures and unemployment.
- **Economic Exploitation** Unfair distribution of wealth. Owners of farms and factories keep large profits which are made from the work of the labourers.
- **Economic Growth** Typically refers to an increase in a country's output of goods and services. It is usually measured by changes in real GDP (see GDP).
- **Environment** The complex set of physical, geographic, biological, social, cultural and political conditions that surround an individual or organism and that ultimately determines its form and nature of its survival.
- **Export-led Growth** An expansion of an economy partly driven by an increase of exports over imports. Exports are considered to have a positive impact by increasing investment which in turn leads to more manufacturing and greater employment.
- Fair Trade Refers to a movement which values trade that contributes to environmental protection, higher standards of living for workers, and human rights. Fair trade also refers to the actual trade of goods produced under decent working conditions, for fair wages, using methods that are not harmful to the environment.
- Foreign Direct Investment Investment that results in a physical presence in a foreign country; for example, when a company builds a production facility in another country or has a stake in a business or natural resource overseas.

- Free Trade Trade of goods and services and investment across national borders without tariffs, quotas, and other restrictions to the pursuit of corporate profits.
- **G7/G8** The G8 countries are the US, Canada, Japan, France, UK, Germany, Italy, and Russia. The G7 included the first 7 countries, excluding Russia, which joined in the 1990s, making it the G8.
- GATT (General Agreement of Tariffs and Trade) The General Agreement of Tariffs and Trade, an international agreement and organization, was set up in 1947 to reduce barriers to free trade. It was renegotiated though eight different rounds, resulting in 1994 in the World Trade Organization (WTO). Trade liberalization through the reduction of tariffs and non-tariff "barriers to trade," like agricultural subsidies and government regulations, was its primary objective.
- **GDP** (**Gross Domestic Product**) A measure of economic activity, Gross Domestic Product (GDP) is a measure of national income. It is the total value of all goods and services produced over a given time period (usually a year) excluding net property income from abroad. It can be measured either as the total of income, expenditure or output.
- **GNP (Gross National Product)** The value (in U.S. dollars) of a country's final output of goods and services in a year. The value of GNP can be calculated by adding up the amount of money spent on a country's final output of goods and services, or by totaling the income of all citizens of a country including the income from factors of production used abroad.
- **GNP per capita** The dollar value of a country's final output of goods and services in a year (its GNP), divided by its population. It reflects the average income of a country's citizens. Knowing a country's GNP per capita is a good first step toward understanding the country's economic strengths and needs. Note that both the GNP and GDP are problematic as economic indicators as they fail to adequately reflect the full extent of the informal economy (especially large in developing countries), do not factor in environmental "costs," and provide no indication of wealth distribution.
- **Growth rate** The change (increase, decrease, or no change) in an indicator over a period of time, expressed as a percentage of the indicator at the start of the period. Growth rates contain several sets of information. The first is whether there is any change at all; the second is what direction the change is going in (increasing or decreasing); and the third is how rapidly that change is occurring.
- **Globalization** The name for an ongoing process in which trade, investment, people and information travel across international borders with increasing frequency and ease. During periods of globalization economies are increasingly integrated with one another, leading to greater worldwide instability since problems afflicting one country carry over to other countries, and corporations and capital investments are highly mobile, leaving a nation whenever they find a better opportunity elsewhere.

- **HIPC Initiative** The Heavily Indebted Poor Countries (HIPC) Initiative is the first international response to provide comprehensive debt relief to the world's poorest, most heavily indebted countries. Launched by the World Bank and IMF in 1996, the Initiative broke new ground by removing the debt overhang for countries pursuing economic and social reform targeted at measurable poverty reduction, reducing multilateral debt, and helping countries exit from endless debt restructuring.
- **Human Capital** People and their ability to be economically productive. Education, training, and health care can help increase human capital. See also *capital* and *physical capital*.
- Human Development Index An annual assessment of the progress of nations in improving living standards produced by the United Nations Development Program (UNDP), which assumes that economic growth does not necessarily equate to human development.
- **IMF** The International Monetary Fund is an international multilateral organisation that attempts to monitor the global financial system and to offer assistance to countries that are experiencing balance of payments problems.
- Import To buy goods and services from another country.
- **Import Substitution** A policy often adopted by developing countries to protect domestic industry and natural resources. Imports are blocked by tariffs and/or quotas. This allows a nation to develop its own local manufacturing ability and eventually develop an export trade.
- Inflation A steady rise in prices which results in a steady fall in the value of money. Inflation can occur when demand for goods exceeds supply; or when costs of production increase independent of the state of demand; or when government expand the money supply by printing more money.
- **Informal Economy** The exchange of goods and services not accurately recorded in government figures and accounting. The informal economy, which is generally untaxed, commonly includes goods and services including day care, tutoring, or black market exchanges.
- **Investment** In the global economy, investment refers to direct investment in plants or services, indirect investment in stocks and bonds, and real estate (including mining, timber, oil, and gas rights).
- Laissez Faire A term referring to the idea that the state's role is to protect property rights and to interfere as little as possible in the free play of market forces which are based on self-interest and the profit motive.
- Least Developed Countries (LLDCs) The very poorest of the Less Developed Countries. In these countries, the average person would live on less than \$2.00 a day.

- Less Developed Countries (LDCs) Countries who are generally characterized by low levels of GDP and income per head. LDCs usually have a heavy dependence on the primary sector of the economy.
- Low-income Country A country having an annual gross national product (GNP) per capita equivalent to \$760 or less in 1998. The standard of living is lower in these countries; there are few goods and services; and many people cannot meet their basic needs. There are currently about 58 low-income countries with populations of 1 million or more. Their combined population is almost 3.5 billion.
- **Middle-income Country** A country having an annual gross national product (GNP) per capita equivalent to more than \$760 but less than \$9,360 in 1998. The standard of living is higher than in low-income countries, and people have access to more goods and services, but many people still cannot meet their basic needs. There are currently about 65 middle-income countries with populations of one million or more. Their combined population is more than 1.5 billion.
- **Natural Resources** Materials that occur in nature and are essential or useful to humans, such as water, air, land, forests, fish and wildlife, topsoil, and minerals.
- Neo-colonialism A condition of economic dependency when the ability of politicallyindependent Third World countries to control their own development and destiny is constrained by the actions of Western states, transnational corporations, and/or international financial agencies.
- **Neoliberalism** An economic ideology that calls for free markets and a minimal role for the government. Free trade, privatization, cuts in social spending and structural adjustment are all neoliberal policies.
- Official Development Assistance (ODA) Government aid policy that describes the priorities of national aid initiatives and the giving of loans and grants at favourable rates.
- Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) An intergovernmental organization of 25 industrialized countries established in 1961 which tries to coordinate the economic policies of member states.
- **Physical Capital** Things, such as machinery, tools, equipment, furniture, parts, and buildings, that are needed to produce goods and services. See also *capital* and *human capital*.
- **Political Domination** Laws and decisions are made and enforced by a small minority in their own interests.
- **Poverty** Absolute poverty is a level of poverty when only the minimum levels of food, clothing and shelter can be met. Relative poverty is the level of poverty in a country expressed in term of certain level of income such as half of the average wage

- **Primary Goods or Products** Goods--for example, iron ore, diamonds, wheat, copper, oil, or coffee-that are used or sold as they are found in nature. They are also called commodities.
- **Privatization** The sale of publicly owned goods and services to private companies.
- **Protectionism** The practice of protecting domestic markets and industries by restricting or prohibiting competition from abroad, usually through tariffs or quotas or any other mechanism to restrict the flow of imports.
- **Renewable** Able to be replaced or replenished, either by the earth's natural processes or by human action. Air, water, and forests are often considered to be example of renewable resources. However, due to local geographic conditions and costs involved, strong arguments can be made that water may not be a completely renewable resource in some parts of the world, especially in developing countries or in areas with limited groundwater supplies. Minerals and fossil fuels are examples of non-renewable resources.
- **Resources** The machines, workers, money, land, raw materials, and other things that a country can use to produce goods and services and to make its economy grow. Resources may be renewable or nonrenewable. Countries must use their resources wisely to ensure long term prosperity.
- Socialism A system of social organization where private property and the distribution of income are subject to control by society rather than being determined by individuals pursuing their own self-interest or by the market forces of capitalism.
- **Social Services** Services generally provided by the government that help improve people's standard of living; examples are public hospitals and clinics, good roads, clean water supply, garbage collection, electricity, and telecommunications.
- **South** Another term for "Third World" or "developing" countries. The terms North and South are widely used to denote the "rich" nations of the industrialized world and the "poor" nations of the developing world.
- Structural Adjustment Programme A programme of free market and supply side reforms that multilateral agencies such as the IMF lay down as conditions for lending funds. As free-standing programmes, SAPs were discontinued in the early 1990s, but elements of SAPs persist in WB/IMF lending policies.
- **Subsidy** Money given to producers to reduce costs and hence the market price of a good or service. These are particularly common in the agricultural area where developed country governments provide subsidies to their farmers to enable them to with cheaper commodities from poorer countries.
- **Sustainable Development** Development that meets the needs of the people today without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs.
- **Tariff** Taxes applied to goods imported into a country.

- **Terms of Trade** How much a country earns for what it exports compared to what it pays for imports. This ratio provides an indication of a country's purchasing power of imported goods.
- **Tied Aid** Foreign aid that is given on the condition that the recipient country uses the funds to purchase goods and services from the donor country.
- **Transnational Corporations (TNCs)** The same as multinational corporations, TNCs are corporations that operate in more than one country. Of the world's 100 largest economies, 51 are TNCs and 49 are nations. TNCs are growing in size and number.
- **Trickle Down** The theory that the gains from economic growth, even if they are concentrated in the hands of a small economic elite, pass down throughout the entire society, eventually giving rise to development
- Urbanization The process by which a country's population changes from primarily rural to urban. It is caused by the migration of people from the countryside to the city in search of better jobs and living conditions.
- World Bank An international financial institution that provides funds for development. Created in 1944 -- one of the "Bretton Woods" institutions -- to help with European reconstruction after World War II, the World Bank today funds many large infrastructure and other development projects around the world. Like the IMF, the World Bank is controlled by developed nations and since the late 1970s has insisted on the implementation of structural adjustment policies as a condition for poor countries to receive its loans.
- World Trade Organisation (WTO) The WTO was formed during the 1994 GATT negotiations. It is a permanent institution whose main purposes are to promote free trade and settle trade disputes. As a member of the WTO, all national, state and local laws must conform to WTO rules or a country risks facing sanctions.

Adapted from:

The A to Z of World Development

Training for Transformation by Anne Hope and Sally Timmel Biz/ed website: <u>http://www.bized.ac.uk/virtual/dc/resource/glos1.htm#a</u> World Bank website: <u>http://www.worldbank.org/html/schools/glossary.htm</u> *Globalization Glossary* by the Tennessee Industrial Renewal Network

Unit 5 – Economics

Activity 1: The Chain Game

<u>Purpose</u>: To help students understand interdependence in trade between countries, which have different resources, and to allow them to experience the injustice that results from unequal distribution of resources.

<u>Materials:</u>

- Newspapers or old flip chart sheets (35 sheets)
- Coloured paper or coloured newsprint (10 sheets)
- 10 pairs scissors
- 10 glue sticks
- 5 rolls of tape or 5 staplers
- 8 pencils
- 7 rulers (or you can make 5 cardboard templates)
- 5 boxes
- Flip chart and markers

Time: 1¹/₂ hours

Notes on Use:

This activity simulates global trade. The students will receive unequal amounts of resources which they will use to make paper chains to sell on the global market. The paper – coloured and plain – represents a country's natural resources and the implements – scissors, glue, etc. – represent technology. Some countries in this game, as in the world, are rich in resources and poor in technology; others have both; others still are richer in technology and resource poor. The game also simulates the arbitrary changes that can occur on the global market. This activity is intended to introduce some of the issues that the next three days will cover in more detail.

Here are a few suggestions to ensure the game goes smoothly:

- Be well organized BEFORE beginning the game
- Go through the instructions carefully with the group
- Make sure all tables are clear of books, paper, cases, etc.
- Point out (and enforce) that students can only use the materials and "technology" provided in the game (i.e., they cannot use staples, scissors or tape they may have brought with them)

The teacher should prepare the following five boxes ahead of time.

Group 1 – One sheet of newspaper, one sheet of coloured paper, five pairs of scissors, five glue sticks, five pencils, five rulers

Group 2 - Four sheets of newspaper, one sheet of coloured paper, three pairs of scissors, three glue sticks, three pencils

- Group 3 Six sheets of newspaper, two pairs of scissors, two glue sticks, two rulers
- Group 4 10 sheets of newspaper, one ruler, one pencil
- Group 5-15 sheets of newspaper, 8 sheets of coloured paper

(Note: the staplers are distributed later in the game).

Procedure:

1. The students are divided into five groups. Every group is given a box containing materials for the simulation. The groups are told that they each represent a different country. Their task is to make a product, in this case paper chains of five links each, which can be sold on the world market. They will earn five units of currency for each chain. The chains are sold to the teacher, who represents the world market for these chains.

Each link in the chain must be made from a strip of newspaper **exactly** 20 cm long and three cm wide. The links are made by overlapping exactly two cm on each end and gluing them together. The teacher should make clear to the students that links which do not meet the world market standard – which are too long, short, wide, thin, or irregularly cut – **will not** be accepted. As the chains are sold, the teacher keeps a record of how much each group earns on the flip chart or the board.



The teacher should not explicitly point out that the groups are receiving unequal resources. If students argue that distribution is unfair, the teacher can reply that this is simply the way the materials have been divided up for this game. Make it clear, however, that **groups are free to negotiate trading of resources**. They may also purchase resources with their earnings, but must notify the teacher, who will subtract the amount spent from their total earnings.

2. Once the instructions have been given, the teacher allows the students to trade and make chains for about 15 minutes. After this time, he/she announces that because there are so

many chains of high quality on the world market, the price is going down to three units of currency per chain of five links.

- 3. After a five more minutes at this price, the teacher announces that so many newspaper chains are now on the market that the price has dropped to one unit of currency per chain of five links. However, chains made of coloured paper are increasingly desirable, and can be sold for five units of currency per chain of five links.
- 4. After five more minutes of play the teacher announces that a new technology for making chains has been developed which produces a superior product; this involves stapling (or taping) the links together rather than gluing them. Chains made of stapled links will earn the current world market price *plus* 15 units of currency per chain of five links (i.e., 16 units for a newspaper chain of five stapled links, 20 units for coloured paper chain of five stapled links). Place the value on a flip chart.

Five staplers (or five rolls of tape) are available, and may be bought from the teacher; the price should be set by the teacher which would allow only the wealthiest groups to have the possibility of buying them.

- 5. Once the staplers or rolls of tape have been sold, the teacher should allow work to continue for another five to 10 minutes. Then the game can be halted, and each group can tally its earnings.
- 6. Discuss the following questions with the group. The teacher should attempt to draw parallels with global trade throughout the discussion.
 - Which group earned the most money? Which group earned the least? Why?
 - What sorts of trades were negotiated? (Exchanging raw materials such as paper for technology such as rulers and pencils; exchanges of technologies, such as scissors for rulers, etc.)
 - What sorts of interdependencies, or divisions of labour, were worked out within the groups?
 - Were any cooperative arrangements negotiated between the groups?
 - What was the effect on the wealthier groups of the falling world market price for chains? What was the effect on the poorer groups?
 - Which groups were able to purchase the new technology, i.e., the stapler?
 - Why did the development of a new technology allow the wealthy groups to get wealthier, while the poor groups got poorer?

Debriefing:

What did you learn about global trade from this exercise? How does technology tend to work against the ability of poorer countries to compete? What can be done to help reduce this inequity? Where is Canada in terms of the circumstances introduced in this game? Why?

Adapted from *Education for Development*, Susan Fountain.

Unit 5 – Economics

Activity 2: International Trade

<u>Purpose:</u> To provide more information about international trade, the problems it can create, and examine some possible solutions.

<u>Materials:</u>

- Where do the profits go? transparency
- Coffee handouts for each student and transparencies
- *The Export Trap* handout
- *Tanzanian case study* handout for each student
- Overhead projector
- Flip chart and markers

Time: 1¹/₂ hours

Notes on Use:

Much of this exercise revolves around discussing and reflecting on the critical issue of world trade. It is important that the teacher understand how the global trading system works in order to answer any questions that may arise from the students. Further information related to trade can be found in the *A to Z of World Development*.

Procedure:

- 1. Place the *Where do the profits go*? transparency on the overhead projector. Cover the bottom half with the chart. Ask the questions about the profits from coffee. Have the class try to guess the percentages. Write the answers by the question on the overhead transparency. Then show the rest of the overhead and compare the answers to the chart. How close was the class's guess? Were they surprised by the actual percentages?
- 2. Ask students to turn to their copy of the *Coffee* handout. Form students into groups of about four and have them study the handout. Then place the following on an overhead or flip chart?

From the article you have just read, you will have learned that the farmer has very little control over the price of the produce he/she produces. Neither does the government of the country the farmer lives in. Multinational corporations determine the price. Given this situation, how can the farmer plan how much he/she needs to produce to make enough money? How can the community plan? How can the government plan? Discuss and answer these questions in your groups and record your answers.

- 3. After about 15 minutes, discuss the responses as a large group. Were there practical suggestions? Is there a solution? Follow up the discussion by putting *The Export Trap* transparency on the overhead. Discuss this situation in terms of commodity production. What happens to food crops when commodity production increases? What are the effects? What solutions have been tried? Were they successful? Why or why not?
- 4. Have students return to their small groups. Ask them to turn to the *Tanzanian Case Study*. They are to read the case study carefully and discuss it. Then they are to imagine that they are a group of economic advisors to the Tanzanian Minister of Commerce. She has asked them to study the problems plaguing the tea industry, as well as international trade in general. Based on the information provided in the case study, your task is to develop policies and strategies that will allow Tanzania to escape the "export trap" in trading tea and other commodities.

Instruct the groups to come up with four or five specific strategies. They are to write these on sheets of flip chart paper.

5. Once the groups are done, have them post their solutions to the problem and explain them. Are the solutions workable? Have they been tried? Is there an answer to the problem?

Debriefing:

How does the global trading system affect the lives of people in developing countries? How does it affect your life? What solutions to the problems outlined here are most workable?

Coffee: Where do the profits go?

Think about the price of a cup of coffee purchased in a Western country.

- How much of that price went to the growers, the people who planted the coffee, took care of the plants, picked the coffee beans, cleaned them, and dried them?
- How much went to the exporters?
- How much went to the companies who shipped the coffee beans and roasted them?
- How much went to the retailers who sold the coffee in their shops?

This chart shows the answer:



Coffee is a multi-million dollar industry, but the profits don't go to the people who actually work so hard to grow the coffee beans, and carry all the risks of failing crops or falling prices. But most of the profits go to the shippers, roasters and retailers.



Unit 5 – Economics Activity 2 Handout A

COFFEE

1. The Growers: poor farmers in the South

Coffee grows only in the tropics. It is grown mostly by small farmers as a cash crop, a crop that they can sell to try to make a living.

These farmers are poor, and they do not have any reserves of money to support them when their crops fail or when coffee prices are low. The small farmers have to sell their coffee beans when they are ready to be harvested and take whatever price the coffee buyers offer.

The governments of many coffee-growing countries have very large external debts. Therefore the governments need to export in order to get the hard currency with which to repay the debts.

The coffee-growing countries are forced into competition with each other, each trying to get a bigger share of the market. This means that they all produce more and more coffee. As a result, there is too much coffee on the world market and the price falls, so each country has to try to sell more coffee to make the same amount of money.

2. The Buyers: powerful corporations in the North

Most of the world's coffee is bought by just a few countries, and most of the world's coffee market is controlled by a very few companies.

Over 70% of the coffee on the world market is imported by just nine countries in the North. Within those countries, the giant corporations have most of the market share.

Take Britain, for example: "There are two big manufacturers, Nestle and Kraft, and two big retailers, Sainsbury and Tesco. Between them, they sell well over half the coffee in this country." Peter Cushman, public relations manager for a Co-op superstore in England.

3. Coffee prices and coffee production are very unstable.

The weather can destroy coffee crops. The chart shows how world coffee prices suddenly rose as a result of serious damage to the Brazilian coffee crops (20% of the world's coffee) in 1975 (frost), 1984 (drought), and 1994 (frost).



4. The effects of price fluctuations

When prices are high, small farmers often plant more coffee bushes, in the hope of making a little more money. However, if a lot of farmers plant more coffee, there is a problem when the plants start to produce coffee beans about three year later.

Suddenly, there is far too much coffee on the world market, and so the price falls sharply again. Some coffee farmers have to leave their farms and try to find other work, so that in the following years there is a shortage of coffee again.

The small farmers are powerless in the face of disasters and low prices, but the retailers and manufacturers are protected because they are big enough and rich enough to get through the 'bad' times.

5. Retail prices rarely go down.

When world coffee prices rise, the price we pay in the shops usually goes up too. Yet, when world coffee prices fall, the price in the shops doesn't come down. This is one way that manufacturers and retailers can even out the effects of world price changes.

The Export Trap

Producing more and more of a commodity is not necessarily the way to achieve higher earnings from exports.

The diagram below shows what happened when Ghana expanded cocoa production in the 1970s.



Ghanaians were producing more and more for less and less. This is called the export trap.

Think of the commodities produced in your country. How are they affected by the export trap?

How does the export trap affect farmers and rural communities in your region? What could be done to change this and escape the export trap?

Adapted from Progress and Change in Developing Countries by David Flint.



Unit 5 – Economics Activity 2 Handout B

Tanzanian Case Study

The case of Tanzania illustrates how world trade may operate to the detriment of the South. Political independence came nearly 40 years ago, but economic independence is still far distant. Tanzania still produces tea for export to Britain. A tea picker earns enough to buy only the bare necessities of life. From the plantation the tea goes to a state processing plant before export. Although tea is processed in the South, financial control remains firmly in the North. The price paid for Tanzania's tea is fixed at the London tea auction, dominated by a few large firms from the North. As a result prices are kept very low. From every packet of tea sold, the Tanzanian producer receives a mere 20% of the price. This has to cover costs of planting, caring for estates, picking, processing, transport to the port and all administrative costs. It is estimated that Tanzania would need to receive nearer 50% of the retail price to cover all its costs.

Because Tanzania receives such a low price, it is selling the tea at a loss. Why does it then continue to sell tea?

- 1. The country needs the foreign currency earned by exports
- 2. Tanzania cannot abandon its investment in estates, factories, ports, etc.

Hence the choice is really whether to drop the whole system, or to sell at a loss, maintain the system and hope the price will rise. In the words of a Tanzanian tea plantation manager, "If you are hungry and you need money to buy food, you will sell your product even if the price is very low."

In the past, countries in the North have claimed that poverty in the South was due to a lack of hard work. This is simply untrue. Poverty is due in part to the system which allows prices of commodities to be controlled by a small group of states in the North. Commodity prices are falling, but this is only half the story.

The other half of the story concerns the terms of trade. The North imports raw materials from the South which it then converts into manufactured goods. These in turn are often sold back to the South. There are relatively few countries producing these manufactured goods, hence the North decides their price. Tanzania, therefore, has had the worst of both worlds – declining incomes from its exports, combines with the rising cost of its imports. "We are getting the heat from both sides," says the Tanzanian Minister of Commerce.

For example, ten years ago two tonnes of tea were enough to buy one Land Rover. It now takes seven tonnes of tea to buy the same vehicle. Hence the terms of trade have turned against

Tanzania as the value of its raw material exports falls and the price of its manufactured imports rises; Tanzania can thus afford to import less and less.

Tanzania has tried to break out of the system by packing and selling some of its tea directly to supermarkets in the North. This has led to a small increase in income but sales are not growing because imported Tanzanian tea is competing with established brands. People do not change their drinking habits quickly. Tanzania does not have money to spend on advertising its tea, so the new brand has had only moderate success. The problem with tea, as with many other commodities, is that there are too many countries selling the product so the North has been able to play one off against the other and keep prices low.

Adapted from Progress and Change in Developing Countries by David Flint.

Unit 5 – Economics

Activity 3: Fair Trade

Purpose: To introduce students to the principles of fair trade.

<u>Materials:</u>

- Handouts of fair trade coffee packages
- Principles of Fair Trade handout
- *Fair Trade Criteria* handout
- *Interview with a Coffee Farmer* handout
- What is Fair Trade handout
- Fair Trade Coffee and Basic Rights handout
- Flip chart and markers

<u>Time:</u> 1 to $1\frac{1}{2}$ hours

Notes on Use:

This activity is a follow-up to the sessions on international trade and globalization. The exercise explores one growing solution to the problems presented by globalization: fair trade. The activity revolves around five readings that provide different perspectives on this issue. Using the jigsaw approach, the larger picture of free trade emerges from the groups' presentations of their readings.

Procedure:

- 1. Divide class into five groups. Have students turn to the handouts of the fair trade coffee packages. Have group members study the packages and try to answer these questions:
 - What is fair trade?
 - How does fair trade work?
 - How is fair trade different from regular trade?
 - Who does fair trade most benefit?

Write these four questions on separate flip chart sheets and tape to the wall. Allow 15 minutes for the small group discussion.

- 2. Reassemble as a class. Ask the groups to report on their responses to the questions. Take notes on the chart paper with the specific question at the top.
- 3. Have students get back into their five groups. Have the students turn to the five handouts on fair trade. Assign one reading to each group Handout B to the first group, Handout C to the second, and so on. In their groups, have students read and discuss their assigned

readings. They are to summarize the main points and answer the original four questions, based on the additional information gained from the reading:

- What is fair trade?
- How does fair trade work?
- How is fair trade different from regular trade?
- Who does fair trade most benefit?

They can present any way they like: by referring the class to the readings, using flip charts, conducting a role play or interview, etc. Allow 15-20 minutes for the groups to read and plan their presentation.

4. Have the groups present. Then go back over the four questions on the flip charts. What more have we learned about each question?

Debriefing:

How practical is fair trade in the communities you are living and/or working in? Is anybody aware of a fair trade program currently operating? How would you go about implementing a fair trade program?



Unit 5 – Economics Activity 3 Handout A /Overhead A

Samples of Fair Trade Coffee Packaging



Much of the world's OUR COMMITMENT coffee is grown by small farmers and To Pay a Fair Price to the Farmer bought by 'middlemen' at negligible prices. Equal Exchange, FARMERS AS EQUALS To Buy Directly a worker owned cooperative formed "We do not see you, Equal To Work with in 1986, buys directly Exchange, as buyers whose Democratically Run Cooperatives from small farmer primary responsibility is to co-ops, in accordance buy our coffee. We see you as To Provide Advance Credit with internationally partners who have taken on recognized fair trade the major responsibility of To Encourage Sustainable Farming standards. Our treating farmers as equals." organic coffees are independently certified Carlos Murillo, of COOCAFE, and shade-grown, our trading partner in Costa Rica. To Develop preserving vital habitats for wildlife Long-term Trade Relations Based If you would like more on Trust and Respect and building a information on fair trade, sustainable future for visiting co-ops, or purchasing To Offer the Finest in our range of coffees, write us farming communities. at Equal Exchange, 251 Revere We're committed to Gourmet Coffee bringing you the finest in sustainably Street, Canton, MA 02021 USA FAIR TRADE Tel 781 830 0303 www.equalexchange.com grown, gourmet Arabica coffees from these proud farmers.



To preserve freshness, store your coffee in an airtight container. It is not necessary to put your coffee in the refrigerator or freezer. savor the recar Small 1 armers **Our commitment** Fair Trade at Work To pay a fair price to the farmer Much of the world's coffee is grown by small farmers, purchased at negligible prices by middlemen, and then bought and To trade directly with democratic cooperatives To offer pre-harvest credit to aid sold on a commodities farmers throughout their market thousands of growing season miles away. Equal Exchange provides an alternative by working directly with small farmer cooperatives, helping to build pride, independence and contract will community empowerment To develop long-term trade partnerships e from manhatter community empowerment. With the added income To support and stability provided by this relationship, sustainable and shade grown farming farmers can make improvements in their own lives. Women's leadership practice dbpo We are training in Nicaragua, community stores in Colombia, health committed drics to these clinics in Mexico, small principles on 100% of 2 business development in Tanzania - these are some of the most vivid examples our coffees and teas of the benefits of fair trade. Tobias Ndakidemi, Chairman, KNCU, our trading partner in Tanzania.



Unit 5 – Economics Activity 3 Handout B

The Principles of Fair Trade

Trading directly with democratically run co-operatives

Handcraft and farmer co-operatives are formed to market collectively, export independently of mid-level traders and have a say in their future. Co-ops also pool resources for the good of their communities, building schools and health care centres from their increased revenues.

Pay a fair price for the produce

Prices are negotiated based on the real costs of production and need, and not obtaining the lowest possible price.

Offer affordable credit

Access to affordable credit is a huge problem for small farmers and artisans. Often the only credit available is from mid-level traders who charge exploitative levels of interest.

Develop long-term relationships based on trust and mutual respect

Co-operatives can count on Alternative Trading Organizations (ATOs) to buy their product on a long-term basis, thus allowing them to make longer-term operating plans.

ATOs seek to trade with producers who are committed to respecting safe and healthy labour conditions and preserving environmental standards.

Adapted from the Oxfam Campaign on Basic Human Rights.



Unit 5 – Economics Activity 3 Handout C

The Fair Trade Criteria

These are the things that the fair trade organizations believe in, and practice in their trading: **An equal partnership of mutual respect between producers and consumers** The producers (the coffee growers) and the consumers (the companies & people who buy the coffee) should have respect for each other. The relationship between the producer and the consumer should be one of equality.

A long-term commitment to purchase

The buyers agree to continue buying coffee from the same growers year after year. This gives the farmers security and stability, and helps them to plan ahead effectively.

Informed consumers

The consumers in the North need to know the reality behind the coffee for sale in their shops; this gives consumers the chance to make responsible choices about what they buy.

A guaranteed minimum price to be paid to producers, which may involve a surcharge or premium over and above the world-market price

The buyers will pay a certain amount for each sack of coffee beans, even if the price on the world market is less than that. Buyers may also pay an extra amount of money for the coffee beans for other reasons, for example because of the extra work and economic risk to farmers when they grow coffee organically.

No intermediaries - direct buying from the producers

The Fair Trade organizations buy directly from the growers; in this way, more of the money that is paid for the coffee goes directly to the farmers, instead of some of it going to 'middle-men'.

Control of production by the producers

The farmers are independent of the producers; they make their own decisions about growing their coffee.

A commitment to improve social conditions for the producers

Many small farmers in the South live in poverty without enough food, or without proper health care or education. Consumer countries in the North have done a lot to create this situation; therefore Fair Trade organizations accept that it is the consumers' responsibility to help improve living conditions for the farmers they buy from.

Care for the environment by encouraging organic methods of growing coffee

Organic farming does not use chemical fertilizers, pesticides and so on, which can damage the environment in many ways.

Adapted from New Internationalist website, Global Issues for Learners of English, http://www.newint.org/



Unit 5 – Economics Activity 3 Handout D

Interview with a Coffee Farmer

Gregorio Gomez, coffee farmer and vice president of a coffee farmers' co-operative in Peru, talks about his experience with the fair trade organizations so far.

"Well, it's only in the last couple of years we have begun to explore the possibilities of fair trade. So it's still a bit early to tell how it might work out...

But it's already clear to us that, in principle, fair trade is very much in our best interests. There is a much more direct relationship with them than with most of our buyers.

Fair trade offers us a 10% premium over the market price, which is necessary because we have to work harder to produce better coffee.

I suppose the obvious advantage to us occurs when the world coffee price falls below the minimum \$210 or so per sack that the fair trade organizations guarantee us. This hasn't happened in the short time we've been working with them, thank goodness. But it provides us with an important assurance.

The real issue is their long-term commitment to improving the quality of our coffee and the conditions of the coffee producers here. We in the co-operatives need help.

The Government of Peru has pulled out of even the small amount of assistance it used to give us. We are now entirely on our own. The principles of free trade and co-operation do not, of course, rest easily together.

We need help with education and health care for our members, with business knowledge and marketing, and with improved administration."

Adapted from: New Internationalist website, Global Issues for Learners of English: <u>http://www.newint.org/</u>



Unit 5 – Economics Activity 3 Handout E

What is Fair Trade?

Co-operatives

In some places, as the number of small coffee farms has increased, farmers have begun to join together and form cooperatives – organized groups of farmers who work together to sell their coffee beans. This has happened in the Sandia region of Peru, for example, where coffee farmers have formed small local cooperatives, and sell their coffee beans through a central co-operative organization called CECOVASA. In this way, the farmers support each other, and have a stronger position for trading, especially when they can deal with fair trade organizations.

Fair trade – not aid!

The idea behind fair trade is simple: Small farmers in the South have the right to a decent standard of living, and to be treated as equals by consumers in the North. The farmers do not need aid to achieve this, they need only to be paid a fair price for the goods they produce.

In 1986, Mexican coffee farmers told a Dutch aid organization that if they were paid a fair price for their coffee beans, all aid to them could stop. They just wanted a price that would cover the cost of producing the beans, and allow them to live a decent life

As a result, fair trade organizations like the **Max Havelaar Foundation** were started in Northern countries. They work directly with small farmers in the South, to make fairly traded coffee (and other goods, for example tea, cocoa, honey, bananas) available to consumers in the North. Now there is a network of Fair Trade organizations across Northern countries. Some of them sell fairly traded products directly; others license manufacturers to use their fair trade label if the manufactures agree to their fair trade conditions.

Coffee drinkers can change the coffee trade. Right now, the fair trade market offers real hope, but there are limitations: much of the fair trade coffee still has to use the big companies for roasting and selling the coffee; the size of the market is growing, but it is still small (CECOVASA, for example, still has to sell most of its coffee on the normal market).

Adapted from New Internationalist website, *Global Issues for Learners of English*, <u>http://www.newint.org/</u>



Unit 5 – Economics Activity 3 Handout F

Fair Trade Coffee and Basic Human Rights

Fair Trade means farmers can fund their own development projects – and decide for themselves how to meet their basic needs. Farmer cooperatives use the premiums from fair trade to meet community needs such as health care, education, transportation, and agricultural diversification – to ensure human rights.

Basic Rights	Benefit of Fair Trade to small farmers
Enough to Eat	An increased income allows for less dependence on coffee as a monocrop and increases diversification to food crops to meet nutritional needs
Clean Water	New wells become possible when needed
A home	Threat of losing family land lessened
Health Care	Community health care centres and programs can be developed
An education	Community-owned schools and training centres can be developed
A livelihood	Guaranteed minimum price for product, access to affordable credit
A safe environment	Sharing organic growing expertise thereby reducing dependence on harmful pesticides
Protection from violence	Less vulnerable to intimation and exploitation by mid- level traders
Equality of opportunity	Democratically run cooperatives of small farmers exporting on their own
A say in the Future	Participatory cooperative structure

Adapted from the Oxfam Campaign on Basic Human Rights.

Unit 5 – Economics

Activity 4: Sustainable Development

Purpose: To introduce students to the principles of sustainable development.

<u>Materials:</u>

- Declaration of Interdependence handout
- Sustainable Development mini-lecture
- Sustainable Development Readings handout
- Sustainable Development overheads A and B
- Flip chart and markers
- Overhead projector

Time: 2 hours

Notes on Use:

This is the final activity in this unit. It is designed to put the whole discussion of economics and development into a perspective – that development that is not sustainable has the capacity to degrade the quality of life of all humans as well as other species with which we share the planet.

The exercise has four distinct phases: the code, which is designed to engage the students; the discussion of the *Declaration of Interdependence;* the webbing of the meaning of sustainable development and a mini-lecture on the concept; and the reading of a final article that provides a strong overview of the whole issue of sustainable development.

Procedure:

- 1. Divide the class into small groups of three and have students turn to the *Declaration of Interdependence*. Have the group members read the declaration aloud a different person can read each section.
- 2. In the small groups, students are to discuss the following questions. They can be written on a flip chart or overhead for students to refer to.
 - What is interdependence? Why is it important?
 - What is the author saying?
 - What is the relationship between the future and the present? How does this statement's view of this relationship compare to that of West African cultures?
 - What does the declaration say about humans' relationship with nature? How does that compare to West African cultural views?
 - What does the declaration say about development?
 - Do you agree with this declaration?

Allow 20-30 minutes for reading and discussion. Then discuss briefly the questions posed and written on the flip chart.

- 3. Back in the large group write the words "sustainable development" on the flip chart or the board. Ask students if they have heard of that term. If so, what does it mean? Create a web around the term, connecting it with brainstormed meanings and associations.
- 4. Read the Sustainable Development mini-lecture to the class and have students work through the questions posed in the lecture. Do they now have a better understanding of what sustainable is and isn't?
- 5. Break into small groups again. In their groups, have the students read the final article, *Sustainable Development Readings*. Ask students to again read the article aloud. Encourage group members to circle words they are not sure of and underline concepts or phrases they would like to have discussed. Once the groups are done reading, have them go over the article, addressing questions group members had about the reading or vocabulary. Reconvene as a large group and go over the issues raised in the article. Summarize some of the main ideas and ask about the issues students would like further clarification on.
- 6. Finally, return to the web chart done with sustainable development in the middle. Is there anything the group would now change? Add?

Debriefing:

What are the main differences between sustainable development and unsustainable development? Which prevails in the world right now? Why is the issue of sustainable development particularly relevant to rural communities? To developing countries? What gets in the way of implementing sustainable development strategies?

Writing Assignment:

Explain how economic practices at the global level impact rural African communities and how an awareness of these macro-economic policies and practices can help you be a more effective global citizen.



Unit 5 – Economics Activity 4 Handout A

Declaration Of Interdependence

Five members of the David Suzuki Foundation team wrote the following *Declaration of Interdependence* in 1992 for the United Nations' Earth Summit in Rio de Janeiro. In 2001, Finnish composer Pehr Henrik Nordgren wrote his Symphony no. 6 "Interdependence" based on the declaration, which also served as lyrics to the piece. It was performed for the first time in Sendai, Japan in December, 2001.

This We Know

We are the earth, through the plants and animals that nourish us.

We are the rains and the oceans that flow through our veins.

We are the breath of the forests of the land, and the plants of the sea.

We are human animals, related to all other life as descendants of the firstborn cell.

We share with these kin a common history, written in our genes.

We share a common present, filled with uncertainty.

And we share a common future, as yet untold.

We humans are but one of thirty million species weaving the thin layer of life enveloping the world.

The stability of communities of living things depends upon this diversity.

Linked in that web, we are interconnected -- using, cleansing, sharing and replenishing the fundamental elements of life.

Our home, planet Earth, is finite; all life shares its resources and the energy from the sun, and therefore has limits to growth.

For the first time, we have touched those limits.

When we compromise the air, the water, the soil and the variety of life, we steal from the endless future to serve the fleeting present.
This We Believe

Humans have become so numerous and our tools so powerful that we have driven fellow creatures to extinction, dammed the great rivers, torn down ancient forests, poisoned the earth, rain and wind, and ripped holes in the sky.

Our science has brought pain as well as joy; our comfort is paid for by the suffering of millions.

We are learning from our mistakes, we are mourning our vanished kin, and we now build a new politics of hope.

We respect and uphold the absolute need for clean air, water and soil.

We see that economic activities that benefit the few while shrinking the inheritance of many are wrong.

And since environmental degradation erodes biological capital forever, full ecological and social cost must enter all equations of development.

We are one brief generation in the long march of time; the future is not ours to erase.

So where knowledge is limited, we will remember all those who will walk after us, and err on the side of caution.

This We Resolve

All this that we know and believe must now become the foundation of the way we live.

At this turning point in our relationship with Earth, we work for an evolution: from dominance to partnership; from fragmentation to connection; from insecurity, to interdependence.

Source: 2007 David Suzuki Foundation http://www.davidsuzuki.org/About_us/Declaration_of_Interdependence.asp

Sustainable Development Mini-Lecture

Place Overhead A on projector.

There are many definitions of sustainable development, including this landmark one which first appeared in 1987:

"Development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs."

From the World Commission on Environment and Development

But what does this mean? What are the needs of the present? Take a minute and jot down five to ten needs that you have in your own life.

Have you listed any needs that conflict with one another? For example, if you listed clean air to breathe, but also listed a car for transportation, your needs might conflict. Which would you choose, and how would you make your decision? If within ourselves, we have conflicting needs, how much is that multiplied when we look at a whole community, city, country, world? For example, what happens when a company's need for cheap labor conflicts with workers' needs for livable wages? Or when individual families' needs for firewood conflict with the need to prevent erosion and conserve topsoil? Or when one country's need for electricity results in acid rain that damages another country's lakes and rivers?

How do we decide whose needs are met? Poor or rich people? Citizens or immigrants? People living in cities or in the countryside? People in one country or another? You or your neighbor? The environment or the corporation? This generation or the next generation? When there has to be a trade off, whose needs should go first?

The Long and the Short of It

People concerned about sustainable development suggest that meeting the needs of the future depends on how well we balance social, economic, and environmental objectives – or needs – when making decisions today. Some of these needs are itemized around the puzzle diagram.

Place Overhead B on projector.

What social, economic, or environmental needs would you add to the puzzle?



Services	Equity	Biodiversity
Household Needs	Participation	Natural Resources
Industrial Growth	Empowerment	Carrying Capacity
Agricultural Growth	Social Mobility	Ecosystem Integrity
Efficient Use of Labor	Cultural Preservation	Clean Air and Water

Many of these objectives may seem to conflict with each other in the short term. For example, industrial growth might conflict with preserving natural resources. Yet, in the long term, responsible use of natural resources now will help ensure that there are resources available for sustained industrial growth far into the future.

Studying the puzzle raises a number of difficult questions. For example, can the long term economic objective of sustained agricultural growth be met if the ecological objective of preserving biodiversity is not? What happens to the environment in the long term if a large number of people cannot afford to meet their basic household needs today? If you did not have access to safe water, and therefore needed wood to boil drinking water so that you and your children would not get sick, would you worry about causing deforestation? Or, if you had to drive a long distance to get to work each day, would you be willing to move or get a new job to avoid polluting the air with your car exhaust? If we don't balance our social, economic, and environmental objectives in the short term, how can we expect to sustain our development in the long term?

Adapted from World Bank website: www/worldbank.org/depweb/english/whatis.htm

Unit 5 – Economics Activity 4 Overhead A

"Development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs."

from *The World Commission on Environment and Development*

Unit 5 – Economics Activity 4 Overhead B



Services Household Needs Industrial Growth Agricultural Growth	Equity Participation Empowerment Social Mobility	Biodiversity Natural Resources Carrying Capacity Ecosystem Integrity
-		Ecosystem Integrity
Efficient Use of Labor	Cultural Preservation	Clean Air and Water



Unit 5 – Economics Activity 4 Handout B

Sustainable Development Readings

Sustainable development means different things to different people, but the most frequently quoted definition is from the World Commission on Environment and Development:

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

Sustainable development focuses on improving the quality of life for all of the Earth's citizens without increasing the use of natural resources beyond the capacity of the environment to supply them indefinitely. It requires an understanding that inaction has consequences and that we must find innovative ways to change institutional structures and influence individual behaviour. It is about taking action, changing policy and practice at all levels, from the individual to the international.

Sustainable development is not a new idea. Many cultures over the course of human history have recognized the need for harmony between the environment, society and economy. What is new is an articulation of these ideas in the context of a global industrial and information society. Sustainable development is a fluid concept that will continue to evolve over time but common characteristics underlie the many streams of thought. Sustainable development emphasizes the need for:

- Concern for equity and fairness ensuring the rights of the poor and of future generations
- Long-term view applying the precautionary principle
- Systems thinking understanding the interconnections between the environment, economy and society

In addition, sustainable development strategies usually highlight the interplay between the local and global, the developing and the developed, and the need for cooperation within and between sectors.

Sustainable development is not a detailed plan of action, a formula that we can all blindly follow. There is no one solution. Solutions will differ between places and times and depend on the mix of values and resources. Approaching decision-making from a sustainable development perspective requires undertaking a careful assessment of the strengths of your household, community, company or organization to determine priority actions.

Equity and Fairness

Sustainable development is concerned with meeting the needs of the poor and marginalized portions of our population. The concepts of equity and fairness are prominent in definitions of sustainable development. Sustainable development acknowledges that if we ignore our effects on others in an interdependent world, we do so at our own peril.

Since a dangerous disparity in access to resources has been established through our economic and public-policy systems, those systems must change. Fairness implies that each nation should have the opportunity to develop itself according to its own cultural and social values without denying other nations the same right to development.

One of the greatest challenges in decision-making is how to protect the rights of the voiceless. Future generations have no ability to speak on their own behalf or to protect their interests in decision-making processes. If development is to be sustainable, it must consider their interests.

Long-term View

How long is long term? In Western society during the past generation, most official long-term planning has been at most three to five years. Many international stock and currency traders now think of a few weeks as long term. Traditional Native American governance, however, focused on planning for "the seventh generation today." Goals and activities are designed with consideration for their impact on seven generations into the future, leading to a planning horizon of roughly 150 years.

A planning horizon somewhere in the middle may be both necessary and realistic. Some experts have suggested that as long as each generation looks after the next – roughly 50 years – each succeeding generation will be taken care of. Of course, if an effect in the yet further future is foreseen, then it too can be taken into account. No generation can be expected to guarantee results it cannot foresee; but equally, none should be allowed to ignore those it can.

People from around the world are looking ahead and building scenarios about what the future may be like. The scenarios they envision range from a world of resource scarcity and violence to one of increased sharing and technological innovation. Which scenario is most likely to occur?

No one is certain.

In an interdependent world, complex interactions are leading to a startlingly high rate of innovation and change. In times of rapid change, the precautionary principle can provide some guidance. It states that when an activity raises threats of harm to the environment or human health, precautionary measures should be taken even if some cause-and-effect relationships are not fully established scientifically.

Systems Thinking

For some two centuries we have known that the Earth is a closed system with finite resources. As planetary explorers completed the task of mapping the lands and waters, people slowly grew to understand that there are no "new" resources. We have only one Earth. All of our activities are but a small part of this larger system. Viewing our human systems as operating within the larger

ecosystem is crucial for achieving a sustainable relationship with the environment, and assuring our own species' continued survival on the planet.

Each natural resource used by human beings – food, water, wood, iron, phosphorous, oil and hundreds of others – is limited by both its sources and its sinks. Resources should not be removed faster than they can be renewed nor disposed of more quickly than they can be absorbed. Although environmentalists used to be concerned primarily about running out of sources, today more people are concerned about running out of sinks. Global warming, the ozone hole, and conflicts over the international shipment of hazardous waste are all problems that have arisen from our attempts to dispose of resources faster than the environment can absorb them.

Systems thinking requires us to understand that while there is only one Earth, it is composed of a multitude of subsystems all interacting with each other. A variety of models have been developed to explain the Earth's subsystems. When measuring our progress toward sustainable development, these models provide useful frameworks for choosing indicators. The differences between the models show the specific perspectives which groups bring to sustainable development and embody their differing values.

These subsystems are connected together by intricate feedback loops. The science of complexity suggests that in some systems a very small occurrence can produce unpredictable and sometimes drastic results by triggering a series of increasingly significant events. We have seen that emissions in the North have thinned the protective ozone layer over Antarctica, increasing rates of skin cancer in the South. Financial crises in Asia have threatened the economies of other countries around the world. And ethnic violence in Central Africa has led to refugee migrations that are overwhelming the support systems of nearby regions, triggering further crises and migrations.

We have learned that the consequences of decisions made in one part of the world quickly affect us all.

Critical Actions

Around the world we see signs of severe stress on our interlocked global economic, environmental and social systems. As the United Nations Environmental Programme's GEO-2000 report points out, the "time for a rational, well-planned transition to a sustainable system is running out fast." And yet we continue to adopt a business-as-usual approach to decisionmaking, which increases the chance that our global systems will crack and begin to crumble. Already we are faced with full-scale emergencies through freshwater shortages, tropical forest destruction, species extinction, urban air pollution, and climate change.

How do we quickly reverse these trends? In 1987 the World Commission on Environment and Development recommended seven critical actions needed to ensure a good quality of life for people around the world:

- Revive growth
- Change the quality of growth
- Meet essential needs and aspirations for jobs, food, energy, water and sanitation

- Ensure a sustainable level of population
- Conserve and enhance the resource base
- Reorient technology and manage risk

Include and combine environment and economics considerations in decision-making These recommendations are as valid today as they were when first written. They are a call to change our actions and to do things differently. In particular, they underscore a need to:

- Produce differently apply concepts of eco-efficiency and sustainable livelihoods
- Consume differently
- Organize ourselves differently increase public participation while reducing corruption and perverse subsidies

When taken together, these actions can help orient us on a path toward sustainable development.

Produce Differently

Increasing efficiency and reusing materials will play important roles in achieving sustainable development. Eco-efficient companies and industries must deliver competitively priced goods and services that improve peoples' quality of life, while reducing ecological impacts and resource-use intensity to a level within the Earth's carrying capacity.

How much more efficient do we need to become? Globally, the goal is to quadruple resource productivity so that wealth is doubled, and resource use is halved (this concept is known as Factor Four). However, because OECD countries are responsible for material flows five times as high as developing countries, and world population continues to rise, it will be necessary for OECD countries to reduce their per capita material use by a factor of ten.

Implementing Factor Four and Factor Ten strategies will require us to think about the cradle-tograve impact of all goods and services to make wise choices. It will also require a reorientation of industrial economies – reducing the scale of polluting activities and creating new opportunities for entrepreneurs.

The new generation of small, medium and micro-enterprises that operate within a sustainable development framework will expand our understanding of appropriate technologies and their contribution to creating sustainable livelihoods. In developing countries, achieving sustainable development will require overall national income growth of around five to six percent a year. For this to occur, however, without further degrading the environment and society, growth must be qualitatively different than in the past. Capital-intensive production systems may be unattainable and undesirable in many situations. Creating 12 million old-style industrial jobs in India, for example, would require an investment of four to six times that of its GNP. Alternative types of systems must be found that provide for high levels of productivity and meaningful work.

Consume Differently

World consumption has expanded at an unprecedented rate in the 20th century, with private and public consumption expenditures reaching \$24 trillion in 1998, twice the level of 1975 and six times that of 1950. Consumption in and of itself is not bad – all living things must consume to

maintain their biological existence. The real issue is the levels, patterns and effects of consumption.

For many in the developed world present consumption levels and patterns are unsustainable. The environmental and social impacts of consumption are being felt at both local and global levels. Locally, we see increases in pollution and a growing sense of alienation within our communities. Globally, climate change and the depletion of the ozone layer are but two stark reminders of the impact of our consumption levels.

One useful tool for measuring the extent of our consumption is the ecological footprint. It shows how much productive land and water we need to produce all the resources we consume and to absorb all the waste we make. Already, humanity's ecological footprint may be over 30 percent larger than the ecological space the world has to offer.

The ranking of ecological footprints shows which countries are ecologically most sustainable and which are running an ecological deficit. The average American has an ecological footprint 1.7 times larger than a person in Sweden, 3.8 times that of someone in Hungary or Costa Rica, and more than nine times that of an individual in India. It is important, however, to realize that these averages hide inequalities within countries. More than 100 million people in rich nations suffer from poverty. And a culture of material consumption is gaining ground among the emerging middle classes of such countries as India, Malaysia and Brazil.

Policies must be developed that promote consumption patterns which reduce our ecological footprint while meeting the needs of all people to enjoy a good quality of life. These policies must also raise the consumption of the world's more than a billion poor who are unable to meet their basic food, shelter and clothing needs.

Meanwhile, we need to shift how we make decisions – as consumers – from thinking about means to thinking about ends. For example, governments and businesses may collaborate to meet people's transportation needs by investing in improved public transit rather than building new roads. Even better, they may work together with communities to pass new zoning laws that allow people to live, work, and shop within the same neighbourhood. This would minimize people's needs for transportation while improving the accessibility of what they really want – goods and services.

Organize Ourselves Differently

How we organize ourselves and establish rules to govern our actions will play a major role in determining whether we move toward more sustainable paths.

Good governance will require reforming decision-making processes to increase opportunities for public participation, including a wide variety of activities ranging from consultation hearings as part of an environmental impact assessment, to co-management of natural resources. In its deepest form, public participation seeks to involve civil society in all steps of planning, implementation and evaluation of policies and actions. Public participation can:

• Help to establish good pathways for sustainable development

- Enhance understanding and relationships
- Increase eagerness to participate, leading to better implementation of decisions
- Enrich the community and build social capital

Reducing corruption, the misuse of power for private benefit or advantage, is also necessary to achieve sustainable development. It has proven to be highly destructive since corruption leads to the disregard of public interest and warps competitive markets. It leads governments to intervene where they need not, and it undermines their ability to enact and implement policies in areas in which intervention is clearly needed – whether environmental regulation, health and safety regulation, social safety nets, macroeconomic stabilization, or contract enforcement.

We govern our economies through a complex array of regulations, laws and market incentives. Unfortunately, tax structures, payments to producers, prices supports and the like function as perverse subsidies that have detrimental effects on both the economy and the environment. They are also often distributionally regressive, benefiting mostly the wealthy – often political interest groups – while draining the public budget. As recent studies from the Earth Council and the International Institute for Sustainable Development have noted, the world is spending nearly \$1.5 trillion annually to subsidize its own destruction. That is twice as much as global military spending a year, and almost twice as large as the annual growth in the world's economy. Removing even a portion of these perverse subsidies would provide a large stimulus for sustainable development.

Adapted from SD Gateway website: http://sdgateway.net/introsd

Unit 6 – Culture

What is the relationship between culture and development? Why is understanding the concept of culture and the specifics of the culture you are working in so central to effective development projects? Rather than always focusing on the cultural and personal deficits of developing countries, what strengths are present in these societies that can be built on? And perhaps most importantly, what can we learn from other cultures to enrich our own lives and society? These are central questions that too often are neglected in a study of international development, and they are also essential in helping our students develop a broader understanding of the shrinking globe they live in and to be better able to appreciate and accept cultural differences – both in Canadian and global society.

Wade Davis wrote, "The world in which you were born is just one model of reality. Other cultures are not failed attempts at being you; they are unique manifestations of the human spirit."

This simple yet difficult truth is perhaps the most important reason for reflecting on culture – what it is, isn't, and its profound effect on the way we see the world. Until we can get beyond the cultural blinders that are an integral part of growing up in any society, we cannot help but judge others in terms of our own sense of what behaviour and attitudes are right, reasonable and just plain common sense. The non-judgmental understanding that most of the rest of the world does not necessarily share our view and believes just as fervently in their own sense of what is right and acceptable can come as quite a shock to many students. But this perspective is at the very heart of creating greater global awareness in Canadian classrooms.

There is no curriculum, no content, no area of study more essential to Canada and the world than cultivating greater global awareness and understanding. Whether the resulting enhanced skills attitudes and knowledge enhance career perspectives (nearly 10% of Canadian university graduates now get their first job outside of Canada), provide Canadians with the cross-cultural skills necessary to operate effectively in our Canadian multicultural society, or simply help young Canadians become more aware and engaged global citizens, developing an understanding that we must learn to live with and celebrate diversity is critical in preparing students to cope with the complex problems facing our globe in the 21st century.

One of the first steps in this process is to examine how our own ways of doing things and view of the world can get in the way of tolerance, trust and greater harmony. Those behaviours and attitudes are called culture.

Unit 6 – Culture

Activity 1: Defining Culture

<u>Purpose</u>: To generate discussion around the concept of culture, triggering reflection, interest and an exchange of ideas, and to produce a definition of culture that will provide a basis for further examination of this issue.

Time: 1 hour

<u>Materials:</u>

- Sheet of flip chart paper for each group and markers
- Definitions of Culture handout for each student

Notes on Use:

Understanding that culture plays an enormous role in shaping every aspect of our lives is essential to being a sensitive and effective global citizen. This exercise is designed to encourage students to reflect on their own culture and to better understand their own cultural "baggage" and biases. Ultimately they are invited to become active students in creating their own cultural identity rather than being passive recipients of it.

Emphasize with your students that understanding the elements of culture and being sensitive to them is key to being able to function in a cultural and social environment different from their own (which is most of the world). This is true if students hope to work overseas, travel abroad or just to be contributing and positive citizens of our own Canadian multi-cultural society.

You might want to begin this discussion by placing the following quotation by Michael Bopp on a handout or flip chart:

In a sense, we enter the arena of cross-cultural education blind and deaf to the very existence of reality systems different from out own. Mercifully, the very process of entering someone else's world, if approached with a willingness to be vulnerable, to feel deeply, and to allow ourselves to change and grow as a part of the experience, can go a long way toward overcoming the handicap. Still, one critical truth about a handicap is that it does not go away. It goes with us wherever we go, and we must always take it into account.

The examination of culture is placed at the beginning of this unit because understanding culture and its implications for us as human beings in a multicultural, multi-tribal world paves the way for further exploration of the role of culture in development.

Procedure:

- 1. Form students into groups of four to five. Ask them to collaboratively arrive at a single definition of culture.
- 2. After the groups have come up with a definition they can all more or less support, ask them to write the definition on a sheet of flip chart paper. Post these on a wall. Then lead a discussion of the definitions in terms of their similarities, differences, common elements, etc.
- 3. Hand out copies of *Definitions of Culture*. Ask students to return to their small groups and discuss the five definitions. How are they different from each other? The same? Which ones do they feel most comfortable with? What new ideas or concepts have been introduced?
- 4. Now as a large group, ask students to share their discussions. What questions do they have? How are the definitions different from and similar to the definitions arrived at by the group? What new understanding of the meaning of culture have they achieved?

Debriefing:

Develop a discussion around the idea of culture as a dynamic process that adapts to changing physical and social conditions. Stress that cultures are constantly in a state of change, and that this change will continue through the intentional, active involvement of the members of that culture.

Move to a discussion of the importance of the issue of culture to development in West Africa. Point out that while there are different cultures along tribal lines, there are also differences along urban/rural lines. What might these be? What other cultural divisions might there be? How might these impact development projects? What would development workers need to know about the culture they are working in to be effective? What might happen if they were ignorant of or insensitive to these elements?

Finally, ask students to reflect on how being aware of and sensitive to the elements of culture and being able to identify cultural differences might be of value in their own lives.



DEFINITIONS OF CULTURE

- The sum total of living built up by a group of human beings and transmitted from one generation to another. (dictionary)
- An integrated system of beliefs and behaviour which is directed at maintaining the people who live within the context of those beliefs and behaviours. (Wilson Duff)
- Culture is the man-made part of the environment. It is essentially a construct that describes the total body of belief, behaviour, knowledge, sanctions, values and goals that mark the way of life of a people. (Melville Herskowits)
- (Culture is) a dynamic between people who shape their way of life through interaction with their natural and social environments and not a given that shapes the lives of people who share it. (Roy Wagner)
- (Culture is) the active role of people...in recreating or changing the world they did not make. The recreation occurs through their labour, human relationships, and life experiences. (Paulo Freire)

Unit 6 – Culture

Activity 2: What is Canadian Culture?

Purpose:

- To introduce the concepts of material and non-material culture
- To encourage students to identify and reflect on key aspects of Canadian culture.
- To help students to think about the range of cultural differences that exist in Canada
- To help students understand what aspects of culture might affect development initiatives

<u>Time:</u> $1\frac{1}{2}$ to 2 hours

<u>Materials:</u>

- Sticky notes or blackboard
- Flip chart paper and markers
- Overhead projector and transparencies (optional)
- Masking tape

Notes on Use:

Too often culture is what other people have. Like fish in water, our cultural traits and idiosyncrasies are invisible and unremarkable. Others have exotic, strange, silly, inscrutable and often repellent cultural behaviours and ideas. Ours are normal, understandable, right and sensible, of course.

This exercise is a series of activities that takes the students from a general understanding of culture and material/non-material aspects of culture to the specific identification of Canadian cultural features. There are opportunities for large and small group discussion as well as an opportunity for students to take on facilitation responsibility.

Because the concepts are complex and crucial, take your time developing these activities. Discuss the concepts fully and allow time for students to connect them with their own experience and situations.

The primary idea is to make students more aware of their own cultural context and that in a shrinking world, they will encounter others with a somewhat different set of values and beliefs and world view. To be effective and aware global citizens, they have to be sensitive to these potential differences, validate them, and find ways to effectively accommodate them.

Procedure:

1. Begin by asking students to brainstorm every aspect of culture they can think of: dance, music, values, etc. Write these on sticky notes or blackboard. Try to get 20-30 elements

of culture, and feel free to contribute critical areas of culture students have not volunteered. You want to have an extensive list for the exercise.

- 2. When done eliminate any items that are not culture, i.e., things that are not created or shaped by man (trees, rocks, flowers, etc.) Use the quotation from Freire's student: "As flowers they are nature; as decoration they are culture." Make sure students are clear on what is and what is not culture.
- 3. Now make two columns on a flip chart sheet or blackboard marked Material and Non-material. Place a few obvious items (material: clothing, food, shelter; non-material: beliefs, religion, language, taboos) under the appropriate column and then ask, "What am I doing? On what basis am I separating these items?" With further discussion, you should be able to arrive at the conclusion that there are material and non-material aspects of every culture. As a group, sort the remaining cards under the appropriate headings. (Some, such as dance, may provoke debate, but don't get bogged down. Place debatable items in a separate area or just hear the points of view and say, "Well, let's just put it here for now." Generally lump the arts with material.)
- 4. Once the items have been classified, ask students which column is most critical to a culture. They should be able to see that the heart of a culture is in its non-material core, the values, beliefs and attitudes that shape the people. Elaborate on this point.
- 5. Now place Canadian Culture in the centre of a blackboard or flip chart and place the sticky notes of volunteered items around the hub. Do all cultures share the same basic cultural traits?
- 6. Choose one of the non-material elements identified (e.g., religion, language). What are the religious beliefs of Canada? Let students struggle with this for a while. Why is this difficult to determine? How is Canada culturally unique from almost every other nation in the world? Would this be easier if the country being described was Saudi Arabia? Italy? Why? Now ask students to identify a few cultural traits that they feel they can generalize about (e.g., education, how food is acquired, transportation, clothing). What kinds of cultural elements can we apply more generally to Canada as a whole? Why?
- 7. Now have students get back into six groups. Hand out cards with the following headings:
 - Arts and architecture
 - Beliefs and taboos
 - Social organization
 - Laws and enforcement
 - Economic organization
 - Fundamental values

Noting that even in the most traditional societies there is some cultural variation and that they are to be looking for general trends not absolutes, have each group consider their category and *brainstorm related aspects of Canadian culture*, listing all of these on a

sheet of flip chart paper. Ask students to be as specific as possible and to understand that there may be some differences of opinion. List those items that everyone can somewhat agree to.

- 8. Once groups have completed their discussion, have them share their conclusions by posting all six charts on the walls and having a representative of each group explain what they identified and why. After each presentation, solicit other elements from the class as a whole and discuss differences of opinion as to whether these are in fact general characteristics of Canadian culture.
- 9. Summarize what has been learned about Canadian Culture. Is there a Canadian cutlure? Why or why not?

Debriefing:

Help students synthesize all the material into a specific understanding of Canadian culture . The key idea is to help students become more aware of own cultural assumptions, behaviours and beliefs and that this "cultural baggage" can get in the way of seeing other cultures and societies (even in our own country) objectively and in their full complexity. Ask students how being sensitive to and non-judgmental of these differences could be of value in their immediate and future lives.

How could a knowledge of cultural beliefs and practices help you be more effective in the workplace? How might not being aware reduce your effectiveness? How can you be culturally sensitive without stereotyping?

Unit 6 – Culture

Activity 3: Who Are these People?

Purpose:

- To present Africans as whole people with complex and nuanced lives
- To present the full range of challenges faced by the rural poor in developing countries
- To have students consider how good development projects must build on the strengths and help overcome the difficulties faced by people in developing countries.

Time: 2 to 3 hours

<u>Materials:</u>

- Case Studies of Rural Ghanaian Adult Students (Bayuo sample) handout for each student
- *Case Studies of Rural Ghanaian Adult Students* one handout for each member of each small group
- Flip chart paper for each small group
- Black, red, and blue marking pens for each group
- Overhead transparency of a sample student web chart (optional)
- Poster or blank handouts with instructions for drawing webs on chart paper.
- Overhead projector

Notes on Use:

This activity uses the stories of real African adults. The stories were collected from community development workers in West Africa (mainly Ghana). The exercise challenges students to get beyond the superficial stereotypes presented on relief agency advertisements and see the whole person behind those images and stereotypes. It also invites students to think about how effective development recognizes the realities of people's lives and builds on their strengths while helping them overcome their challenges and limitations.

The web chart is the activity phase of the exercise, and it may require some explanation and direction. Begin by preparing a flip chart or overhead transparency web on Bayuo (see example provided) to illustrate what is being asked for. Make sure your sample follows the instructions in terms of colours and symbols. The instructions are quite specific and you will need to have them available as a handout or posted clearly on a flip chart. Tell students to draw symbols as much as possible, but that they can also use words as necessary.

Procedure:

1. Provide an overview of the activity and what its purpose is. Explain that students will be reading case studies of real adults who have participated in various training programmes in rural West Africa.

- 2. Divide students into four groups (if the class is large, you can have more than one group assigned to the same subject) and pass out the case studies, making sure all the members of a group get copies of the same case study. Ask students to read the story aloud in their groups, alternating readers.
- 3. Pass out the profile of Bayuo as an example. After the students have read the profile, show them the web chart you have prepared with Samba's name in the middle. Point out what you have done and why, what colours you have used, and how you have tried to diagram the whole person, including strengths and weaknesses.
- 4. Pass out flip chart paper and markers. Then ask students to make a web chart of the person in their case study. Reveal the chart or prepare a handout with the following instructions:
 - Using a black marker, draw a circle in the centre of your chart paper and place the name of your subject inside the circle. Add personal information such as age, marital status, tribal group, etc. inside the circle.
 - All around the name, draw in symbols of things (or write them) that are important, positively and negatively, in the life of the person you are charting. Place all family considerations in one area, goals in another, education in another part, and so on.
 - Suggested categories: strengths, weaknesses, education, goals, family, background, supports, achievements. Add any others you feel are important.
 - Join related factors with black lines
 - Draw red boxes around positive factors in your student's life.
 - Draw blue boxes around negative factors
 - In red, write in the feelings the subject may have regarding the factors (e.g., frustration, joy, depression, desperation, sadness, pride, low self-esteem, satisfaction)
- 5. Once the four web charts are completed, post them on a wall where everyone can see them. Have each group present their profiles to the group as a whole; have them summarize and explain all the factors they have identified and how they interrelate.
- 6. Point out that many effective grassroots development projects focus on how to work with local personnel to maximize their skills and become fully contributing members of their community. After the groups have presented, ask them to go back to their small groups and strategize around what kind of training or educational program would work best for their subject. How would they build on the strengths and help overcome the weaknesses? You might ask them to keep in mind the categories of goals, methods, structure and content.
- 7. Have the groups report their recommendations and combine these on a single sheet of chart paper.

Debriefing:

What insights did you gain through this exercise about the real lives of people in developing countries? What similarities and differences are there between the subjects' lives and your own?

How can development projects be structured to overcome the weaknesses of people and utilize their strengths?

How would these profiles be different if the students were from urban areas? What general issues, problems or strengths do you see common to all the profiles?



Case Studies of Rural Ghanaian Adult Students

Sample Case – Bayuo (Sample – to be used to illustrate webbing procedure)

Bayuo is a 22-year-old young man who lives with his family in the village of Zebilla in northern West Africa. The family Bayuo grew up in was a happy one. Bayuo was the only son in the family and therefore had access to formal education. Bayuo was able to read simple books and write short passages at an early age. He participated in community works and commanded the respect of the elders because he was a hard working boy. In addition, Bayuo wanted to continue his education. He also listened to people. Bayuo was one of the brightest students in his class. Like many youths, his interests and hobbies included soccer, music, reading, and fishing.

Unfortunately, Bayuo was not able to continue his education because his mother and father could not afford the school fees. He was gradually withdrawn from school to assist his parents on the land, and dropped out altogether in Grade 8. This was very sad for Bayuo, and his classmates sympathized with him. Bayuo's parents were both subsistence farmers who found it hard to meet Bayuo's school expenses because the harvests were not good and because they had three younger daughters.

Although Bayuo had to end his studies prematurely, he is not bitter. He is secretary of the village suntaa group and participates in community affairs. Because of his literacy skills, he keeps records of the births and deaths in the village.

Being the only son in the family, Bayuo was expected to stay with the family and assist in shouldering other responsibilities because the father was aging. In light of that, he married a girl from his mother's village a year ago and now lives in the same compound with his parents. In short, this means that Bayuo has taken the role of the father – feeding and clothing the entire family.

He decided to enroll in one of the short vocational programmes that were offered in his village so that he would learn life skills and upgrade himself to lead a better life. Thus Bayuo got some experience in carpentry and construction, and he could do well in related vocational programmes. In the meantime he provides for his aging parents and younger sisters by making and selling beds and other simple furniture. He and his wife also help his parents with the farming. But life is hard, and the young couple cannot see how they can afford to have their own children yet.

Bayuo wants things to be different for his own family. He hopes to make enough money to send all of his children as far in school as they can go. He hopes he will be able to develop his carpentry skills and build up his furniture business. He knows he will need loans to buy proper tools and materials. He also hopes to play a more active role in his community, helping develop its facilities and resources.





Case Study #1 – Norbile

Norbile is 23 years old and is the fourth child in a family of eight children. His father, Chimsah, is a subsistence farmer with a very small farm. His fields are small and not very fertile because Chimsah was a settler from another region. He migrated from his home village to his in-law's village before Norbile was born at the request of Chimsah's father-in-law. Chimsah had married the man's third daughter, and the father-in-law wanted Chimsah nearby to serve him.

During Norbile's infancy he was not fortunate enough to have been vaccinated against the five major childhood diseases, and he contracted polio. The disease made his left leg lame. Norbile has to use a stick to support himself when he walks.

Being physically handicapped, Norbile's parents did not see much of a future for him, and thus he was not sent to the village school nor was he taught any vocational skills that could support him later in life.

At the age of eight, Norbile realized that he was going nowhere. He was the only one of his brothers and sisters who did nothing during the day. They were either taken to the farm by their father or worked with their mother in the fields and hauling water and firewood. Norbile was left alone.

But Norbile knew he had the ability to learn. He also knew that he was clever with his hands. He approached a shoe maker, who was crippled himself, who had a shop near Norbile's home. To Norbile's delight, the shoe maker took him on as an apprentice for no fee.

After four years of apprenticeship, Norbile graduated and began his own shop right in front of the family home. Now Norbile has become quite successful. All four of his brothers have left home for the city in search of greener pastures, and his three sisters have married and left the home. Norbile is the only child left. From shoe making, Norbile is able to help feed both his mother and father. He also provides their clothing and run all errands for them.

Recently at a village meeting Norbile was elected treasurer of the village development committee – a post many influential villagers vied for. Many in the village see Norbile as an honest, hard working and trustworthy man. Now he is planning to marry one of the daughters of the village chief by the end of the year.

Norbile remains optimistic and hopeful about the future. He says that hard work has gotten him far and will continue to serve him. He would like to expand his business and build a new home for his wife. He would also like to learn basic literacy and bookkeeping so he can manage his business more effectively. He hopes to continue being active in his community and to help develop a new water supply in the village so that the women do not have to carry water so far.



Case Study #2 – Mahamadu

Mahamadu is a 50-year-old Dagomba man and a devout Muslim. He grew up in the same house where his father was born in the village of Banvim. Mahamadu has three wives, but has divorced one. He has eight sons, three daughters, five grandchildren under five, and four female foster relations staying with him. He also takes care of his mother. There are 25 people in the household.

Mahamadu's wives are small traders who process rice for sale. They are able to add a small amount to the support of the household, but mostly they are dependent on what Mahamadu can raise from his small farms. Until five years ago, Mahamadu farmed five acres inherited from his father. The father's land was larger, but by the time it had been shared between his brothers and paternal uncle, there was only a small plot left for Mahamadu. Five years ago Mahamadu had to leave his plot because residential and commercial development was encroaching, and because of lost soil fertility. He does not practice any improved farming techniques other than the use of fertilizer, which is now too expensive for him to afford. He was fortunate enough to be given some land in the nearby village of Jantong by his paternal aunt's son, who was a sub-chief there.

Mahamadu has put three acres of his new land under cultivation. He grows yams, maize, cassava, rice and guinea corn. He has no access to a tractor and relies on a hoe. Under a system called kpariba, he can request help from other farmers, but he has to provide them with food and pito. Last year Mahamadu harvested 10 bags of maize, two bags of guinea corn, 15 bags of rice, and 10 bags of cassava. He is often forced to sell his produce to meet social and family obligations such as funerals, bicycle repairs, health care, school fees, children's clothing, etc. He sometimes runs out of food before the coming of the next rainy season. This year he had to buy maize, at a very high price, by selling some of his animals.

Mahamadu's house, inherited from his father, is a four-room home of swish/mud construction with a rusting galvanized roof over one part. The whole house is deteriorating. All 25 people live in the four rooms. The building has no electricity or toilet. He needs cement to repair his house, but it is too expensive. Three of Mahamadu's sons attended school, and the rest helped him in the fields. Part of the reason he sent only three was the high school fees, including books and uniforms. Two of the three who did go to school have graduated from senior secondary school.

Mahamadu's dream is to overcome his financial problems and build a more modern cement block house. He would like to see all his children working and his wives able to make more money. He knows he needs credit for his wives and him to expand their operations. He doesn't think he could get credit from the bank because he has no collateral. As for his community, he would like to see it updated into a neat and modern settlement.



Case Study #3 – Sanaa

Sanaa is a petty trader living in northern Ghana who buys a sack of rice and parboils it for sale in the market. She is the first wife of a former chief's son, who has a second and third wife. They all live in the same compound consisting of a large round hut for the former chief, five small round huts with thatched roofs for the wives and their children, and a modern cement block house where her husband stays. Sanaa lives in one of the small round huts. Her place is very modest with only a mat, a few clothes hanging on a line, a few old bowls and a charcoal pot. In one corner of the room is a space reserved for bathing. Sanaa's household is Muslim.

Sanaa has given birth to eight children, four boys and four girls. Five of her children still live with her, sleeping in the same small room. Her oldest daughter parboils rice too and will soon be married off. Two daughters have been sent to live with the sisters of her husband, but Sanaa is not happy because she feels that they are being used as house servants. She will take the younger back when her oldest daughter leaves.

Only her youngest son has gone to school. The children's grandfather was very much against any of them going to school. The children so feared the old man that they refused to go to school even when Sanaa insisted. Now that the grandfather has died, she is able to send her youngest to school. Sanaa herself has never attended school even though she had wanted to. Her parents had not seen the need for education, especially for a girl. They may have feared that Western education would turn their children against Islam.

Sanaa knows only one kind of work – parboiling rice for sale. She started several years ago with the little cash she had. She has been rolling this capital ever since, buying one sack of unhusked rice every three to five days. She can make up to 42,000 cedis every month, but she has to pay the credit she got for firewood, water and milling. The rest goes to support her family.

Sanaa's husband refuses to help provide her with capital. He has two other wives he has to help. He gives each wife one sack of rice each year. As for maize, the wife is only given it when it is her turn to cook for the husband. Sanaa realizes that the second wife is prospering from her rice sales. Her rival is probably using capital from her parents. In practice, parents look after their daughters so that she is not miserable compared to her rivals in the husband's compound. Sanaa's parents, however, are poor and cannot help her. In Sanaa's compound the difference is clear just by looking inside their homes. Sanaa's two rivals have fine bowls and many more clothes. Sanaa's health also reduces her ability to do more income-generating activity. For two years now she has had ongoing stomach problems that have caused vomiting and severe pain. She went to the hospital for treatment, and her husband paid for her medication, which helped a little.

Sanaa hopes for a better future where she and her children will be more comfortable. But she says, "Only God can make one rich."



Case Study #4 – Azara

Azara lives in Gbambaya, where she moved 13 years ago with her four children after the death of her husband. Although all of her children are married, they are still staying with her in a compound of three round huts and two cement block structures, all with thatched roofs. Her oldest son has two wives, who do not work for a livelihood. He is a tailor. Between his two wives he has seven children. Two sons are attending school. He is unable to afford to send the others. Azara's second son is a peasant farmer. He has one wife and two young children. Azara's two daughters are staying with their mother because they have just given birth. They will stay until the children are three or four. This is a tradition in the region.

Life for Azara has always been hard. Her three elder brothers all died when she was young, leaving her as their only child. Her father farmed for their food, but it was never enough. At times they had to eat "wawa" – a leaf with little nutritional value that always gave Azara diarrhea. Her mother knitted cotton for sale to supplement their income. Despite the poverty, Azama has fond memories of her childhood and her parents. Her father made all the decisions, and she was comfortable with this.

Azara also has favourable memories of her own marriage. She was happy to let her husband make all the decisions, though he would reconsider if she did not agree. Due to their own poverty, she was only able to send one son to school. He had to stop at Middle School Form 3 when his father died. The younger son had a serious sore that did not respond to traditional or hospital treatment. This has prevented him from doing active work like farming. He has become a tailor.

Azara herself did not go to school because "nobody went to school at that time." She is, however, a traditional birth attendant (TBA), a skill she acquired through observation of her mother in this role. She has not been able to use her knowledge to generate income. A group came to her village and promised to train her further but never returned. Since she had no other skills, she turned to soap making. The cost of her materials – lye, sheabutter and firewood – almost exceeds what she gets from her sales. She finances her production through credit she pays off when possible. When she does make money she uses it for food and clothing. Her sons' livelihood is marginal; they earn very little and are only able to contribute some food.

The household eats very modestly. The first meal is porridge, the lunch is usually cassava with okro soup, and supper is also cassava with another soup, maybe from local leaves. Although they have little food, they have never received charity from their neighbours. She has trouble getting credit because she has no relatives in the village. Azara has never explored educational opportunities in the community or joined community organizations. She feels that she is a stranger in the area. The major problems she sees in her life are: 1) how to get capital so that she

will not have to resort to credit for her soap-making materials; 2) how to feed her children and grandchildren, and; 3) how to clothe herself and her family adequately (she loves nice clothes).

Azara wants enough money to feed herself and her family and to send the children to school. For the community, she would like to see a reliable source of water and nicer houses. Poverty makes people unable to keep up their current homes. When asked if she has a role to play in the household and the community, she says that if she does "God will tell me how." Left on her own, she cannot think of a means by which she can be of assistance.

Unit 6 – Culture

Activity 4: Building on Cultural Strengths

<u>Purpose:</u> To encourage students to reflect on the cultural strengths in African communities and how these strengths can be built upon.

Time: 2 to 2 ¹/₂ hours

<u>Materials:</u>

- *A Visitor's Look at a Rural Village* handout for each student
- Overhead transparencies, blackboard or flip chart.
- Sample grid and list of strengths (for instructor reference only)
- Overhead projector

Notes on Use:

This activity centres around a story about a Canadian visitor to a rural village in Ghana. Although the story is fiction, the elements described have been identified by Ghanaian educators as those actually existing in rural communities. Keep in mind that this activity focuses on cultural strengths: it consciously describes the strengths of a rural community and stays away from the problems and difficulties. The reason for this is not to deny that there are problems but rather to encourage students to look at the positive aspects of rural communities and community members so they can better value and see how to build upon these.

It is hoped that the main cultural strengths built into the story will be identified by the students, but in case they have difficulty or miss some main ideas, a list of the primary characteristics the story was built around is included for the facilitator's use only. Students may find many more strengths than those listed.

Procedure:

- 1. Explain the concept of cultural strengths, spending some time discussing this concept in light of previous discussion about aspects of culture.
- 2. Break students into groups of four to five. Pass out copies of *A Visitor's Look at a Rural Village* and ask the students to read the story aloud in their group, alternating readers each paragraph. Tell them to be on the lookout for examples of cultural strengths and to note those on their paper as they emerge. This should take 10 to 15 minutes.
- 3. After the reading, have students brainstorm the strengths they identified that are inherent in the community described. They might identify strengths listed on the sample list or come up with their own. Have a recorder from each group list the strengths the group members identified.

- 4. As a large group, have the students share the strengths they listed. As they are volunteered, write these on a flip chart, blackboard or overhead. List only strengths (though there may be some debate on whether a characteristic is in fact a strength); do not include problems or weaknesses.
- 5. Once you have collected all the strengths identified on a final list, discuss selected items, touching on such questions as: How generally do you think these are present in African communities? What strengths are there in this community that are missing from most Canadian communities? What are the central values reflected in the behaviours and attitudes of the people in this community? How are they the same and different from what we would find in an average Canadian community?
- 6. Ask students to think in terms of development projects. How would good projects build on the strengths that exist in this community? Have these strengths been widely acknowledged and incorporated into development projects you are aware of? Is this appreciation apparent in the WARD project? How?
- 7. Debrief, making sure students have made the link between the strengths of African communities and individuals and how these can be used to shape effective development programs.

Debriefing:

What did you learn about the strengths of African communities? What surprised you the most? Why do you think many programs on Africa emphasize only the deficits and problems? How does this affect the way we view Africa?

How might some of the cultural attitudes and behaviours noted in this story become problems as well as assets?

What have you learned about how to connect the development projects to the strengths of individuals and communities? About fitting programs to the realities of the community?

SAMPLE SHEET OF CULTURAL STRENGTHS

(For instructor use)

- \checkmark strong sense of family provides identity and caring
- \checkmark extended family structure provides support
- \checkmark elders are valued
- \checkmark social organization is cooperative
- ✓ socializing is informal
- \checkmark communities are close and neighbours assist each other
- ✓ strong spiritual beliefs are prevalent
- ✓ people are reliable
- \checkmark children taught by watch and do method
- \checkmark there is strong cultural identity
- \checkmark strong support systems for individuals exist in community
- \checkmark good set of social institutions and organizations to build on
- \checkmark there is a strong attachment to the community and land
- \checkmark people are friendly and generous
- \checkmark there is tolerance and respect for cultural differences



A VISITOR'S LOOK AT A RURAL VILLAGE

I had first met Abdulai when we were students together in Canada. We had become close friends, but he had returned to Ghana as an agriculture extension worker, and I hadn't seen him for two years. We wrote, of course, and when I managed to save up enough to get to Ghana on a vacation, he was as excited as I was.

Abdulai met me at the airport and began driving east to his village. During the three-hour ride, Abdulai told me another reason he was so excited – his wife had just given birth to their first child, and I would be there for the naming ceremony! I didn't know what to expect, but as this was my first trip to Africa, I looked forward to some new experiences!

When I first arrived I was struck by the friendliness and generosity of the people. I stayed in my friend's compound, where he and his wife lived with his parents and four brothers and their families. In our compound, the women cooked the food in the courtyard. We ate together on mats spread on the floor, the men in one area and the women and children in another. I was immediately seated near the front next to the father in a place of honour. The first night we had a sheep that had been slaughtered just for me. And the next night they killed chickens and we had chicken soup and rice balls. I knew the family was not wealthy and that they could not afford to feed me like this, but when I offered to pay them something, they smiled and refused. Instead, one brother gave me a small carving of an elephant he had made as a gift.

The extended family worked very well in this village. One of the brothers' wives was out of the compound taking a course in Tamale, so their three children were being looked after by another brother and his wife. Everybody helped, and I could see that the children got more attention with their mother gone because everyone was trying to keep the children happy!

Many of the brothers, most of whom had received some training outside of the community, were successful farmers or craftsmen. They helped others in their family who were less well off. One brother provided food to his sister and her family, while another supported his niece. The oldest brother was helping pay for his nephew's wedding.

Families are so close that Abdulai calls his father's brother "Baba," and all his mother's brothers are "Uncle." His uncles' children are all called brothers and sisters, and they treat each other that way.

The elders in the community seem to occupy a special place. Whenever they are met, they are greeted formally and with respect: "Ar'Salamalekum." Abdulai pointed out elders he had gone

to with problems to discuss and shared some of their wise advice. They can even act as lawyers, distributing an estate after a death.

As Abdulai got ready for the naming ceremony of his daughter, I could see how the community came together to help out. Women in Abdulai's family from the nearby compounds helped Abdulai's wife to prepare cakes for the ceremony and food for the lunch. I was worried about the expense, but Abdulai reassured me. Most people that would come would donate money. Often the host family comes out ahead! When Abdulai's mother died, he was attending school in Canada and could not get back for the funeral. Instead he sent money to help. When he got back he visited each person who attended the funeral and thanked them for helping bury his mother.

Abdulai's village has a new school building with three cement block classrooms and a new market. When I asked about them Abdulai told me that the chief had suggested that the community undertake the projects, and a date was set for the construction. Money was collected from each compound based on what people could afford. The materials were purchased and the men set to work, finishing the structures in just a few weeks. Abdulai also told me that when a person is sick during the rainy season, people will work his fields so his crop will not die.

I asked about a woman who was the local health care worker and could not raise vegetables for her family. Abdulai said that the community put aside a garden for her and worked it because she was contributing to the community in her way and they were helping in theirs. He also mentioned that people with large farms can ask people for help, and people will volunteer their time. All the farmer provides is the meal, pito and tobacco for the elders. Roads and other projects have also been built with community labour in Abdulai's village.

One of the things that struck me was how people just drop in for a chat. No one has phones, so people just come by and walk in. No one needs an invitation. And information gets around quickly! If anything happens, everybody knows about it in an hour. The best place to find out the news and talk about village issues is the meeting place under a big baobab tree. Of course, the village crier, with his drum, spreads information about meetings and other happenings too.

I am very impressed with the tolerance of the people in the village. Although most people are Dagomba here, many Gonja and Mamprusi live in the village as well. They seem to work together well and respect each other's traditions and background. Many people have married spouses from other tribes, and I am constantly surprised at how many languages the villagers know – many can speak two, three, even four different tribal languages. I noticed that any visitor, regardless of his or her tribal background, is welcomed warmly and treated with respect. Though I speak only English, people are pleased when I try a little Dagbani.

Islam is very strong in this village. Maybe it is because of this that people are so generous and kind. Abdulai's father gave away several cows from his herd to poorer community members. "That is what the Koran tells us to do," he said. "If you don't use something for a year, give 10% away." People pray five times a day. There is a shrine in Abdulai's compound where people come to pray if they are in the village, but on Friday almost everyone travels four miles to the next village that has a central mosque. People walk or ride bicycles. Their devotion is seen in their acts of kindness as well as their strict adherence to the Islamic code of behaviour.

When Abdulai and I were walking in the village one day, we saw a child, probably about six, throwing rocks at clothes hanging on a line behind a compound. A woman ran up to the child and scolded him. "Is that the child's mother?" I asked Abdulai.

"Oh, no," laughed Abdulai. "She is no relation. But here we all take responsibility for raising children."

I asked, "Will the parents be mad that she disciplined the child?"

"No. They will be ashamed that their child misbehaved!"

And I saw other evidence of this community responsibility. All over the village, children were being taught many skills by watching the adults in the village: cooking, blacksmithing, carpentry, farming. "Taking someone's footsteps" Abdulai called it. "We learn best by watching and doing," he said. "This is the way we have always been taught. Look at the girl over there." He pointed to a girl that was hoeing in the garden next to her mother. Her hoe was small, but she watched her mother carefully and looked very serious as she imitated her. I had to laugh – the tiny girl couldn't have been more than four.

"And many apprentices learn their trades the same way," Abdulai added. "Watch then do. Books and lectures don't work too well here."

The day of the ceremony, called a sunna, arrived. It was eight days after the birth of Abdulai's child. Abdulai had decided on the name – Fati – but it had been suggested by his wife. It was his wife's aunt's name. People streamed into Abdulai's compound: relatives, friends, neighbours, elders. After everyone was seated on the mats, the baby was brought in by Abdulai's sister, who sat in the middle. A wansam shaved the hair from the quiet baby's head with an old-fashioned straight razor and announced her new name. Abdulai's daughter was now Fati! At this same time a goat was being killed in Fati's honour. It was prepared for lunch.

Many such cultural traditions remain strong, and ceremonies for marriages, deaths and other occasions are common.

After the naming ceremony I stayed on in Abdulai's village for several days. When I first came I thought it must be a struggle for people who are mainly subsistence farmers with a small cash crop income from yams and vegetables and rice. And while times can get hard, I began to realize that the village provided a very efficient support system for individual members. Pagsaras for the women and nachimbas, clubs based loosely on age groups, operate throughout the community. Besides providing a general social function, they raise money for different community projects, help organize ceremonies, and lend money to members in need. One pagsara in the village started a tie-dying cooperative for its members and works to market their products.

Depending on what they are working on, the pagsaras and nachimbas might meet as often as once a week, and the members always show up for meetings! When I mentioned how hard it is to get people to attend meetings in Canada, Abdulai commented, "Here people are very reliable. When they make a commitment, to attend a meeting or do something else, they always do it."

Besides these organizations, Abdulai told me about the susu: small credit unions for men and women. Susu members (usually there are about ten to a group) contribute a small amount, maybe 2,000 cedis, each week, and then the total monthly contributions are given to one person. The member will take the money when he or she needs it – to buy market goods, pay for school, buy tools or use it for some other good purpose. "A little may not be much help," Abdulai said. "But ten times a little gives you enough to really do something with." He went on to say that susu members can ask to be given money before their turn in an emergency. Thus members help each other.

And if you have personal problems, you have many people to turn to. The imam is selected for his learnedness and exemplary behaviour and is always available for help. Elders share their experience and wisdom as counsellors, and a family or individual can arrange meetings with any elder. The extended family also provides support and guidance.

Besides these informal organizations, there is a very active village development committee that people are elected to. They are always planning on ways to improve the community and meeting with the villagers to discuss new ideas. The village chief works with district assemblies to bring ideas to the community and take concerns to district officials.

As I got ready to leave, I realized I would miss this village and the warm, generous people I had met here. I could understand Abdulai now when he used to tell me that he had only left his country to get training. As soon as he could, he told me, he was determined to return home to his village. The young people I spoke with said the same thing: "I may have to leave to find work or get training, but this village will always be part of me." They vowed that though they might have to go away temporarily, they would always return. And I saw what they meant: While I was there a man who worked in the city returned one Friday with a sheep he had brought all the way from Tamale – on the bus! He had brought the sheep to share it with his family, in the village that would always be his home.

The day I left Abdulai's family crowded around to see me off. Abdulai's father shook hands solemnly. "Allah take good care of you and bring you back safely," he said, smiling. I smiled back and climbed into Abdulai's car. As we pulled out onto the dusty road, it looked like the whole community was waving. "Safe journey!" people yelled, and I leaned out the window and waved back. I would miss these kind, gentle people, and I hoped Abdulai's father was right – I hoped that we would meet again.

Article by Don Sawyer

Unit 6 – Culture

Activity 5: Working Effectively in Rural Areas

<u>Purpose:</u> To look at real case studies of failed development projects and examine how a lack of knowledge or concern for local cultural beliefs can sabotage programs

<u>Time:</u> $1\frac{1}{2}$ to 2 hours

<u>Materials:</u>

- Flip chart and markers or blackboard and chalk
- Copies of the five case studies of development workers in rural areas (enough copies for each group member)
- What a Development Worker Needs to Know to Work Effectively handout and transparency
- Overhead projector

Notes on Use:

This activity again focuses on real case studies – this time of failed programs in Ghana. Because these are genuine situations, students will be able to see how even apparently minor cultural slights can have huge – and often disastrous – effects on a project.

This is the final activity in this section and is designed to bring the discussion of culture from the abstract to the concrete. Here we see the importance of being culturally sensitive in very definite terms.

Procedure:

- 1. Have students break into five groups and pass out copies of one case study to each group member. Have them read the story aloud. After the reading, have the groups identify what the development worker did to contribute to the failure of his project. What cultural norms did he violate or ignore? Have them write these out specifically and concisely.
- 2. Then have one member from each group summarize (not read) their case studies to the other students and to report the things the worker did to contribute to the failure of the project. Keep a cumulative list on a flip chart. After the case studies have been presented and the list of errors compiled, ask the class a whole what the animator could have done differently to have made the project more successful.
- 3. After the case study phase, place the following chart on an overhead or flip chart. On the basis of their work in the area of culture and awareness of what contributes to successful and failed projects, ask students to brainstorm what a development worker most needs to know and do to work effectively in African communities. Record these on the flip chart
or overhead. (Note: in conducting a similar exercise in Africa with development workers, they identified the following:

- 1. Be respectful of elders
- 2. Respect people's beliefs (religious and cultural)
- 3. Dress appropriately
- 4. Live with the community and participate in community social events
- 5. If Moslem, attend mosque on Friday with the people; if Christian, attend church on Sunday
- 6. Get to know the participants personally, their family background and environment
- 7. Share social control and encourage participation
- 8. Be interpersonally warm with people
- 9. Use concrete demonstration (learning by seeing)
- 10. Have an attitude of "I don't know all" (everyone has information and knowledge)
- 11. Avoid being political
- 12. Avoid inappropriate sexual behaviour
- 13. Have adequate knowledge of your subject area
- 14. Avoid public misbehaviour
- 15. Learn about the community dynamics
- 16. Avoid partisanship
- 17. Don't take sides in family or tribal disputes
- 18. Be sensitive to the whole community, not just those who talk the most or are official leaders
- 19. Don't put your own ambitions over those of community members
- 20. Learn the cultural norms, taboos, and expectations and do not violate those

Debriefing:

What were the most common reasons the failure of development workers in these stories? What could they have done differently? What did you learn about the importance of culture in ensuring development project success?

Many of the items that enable development workers to be effective are attitudinal or personal qualities. Can we learn those things? How?

To what extent do these same principles apply to working in Canadian communities?



Unit 6 – Culture Activity 5 Handout A / Overhead A

WHAT A DEVELOPMENT WORKER NEEDS TO KNOW TO WORK EFFECTIVELY	
Skills and Knowledge	Attitudes and Personal Qualities



Unit 6 – Culture Activity 5 Handout B-1

Case Study # 1: Paul

Gbedema was a small rural settlement in the Upper West with a population of approximately 300. It was endowed with fertile land suitable for both farming and horticultural activities. The women of Gbedema were hard-working and engaged in growing vegetables in garden plots that they individually owned. The Department of Agricultural Services became interested in helping the village women to develop and improve their gardening practices. They decided to post one of their workers, a young man named Paul.

Paul had taken his training in General Agriculture and was knowledgeable about his topic. Paul arrived in the village and obtained lodging. He spent the first weeks in the village assessing the situation. During this time he often had disagreements with the villagers because of different views on social and political issues. Sometimes these disagreements turned into bitter quarrels. During this time Paul was very homesick and missed the excitement of the city. He thought that the villagers were very ignorant and lacked initiative. Paul was also politically active and from time to time he would leave the village to campaign for his party.

Paul was anxious to get a project happening and consequently he approached the village elders to formulate a proposal. He was sometimes irritated with how long things took, and often forced the elders to agree to things to save time during meetings. At other times, he would tease the elders and make fun of them. Paul took a leading role in formulating a proposal that was submitted to his department for possible funding.

A month later, Paul was informed that the project was approved and the funds for the programme were disbursed through Paul. He called a meeting of the village and announced that the funding for the project had been approved and that he was going to go to Wa alone and purchase the materials.

When Paul returned with the materials from Wa, he called a meeting to report on his trip. To his surprise, only a few boys attended. Paul was upset and complained to the villagers that they should show more respect for him in appreciation of the money and resources that he had brought to the village. He tried to mobilize the villagers to become involved in the project, but to no avail. Paul became very frustrated, but try as he might, he could not get the villagers involved in his project. The Department of Agriculture became very concerned and eventually recalled Paul from the village and canceled the project.



Unit 6 – Culture Activity 5 Handout B-2

Case Study #2: Tiyumba

Tiyumba was first posted to the Yariga District as a National Serviceman four years ago. Technically, Tiyumba demonstrated competence in whatever he did. His ability to submit himself to learning from the farmers first before complementing their knowledge with his "book" knowledge won him their admiration. Tiyumba's enthusiasm and dedication to work endeared him to the farmers, who would often cite him as model to their errant sons.

By the end of his second year of stay in Timpooni he had decided that he would stay on for another year or two. His effort to help the people of Timpooni had caught the attention of Development Support Services Foundation (DSSF), a local NGO which specialized in helping communities develop projects for funding support from Embassies and other funding agencies within and outside the country. He also had another reason for staying. For some time now, Afisa, the daughter of the Chairman of the local branch of the Cotton Farmers' Association in the village, had attracted his attention. Afisa, on her part, had been responding to Tiyumba's glances with encouraging smiles. The old ladies in the village had begun to whisper about the two young people. In accordance with tradition, Tiyumba asked one of the village elders to mediate the proposal of marriage. The marriage was soon sealed, after the normal customary ceremonies.

Tiyumba had submitted a project proposal for the rehabilitation and refurbishment of the village school to an embassy in Accra for funding support. Two weeks after the marriage ceremony, word came through the local agent of DSSF that the project had been approved. Tiyumba therefore called a meeting of the Village Development Committee to give them the good news so that they could plan to start the project before the onset of the rains. At the meeting, however, Tiyumba discovered to his surprise that the villagers had become quite cold towards him and the project. The few people who spoke at the meeting had very critical things to say about him. The youth in particular were negative toward any proposal Tiyumba made for initiating project implementation.

In his desperation to find out why there had been the sudden turn around against him and the project, Tiyumba turned to the rumour mill. There he learned from an old lady that the youth of the village were complaining that his success at everything he put his hands on gave cause to the elders to write them off as good-for-nothing young people. They particularly resented the fact that since Tiyumba's arrival in the village no young man has been judged by the elders as worthy of taking on any responsible role. Tiyumba wrote and read all their letters, even though four of the village youth had completed secondary school but could not go further with their education because of the lack of financial support. His marriage to Afisa confirmed their worse fears. Until his arrival in the village, Afisa was known to everyone as the fiancee of the youth leader,

Mohammed Dorkarugu. If Tiyumba could take over what everyone thought was Mohammed's bona fide wife, then he could do anything else to anyone to establish himself as the favorite "boy" of the village, the youth thought. This new project was about to give him the power and authority to do whatever he wanted to them, since he would now control resources as well. How else could that be, they thought, when he had packed the Village Development Committee with illiterate elders, who could certainly not read nor follow all the intricate resource management procedures detailed in the proposal.

According to his informant, the youth had therefore decided that his continued presence in the community was not in their interests. If non-cooperation with Tiyumba and/or mudslinging is what could frustrate him out of the village, then so be it. They would do exactly that. To cut him off from the elders, it was enough to create doubts about his true intention, especially with respect to the management of the project finances and other resources. On that, they had no problem, as they could very easily cite their marginalisation in all the project management committees as ample evidence.



Unit 6 – Culture Activity 5 Handout B-3

Case Study #3: Bayo

Nayuli, like most Northern Ghanaian villages, was predominantly a Muslim community, deprived of most of the basic amenities such as electricity and good drinking water. The women relied on firewood for fuel energy. The older men in the village usually lamented over and over about the once beautiful vegetation and forest reserves which surrounded the village but which had all found their way into the kitchens of the women during their meal preparations.

It was a big relief to the women folk when a UN-sponsored NGO sent a delegation, headed by Bayo, to Nayuli to do a needs assessment of the women. This was aimed at poverty alleviation and also to try relieving the domestic burdens of the women in the village. This delegation came out with the brilliant idea of building a bio-gas plant right in the village. One purpose of this project was to encourage the villages to make use of the animal droppings and human excreta which posed sanitary and health problems. Since the plant would be a source of gas for cooking, the second purpose was to save what was left of the forest reserves, and reduce the burden and hardships the women went through gathering wood to burn. The idea sounded so laudable that the whole community embraced it.

The NGO supplied all the needed materials and the digester was quickly constructed, under the supervision of Bayo. The digester was situated in the yard of the village assemblyman. It was hoped that other villages would start their own plants when they saw how useful this one was.

While finishing touches were being made to end the construction, the highly elated Mr. Bayo quickly sent out letters inviting all the dignitaries of the region to the inaugurations of the first ever built bio-gas plant in the area. At the last meeting with the villagers, two weeks before the big day, Bayo proudly announced that the next day, all the villagers would be expected to converge at the site, each with a bucket full of excreta or animal droppings so that the digester could be charged to enable fermentation to take place before the inauguration ceremony. He had hardly finished this announcement when everyone started talking at once. Bayo was confused. What could be the problem? When he finally succeeded in restoring calm, he asked the assemblyman to give an explanation. In a nutshell, the villagers were surprised that Bayo expected them to have direct contact with such dirt as animal droppings and excreta? Then it dawned on Bayo that he had not done the background work into the culture of the people during his needs assessment and planning stage. What could he do at this moment?

Since he had already sent out invitations that could not be recalled, he had one option left – to ask the sanitary laborers in his outfit to charge the digester. This was done, the inauguration

came off well but then what next? No villager constructed a bio-gas plant because they had lost interest in the whole project. The only one that was constructed in the assemblyman's yard is now a "monument" because it was never recharged again after the original materials (droppings) got used up. No one would gather droppings!



Unit 6 – Culture Activity 5 Handout B-4

Case Study #4: Yakubu

Wahala was one of the fairly large villages situated in the northwest Savanna Zone. It was among the rural areas that had not heard of formal (Western) education. They relied solely on Malcaranta schools which simply taught only Islam, Arabic and how to recite the Quoran and translate it into the local dialect. Enrollment was high and the pupils had to farm for the religious leaders and also perform household chores like fetching water and firewood for their wives. Therefore when Wahala village was finally selected for benefit from Western Education the religious leaders deemed it fit to send a delegation to the District Education Officer to register their protest. They told him the schools were coming to pollute their village for the following reasons: that they were convinced that their children would get into habits like drinking, smoking, stealing and all the vices that you can think of which they believed were associated with Western education. They also lamented that the children would become disrespectful to elders. The leaders said the children would be taken away from farming, reducing their Malcaranta intake and thereby robbing the wives of the religious leaders of their rights.

Formal education, they were convinced would negate their efforts to enact discipline in their children. Finally, they feared that the students would be sent away to foreign lands. Hence manpower would be lost. Despite of all these arguments, there were some progressives who thought otherwise. They argued there was no harm in trying the new system. Some had heard about it in the nearest town and took it as welcome news to be embraced. So they also pressured the authorities to open the primary school.

The school was opened in 1970 and the initial enrollment was low. The headmistress was a lady named Zunuo. She met with resistance as the villagers ridiculed her because they felt a woman's job was to marry, increase the population and get engaged in household chores. However, the progressives saw this as an opportunity to enroll their girls too. Zunuo was hard working and identified herself with the villagers. She participated in their social activities and mourned with them. She enacted discipline in school and her personal behaviour was that of a proper role model. She organized a Parent Teacher Association (PTA) and involved the villagers in the running of the school. Standards rose and enrollment increased year after year. She also organized the community to set up a village development committee and through this they liaisonned with the District Commissioner's (DC) office. Through their hard work the D.C. was convinced to give them a clinic and a nurse, as the DC finally visited the village and saw their poor health situation. Despite all this, conservatives were disgruntled, and as more and more students deserted for the formal school they become adamant and would not let sleeping dogs lie.

Some years after the school was on a sound footing, the devil raised its ugly head. A new head teacher was posted to the school. His name was Yakubu. He was different in many ways. Yakubu saw the villagers as ignorant vessels and held himself in high esteem. He was very authoritative in his actions and disbanded the P.T.A. He could not relate well with the nurse either. Most pupils hated him because he did not use the cane sparingly. He would neither attend social functions in the village nor sympathize with them when they had funerals, even if he did he stood at a distance. This growing gap was worsened when he was finally reported as flirting with some of the female pupils.

The disgruntled religious leaders saw this as an opportunity to take a step once and for all to stop Western (formal) education in their village. They summoned the village elders to a meeting and sent a delegation to the District Education Officer but before they returned Yakubu had to run for dear life as his house was set ablaze.



Unit 6 – Culture Activity 5 Handout B-5

Case Study #5: Alhassan

Alhassan worked in the Upper West for a foreign based NGO specializing in health services. In his area were two neighboring communities, namely Atonsu and Adumase, that had rural clinics housed in private homes of community members. Sanitation at these clinics was poor. The clinics were cramped since there was no space for expansion. When Alhassan consulted with the community members, both villages identified the need for a better health clinic.

Alhassan identified a local consultancy service to draw up a proposal for financing a joint clinic project for the two communities. The clinic was to be situated in between the two villages. It was planned that the two communities provide communal labour (i.e., unskilled labour) as its contributions towards the construction of the clinic. The two communities appreciated the need for the project for one major reason. Combining the two rural clinics in the two villages at a central location would make it easier for the clinic to have equipment and increased support from the Ministry of Health. Consequently, the two villages supported the project fully in terms of unskilled labour provision for the construction team.

When the new clinic premises were completed the two villages had to move their respective clinics into the new facility. Trouble arose when Alhassan showed the sign for the new clinic for the first time. The clinic was named Atonsu- Adumase Rural Clinic. The order of arranging the names of the villages in naming the clinic triggered off confusion. Adumase community claimed that their community was being placed subordinate to Atonsu if mentioned in the order presented. To the Adumase community the name of the new clinic should read "Adumase-Atonsu Rural Clinic". To the indigenous of Adumase their chief (i.e., the traditional ruler) had more land and power than that of Atonsu. Secondly their settlement came into existence before Atonsu.

Alhassan agreed to change the name to reflect the wish of Adumase, that is, to change the order of community names with Adumase appearing first. Not surprising, Atonsu community members reacted similarly that they would not agree to such a change since their community was a sovereign one and has its own traditional leader who was not under Adumase chief's authority. The issue of title or name of the clinic dragged for several months. Commissioning of the new clinic was delayed as well as benefits that should have started arriving to the people.

Though Alhassan suggested a neutral name for the clinic for the sake of peace, the people continued to disagree. Each community claimed that the project should be given to it solely or a second one be built. The new clinic is open, but most community members from both villages avoid using it. No official name exists for the new clinic.

Unit 7 – Human Development

What is the goal of development? How do we know if a country is "developing?" What are we trying to develop in the first place?

One possible answer is that we are trying to help every person on the planet to have the opportunity to experience and develop all aspects of their humanity -- in other words, human development. While that goal is a lofty one to contemplate attaining in today's world, it can provide us with the vision that can guide the actions we take. It is with this vision in mind that the United Nations has made human development the key goal of development rather than a simpler, narrower measure such as standard of living.

But, if human development is the goal, then how do we measure its progress? For the United Nations this meant adopting a measurement system that uses a number of factors within a society to determine the level of human development. While this unit will focus on the measures adopted by the UN, it should not be read as an absolute endorsement of the UN method. As with any measurement method there are advantages and disadvantages to the method used and the usefulness of the results. This is a very important point for students to understand: that statistics can be deceptive and may not effectively measure what we want to measure.

However, despite any drawbacks in the aspects measured, they certainly provide an opportunity to explore some key elements of the targets for improvement in development programs. Why literacy, life expectancy, and GDP per capita? What do they help us understand about the quality of life in a given country? What do they have to do with understanding the opportunities available to a people?

In addition, an examination of the topics in this unit will allow students to better understand The Gambia they have seen in the DVD, their own experiences in Canada, and the reasons behind the profound differences between the two countries. Such a study will help students to better understand many of the difficulties developing nations face in moving forward, and will also give them greater understanding of specific short-term and long-range global goals and the importance of development in general.

The unit will also focus on the growing threat to improved African human and economic development posed by re-emergent and new diseases. Malaria, and especially the devastating HIV/AIDS pandemic, are examined as examples of the complex health care issues facing African nations and threatening the population's quality of life.

So, if you were going to attempt to measure the amount of opportunity a person had, what would you look at? This is where we begin.

Unit 7 – Human Development

Activity 1: Defining Human Development

<u>Purpose</u>: To examine what human development is and the factors used by The United Nations, in its Human Development Index, when ranking development in the nations of the world.

Time: 1¹/₂ hours

<u>Materials:</u>

- Sheet of flip chart paper for each group and markers
- Standard of Living Definitions sheet for each student
- Overheads or photocopies of Quotes on Human Development
- Overhead projector

Notes on Use:

Human development is, at the core, the ultimate goal of all development programs. It therefore makes sense to begin by examining what is meant by this key term.

The activity begins by examining the concept of standard of living. The purpose is to show that while this measure is of importance it is generally defined in a much narrower way than Human Development.

The United Nations philosophy is demonstrated by two quotes which are introduced next. One is by Muhbub ul Haq, a Pakistani economist, who developed the formula that the United Nations has adopted to measure relative human development. The second is an organizational statement from the United Nations itself. Both of these quotes revolve around people being able to make choices for their future. Understanding why the UN HDI uses literacy, life expectancy, and GDP/capita as its measures and the strengths and weaknesses of these measures completes the lesson.

Procedure:

- 1. Tell students that they have just become the parent of a child. Ask them to list the general activities and items they would want to provide that child with in order for it to develop into the best adult it can be.
- 2. Ask the students to come together in small groups (three or four) and compare their lists. Students should try to compile a list they can agree on.
- 3. After doing this, hand out copies of *Standard of Living Definitions*. Explain to them that Canada is often described as having a high standard of living, so perhaps what we want for our imaginary child or developing countries is to have a high standard of living. Have students examine the definitions to see how well standard of living matches their group

list. Are any definitions close? Which is the furthest from their ideas? What are the most common characteristics of the definitions of standard of living? What kinds of things on the student lists are generally not included in definitions of standard of living?

- 4. Show the quotations on human development from Muhbub ul Haq and the United Nations. Have students create their own simplified versions of these quotes. Share the student versions.
- 5. If we are going to measure a country's development by the opportunities for people to make choices, ask the students to pick three qualities that can be measured that would indicate the amount of choice a person has.
- 6. Make a class list of qualities chosen and ask group members to explain their choices.
- 7. Show the students the qualities used by the UN in their Human Development Index. Ask students to speculate in their groups on why these qualities were chosen. How are these statistics a measure of people's ability to make choices? (Adult Literacy/School Enrollment = Knowledge Base, Life Expectancy = Health, GDP/Capita = Standard of Living)
- 8. Discuss the strengths and weaknesses of the UN's Human Development Index. For example:

1) What does it mean that Canada scores 99.9/100 for adult literacy but as reported by World Literacy of Canada, "22% of adult Canadians have serious problems dealing with printed materials." and "Almost three-quarters of 626 Canadian companies surveyed feel that they have a significant problem with functional literacy in some part of their organization."

2) What are the limits and uses of all statistical measurements?

Debriefing:

Develop a discussion around the reasons for using the ability of individuals to make choices in their lives as the measure of human development. Why is choice more inclusive than standard of living, and how does choice relate to the wishes they had for their imaginary child at the beginning of the lesson?



Unit 7 – Human Development Activity 1 Handout A

Definitions of Standard of Living

The overall quality of life that people enjoy. www.nmlites.org/standards/socialstudies/glossary.html

Usually refers to a country's per capita income, but also sometimes takes account of additional conditions that matter for a person's or household's wellbeing such as leisure or the quality of the environment.

www-personal.umich.edu/~alandear/glossary/s.html

Degree of prosperity in a nation, as measured by income levels, quality of housing and food, medical care, educational opportunities, transportation, communications, and other measures. The standard of living in different countries is frequently compared based on annual per capita income. On an individual level, the standard of living is a measure of the quality of life in such areas as housing, food, education, clothing, transportation, and employment opportunities.

www.pbucc.org/pension/tools/glossary.php

A minimum of necessities, comforts, or luxuries considered essential to maintaining a person or group in customary or proper status or circumstances. <u>countrystudies.us/united-states/economy-12.htm</u>

How well-off a person or a country is. geographyfieldwork.com/GeographyVocabulary7.htm

A level of material comfort in terms of goods and services available to someone or some group; "they enjoyed the highest standard of living in the country". <u>wordnet.princeton.edu/perl/webwn</u>

The Standard of living refers to the quality and quantity of goods and services available to people. It is generally measured by real (i.e., inflation adjusted) income per person, although sometimes other measures may be used; examples are access to certain goods (such as number of refrigerators per 1000 people), or measures of health such as life expectancy.

en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Standard_of_living



Unit 7 – Human Development Activity 1 Handout B / Overhead A

Human Development

"The basic purpose of development is to enlarge people's choices. In principle, these choices can be infinite and can change over time. People often value achievements that do not show up at all, or not immediately, in income or growth figures: greater access to knowledge, better nutrition and health services, more secure livelihoods, security against crime and physical violence, satisfying leisure hours, political and cultural freedoms and sense of participation in community activities. The objective of development is to create an enabling environment for people to enjoy long, healthy, and creative lives."

Mahbub ul Haq

Human development is about much more than the rise or fall of national incomes. It is about creating an environment in which people can develop their full potential and lead productive, creative lives in accord with their needs and interests. People are the real wealth of nations. Development is thus about expanding the choices people have to lead lives that they value. And it is thus about much more than economic growth, which is only a means —if a very important one —of enlarging people's choices.

United Nations

Unit 7 – Human Development

Activity 2: The Purpose of Literacy

<u>Purpose</u>: To examine literacy in a West African context and to begin to understand its critical role in community development.

Time: 1 hour

<u>Materials:</u>

- Copy of the three-page article *Planting the Seeds of Literacy* for each student
- Flip chart

Notes on Use:

This activity is designed to introduce the concept of literacy as an essential part of community development. It is one of two activities that provide a brief overview of the role and practice of literacy.

This exercise is organized around an article written for a Canadian aid magazine in 1985. The article provides a "snapshot" of literacy in The Gambia, and while the article may be over twenty years old, the principles it describes remain valid today. Help students see the importance of literacy as described in this short article and analyze how well these apply to West Africa. Have them add to the list of purposes based on their own experience. This will help cement the importance of literacy instruction as a foundation of rural community development.

It can be pointed out to students that the article in this exercise describes one of the activities of CODE (Canadian Organization for Development through Education) a Canadian development agency that continues to work in West Africa and around the world. It is just one example of an agency that is supported by CIDA (Canadian International Development Agency).

Procedure:

- 1. Pass out copies of "Planting Seeds of Literacy." Allow students time to read the article in class or ask them to read it the evening before.
- 2. Ask them to note all the *purposes* or *functions* of literacy for the adults described in the article by underlining them or noting them in the margins. Explain that a purpose or function of literacy is some sort of knowledge, skill, or attitude that allows adults to live better lives.
- 3. Once everyone has completed the article, ask students to list the purposes they noted in the article (e.g., pride, respect, read health instructions). Write these on the flip chart. If people are having trouble, probe some issues (e.g., What do the farmers get out of

literacy?). Ask for clarification if a response is ambiguous, but be open to all student ideas.

- 4. Once the list of purposes from the article is complete (you should have ten or more items), have students study the list. What *other* functions of literacy are there in rural West Africa that are not mentioned in the article? Brainstorm all other purposes that students can think of based on their experience with people and conditions in the countryside. List these with the original purposes.
- 5. Continue listing items until the students' ideas are exhausted. Don't hesitate to add your own ideas to the list. After the list is complete, clarify and explain some of the more difficult or obscure purposes, explaining how literacy can affect how people *feel* about themselves as well as what they can *do*. Debrief.

Debriefing:

Were you surprised at the number of important functions literacy played in rural Gambia? Which of these are most important? How successful has the literacy campaign described in the article been? What are the effects of limited literacy in rural West Africa? For the country as a whole?

Acknowledge that there are different literacies in West Africa and discuss these. Which are more prevalent? What literacies are used for what functions? What are the advantages and drawbacks of each?



Unit 7 – Human Development Activity 2 Handout A

Planting the seeds of literacy

by Andrew Williams

For Satou Mambure, as for most other women farmers in The Gambia, each day during the rainy season is a long one. She gets up before her family, pounds the rice for breakfast and lunch, does all the housework, and fetches food and water before leaving in the late morning for the distant rice fields. Working alone on the family's four small plots, she plants, weeds, and ploughs by hand until it is almost dark.

Despite her tiring pace, each evening after work Satou joins the other villagers for outdoor classes which are part of a national literacy campaign in this tiny West African country. Like the rest of the adults, Satou brings her own chair so she can sit under the makeshift roof. When Satou's turn comes to write her lesson on the blackboard, the volunteer instructor holds high the kerosene lamp that provides the only light. By the time class is over and Satou finally returns home, it has been a long, hard day.

Recently, Satou told Stephen Yip, a staff member with the Canadian Organization for Development through Education (CODE), why she decided to find time for the literacy class. 'When my eldest daughter started school, I was embarrassed," she explained. "I didn't want her to lose respect for me because she had become literate, but I was still unable to read and write."

Already, Satou can read fairly well in her native language, Mandinka - but she says her writing still needs to improve. She finds that as her abilities grow, so does her confidence. No longer is she made to wait by the nurses at the Health Centre, who were impatient when Satou could not read her name on the record cards. Now she is proud that she can read the cards and the simple health instructions at the clinic as well. She feels that the health workers treat her with more respect now that she has more knowledge.

Thousands of other men and women are experiencing the changes Satou describes because of a Functional Literacy Programme started by the Gambian government's Non-Formal Education Centre in 1981. The literacy programme grew out of a national development plan designed to help this small, densely populated country recover from the effects of the 15-year drought that devastated the agriculture of Africa's Sahel region in the 1970s.

Agriculture is the mainstay of the economy, but attempts to diversify crops and increase production faltered. Planners discovered that with over 80 per cent of the people unable to read

and write farmers could not learn new agricultural skills and techniques. At this point the Gambian government, like others in Africa, realized it must bring education to the rural villagers if development was to take place.

With assistance from CODE, CIDA, and UNESCO, a four-year plan to reach 8,000 adults was launched. Demand was so overwhelming that the Centre had to change to a mass-campaign approach and raise its target to 40,000-80,000 graduates or roughly 10 per cent of the country's population.

Although English is the Gambia's official language, literacy instruction takes place in the three indigenous tongues - Mandinka, Wolof and Pulaar. The programme enlists unemployed school-leavers, health workers. agricultural extension workers and local craftsmen to help provide skills as well as literacy training to the adult participants. Literacy materials are produced in writers' workshops funded by CODE, published by the Non-Formal Education Centre, and distributed to the rural classes. This non-formal approach makes the classes more effective in linking adult literacy to information on agriculture, health, cooperatives, family planning, small businesses and rural technology. Graduates retain their newly acquired literacy better when the reading material is on topics of interest to them, and when their new skills are built into incomegenerating projects.

For instance, the literacy classes have given Satou an important alternative to relying on her small plots and the undependable rains for her family's rice. During the non-farming season, she joins women from the class to learn about tie-dying and sewing. Locally produced cloth is much in demand in the markets of Banjul, the capital, and the money Satou earns from selling cloth will help buy rice if the rains fail.

The men who attend the literacy classes in Pakalinding, Satou's village, also benefit. "Before, I could not read the numbers on cars and transport trucks," says Silla Manneh, a mason. "I had to sign my pay slip with my thumbprint. Now when I go to the bank I know whether the figures in my bank book are right or wrong. During the trading season, I make sure my groundnuts are weighed properly, so now I am never cheated."

Ability to read, write and do simple calculations has helped Silla, like many other graduates, feel less vulnerable and more in control. When you have to rely on the literacy and numeracy skills of others, how can you be sure you can trust them?

As The Gambia's development proceeds, the illiterates find themselves at an increasing disadvantage, whether they live in village or town. Farmers who have switched over from growing food for their families in order to raise crops for the market - mainly groundnuts in The Gambia - fear they are being cheated by the buyers who calculate the weight and value of their produce. The tradesmen who operate small businesses are more and more involved in banking, bookkeeping and financial planning. They find that the success of their enterprises often depends on literacy and numeracy skills. The national development plan to expand the economy is creating new demands for skilled people to operate and repair new technologies - but illiterate job-seekers find it hard to enter trades that require them to read operator and repair manuals.

Many other African countries have undertaken campaigns which emphasize "functional" literacy and non-formal methods of instruction, because they recognize the important role literacy can play in the development of their economies, and because traditional schooling has proved costly and ineffective. In Ethiopia, Mali and Zimbabwe adult literacy campaigns are an integral part of national reconstruction after the long years of drought. In Mali, for instance, CODE is supporting literacy and management training for members of co-ops in the drought-stricken northern regions as part of an effort to upgrade the cooperative movement. By increasing the expertise of the coops, the government hopes to make them a vehicle of recovery.

The Gambian Functional Literacy Campaign has succeeded in establishing over 250 classes and graduating more than 5,000 new literates because the participants are fully involved in establishing and managing the classes. Villages that want literacy classes choose their own facilitator - a member of the community who can read and write in the local language. He or she agrees to teach the class in return for an in-kind payment of food or help with chores. Then the village applies to the local Non-Formal Education Centre programme officer for training for their instructor, and assistance with running the classes. Each class receives the basic educational materials - blackboard, chalk note paper, pencils and the hurricane lamp. From then on, the dedication of the volunteer and the hard work of the students are the keys to success.

Each graduate of the literacy classes probably has her or his own definition of what this success means, but many of them talk about a new-found sense of pride and optimism. Satou is proud that with her new knowledge, she can now do certain jobs at the hospital. Being able to count and do simple arithmetic means that she can make change. This in turn means, as she told Stephen confidently, that now she could even get a job as a cashier. Like most people, Satou is ambitious for her family and herself. Her newly acquired literacy is just a beginning. Next she hopes to improve her skills in tie-dying and get equipment to expand her production of cloth, so she can earn money to look after her family.

Satou's story shows clearly the ripple effect of providing adults - particularly women - in the Third World with access to readily available, relevant education. Educated women have fewer and healthier children. They encourage their children to become educated - and, as in Satou's case, improving women's employment opportunities means a brighter future for the many families that depend on the mother's income.

Andrew Williams is a freelance writer on international development and a former worker with the Canadian Organization for Development Through Education (CODE.)

Unit 7 – Human Development

Activity 3: The Social Context of Literacy

<u>Purpose</u>: To help participants understand the social nature of the literacy/illiteracy issue and to view this understanding in the context of West Africa

<u>**Time:**</u> 1 to $1\frac{1}{2}$ hours

<u>Materials:</u>

- Overheads of traditional and modern hunter (alternatively use handouts)
- Flip chart and markers
- List of three questions for group discussion on flip chart paper or overhead
- Transparency of literacy figures for West Africa
- Overhead projector

Notes on Use:

This is the second of two activities introducing literacy as a component of community development. While these acknowledge the importance of literacy to community development, these activities do not suggest that literacy must precede community development.

This is really a set of three interlocking activities. The first, using the two hunters, is based on a technique developed by Brazilian educator Paulo Freire. It provides the "code" as it is designed to help engage participants in an exploration of the social context of literacy. After completion, go back and discuss the use of the code, reinforcing this important technique. The two remaining exercises are designed to help students to build on their new understanding of literacy as a social construct by applying this idea to West Africa. By the end, they should have greater awareness of the concept of literacy as well as the purposes of literacy in rural West Africa and the various literacies that are currently in use.

Procedure:

- 1. Place the picture of the traditional hunter on the overhead. Ask participants to describe the picture in detail until everybody has a general conception of this person as a traditional hunter who is a member of a society at least partially dependent on food gathering and hunting. You might ask: Who is this? Where is he? What is he doing? When is this taking place? What kind of society does he live in? After the discussion is complete, give the participants this information: The hunter cannot read or write and lived 100 years ago.
- 2. Now place the picture of the modern hunter on the overhead. Ask similar questions to those above, arriving at the conclusion that this person is a member of a more modern, industrialized society. At the end of the discussion give the participants this information: This hunter cannot read and write.

- 3. Placing the two pictures side by side, restate what has been concluded: The two people are hunters, one a member of a traditional hunting and gathering society and the other a member of a more modern industrialized society. Neither can read or write. Ask: Can we say they are both illiterate? Allow for discussion. You might ask questions such as: Does the traditional hunter need to know how to read and write in order to be a full member of his social group? What skills does he need to get along without major problems? What about the modern hunter? What is his society like? What role does the printed word play in his world? What need for reading and writing would this hunter have?
- 4. Allow for discussion and then provide a summary of participants' points of view. Based on previous experience, such a summary might look like this:

Even though neither hunter can read nor write, we can only say the modern hunter is illiterate because only he lives in a society where the written word is an integral part of everyday life. By not knowing how to read and write, he is deprived of a set of skills that society expects him to have. Therefore, having or not having the skills of reading or writing is not the only factor in determining whether a person is literate or illiterate. Reading and writing only become meaningful skills when placed in a society that uses them and expects its members to have them. Not all societies are the same, and not all of them use reading and writing in the same way. Therefore the meaning of the words literate and illiterate also change depending on the social context in which they occur.

- 5. What is the social context of literacy in Canada? Refer back to the chart of purposes identified in the previous activity and add any other possible uses of literacy that a Canadian youth would find helpful. How would he or she use literacy in daily life? Add new purposes to the flip chart. Referring to the chart, you might ask: How is this list changing? How many of these items would have been listed 50 years ago? Are new expectations emerging? How does a lack of literacy skills limit people? What would increased literacy allow a Canadian youth to do? Discuss this topic fully, allowing people to gain an understanding of what literacy means in the context of Canadian life.
- 6. Remind students of some of the key functions of literacy discussed in Activity 2: The Purpose of Literacy. Now show a chart with the reported Gambian illiteracy rate (56% male, 71% female source: World Bank, 2000). Divide students into three groups and have them discuss the figures on the overhead, answering three questions (which should be posted on flip chart paper):
 - 1) Is this figure accurate? Why or why not?
 - 2) What other literacies other than English might there be in Gambia? How might they be used?
 - 3) What are the advantages of teaching literacy in English? In local languages if in a developing country? What are the disadvantages? Where should the emphasis be placed?

Each group is responsible to report on one question -- group one responds to question 1, and so on. Note major points presented on flip chart. Allow for discussion after groups have completed their presentations.

Debriefing:

As there are a number of concepts presented in this set of activities, review what has been learned, going over each phase separately. Make sure students see that literacy is largely socially determined, and that its importance is determined by the social demands group members face. Point out too that there can be many literacies, often used for different purposes.

Generally help participants see the social context for literacy in Canada or Gambia and its changing role and importance.



Unit 7 – Human Development Activity 3 Overhead A / Handout A





Unit 7 – Human Development Activity 3 Overhead B / Handout B



Unit 7 – Human Development

Activity 4: Life Expectancy – Why do Canadians live longer than Gambians?

<u>Purpose:</u> To examine the factors that influence life expectancy and result in Canadians living, on average, longer than Gambians.

Time: 1 hour

<u>Materials:</u>

- Handout: Reasons for Increased Life Expectancy in the United States
- UNICEF statistics for each student.

Notes on Use:

This activity is designed to give students an opportunity to understand the many factors that can increase or decrease life expectancy. It focuses on the basic changes that led to the increase in life expectancy that occurred in industrial countries over the last 200 years. The US example is used because the data is more complete and available, but be sure to point out that the patterns are similar for all western industrialized countries (see "Name the Developing Country" in the Development Unit).

Students will be given a reading and a series of questions at various levels of thinking will be asked. Make sure look deeply at the socio-economic roots of life expectancy and don't opt for simplistic explanations (e.g., race or gender).

Procedure:

- 1. Pass out copies of *Reasons for Increased Life Expectancy in the United States*. Allow students time to read the article in class or ask them to read it the evening before. Students could complete initial response questions (step 2 below) as preparation homework.
- 2. Ask students to list the reasons that led to life expectancy in the United States increasing or decreasing in the 19th Century. Have students working in groups of three or four share their findings and ask them to identify, as a group, the key turning point that led to a general increase in life expectancy. If they have trouble, guide them to the realization that improvements in hygiene in urban areas were the crucial step.
- 3. When dealing with the remainder of the article, have the students answer the following four questions:

- 1) What was the one factor that caused a general increase in the American death rate during the 20th Century?
- 2) Categorize the key factors of the 20th Century that led to increases in life expectancy.
- 3) Why did female life expectancy increase faster than male life expectancy and then fall back?
- 4) Does lower African-American life expectancy demonstrate that people of African descent naturally live shorter lives than those of European heritage? What other explanations might explain the difference?
- 4. Have a recorder write down the general conclusions the group came to regarding each question. Then have them report, to the large group, on their observations related to each question. Have four sheets of flip chart paper taped to the walls, one for each question. Record contributions by groups on the chart sheets.
- 5. Once the reporting is complete, ask what patterns, similarities or differences the group sees in the small group responses. Did groups agree on basic issues? Where did they differ?
- 6. Have the students get back into small groups, and ask them to develop an answer to the following:

Given the information you've reviewed regarding the factors that led to greater life expectancy in the developed world, if you could make three changes in an area with low life expectancy, such as most of the countries of Africa, what would they be? Justify your choices.

Hand out half sheets of flip chart paper and have the recorder write down the group's three changes. Post these on the walls.

7. Have each group explain why they chose the three changes they decided upon. Why did they choose these? What similarities and differences were there? Why?

Debriefing:

What did you learn about the improvement in life expectancy in the United States? What, if anything, surprised you the most about the influences on life expectancy? Do you think this story would be different than Canada's story? When you viewed the video *The Gambia: Communities in Action,* what factors that lead to increased life expectancy were present? Which were missing?



Unit 7 – Human Development Activity 4 Handout A

Reasons for Increased Life Expectancy in the United States

Nineteenth Century

Life expectancy increased significantly over the nineteenth century, from about thirty-five years in 1800 to forty-seven years in 1900. However, this increase was not uniform throughout the century. In fact, death rates may have increased during the first several decades, and by mid-century, life expectancy was not much higher than it had been at the beginning of the century. After the Civil War (1861–1865) there was a sustained increase in life expectancy, and this upward trend would continue throughout the twentieth century.

Two conflicting forces were influencing mortality patterns prior to the Civil War. On one hand, per capita income was increasing, a trend that is generally associated with increasing life expectancy. On the other hand, the proportion of the population living in urban areas was also increasing, and death rates were higher in urban than in rural environments. An examination of data from 1890, for example, found death rates 27 percent higher in urban areas than in rural areas. This excess mortality in urban areas was common in almost all societies before the twentieth century, and is explained by the greater exposure to germs as population density increased. Studies of nineteenth century death rates in such cities as New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, Boston, and New Orleans document the high risks that urban residents had of contracting such infectious diseases as tuberculosis, pneumonia, cholera, typhoid, and scarlet fever. It was not until after the 1870s that the health picture in American cities improved and life expectancy for the entire population began its steady ascent.

It is clear that increasing life expectancy in the last third of the nineteenth century was due to decreasing death rates from infectious diseases. But why did death rates decline? Medical historians have given considerable attention to three possible explanations: improving medical practices, advances in public health, and improved diet, housing, and personal hygiene. Most agree that medicine had little to do with the decline in infectious diseases in the nineteenth century (although it later played an important role when penicillin and other antibiotic drugs became widely used after 1940). Physicians in the nineteenth century had few specific remedies for disease, and some of their practices (bleeding and purging their patients) were actually harmful. Some evidence suggests that diet and personal hygiene improved in the late nineteenth century, and these changes may account for some decline in diseases. The greatest credit for improving life expectancy, however, must go to intentional public health efforts. With growing acceptance of the germ theory, organized efforts were made to improve sanitary conditions in the large cities. The construction of municipal water and sewer systems provided protection against common sources of infection. Other important developments included cleaning streets, more attention to removal of garbage, draining stagnant pools of water, guarantining sick people, and regulating foodstuffs (especially the milk supply).

Twentieth Century

The gain in life expectancy at birth over the twentieth century, from forty-seven to seventyseven years, far exceeded the increase that occurred from the beginning of human civilization up to 1900. This extraordinary change reflects profound changes both in the timing of deaths and the causes of deaths. In 1900, 20 percent of newborns died before reaching age five—in 1999, fewer than 20 percent died before age sixty-five. In 1900, the annual crude death rate from infectious diseases was 800 per 100,000—in 1980 it was thirty-six per 100,000 (but it crept back up to sixty-three per 100,000 by 1995, because of the impact of AIDS). At the beginning of the twentieth century the time of death was unpredictable and most deaths occurred quickly. By the end of the century, deaths were heavily concentrated in old age (past age seventy), and the dying process was often drawn out over months.

In 1999, the Centers for Disease Control ran a series in its publication *Morbidity and Mortality Weekly Report* to highlight some of the great public health accomplishments of the twentieth century. Among the most important accomplishments featured in this series that contributed to the dramatic increase in life expectancy were the following:

Vaccinations. Vaccination campaigns in the United States have virtually eliminated diseases that were once common, including diphtheria, tetanus, poliomyelitis, smallpox, measles, mumps, and rubella.

Control of infectious diseases. Public health efforts led to the establishment of state and local health departments that contributed to improving the environment (clean drinking water, sewage disposal, food safety, garbage disposal, mosquito-control programs). These efforts, as well as educational programs, decreased exposure to micro-organisms that cause many serious diseases (for example, cholera, typhoid, and tuberculosis).

Healthier mothers and babies. Deaths to mothers and infants were reduced by better hygiene and nutrition, access to prenatal care, availability of antibiotics, and increases in family planning programs. Over the century, infant death rates decreased by 90 percent and maternal mortality rates decreased by 99 percent.

Safer workplaces. Fatal occupational injuries decreased 40 percent after 1980, as new regulations greatly improved safety in the mining, manufacturing, construction, and transportation industries.

Motor vehicle safety. Important changes affecting vehicle fatalities include both engineering efforts to make highways and vehicles safer and public campaigns to change such personal behaviors as use of seat belts, use of child safety seats, and driving while drunk. The number of deaths per million vehicle miles traveled was 90 percent lower in 1997 than in 1925.

Recognition of tobacco use as a health hazard. Anti-smoking campaigns since the 1964 Surgeon General's report have reduced the proportion of smokers in the population and consequently prevented millions of smoking-related deaths.

Decline in deaths from coronary heart disease and stroke. Educational programs have informed the public of how to reduce risk of heart disease through smoking cessation, diet, exercise, and blood pressure control. In addition, access to early detection, emergency

services, and better treatment has contributed to the 51 percent decrease since 1972 in the death rate from coronary heart disease.

Despite the advances in life expectancy between 1900 and the present, several striking differences in longevity within the population have persisted. Researchers have given a lot of attention to three differentials in life expectancy—sex, race, and social class. The female advantage over males in life expectancy increased from 2.0 years in 1900 to 7.8 years in 1975. Most of this increasing gap is explained by the shift in cause of death from infectious diseases (for which females have no survival advantage over males) to degenerative diseases (where the female advantage is large). Also, the decline in deaths associated with pregnancy and childbearing contributed to the more rapid increase in life expectancy of females. After 1975, the gender gap in life expectancy decreased, and by 2000 it was down to 5.4 years. The primary explanation for the narrowing gap in the last decades of the twentieth century is that female cigarette smoking increased rapidly after mid-century and became increasingly similar to the male pattern. In other words, females lost some of the health advantage over males that they had when they smoked less.

The racial gap in life expectancy was huge in 1900—white Americans outlived African Americans by an average of 14.6 years. This gap declined to 6.8 years by 1960 (when the civil rights movement was beginning), but declined only slightly over the rest of the century (in 2000 the racial gap was still 5.6 years). A particularly telling indicator of racial inequality is the infant mortality rate, which continues to be more than twice as large for African Americans as for white Americans (13.9 per 1,000 versus 6.0 per 1,000 in 1998). Much of the racial disparity is explained by the persistent socioeconomic disadvantage of African Americans (lower education and lower income). Social resources are related to individual health behavior (diet, exercise, health care), and to the environment within which individuals live (neighborhood, occupation). After adjusting for family income and education, African Americans still experience some excess deaths compared to white Americans. A possible cause of this residual difference may be racial discrimination that causes stress and limits access to health care.

Source: <u>http://www.answers.com/topic/life-expectancy</u>

Unit 7 – Human Development

Activity 5: Disease and its Impact on Africa

<u>Purpose:</u> To provide students with insight on the prevalence of disease in Africa and how these affect life expectancy, quality of life and human and economic development.

Time: 1 hour

<u>Materials:</u>

- Handout Infectious Diseases in Africa for each student
- Handout of University of Pennsylvania African Studies Center *Resources on African Health and Diseases* web site <u>www.africa.upenn.edu/health/diseases</u>
- Flip chart

Notes on Use:

As we saw in the previous activity, one of the major reasons people in developed countries saw their life expectancy lengthen resulted from improved hygiene, introduction of vaccines and better treatments for endemic illnesses. This activity – and the two that follow -- focuses on the problems facing African nations in battling old – and new – diseases that threaten to devastate families, communities and nations.

Using a map, be sure to point out that much of sub-Saharan Africa is "tropical" – i.e., lies between the Tropics of Cancer and Capricorn. What do students know about this area? Why would diseases thrive there? Help them understand how and why tropical climates are so much more conducive to the development and perseverance of infectious diseases, viral and bacterial. Since disease is more easily spread in densely populated areas, it is believed that this is one reason Africans tended to live in smaller, dispersed villages rather than creating urban centres with large population concentrations.

The activity has two phases, the first focusing on a brief student research project on various diseases affecting Africa, and the second looking at a British study exploring not just the diseases, but their social and economic toll as well. The article also focuses on how contemporary crises such as global warming, unregulated urbanization and ongoing warfare are exacerbating the already deadly situation.

Procedure:

1. Begin by having the students look at a world map. Where are the tropical regions? Why are they called "tropical?" Why might disease be particularly prevalent in those areas? What tropical diseases do they know about? What other diseases have struck Africa particularly hard? List these on a flip chart or white board.

- 2. Using the *Resources on African Health and Diseases* handout, look at the 24 diseases listed there. How many have students heard of? What do they know about these illnesses? How many people do they kill each year? Break students into teams of two and have them choose one of the diseases listed. Using the African Studies Center web site (<u>www.africa.upenn.edu/health</u>), have the pairs research their disease by going to "diseases" then clicking on their illness. Instruct them to refer to at least three of the documents listed and provide the following information:
 - Overview of the diseases
 - Transmission
 - Number of cases, and resulting deaths, per year in Africa
 - Countries with highest number of cases
 - Prevention and treatment
- 3. Once pairs have compiled their information, have them record the data on a flip chart with the name of their disease at the top. Make sure they provide all the information requested. When each pair has completed their chart, post these on the wall. Using the "gallery" technique, have half the pairs circulate, studying the other charts and asking questions. Then have the groups switch, with the other dyads standing by their charts and answering questions.
- 4. When students have had a chance to scan and discuss each chart and each pair's disease, have them get back into their pairs. What did they learn about the diseases affecting Africa? What surprised them? How might these diseases affect people emotionally socially as well as physically?
- 5. Once this phase is complete, ask students to look at the handout Infectious Diseases in Africa. With them following the article, read it aloud to the class, stopping for questions, to clarify or elaborate points, and to define unfamiliar terms and vocabulary. When done, follow up with a series of questions:
 - What more did you learn about the diseases of Africa and their impact?
 - What social, psychological and economic impacts might these diseases be having on the people of Africa?
 - What factors seem to worsening the health situation in Africa?
 - How do these factors have a greater immediate impact on Africa than on developed countries?
 - What measures must be taken to avoid further catastrophe and suffering of Africans?

Answers to these questions can be noted on a flip chart or simply shared orally. Alternatively, students could be divided into five groups, each instructed to answer one of the five questions and share their results with the rest of the class.

Debriefing:

What did you learn about diseases in Africa and the economic and social toll they are taking? What surprised you? Why do these epidemics seem to be getting worse? What should be done? What can *you* do to help the situation?



Unit 7 – Human Development Activity 5 Handout A

Infectious Diseases in Africa: Using science to fight the evolving threat

1. The scourge of disease in Africa

The importance of infectious diseases to Africa could not be greater. By attacking crops, livestock and people, they cause starvation, impair economic development, and at worst, can destabilise entire countries. By interacting with each other and with society in complex ways, they create a vicious spiral of decline.

Of the human diseases in Africa, HIV constitutes a 'time bomb'.

The estimated 26 million people now infected are likely to develop AIDS over the next decade (Figure 1). The effects of other diseases such as malaria and tuberculosis, which are already severe, will be amplified by the large numbers of people with suppressed immune systems. Women will be disproportionately affected and life expectancy, already reduced to around 40 years in some countries with high HIV prevalence, will further decline. And just as greater demands are placed on healthcare and social welfare systems, the economic performance of countries will be compromised by an increasingly debilitated workforce.

Livestock agriculture is the most important industry across sub-Saharan Africa, and disease is its biggest constraint. Overall, the industry represents 25% of the gross domestic product of the region, and in certain countries, provides enough stock for export.

The threat from many diseases remains huge, although the near elimination of Rinderpest has shown that success can be achieved.



Settlement of nomadic pastoralists in East Africa changes the pattern of both human and livestock diseases and the strategies for prevention and control

Resistant varieties are the only realistic control, and long delays in developing these makes detection and eradication of new diseases particularly important. However, cassava mosaic disease (CMD) is a recent success story (Figure 2). CMD attacks one of the most important subsistence crop in sub-Saharan Africa and a particularly severe form of the disease was identified in Uganda in 1988. Since then it has attacked large tracts of East and Central Africa, affecting millions of people who depend upon it for survival – particularly in times of drought. However, rapid mobilization of mosaic-resistant varieties, aided by biotechnology, and action at both local and international level has now helped to control the disease in many places.



Crop diseases and pests are major threats to African food security. Woman farmer in Uganda with a variety of cassava which is resistant to cassava mosaic disease

Arguably, the greatest threat in Africa does not stem from any single disease, but from the combined effect of the wide range of diseases in humans, crops and animals which interact with each other and with societies and the natural environment. These interactions are many and complex and can produce a spiral of social, economic and environmental decline.

Understanding these interactions will be vital in developing cost effective strategies to break out of the trend.

2. An evolving threat

The risk of infectious diseases is changing. New patterns of urbanisation and land use, climate change, migration and conflict will all combine to alter the people, animals and plants at most risk. Entirely new diseases will also emerge – either imported from countries outside Africa, or generated within Africa itself, as pathogens mutate and cross species barriers.



Complex effects of environmental changes: a new dam built in West Africa initiates a chain of events that leads to an epidemic of schistosomiasis

Africa: Communities in Action Resource Kit Instructional Guide

The effect of climate on disease risk is illustrated by the 1997/98 El Niño – the higher temperatures in parts of Africa contributed to a cholera epidemic in Kampala. 6000 people were affected, mostly in the city's slums. However, the effects of climate change may be far more widespread and longer lasting

- Higher water temperatures may mean increased cholera bacilli in lakes, causing epidemics, and disrupting local fishing economies.
- Additional areas such as highlands and desert fringes may become vulnerable to malaria.
- The range of other vector-borne diseases and parasites may change, affecting crops and livestock, local economies and food exports.

Besides these direct effects, climate change will also affect the spread of diseases indirectly through hunger, conflicts over water supplies, and the displacement and migration of populations.



Forced migration of refugees, temporarily settled in unoccupied land near the Nile, led to an outbreak of huge skin ulcers. This was due to an organism related to the leprosy bacillus, new to that area, and blocked half the surgical beds of the one nearby hospital

Changing land use will also have a profound effect on disease risk in Africa. For example, many of the viruses affecting plants and mammals result from the feeding of anthropods such as mosquitoes, sandflies or ticks– so anything which affects the breeding of these vectors will affect the risks of disease.

Important changes will include altered farming practices, deforestation, re-afforestation, urbanization, changes in transportation and water resource developments.

The changes in the movement of people, animals and plants will spread diseases into new areas, and cause exposure to new pathogens. The drivers of change will be diverse and will include: conflict, migration, tourism, and trade – regional and international, legal and illegal. These increased risks will affect important export commodity economies as well as food security.

Around 30 disease epidemics have emerged world-wide over the past 20 years in humans, most of which originated in animals and crossed to humans – so called 'zoonotic' diseases. Rift Valley Fever is an example, and new threats are already on the horizon, such as Avian flu from Asia. Entirely new zoonotic diseases therefore pose a substantial threat, although the situation is very uncertain – we do not know which diseases will cross species barriers, and when and where this is likely to happen. However, certain factors will amplify the risks for Africa – for example,
increased livestock populations around growing cities, and the continent's rich wildlife reservoir.10

3. The need for better understanding:

Understanding how the risks of diseases will change is vital to develop effective strategies for control. It is also needed if countries are to plan for the future in diverse areas such as the economy, land use, and social policies.

The Office of Science and Technology therefore proposes to mount a joint study by leading experts from Africa, the UK and other countries. It will use cutting-edge science to produce a vision of the future of infectious diseases in sub-Saharan Africa, and to consider options for meeting the future challenges. The intention is to inform policy development and to catalyse action where appropriate.

Here are some of the key questions that the study will address:

- What will be the most important disease risks in different parts of Africa in the future, and how will they be different from today?
- What are the most important factors that will drive changes in risk?
- What do these changes in risk mean for strategies to control diseases in particular, their detection, surveillance and identification?

Systems for the detection, identification and surveillance (DI&S) of diseases could play an important role in managing future threats, since scientific developments could transform their capability.

This paper has been produced through the international Foresightproject on the Detection and Identification of Infectious Diseases (<u>www.foresight.gov.uk</u>). Foresight is run by the Office of Science and Technology under the direction of the Chief Scientific Adviser to HM Government. Foresight creates challenging visions of the future to ensure effective strategies now. February 2005

Unit 7 – Human Development

Activity 6: The Impact of Malaria

<u>Purpose</u>: To explore how malaria, as an example of many diseases endemic to Africa, impacts the life expectancy and quality of life of millions of Africans

Time: 1 hour

<u>Materials:</u>

- Handout Statistics on Malaria
- Handout *How Malaria Affects People's Health*
- Handout Malaria: A Re-emerging Disease in Africa

Notes on Use:

This activity continues to explore the impact of disease on Africans' life expectancy, quality of life and human development. The activity focuses on the greatest killer in Africa, malaria. Students may know little or nothing about malaria, so this lesson is designed to familiarize them with this pervasive, crippling illness. The lesson is based upon students looking at statistics and other data and developing their own questions and answers about malaria, its causes, impacts and prevention.

It should be noted that in the 19th Century there were a significant number of cases of malaria in Canada, possibly due to infected British soldiers being transferred here.

Procedure:

- 1. Begin by asking students what they know about the disease malaria. Has anyone had it? Where is it most prevalent? How is it spread? Is it a major killer? Solicit information and discuss what students know about the illness.
- 2. With the students following in their handout, read *Statistics on Malaria* aloud. What surprises them about this information? What did they learn about the disease? What struck them about the human and economic costs of the disease?
- 3. Follow this discussion by reading aloud *How Malaria Affects People's Health*. Make sure students understand the seriousness of the disease and how it affects the health of millions of Africans each year.
- 4. Break students into six groups. Referring to *Malaria: A Re-emerging Disease in Africa*, begin by reading aloud the boxed information and section 1, "The Disease." Then assign each group one of the six malaria-related topics in the article. Instruct them to read their section aloud in their groups, sharing reading, then discuss their part of the puzzle. They are to summarize the three or four most important points of the section the read.

- 5. Once the small groups are done, have each report on their section. Clarify and extend as necessary.
- 6. Have students remain in their six groups. Now that students have a good idea of malaria and its human, social and economic impact, ask them to speculate on the general effects malaria epidemics would have on a community. What would be the impact on
 - Human development
 - Productivity
 - Quality of life
 - Morale and attitudes
 - Health facilities and budgets

When complete, ask groups to share their speculations and thoughts on the impact of Malaria on African and Africans.

Debriefing:

Connect this activity with the previous exercise – and the one to follow on HIV/AIDS. Make sure students see how these diseases affect all aspects of human development, not just life expectancy, and how malaria is in part a disease of poverty. How would poverty lead to greater malarial infection? How might climate change worsen the malaria situation world-wide?

You might also touch on the issue of medications and vaccines. Why, as indicated in the WHO paper, has there been relatively little private research money put into malaria and other tropical diseases? What medications are you aware of that have been recently released by the large pharmaceutical companies (e.g., Viagra, Lipitor, SSRIs)? Why might drug companies prefer to put their research money into developing these families of drugs rather than focus on malaria and other tropical illnesses?



Unit 7 – Human Development Activity 6 Handout A

STATISTICS ON MALARIA

- Malaria is one of the planet's deadliest diseases and one of the leading causes of sickness and death in the developing world. According to the World Health Organization, there are 300 to 500 million clinical cases of malaria each year resulting in 1.5 to 2.7 million deaths.
- Children aged one to four are the most vulnerable to infection and death. Malaria is
 responsible for as many as half the deaths of African children under the age of five. The
 disease kills more than one million children 2,800 per day each year in Africa alone. In
 regions of intense transmission, 40% of children under the age of five may die of acute
 malaria.
- About 40% of the world's population about two billion people is at risk in about 90 countries and territories. 80 to 90% of malaria deaths occur in sub-Saharan Africa where 90% of the infected people live.
- Sub-Saharan Africa is the region with the highest malaria infection rate. Here alone, the disease kills at least one million people each year. According to some estimates, 275 million out of a total of 530 million people have malaria parasites in their blood, although they may not develop symptoms.
- Of the four human malaria strains, Plasmodium falciparum is the most common and deadly form. It is responsible for about 95% of malaria deaths worldwide and has a mortality rate of 1-3%.
- In the early 1960s, only 10% the world's population was at risk of contracting malaria. This
 rose to 40% as mosquitoes developed resistance to pesticides and malaria parasites developed
 resistance to treatment drugs. Malaria is now spreading to areas previously free of the
 disease.
- According to material from Third World Network Features, in Africa alone, direct and indirect costs of malaria amounted to over \$2 billion annually.

Sources: The Malaria Control Programme; World Health Organization; *Third World Network Features;* The Centers for Disease Control and Prevention; and Desowitz, Robert S., *The Malaria Capers (More Tales of Parasites and People, Research and Reality).* W.W. Norton & Company, New York, 1999.



Unit 7 – Human Development Activity 6 Handout B

How Malaria Affects People's Health

(Adapted from a report, "Emerging Infectious Diseases," by the National Center for Infectious Diseases, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, Atlanta, GA)

Malaria can affect a person's health in various ways.

People who have developed protective immunity (through past infections, as is the case with most adults in high transmission areas) may be infected but not made ill by the parasites they carry.

In most cases, malaria causes fever, chills, headache, muscle ache, vomiting, malaise and other flu-like symptoms, which can be very incapacitating

Some persons infected with Plasmodium falciparum can develop complications such as brain disease (cerebral malaria), severe anemia, and kidney failure. These severe forms occur more frequently in people with little protective immunity, and can result in death or life-long neurologic impairment.

•

People subjected to frequent malaria infections (such as young children and pregnant women in high transmission areas) can develop anemia due to frequent destruction of the red blood cells by the malaria parasites. Severely anemic patients might receive blood transfusions which, in developing countries, can expose them to HIV and other blood borne diseases.

Babies born to women who had malaria during their pregnancy are more often born with a low birth weight or prematurely, which decreases their chances of survival during early life.

In developing countries, the harmful effects of malaria may combine with those of other highly prevalent diseases and conditions, such as malnutrition, HIV/AIDS, and anemia of all causes. Such combinations can have severe results, especially if they occur repeatedly.



Child being transfused in Kinshasa, DR Congo. Malaria is the principal cause of severe anemia, necessitating transfusion, in children in DR Congo.

http://www.cdc.gov/malaria/impact/index.htm#health

Malaria: A Re-emerging Disease in Africa

Adapted from Thomas C. Nchinda World Health Organization, Geneva, Switzerland

A recent upsurge of malaria in endemic-disease areas with explosive epidemics in many parts of Africa is probably caused by many factors, including rapidly spreading resistance to antimalarial drugs, climatic changes, and population movements. In Africa, malaria is caused by *Plasmodium falciparum* and is transmitted by *Anopheles gambiae* complex. Control efforts have been piecemeal and not coordinated. Strategies for control should have a solid research base both for developing antimalarial drugs and vaccines and for better understanding the pathogenesis, vector dynamics, epidemiology, and socioeconomic aspects of the disease. An international collaborative approach is needed to build appropriate research in a national context and to effectively translate research results into practical applications in the field. The Multilateral Initiative for Malaria in Africa can combine all of the above strategies to plan and coordinate partnerships, networking, and innovative approaches between African scientists and their Northern partners.

The global malaria eradication program of the 1950s and 1960s suffered serious setbacks in the early 1970s, and the disease was slowly increasing in areas of Asia and South America where the number of cases had been reduced to low levels. This article discusses malaria and, more specifically, malaria in Africa, where the global eradication program was never started and the disease is reemerging at an alarming and unprecedented rate.

1. The Disease

Malaria in humans is caused by a protozoon of the genus Plasmodium and the four subspecies, falciparum, vivax, malariae, and ovale. The species that causes the greatest illness and death in Africa is P. falciparum. The disease is transmitted by the bites of mosquitoes of the genus Anopheles, of which the Anopheles gambiae complex (the most efficient) is responsible for the transmission of disease in Africa. Fever is the main symptom of malaria. The most severe manifestations are cerebral malaria (mainly in children and persons without previous immunity), anemia (mainly in children and pregnant women), and kidney and other organ dysfunction (e.g., respiratory distress syndrome). Persons repeatedly exposed to the disease acquire a considerable degree of clinical immunity, which is unstable and disappears after a year away from the endemic-disease zone. Most likely to die of malaria are persons without previous immunity, primarily children or persons from parts of the same country (e.g., high altitudes) where transmission is absent, or persons from more industrialized countries where the disease does not exist.

2. Why Is Malaria Re-emerging?

In the last decade, the prevalence of malaria has been escalating at an alarming rate, especially in Africa. An estimated 300 to 500 million cases each year cause 1.5 to 2.7 million deaths, more

than 90% in children under five years of age in Africa. Malaria has been estimated to cause 2.3% of global disease and 9% of disease in Africa; it ranks third among major infectious disease threats in Africa after pneumococcal acute respiratory infections (3.5%) and tuberculosis (TB) (2.8%). Cases in Africa account for approximately 90% of malaria cases in the world. Between 1994 and 1996, malaria epidemics in 14 countries of sub-Saharan Africa caused an unacceptably high number of deaths, many in areas previously free of the disease. Adolescents and young adults are now dying of severe forms of the disease. Air travel has brought the threat of the disease to the doorsteps of industrialized countries, with an increasing incidence of imported cases and deaths from malaria by visitors to endemic-disease regions. The estimated annual direct and indirect costs of malaria were US\$800 million in 1987 and were expected to exceed US\$1.8 billion by 1995.

A number of factors appear to be contributing to the resurgence of malaria: 1) rapid spread of resistance of malaria parasites to chloroquine and the other quinolines; 2) frequent armed conflicts and civil unrest in many countries, forcing large populations to settle under difficult conditions, sometimes in areas of high malaria transmission; 3) migration (for reasons of agriculture, commerce, and trade) of nonimmune populations from nonmalarious and usually high to low parts of the same country where transmission is high; 4) changing rainfall patterns as well as water development projects such as dams and irrigation schemes, which create new mosquito breeding sites; 5) adverse socioeconomic conditions leading to a much reduced health budget and gross inadequacy of funds for drugs; 6) high birth rates leading to a rapid increase in the susceptible population under five years of age; and 7) changes in the behavior of the vectors, particularly in biting habits, from indoor to outdoor biters.

3. Tools for Malaria Control

The present strategy for malaria control, adopted by the Ministerial Conference on Malaria in Amsterdam in 1992, is to prevent death, reduce illness, and decrease social and economic loss due to the disease. Its practical implementation requires two main tools: first, drugs for early treatment of the disease, management of severe and complicated cases, and prophylactic use on the most vulnerable population (particularly pregnant women); second, insecticide-treated nets for protection against mosquito bites. Each tool has its own problems in regard to field implementation.

Chloroquine remains the first-line therapy for malaria. However, the alarming increase in resistance in eastern and southern Africa requires alternate, new medications that are ore expensive and have more side effects. Currently, 20% to 30% of strains are highly resistant (RIII) to chloriquine, and resistance has been spreading westward, attaining levels of 20% to 35% in West Africa. Chloroquine remains the drug of choice in most of sub-Saharan Africa. Intravenous quinine is still the main therapy for cerebral malaria, although resistance is increasing. Development by the African strains of malaria parasites of the pattern of drug resistance now seen in Southeast Asia would be a major disaster.

Research carried out in Dakar demonstrated the efficacy of insecticide-treated nets for reducing infant death; subsequent large-scale multicenter studies in six countries across Africa confirmed this finding. However, costs of the nets and treatment still inhibit wide-scale use. Ongoing research seeks ways of reducing these costs, such as social marketing, possible involvement of

the private sector, cost-effective methods for net treatment, the most appropriate nets, and proper procurement of insecticides and treatment of the nets. Eventually, the long-term effects on natural acquisition of partial immunity to malaria in endemic-disease areas should be evaluated. The old vector-control method of house spraying persists in some countries. The relative merits and cost-effectiveness of house spraying versus the use of treated nets should be evaluated.

4. The Challenge of Malaria Control

The best tools will not necessarily lead to malaria control. African populations have traditional perceptions about disease causation and management. Some diseases are considered suitable for management by western medicine, while others are considered the exclusive domain of local traditional health practitioners. Decisions to seek western medicine for any illness are often considered a last resort. Studies on health-seeking behavior, perceptions of malaria, treatments, and decision making for health care at the household level are crucial to malaria control. Such studies must be accompanied by improved public awareness of the importance of seeking appropriate treatment and complying with recommended regimens.

Management of disease in the household devolves on mothers. Fever remains the most recognized symptom of malaria. Studies are ongoing to determine the proportion of fevers actually due to malaria. Mothers should be taught to recognize the symptoms of malaria, to provide home management, and to know when to refer cases to health centers. Four countries in Africa have developed and tested teaching guides to facilitate home management of malaria. Also, guidelines for the management of fever at the periphery have been developed and field tested within the Sick Child Initiative and have been recommended for wide-scale application. Socioeconomic and community studies are needed to understand the extent to which the communities will participate in new malaria control measures. Finally, cost recovery of health care, including costs of drugs (the Bamako Initiative), has been the subject of many recent studies and probably holds the key to health care in rural populations. Some study results indicate an initial fall in use of services following the introduction of cost-recovery schemes, but others suggest an affordable user-pay system that includes salaries for community health practitioners may actually increase effectiveness.

5. Health Policies and Delivery

Health service organization, function, and governing policies are important to malaria control. Health policy and systems research have been recently identified as neglected areas of research in need of international effort. As a result, most African nations rely on underfunded health care centers with inadequate medications and drugs staffed by under-trained and underpaid personnel. This is particularly true in rural areas.

Much more research into the development of culturally appropriate and maximally effective health policies and how to ensure open access to quality health services to all is required. More importantly, sufficient funding from international and NGOs in this area are urgently required.

Many studies are researching different ways to integrate malaria control programs into the general health-care system. Economic evaluation of different interventions is important, and the techniques are continually being refined and improved. They require much local capacity since

they tend to be country specific. Studies in this area have now caught up with the current trend favoring decentralization of services, giving more power to the districts. Health sector reform holds great potential for controlling malaria and all other diseases, as it is the focal point of the central and local governments and the populations themselves. Other needed research includes

6. Is There a Place for Biomedical Research?

The development of a malaria vaccine is still in the laboratories, and no effective vaccine is in sight despite promising candidates. Subsequently, all candidate vaccine trials must be closely linked to studies on how humans acquire immunity.

On the vector [carriers, in this case mosquitoes] side, studies in Mali have shown that malaria transmission in this Sahel country is maintained by a relay transmission pattern, whereby the three main vectors appear at different times of the year, thus ensuring that vectors are always present. More research is in progress concerning the potential of using genetic engineering to make the main malaria vector, the An. Gambiae mosquito, resistant to the malaria parasite and releasing this unreceptive host into the wild population to replace the active vectors. Finally, the much-neglected issue of the pathogenesis of malaria anemia both in children and pregnant women, as well as the link of anemia in pregnancy and HIV/AIDS, needs further study and is likely to be multifactorial.

7. The Way Forward

The Multilateral Initiative on Malaria in Africa (MIM) was created in Dakar in January 1997 from the realization that success in controlling malaria in the future would be greatly enhanced by cooperation and collaborative efforts in research to support strategies for control. Composed of scientists from Africa and their colleagues from industrialized countries as well as representatives from major funding agencies, MIM plans to facilitate collaboration between governments, research scientists, research funding agencies, and the private (pharmaceutical industry) sector for concerted action through research to combat malaria.

Like other diseases of low-income countries, malaria has been grossly underfunded. From 1990 to 1992, \$58 million a year was spent on malaria research, while \$56 billion was spent on health research worldwide. Expressed as research investment per death, malaria research receives about US\$42 per fatal case, much less than for other diseases such as HIV/AIDS (US\$3,270) and asthma (US\$789). Rather than the duplicative efforts of the past, MIM encourages a common goal with common research priorities, which should create a greater spirit of cooperation.

Malaria is an important social, economic, and developmental problem affecting individuals, families, communities, and countries. The best chance for successfully combating the disease requires a collaboration particularly of those responsible for control and research. Such collaboration, particularly between South and North, is being actively developed, and MIM presents itself as a worthwhile initiative. Important factors are 1) placing the control strategy on a strong research base, 2) strong international collaboration, and 3) sustained government support.

Smallpox was eradicated because of the development of freeze-dried vaccine, the development of the multiple-use nozzle jet injector and bifurcated needle, and the replacement of mass

vaccination by selective vaccination, coupled with a strong international effort. Onchocerciasis is being controlled because research results were immediately applied to control. Translating research findings into control methods has also been pursued for Chagas disease and leprosy. Concerted action between the research and control communities is needed to ensure that malaria follows the same path. MIM strongly advocates this approach. Research must be a constant feature throughout the entire process of malaria control.

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Unit 7 – Human Development

Activity 7: The HIV/AIDS Pandemic

Purpose: To introduce students to the pandemic of HIV/AIDS and its devastating impact on African societies

Time: 2 hours + community time

<u>Materials:</u>

- Handout WHO Fact Sheet 1 HIV/AIDS: the infection
- Transparency A global view of HIV infection
- Stephen Lewis Foundation home page and web address
- Handout Wikipedia Profile: Stephen Lewis

Notes on Use:

Stephen Lewis, Canada's own courageous and indefatigable HIV/AIDS crusader, writes in his published Massey Lectures <u>Race against Time</u>, "I have spent the last four years watching people die. Nothing in my adult life prepared me for the carnage of HIV/AIDS." Your students will be aware of HIV/AIDS, but will likely have little idea of the devastation the disease is wreaking in Africa. This subject is an emotional one. And it should be.

This activity will rely heavily on the material, links and programs contained in the Stephen Lewis Foundation web site. Stephen Lewis and those working with him in this great work are examples to all of us how we can respond with humanity and courage to seemingly impossible challenges. We don't simply have to throw up our hands in helplessness. We can, instead, choose to act. This is one of the major messages of this section – and of the entire curriculum: as global citizens, we have a responsibility to understand the struggles and crises of people across the globe and take effective and responsible action to relieve suffering and ensure greater global equality and justice.

This important section begins by having students reflect on what they know about HIV/AIDS and then moves onto exploring this terrible disease in the context of Africa.

Note that the term "pandemic" is often used when referring to HIV/AIDS, especially in the African context. A pandemic is a disease "occurring over a wide geographic area and affecting an exceptionally high proportion of the population."

Procedure:

1. Begin by asking students to take out a sheet of paper and write down on it everything they know about HIV/AIDS. At this point give little additional instruction; this is an opportunity for them to individually reflect on the disease and record their knowledge of it, in whatever area or context they wish.

- 2. Once students have completed this initial phase, place them in groups of four or five. Ask them to share their notes, discussing each person's perceptions, awareness and information. If disagreements arise about the accuracy of a student's statement, or if the discussion provokes questions the group cannot answer, have them record these questions.
- 3. Ask groups to share their discussions, and then ask for questions that arose. Can other class members answer the questions? Do we have all of our facts right? Where could we go for additional information?
- 4. Still in their groups, have students refer to the handout *WHO Fact Sheet 1 HIV/AIDS: the infection.* Taking turns, have group members read the article out loud, making notations in the margins about points they want to discuss or questions they might have. Once the reading phase is complete, have group members discuss the information. Did the reading answer some of their questions? What did they learn that they did not know? What errors were there in their original observations? This would be an excellent point to have a local HIV/AIDS activist visit the class and discuss the disease from a personal perspective.
- 5. Now place the transparency of *A global view of HIV infection* on the screen. Have students study the map and the key for a few moments. What does the map say about the prevalence of HIV/AIDS? How serous a problem is it? What regions have the most serious infection rates? Why might this be? In the most affected countries, what are the infection rates? Who would those affected most likely be? Why? How might this affect economic and human development? What other outcomes would you expect?
- 6. Now have students study the Stephen Lewis Foundation web site page. (Note: the page changes frequently; the sample attached is for demonstration only. To view current home page, go to

www.stephenlewisfoundation.org

- 7. Once they have examined the page closely, ask them what questions it raises. What did they learn about HIV/AIDS in Africa? What other information is available through the web site?
- 8. Hopefully at this point students will know about Stephen Lewis and his foundation or at least ask. Refer students to the 2007 Wikipedia profile and discuss. What did they already know about Lewis? What did they learn?
- 9. Using your computer lab, have pairs of students enter the Stephen Lewis Foundation web site and explore. What did they learn about the foundation? About the work they are doing? About HIV/AIDS/
- 10. One of the features of the web site is PDF files of the STF's semi-annual newsletter, Grassroots. The newsletter contain dozens of compelling articles dealing with all aspects of HIV/AIDS in Africa (e.g., "Africa: a Continent of Orphans," and "Voices from the

Frontline.") Have the pairs review the present and past issues of Grassroots and find an article that interests them. Have them download the article and read it then do more research on the topic. With the class as a whole, design an HIV/AIDS Awareness Day for the school that features multi-media reports from each pair on the HIV/AIDS issue they focused on. The event could be held in a gym, hallway or in a classroom with other other classes visiting. Presentations could be visual (e.g., posters, video, artwork, skits) or oral (e.g., report reading, song, recited poem), but they should clearly explain the pairs' HIV/AIDS topic and increase awareness of their issue.

- 11. The issue of HIV/AIDS is a subject that will engage students emotionally and hopefully move them to want to contribute to alleviating the suffering of this terrible disease. To finish this unit on HIV/AIDS, challenge the class to arrive at ways to increase their community's awareness of the pandemic and what can be done about it. In the process, challenge them to raise money to donate toward countering HIV/AIDS in Africa. Activities might include:
 - Raffle with donated prizes,
 - Fundraising dinner with a prominent HIV/AIDS speaker,
 - Silent auction,
 - Door-to-door donation solicitation,
 - Student presentations to local service clubs with a request for support
 - Walkathon for HIV/AIDS in Africa
 - Music concert with proceeds donated to the Stephen Lewis Foundation

Debriefing:

Too often what is learned in school is disconnected from the local and global community. This series of activities intentionally leads to community action and engagement. In this way students learn that global problems are theirs too and that no matter how overwhelming they might seem, we can individually and collectively make a difference. Being a global citizen is more than becoming aware of global issues; it means taking action to address them.



Unit 7 – Human Development Activity 7 Handout A

World Health Organization Fact Sheet 1 HIV/AIDS: the infection

Introduction: What is HIV/AIDS?

In 1983 the virus that caused AIDS was discovered by scientists in France and the routes of transmission were confirmed. The virus eventually became known as the human immunodeficiency virus (HIV). There are two different types of HIV:

HIV-1 the most common type found worldwide, and

HIV-2 found mostly in West Africa.

AIDS (Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome) is caused by a virus, HIV (Human Immunodeficiency Virus) first isolated in 1983. It has been identified in over 200 countries and territories worldwide and is spreading rapidly in many affected populations, particularly in developing countries.

HIV belongs to an unusual group of viruses called retroviruses, which include viruses causing leukaemia in humans, cats, cattle and other animals, and certain other viruses found in monkeys and apes, sheep and goats. Retroviruses also belong to a subgroup called lentiviruses, because they are slow to cause disease.

HIV infection affects the immune system. The immune system is the body's defense against infections by microorganisms (such as very small bacteria or viruses) that get past the skin and mucous membranes and cause disease. The immune system produces special cells called antibodies to fight off or kill these microorganisms. A special weakness of the immune system is called an immunodeficiency. Human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) infects, and eventually destroys, special cells in the immune system called lymphocytes and monocytes.

These cells carry the CD4 antigen on their surface (CD4+ lymphocytes). HIV recognizes the CD4 antigen and enters and infects CD4+ lymphocytes. The result is the killing of many CD4+ lymphocytes. This slowly leads to a persistent, progressive and profound impairment of the immune system, making an individual susceptible to infections and conditions such as cancer. HIV is the beginning stage of infection and can be detected by a blood test (described in this Fact Sheet). When the immune system becomes very affected, the illness progresses to AIDS. Blood tests (described in this Fact Sheet), or the appearance of certain infections, indicate that the infection has progressed to AIDS.

HIV transmission

HIV can be transmitted by:

Sexual intercourse (vaginal, anal and oral) or through contact with infected blood, semen, or cervical and vaginal fluids. This is the most frequent mode of transmission of HIV world wide, and can be transmitted from any infected person to his or her sexual partner (man to woman, woman to man, man to man and, but less likely, woman to woman). The presence of other sexually transmitted diseases (STDs) (especially those causing genital ulcers) increase the risk of HIV transmission because more mucous membrane is exposed to the virus.

Blood transfusion or transfusion of blood products (eg. obtained from donor blood infected by HIV).

Injecting equipment such as needles or syringes, or skin-piercing equipment, contaminated with HIV.

Mother to infant transmission of HIV/AIDS can occur during pregnancy, labour, and delivery or as a result of breast feeding.

HIV can NOT be transmitted by:

Coughing or sneezing Insect bites Touching or hugging Water or food Kissing Public baths Handshakes Work or school contact Using telephones Swimming pools Sharing cups, glasses, plates, and other utensils

Natural history of HIV infection

Acute HIV infection

Most people infected with HIV do not know that they have become infected. HIV infected persons develop antibodies to HIV antigens usually six weeks to three months after being infected. In some individuals, the test for the presence of these antigens may not be positive until six months or longer (although this would be considered unusual). This time -- during which people can be highly infectious and yet unaware of their condition -- is known as the "the window period".

Seroconversion is when a person recently infected with HIV first tests sero-positive for HIV antibodies. Some people have a "glandular fever" like illness (fever, rash, joint pains and enlarged lymph nodes) at the time of seroconversion. Occasionally acute infections of the nervous system (eg. aseptic meningitis, peripheral neuropathies, encephalitis and myelitis) may occur.

HIV infection before the onset of symptoms

In adults, there is often a long, silent period of HIV infection before the disease progresses to "full blown" AIDS. A person infected with HIV may have no symptoms for up to 10 years or more. The vast majority of HIV-infected children are infected in the peri-natal period, that is, during pregnancy and childbirth. The

period without symptoms is shorter in children, with only a few infants becoming ill in the first few weeks of life. Most children start to become ill before two years; however, a few remain well for several years.

Progression from HIV infection to HIV-related disease and AIDS

Almost all (if not all) HIV-infected people will ultimately develop HIV-related disease and AIDS. This progression depends on the type and strain of the virus and certain host characteristics. Factors that may cause faster progression include age less than five years, or over 40 years, other infections, and possibly genetic (hereditary) factors. HIV infects both the central and the peripheral nervous system early in the course of infection. This causes a variety of neurological and neuropsychiatric conditions. As HIV infections, people become more susceptible to opportunistic infections.

These include:

Tuberculosis Other sexually transmitted diseases Septicaemia Pneumonia (usually pneumocystis carinii) Recurrent fungal infections of the skin, mouth and throat Unexplained fever Meningitis

Other Conditions:

Other skin diseases Chronic diarrhoea with weight loss (often known as "slim disease") Other diseases such as cancers (eg. Kaposi sarcoma)

Any blood test used to detect HIV infection must have a high degree of sensitivity (the probability that the test will be positive if the patient is infected) and specificity (the probability that the test will be negative if the patient is uninfected). Unfortunately, no antibody test is ever 100 % sensitive and specific. Therefore, if available, all positive test results should be confirmed by retesting, preferably by a different test method. HIV antibody tests usually become positive within three months of the individual being infected with the virus (the window period). In some individuals, the test may not be positive until six months or longer (considered unusual). In some countries, home testing kits are available. These tests are not very reliable, and support such as pre and post test counselling is not available.

Testing for HIV antibodies

Tests for HIV detect the presence of antibodies to HIV, not the virus itself. Although these tests are very sensitive, there is a "window period." This is the period between the onset of infection with HIV and the appearance of detectable antibodies to the virus. In the case of the most sensitive anti-HIV tests currently recommended, the window period is about three weeks. This period may be longer if less sensitive tests are used.

The three main objectives for which HIV antibody testing is performed are:

- screening of donated blood
- epidemiological surveillance of HIV prevalence
- diagnosis of infection in individuals

Screening of donated blood accounts for the majority of HIV tests performed worldwide. It is a highly cost effective preventive intervention as the transmission of HIV through infected blood is at least 95%.

At the beginning of the HIV epidemic, HIV testing was used mostly for clinical confirmation of suspected HIV disease. More recently, people have been encouraged to attend voluntary counselling and testing (VCT) services to find out their HIV status. It is hoped that if people know their HIV status and are seronegative, they will adopt preventive measures to prevent future infection (see Fact Sheet 12). If the person is seropositive, it is hoped that they will learn to live positively, accessing care and support at an earlier stage, learning to prevent transmission to sexual partners and planning for their own and their family's future.

Antibody tests

Traditionally, HIV testing has been done using ELISA (Enzyme Linked ImmunoSorbent Assay). However, there are various essential requirements for ELISAs to be performed accurately:

- Laboratory equipment (eg. pipettes, microtiter trays, incubators, washers, and ELISA readers) must be available
- Constant supply of electricity, and regular maintenance of equipment
- Skilled technicians
- Accurate storage and testing temperatures

Recent advances in technology have lead to various simple rapid tests being developed. Most of these tests come in a kit and require no reagent, equipment, training, or specified temperature controls, and tests can be performed at any time. These tests are as accurate as ELISA and results can be obtained within hours. In some countries, over 50% of people do not return for their test results. With these rapid tests, people can wait for their results. Although the costs of these simple rapid tests are higher than ELISA they will be useful in STD clinics, antenatal clinics, and counselling centres, because of the ease of use. In some countries, home testing kits are also available. These tests are not very reliable, and support such as pre and post test counselling is not available.

False positive result

HIV tests have been developed to be especially sensitive and, consequently, a positive result will sometimes be obtained even when there are no HIV antibodies in the blood. This is known as a false positive, and because of this, all positive results must be confirmed by another test method. A confirmed positive result from the second test method means that the individual is infected with HIV.

False negative result

A false negative result occurs when the blood tested gives a negative result for HIV antibodies when in fact the person is infected, and the result should have been positive. The likelihood of a false negative test result must be discussed with patients if their history suggests that they have engaged in behaviour which was likely to put them at risk of HIV infection. In this situation, repeated testing over time may be necessary before they can be reassured that they are not infected with HIV. The most frequent reason for a false negative test result is that the individual is newly infected (ie. the window period) and is not yet producing HIV antibodies. However, it is important to remember that someone who has tested negative because they are not infected with HIV can become infected the following day!

Informed consent and confidentiality

All people taking an HIV test must give informed consent prior to being tested. The results of the test must be kept absolutely confidential. However, shared confidentiality is encouraged. Shared confidentiality refers to confidentiality that is shared with others. These others might include family members, loved ones, care givers, and trusted friends. This shared confidentiality is at the discretion of the person who will be tested. Although the result of the HIV test should be kept confidential, other professionals such as counsellors and health and social service workers, might also need to be aware of the person's HIV status in order to provide appropriate care.

Questions for Reflection and Discussion

Why is it important that nurses/midwives educate people about how HIV is and is not transmitted?

What role can nurses/midwives take in promoting HIV prevention?

Why is it important to understand the danger of HIV transmission during the "window period?"

Why is informed consent essential?

What role can nurses/midwives play in promoting shared confidentiality?

What are the dangers of receiving a false negative result? What should be done if a person's test is sero-negative?

References

World Health Organization (1993). HIV Prevention and Care: Teaching Modules for Nurses and Midwives. WHO/GPA/CNP/TMD/93.3

World Health Organization (1996). TB/HIV: A Clinical Manual. (WHO/TB/96.200)

World Health Organization (1997). Standard treatments and essential drugs for HIV-related conditions. Access to HIV-related drugs (DAP/97.9)

Unit 7 – Human Development Activity 7 Overhead A



A global view of HIV infection

38.6 million people [range: 33.4-46.0 million] living with HIV in 2005



Source: WHO/UNAIDS

Unit 7 – Human Development Activity 7 Overhead B



ABOUT THE STEPHEN LEWIS FOUNDATION

The Stephen Lewis Foundation (SLF) helps to ease the pain of HIV/AIDS in Africa at the grassroots level. It provides care to women who are ill and struggling to survive; assists orphans and other AIDS affected children; supports heroic grandmothers who almost single-handedly care for their orphan grandchildren; and supports associations of people living with HIV/AIDS

OUR MANDATE

The Stephen Lewis Foundation funds community-based initiatives in Africa. Our funding works in four areas:

- to provide care at the community level to women who are ill and struggling to survive, so that their lives can be free from pain, humiliation and indignity;
- to assist **orphans** and other AIDS-affected children in every possible way, from the payment of school fees to the provision of food;
- to support the unsung heroes of Africa, the **grandmothers**, who bury their own children and care for their orphan grandchildren;
- to support **associations of people living with HIV/AIDS** courageous men and women who have openly declared their status so that they can educate themselves and share information with their broader communities on prevention, treatment, care and the elimination of stigma.

Source: www.stephenlewisfoundation.org



Unit 7 – Human Development Activity 7 Handout B

Stephen Lewis



Stephen Henry Lewis, C.C. (born November 11, 1937) is a Canadian politician, broadcaster and diplomat. He is currently Social Science Scholar-in-Residence at McMaster University, having recently completed his term as United Nations special envoy for HIV/AIDS in Africa.

Born in Ottawa, Ontario, the son of former federal New Democratic Party leader David Lewis, he attended Harbord Collegiate Institute and the University of Toronto.

Stephen Lewis at a public speaking engagement on April 25, 2001

Political career

At university, he was in danger of failing after neglecting to write any exams. He left his studies in the 1960s and took up a clerical position with the Socialist International, where he received an invitation to a conference in Ghana. He attended, and instead of returning to Canada, spent more than a year working, traveling, and teaching in various places in Africa. He recalled in his 2005 Massey Lectures that the relatively brief sojourn would be a key influence on his life, especially after the turn of the new millennium.

He came back to Canada at the instigation of Tommy Douglas, and in 1963, at the age of 26, he was elected to the Legislative Assembly of Ontario. Following the engineered 1970 resignation of Donald C. MacDonald,[1] Lewis was elected leader of the Ontario New Democratic Party. His initial experience at the helm in the 1971 provincial election was a disappointment, with the party slipping from 20 seats to 19.

A radical left wing group nicknamed the Waffle had gained prominence, with one of its leaders, James Laxer winning one-third of the vote when he ran to be leader of the federal NDP in 1971. Lewis felt that the Waffle was threatening the credibility and stability of the party and supported a movement against the group in June 1972 on the basis that it was a party within a party.

Lewis led a strong campaign during the 1975 election with his oratory and passion bringing new supporters to the party. The NDP highlighted issues such as the need for rent control and workplace safety. Each day, Lewis told the story of a different Ontarian in trouble because of the lack of adequate legislation. Polls showed the NDP surging and the incumbent Ontario Progressive Conservative Party in freefall and in the course of the campaign Premier William Davis was forced to commit his party to bringing in rent control and other progressive reforms in order to retain power. When the ballots were counted the Tories were reduced to a minority government. Lewis' NDP had doubled its seats from 19 to 38, surpassing the Ontario Liberal Party to become the Official Opposition. To some it appeared that it was only a matter of time before the NDP would form the government.

The next election, in 1977, proved to be a disappointment. The growth of support for the NDP stalled, and while the Tories were kept to a minority, the NDP failed to make any gains. The party was reduced to 33 seats and lost its status as Official Opposition to the Liberals. In 1978, a frustrated Lewis stepped down as party leader and as a Member of Provincial Parliament.

Diplomatic and Academic Career



After working for several years as a labour mediator, columnist and broadcaster, in 1984 Lewis was appointed Canadian Ambassador to the United Nations by Governor General Jeanne Sauvé, on the advice of Prime Minister Brian Mulroney. Lewis served at the post until 1988. In the 1980s, he became a familiar voice appearing with Dalton Camp and Eric Kierans as part of a weekly political panel on Peter Gzowski's Canadian Broadcasting Corporation radio show, Morningside.

Stephen Lewis, speaking at the University of Alberta, January 30, 2006

From 1995 to 1999, Lewis was Deputy Director of UNICEF. From 2001 until 2006, he worked as United Nations Special Envoy for HIV/AIDS in Africa. In his role as Special Envoy, he worked to draw attention to the HIV/AIDS crisis and to convince leaders and the public that they have a responsibility to respond. He has been widely praised for his effectiveness in this role. In 2005 he adapted his Massey Lectures in a book titled "Race Against Time", where he describes the disjuncture between what the international community promises and their actions in responding to the pandemic in Africa.

In May 2006, Lewis joined the Faculty of Social Sciences at McMaster University as a Scholarin-Residence. Also in 2006, an online petition asking the Nobel committee to recognize Lewis for his work, and consider him for the 2007 Nobel Peace Prize, was signed by over 12,000 people.

Foundation

Stephen Lewis heads the Stephen Lewis Foundation, a charitable organization that helps people affected and infected by HIV/AIDS in Africa. He also serves as the first social sciences scholar-in-residence at McMaster University in Hamilton, ON.

Personal

Stephen is the son of former Federal NDP Leader David Lewis. Stephen is married to Canadian journalist Michele Landsberg. He is the father of Canadian broadcaster Avi Lewis, who married journalist and author Naomi Klein, and of Ilana Naomi Landsberg-Lewis and Jenny Leah Lewis. He is also the brother of Nina Lewis-Libeskind, the wife and partner of world renowned architect Daniel Libeskind. Lewis' brother and sister, Michael Lewis and Janet Solberg, were both active and high-ranking officials within the party during the 1980s and 1990s: Michael was the Ontario Provincial Secretary, and Janet was the Ontario party's President.

In 2002, he was made a Companion of the Order of Canada.

In 2005, Lewis delivered the annual Massey Lectures. The lectures have also been published in book form under the title of the lecture series, 'Race Against Time'. The book consists of five lectures that depict the HIV/AIDS pandemic in Africa, critically examining the international community's passivity as a contributing factor.

In 2006, he was elected a Senior Fellow of Massey College in the University of Toronto.

Honours

In January of 2006, it was announced that the planned "Churchill Meadows Secondary School" in Mississauga, Ontario, would be renamed "Stephen Lewis Secondary School". This became the first school in Canada to be named in honour of Stephen Lewis. On Thomas Street, West of Tenth Line in Mississauga, Stephen Lewis Secondary School Peel District School Board opened to Grade 9 and 10 students in the fall of 2006, subsequently adding grades 11 and 12 in the following two years. The school's focus follows that of Stephen Lewis by educating students on issues relating to social justice and global citizenship to enhance the Ontario Curriculum. In September of 2006, a new Secondary School in York Region was opened, named after Stephen Lewis. Stephen Lewis Secondary School is just off of Dufferin St. on Autumn Hill Blvd. Vaughan Secondary School has shifted the incoming Grade 9 students, as well as the Grade 10 students to the new school.

In 2007, Lewis received the World Citizenship Award, from the World Association of Girl Guides and Girl Scouts, as well as the Health and Human Rights Leadership Award from Doctors of the World-USA.

Retrieved from http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Stephen_Lewis

Unit 7 – Human Development

Activity 8: GDP per Capita – Economics

<u>Purpose</u>: To examine the composition and size of the Gambian and Canadian economies, and to assess their effect on the opportunities available to the citizens of these two countries.

Time: 1 hour

Materials:

- Copies of Economic Data for Canada and The Gambia
- Flip chart and flip chart paper

Notes on Use:

Teachers should examine the statistics provided before hand to ensure students will understand the various category names. Work with groups to help them understand the categories and the statistics provided, especially as they attempt to make comparisons.

Procedure:

- 1. Begin by asking how having a reasonable income provides people with choices. In Canada, what limits to choices do people living below the poverty line face? What choices and options are available to the wealthy? What kind of choices do you have that people living in poor countries, such as The Gambia, do not have.
- 2. Break students working into groups of about five. Hand out copies of Economic Data for Canada and The Gambia. Ask student to briefly look over the data sheets. What terms do they not understand or are unclear about? Discuss these and make sure everyone is comfortable with the key terms and categories.
- 3. Now ask groups to place the sheets for Canada and the ones for The Gambia side by side. Have one student read the category and then the data for Canada. Then have another read the data for the same category for The Gambia. After each category, have the groups discuss the differences
- 4. After all the categories have been read and discussed, ask the group to record, in their own words, the most profound differences between the two economies. Have the recorder share the group's conclusions and chart these on flip chart paper.
- 5. Still in their groups, ask students to imagine that they are a secondary school student in The Gambia. Understanding the limited economic strength and diversity of The Gambian economy, how would you feel your options and opportunities might be limited in terms of:

- Career
- Travel
- Income
- Family
- Quality of life
- Housing and transportation
- Social security
- Health
- 6. Have the recorder note responses from the group members under each category.
- 7. Using the eight flip chart sheets previously prepared with each of the categories written at the top, record groups observations about how living in an economy like The Gambia's might limit your choices in each area. Make sure each group contributes only one idea at a time so all groups can share their ideas.
- 8. As a large group, ask students what they might do if they were faced with these constraints. What options would be open to them? Why would these be difficult to realize? How do these economic realities account for some of the social problems faced in developing countries (e.g., low literacy rates, urban drift, loss of professionals to more developed countries.)

Debriefing:

Make sure students fully understand the profound differences between the two economies and how these might affect personal options and human development. What differences were most startling? What differences are most limiting? What could we do as a global society to reverse these inequities? What would be the global benefits?



Unit 7 – Human Development Activity 8 Handout A

The Canadian Economy

Economy - overview:	As an affluent, high-tech industrial society in the trillion-dollar class, Canada resembles the US in its market-oriented economic system, pattern of production, and affluent living standards. Since World War II, the impressive growth of the manufacturing, mining, and service sectors has transformed the nation from a largely rural economy into one primarily industrial and urban. The 1989 US-Canada Free Trade Agreement (FTA) and the 1994 North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA) (which includes Mexico) touched off a dramatic increase in trade and economic integration with the US. Given its great natural resources, skilled labor force, and modern capital plant, Canada enjoys solid economic prospects. Top-notch fiscal management has produced consecutive balanced budgets since 1997, although public debate continues over how to manage the rising cost of the publicly funded healthcare system. Exports account for roughly a third of GDP. Canada enjoys a substantial trade surplus with its principal trading partner, the US, which absorbs about 85% of Canadian exports. Canada is the US' largest foreign supplier of energy, including oil, gas, uranium, and electric power.
GDP (purchasing power parity):	\$1.165 trillion (2006 est.)
GDP (official exchange rate):	\$1.089 trillion (2006 est.)
GDP-real growth rate:	2.8% (2006 est.)
GDP-per capita (PPP):	\$35,200 (2006 est.)
GDP - composition by sector:	agriculture: 2.3% industry: 29.2% services: 68.5% (2006 est.)
Labor force:	17.59 million (2006 est.)
Labor force - by occupation:	agriculture 2%, manufacturing 14%, construction 5%, services 75%, other 3% (2004)
Unemployment rate:	6.4% (2006 est.)
Population below poverty line:	15.9%; note - this figure is the Low Income Cut-Off (LICO), a calculation that results in higher figures than found in many comparable economies; Canada does not have an official poverty line (2003)
Household income or consumption by percentage share:	lowest 10%: 2.8% highest 10%: 23.8% (1994)
Distribution of family income - Gini index:	33.1 (1998)
Inflation rate (consumer prices):	2% (2006 est.)

Investment(grossfixed): 21.3% of GDP (2006 est.)

Budget:	<i>revenues:</i> \$183.5 billion <i>expenditures:</i> \$181.8 billion; including capital expenditures of \$NA (2005 est.)
Public debt:	65.4% of GDP (2006 est.)
- Agriculture products:	wheat, barley, oilseed, tobacco, fruits, vegetables; dairy products; forest products; fish
Industries:	transportation equipment, chemicals, processed and unprocessed minerals, food products, wood and paper products, fish products, petroleum and natural gas
Industrial production growth rate:	0.7% (2006 est.)
Electricity - production:	573 billion kWh (2004)
Electricity - consumption:	522.4 billion kWh (2004)
Electricity - exports:	33.01 billion kWh (2004)
Electricity - imports:	22.48 billion kWh (2004)
Oil - production:	3.135 million bbl/day (2004)
Oil - consumption:	2.294 million bbl/day (2004)
Oil - exports:	1.6 million bbl/day (2004)
Oil - imports:	963,000 bbl/day (2004)
	178.9 billion bbl note: includes oil sands (2004 est.)
Natural gas - production:	183.6 billion cu m (2004 est.)
Natural gas - consumption:	95.85 billion cu m (2004 est.)
Natural gas - exports:	104 billion cu m (2004 est.)
- Natural gas imports:	10.86 billion cu m (2004 est.)
Natural gas - proved reserves:	1.603 trillion cu m (1 January 2005 est.)
Current account balance:	\$20.56 billion (2006 est.)
Exports:	\$405 billion f.o.b. (2006 est.)
Exports - commodities:	motor vehicles and parts, industrial machinery, aircraft, telecommunications equipment; chemicals, plastics, fertilizers; wood pulp, timber, crude petroleum, natural gas, electricity, aluminum
Exports - partners:	US 84.2%, Japan 2.1%, UK 1.8% (2005)
Imports:	\$353.2 billion f.o.b. (2006 est.)
Imports - commodities:	machinery and equipment, motor vehicles and parts, crude oil, chemicals, electricity, durable consumer goods

Imports - partners:	US 56.7%, China 7.8%, Mexico 3.8% (2005)
Reserves of foreign exchange and gold:	\$35.79 billion (August 2006 est.)
Debt - external:	\$684.7 billion (30 June 2006)
Economic aid-donor:	ODA, \$2.6 billion (2004)
Currency (code):	Canadian dollar (CAD)
Exchange rates:	Canadian dollars per US dollar - 1.1334 (2006), 1.2118 (2005), 1.301 (2004), 1.4011 (2003), 1.5693 (2002)

Source: CIA Factbook: https://www.cia.gov/cia/publications/factbook/geos/ca.html

The Gambia Economy

Economy - overview:	The Gambia has no confirmed mineral or natural resource deposits and has a limited agricultural base. About 75% of the population depends on crops and livestock for its livelihood. Small-scale manufacturing activity features the processing of peanuts, fish, and hides. Reexport trade normally constitutes a major segment of economic activity, but a 1999 government-imposed preshipment inspection plan, and instability of the Gambian dalasi (currency) have drawn some of the reexport trade away from The Gambia. The Gambia's natural beauty and proximity to Europe has made it one of the larger markets for tourism in West Africa. The government's 1998 seizure of the private peanut firm Alimenta eliminated the largest purchaser of Gambian groundnuts. Despite an announced program to begin privatizing key parastatals, no plans have been made public that would indicate that the government intends to follow through on its promises. Unemployment and underemployment rates remain extremely high; short-run economic progress depends on sustained bilateral and multilateral aid, on responsible government economic management, on continued technical assistance from the IMF and bilateral donors, and on expected growth in the construction sector.
GDP (purchasing power parity):	\$3.25 billion (2006 est.)
GDP (official exchange rate):	\$461.2 million (2006 est.)
GDP - real growth rate:	5% (2006 est.)
GDP - per capita (PPP):	\$2,000 (2006 est.)
GDP - composition by sector:	agriculture: 30.5% industry: 13.9% services: 55.6% (2006 est.)
Labor force:	400,000 (1996)
Labor force - by occupation:	agriculture: 75% industry: 19% services: 6%
Unemployment rate:	NA%
Population below poverty line:	NA%
Household income or consumption by percentage share:	lowest 10%: NA% highest 10%: NA%
Inflation rate (consumer prices):	14% (2006 est.)
Investment (gross fixed):	20.3% of GDP (2006 est.)
Budget:	<i>revenues:</i> \$112.7 million <i>expenditures:</i> \$155.1 million; including capital expenditures of \$4.1 million (2006 est.)
Agriculture - products:	rice, millet, sorghum, peanuts, corn, sesame, cassava (tapioca), palm kernels; cattle, sheep, goats
Industries:	processing peanuts, fish, and hides; tourism, beverages, agricultural machinery assembly, woodworking, metalworking, clothing

Industrial production growth rate:	NA%
Electricity - production:	145 million kWh (2004)
Electricity - consumption:	134.9 million kWh (2004)
Electricity - exports:	0 kWh (2004)
Electricity - imports:	0 kWh (2004)
Oil - production:	0 bbl/day (2004 est.)
Oil - consumption:	2,000 bbl/day (2004 est.)
Oil - exports:	NA bbl/day
Oil - imports:	NA bbl/day
Natural gas - production:	0 cu m (2004 est.)
Natural gas - consumption:	0 cu m (2004 est.)
Current account balance:	\$-54.61 million (2006 est.)
Exports:	\$130.5 million f.o.b. (2006 est.)
Exports - commodities:	peanut products, fish, cotton lint, palm kernels, re-exports
Exports - partners:	India 41.1%, UK 18.5%, Indonesia 8.4%, Senegal 4.7%, Belgium 4.3% (2005)
Imports:	\$212.2 million f.o.b. (2006 est.)
Imports - commodities:	foodstuffs, manufactures, fuel, machinery and transport equipment
Imports - partners:	China 21.5%, Senegal 11.4%, Cote d'Ivoire 8.5%, Brazil 5.6%, US 5.3%, UK 5.2%, Netherlands 4.1% (2005)
Reserves of foreign exchange and gold:	\$88.11 million (2006 est.)
Debt - external:	\$628.8 million (2003 est.)
Economic aid - recipient:	\$59.8 million (2003)
Currency (code):	dalasi (GMD)
Exchange rates:	dalasi per US dollar - 28.3 (2006), 30.38 (2005), 30.03 (2004), 27.306 (2004), 19.918 (2003), 15.687 (2002), 15.687 (2001)

Source: CIA Factbook https://www.cia.gov/cia/publications/factbook/geos/ga.html

Unit 8 – Gender and Development

Why is the issue of gender, gender equity and improving the status of women so important to the whole issue of international development? Former Minister for International Cooperation, Susan Whelan, gave a pretty concise answer in an address in 2003:

My department, the Canadian International Development Agency, has a mandate to support sustainable development to contribute towards a more secure, equitable and prosperous world. In order to do this, gender equality is an integral part of all that we do. In fact, CIDA was among the first development organizations to champion the role that women play as full partners in their society's development.

More and more, studies and experience are showing us that gender equality is a necessary prerequisite for sustainable development and poverty reduction. If aid is going to be effective, we simply have to consider the gender dimensions of every development undertaking.

For example, look at women's education. According to studies funded by the World Bank, gains in women's education made the single largest contribution to declines in malnutrition between 1970 and 1995. And that's just looking at one of the impacts of gender disparities in education. With the effects spilling over into areas like health and nutrition, income and economic growth, it's easy to see that gender equality and women's rights aren't just women's issues. They are development issues, and human rights issues, and they need to concern everyone.

In recent years, gender has emerged as one of the most critical factors affecting aid effectiveness. But what exactly do we mean by gender, and why is it so important? More to the point, why is this such a difficult issue to address in development work? What happens if development policy ignores women? What kind of reaction can occur if men become threatened or offended? How is culture such a big player in women's roles and social position?

These issues will be addressed in this unit. Be sure to help students not only see the gender question in the context of developing countries, but as it applies to Canada as well. Is there gender inequity in Canadian society? What forms does it take? Recognizing that Canada enjoys relative gender equity, how did we develop gender neutral policies and attitudes? Have they always existed in Canadian society? What had to happen to ensure that women would enjoy equal rights?

With this in mind, students may better be able to see the long struggle that has resulted in our relatively open society with (theoretically at least) equal rights for women – and better appreciate the similar struggle going on in developing countries around the world.

Unit 8 – Gender and Development

Activity 1: Why Gender?

<u>Purpose</u>: To introduce the issue of gender and development and encourage reflection on the difference between sex and gender and the importance of considering women in any development project or programme.

<u>Time:</u> $1\frac{1}{2}$ to 2 hours

<u>Materials:</u>

- Handout of *Why Gender?* for each student
- Gender Questions cards for four groups
- Transparency of each card questions
- Overhead projector and flip chart.

Notes on Use:

This activity introduces a series of exercises designed to examine issues related to gender and development. Together they provide students with an opportunity to examine and reflect on this critical issue. Make sure the students realize that they will be engaging in a series of related activities focused on women so they can build on previous information and knowledge.

This exercise revolves around an essay on gender and development written by GAS Development Associates, a group of Ghanaian community workers and animators. This essay, *Why Gender?*, is a thoughtful and relevant look at women in development in rural West Africa. Provide enough time for students to read the entire article carefully. You may wish to assign it the afternoon before so they can read it in the evening.

Procedure:

- 1. In preparation, take the Gender Questions and cut them into strips. Paste these on cards.
- 2. Introduce the activity by explaining that the rest of the module is going to concentrate on working with rural women and the general issue of women in development. This first exercise introduces basic concepts related to women in development through an essay written by West African rural community development workers.
- 3. Hand out essay *Why Gender*? and allow students enough time to read the article carefully. This could be done the night before. Once students have read the article, break them into four groups. Give each group one of the four Gender Question cards.
- 4. Instruct groups to first read their question and discuss it. Then have them go back over the *Why Gender*? article and find sections that relate to their question. Using this

information and their own experience, the groups are then to brainstorm answers to the questions in point form. They are to record their answers.

- 5. Once groups have completed the answer phase, direct their attention to the overhead screen. Place the transparency of each of the gender questions on the overhead. Then have the group that addressed the question provide their answers in point form. Write these on the transparency under the question.
- 6. Once the group has finished presenting, ask the other students for additional comments. Do they agree with the answers? Can they suggest additional answers? If they are generally accepted, write them down as well. Proceed until all four questions have been discussed and "answered."
- 7. Discuss the general issue of gender and development in light of the questions raised, the information in the article, and the answers provided.

Debriefing:

This activity was designed to introduce the issue of gender and development. What basic principles were suggested? What does the article suggest is the difference between the terms "gender" and "sex?" What understandings about the role of women in development have you arrived at as a result of this exercise?



Unit 8 – Gender and Development Activity 1 Handout A

WHY GENDER?

We tend to undervalue the role women play in development in our communities. For example development workers have most of the time contacted men in rural communities for the provision of water, overlooking the major roles women play in providing water for the whole household.

In one case, an NGO representative visited a village and noticed that the women walk five kilometers every day to get water, so he decided to help them.

The village elders and the NGO representative decided to construct a well, with the help of some strong men. The men built it and were trained in maintaining the well. Several months later the NGO field representative went to visit the village and noticed that the well had fallen into disrepair.

He discovered that women used to be the managers of the water sources and the men did not have any interest in maintaining the well. As women were left out, the men did not know how to manage the new source.

Most projects like this example fail, not because they are technically bad, but because women have been left out of the planning and decision-making stages of the project. Looking at gender roles improved the success of the project. This is why it is important to look at gender roles in development work.

Development is a process that should involve all members of a society to the same extent, according to their individual needs. By understanding what gender is all about, one gets an insight into the contents and meanings of relations between women and men as well as their connections to (power) structures, such as those based on ethnicity, class or age.

For instance, women as a group everywhere enjoy fewer advantages and work longer hours than men, being the first to wake up and the last to go to bed. Their work and opinions are under valued and in some societies like northern Ghana, they are prevented from owning land; face numerous obstacles to holding positions of authority; and face threats of violence just because they are women.

It is only when the traditions and cultural attitudes to gender are clarified that the actual gender relations can be assessed and addressed within a programme or project.

Gender here can be described as roles of men and women that we have learned as opposed to our biological differences. This distinction between gender and sex is very important and is made to emphasize that everything women and men do and whatever is expected of them – with the exception of their sexually distinct functions, like childbearing, breast-feeding and impregnation – can change and *does* change over time and according to changing and varied social and cultural factors. In fact, all development activities change men and women's lives in a different way.

The term gender can meet with resistance and may sound alien to many people, but the concept is very important in understanding the different and complementary experiences of both men and women.

People are born female or male but learn to be girls and boys who grow to be women and men. They are taught what the appropriate behaviour, attitudes, roles and activities are and how they should relate to other people.

Boys and girls are encouraged to display what is considered male or female behaviour through the types of games they play, the kind of discipline meted out, the jobs or careers to which they might aspire and the portrayal of men and women in the media.

Children learn their gender roles from birth and this is reinforced by parents, teachers, peer groups, their culture and society throughout their lives. What is considered to be appropriate for women and men is also influenced by race, class, age, religious norms, legislation and types of productive activities of the country, community and household.

Gender also explains the division of labour. Activities are assigned to either men or women, depending on the particular culture. Therefore roles of men and women may vary from one social group to the other. Every society uses biological sex as one criteria for describing gender, but beyond that no two cultures completely agree on what distinguishes one gender from another.
In Ghana for instance, among the Akans, women can inherit directly from the mother's side. In Akuapim however, the inheritance is organized differently. In the case of Northern Ghana, women cannot inherit at all...

With the Ashantes, children belong to the mother, but among the Ewes they belong to the father... Sea fishing is reserved for men, but Ashanti women are involved in inland river fishing... Unlike in other parts of the country, women in Northern Ghana construct houses....So even in our own country, there are many differences in gender roles depending on the culture.

Furthermore, culture is dynamic and as society becomes more complex, the roles played by men and women will also be determined by socio-political and economic factors. For example, a sudden crisis like war or famine can radically and rapidly change what both sexes do. Sometime after the crisis old altitudes may return, but other changes may have a permanent impact.

In Ghana, during the early eighties, men started selling foods like tomatoes and plantain, which was considered to be women's work. Through the economic crisis this practice has come to stay.

It is of vital importance in development work to understand that each community has it's own understanding of gender roles. By assessing and understanding these gender roles, the specific needs of women and men can be ascertained and addressed within projects.

Gender analysis in a water and sanitation project, simply means to consult with and listen to women so that their roles and resulting needs are better understood. How the issues of gender are actually addressed depends upon the policy direction one envisages.

One approach is to design projects that make life 'easier' for women and help them perform their existing tasks better. For example, a borehole closer to the community would reduce the women's time spent on fetching water. An alternative approach is to address the perceived inequalities between men and women, aiming to empower women for the betterment of society.

If women are traditionally the main managers of water, they should hold the key positions in modern water committees. Or if women spend valuable time bringing water to their husbands on the farm, to the detriment of their children's well being, the men could consider taking their own water to the farm.

Gender awareness among development workers will go a long way to sustaining community development projects. By being consistently conscious of the need to identify the differing experiences and perspectives of women and men, each can contribute to designing, implementing and evaluating programmes of mutual advancement.

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Unit 8 – Gender and Development Activity 1 Handout B / Overhead A

Gender Questions

1. EXPLAIN THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN GENDER AND SEX AND WHY IT IS IMPORTANT IN THE DEVELOPMENT CONTEXT.

2. EXPLAIN THE ROLES OF WOMEN IN VARIOUS REGIONS, SOCIAL AND RELIGIOUS GROUPS, AND FROM DIFFERENT CULTURAL BACKGROUNDS IN CANADA AND HOW THESE DIFFER.

3. EXPLAIN THE IMPORTANCE OF GENDER AWARENESS WHEN ADDRESSING THE ISSUES OF INTERNATIONAL DEVELOPMENT.

4. EXPLAIN THE POSSIBLE EFFECTS ON A COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT PROJECT OF NOT CONSULTING AND INVOLVING WOMEN.

Unit 8 – Gender and Development

Activity 2: Occupations Over Time

<u>Purpose</u>: To examine the work roles of men and women over time and identify any implications there might be for rural training programmes.

<u>**Time:**</u> $1 \frac{1}{2}$ to 2 hours

<u>Materials:</u>

• Flip chart paper and markers or blackboard

Notes on Use:

The purpose of this activity is to examine how the occupations of men and women in Canada have changed over time. This activity assumes that students in the group know what work their parents and grandparents did. It is also hoped that at least some of the students have parents or grandparents who still live in rural areas. Note that the activity should focus on broad occupations (as opposed to specific tasks) such as farmer, housewife, teacher, blacksmith, etc.

Procedure:

- 1. Have students do a quickwrite (five minutes of uninterrupted writing) on the work that the women in each of their personal families did over as long a time span as they can accurately remember (e.g., sisters, mothers, aunts, grandmothers) They should think of work in the broad sense of the word. It should include both paid and unpaid work.
- 2. Have them do the same for the men in their families.
- 3. When students have finished this task, have them circulate around the room and contribute their responses to six flip charts posted around the room which are labelled as follows:

grandmothers	mother	sister/self
grandfathers	father	brother/self

4. Form students into four groups. Assign each group one of the following focus questions. Have them identify one of their members to keep notes on their discussion and then present a summary to the class:

Discussion Points:

- a) What trends do you note over the three generations? Whose work changed the most, men's or women's? How and Why?
- b) Have men's and women's workloads increased or decreased?
- c) Has there been a blending or merging of the labour roles of Canadian men and women?
- d) What differences in men's and women's work are discernible based on ethnic, social or religious backgrounds?
- 5. Bring the students together and have representatives from each of the groups share some of the results of their discussions and try to identify patterns of change in men's and women's labour in Canadian society.

Debriefing:

How did the exercise demonstrate that work roles have changed over time? That gender roles can and do change and are not static? What are the implications for Candian society? For the societies in developing countries?

Unit 8 – Gender and Development

Activity 3: Take a Stand on Sex and Gender

Purpose: To allow students to express and discuss their ideas on what is a culturally-determined "gender role" and those that are determined by sex.

<u>Materials:</u>

- Flip chart paper and markers
- Sex and Gender Statements (to be read orally by teacher)
- *Gender Dictionary* handout
- Gender Dictionary overhead
- Overhead projector

<u>**Time:**</u> $1 \text{ to} 1\frac{1}{2} \text{ hours}$

Notes on Use:

This activity allows students to examine the differences between sex and gender in the context of their own lives and beliefs. The hope is to open up gender roles for discussion while building increased awareness around gender-relations in Canadian and global society. The exercise itself – Take a Stand – is an activity that gets students on their feet – and voting with them. Thus it can be a good break from more desk-based work. It can be used with a set of questions, asking students to "take a stand" by moving to the "agree" or "disagree" sides of the room.

This activity allows students to reflect on and communicate their beliefs, values, opinions, and attitudes towards statements relating to gender, sex, and community development. This activity can be used as a review or an introduction to a discussion on gender and development.

Procedure:

Designate one side of the room as being "Agree" and the other side as being "Disagree."

Read out each of the statements listed below and allow each member of the class to independently decide if they agree or disagree with the statement. Allow just a few seconds, then have students position themselves on the "Agree" or "Disagree" side of the room based on whether they are more in agreement or disagreement with the statement. When the students have positioned themselves, the teacher should allow one or two students from each side to briefly explain why they took the stand they did. Keep the interactions brief and move onto the next statement.

After completing each of the statements, distribute the *Gender Dictionary* handout and review each of the definitions as a group. Allow for comments and/or questions. The group may re-visit the statements in the activity for further discussion.

Close with the debriefing exercise, allowing students to reflect on traditional and non-traditional roles in communities and societies.

Sex and Gender Statements (to be read aloud by the teacher):

- Women are not as interested in politics as men.
- Men hold the power in communities and society.
- Men are more greedy and power hungry than women.
- Women are more emotional and closer to nature than men.
- Men are better at managing money.
- Women like to talk and gossip more than men.
- Men are generally better suited for business and political leadership.
- Men are not as effective communicators as women.
- Men have heightened fighting and protecting instincts.
- Men should be the major decision-makers in the family.
- Women want to be mothers.
- Having multiple sexual partners is more natural for men than women.
- Men are stronger and more powerful than women.
- Women are more submissive and easily intimidated than most men.
- Men are more resistant to change than women.
- Women naturally have higher tolerance to physical pain.
- Women are generally more intelligent than men.

Depending on the size of the group, time available, and the age of the students, the facilitator may select the number of statements – or add new ones – to use from the list to customize the session. Experience has shown that it is best to present the group with eight to 10 statements from this master list.

Debriefing:

Have the group sit down with a piece of paper and pen. Read out the following and have the students write down the thoughts that come to mind.

- Write down two things that you enjoy doing that are considered typical of your gender;
- Write down two things that you dislike doing that are expected of you and because of your gender;
- Write down two things you like doing that are considered non-traditional for your gender; and
- Write down two things you really wish you could do that are non-traditional because of your gender.

Allow students to share their answers openly. As the facilitator, you may want to record answers on flip-chart paper to be posted on the wall at the end of the activity for reflection.



Unit 8 – Gender and Development Activity 3 Handout A / Overhead A

GENDER DICTIONARY

Gender – the term *gender* has now transcended its earlier "grammar-based" usage of classified nouns as male, female, and neuter. It is not used to describe the biological sexual characteristics by which we identify females and males but to encompass the socially defined sex roles, attitudes, and values which communities and societies ascribe as appropriate for one sex or the other.

In this specific sense, it was first used as a phrase, "the social relations of gender", for which *gender* has become a kind of shorthand. The social relations of gender seeks to make apparent and explain the global asymmetry which appears in male/female relations in terms of sex roles in power-sharing, decision-making, the division of labour, return to labour both within the household and in the society at large. The phrase directs our attention to all the attributes acquired in the process of socialization: our self and group definitions, our sense of appropriate roles, values and behaviours and above all, expected and acceptable interactions in relationships between women and men.

Sex – a noun used to divide female and male, women and men. One of the two divisions, male and female, into which many living things are grouped. The physiological and functional differences that distinguish the male and female.

Gender roles – are roles which are classified by sex, where this classification is social, and not biological. For example, if child rearing is classified as a female role, it is a female gender role, not a female sex role since child rearing can be done by men or women.

Sex roles – may therefore be contrasted with gender roles, since sex roles refer to an occupation or biological function for which a necessary qualification is to belong to one of the particular sex category. For example, pregnancy is a female sex role because only members of the female sex may bear children.

Gender role stereotyping – is the constant portrayal, such as in the media, books, and in societal expectations, of women and men occupying social roles according to the traditional gender division of labour in a particular society. Such gender role stereotyping works to support and reinforce the traditional gender division of labour and role in society by portraying it as "normal" and "natural".

(Definitions taken from the Oxfam Gender Dictionary, 1994)

Unit 8 – Gender and Development

Activity 4: All In a Day's Work

<u>Purpose:</u> To identify the daily tasks and responsibilities of men and women working and living in rural African communities where grassroots community development initiatives take place and to raise awareness in students of the workload realities faced by women in rual Africa.

<u>Materials:</u>

- A Rural African Woman's Day handout
- Chart Your Day handout and worksheet for each student
- Mr. Bojang's Story handout
- *The Lie of the Land* handout *and* overhead
- Overhead projector

Time: 1¹/₂ hours

Notes on Use:

By looking at an actual rural African woman's day, students should be able to get a better sense of the exhausting demands women face in developing countries. The personal charting is designed to help experientially see how profoundly their day differs from that of women (often not much older than the students) farmers in West Africa. Make sure the students have a chance to share their own day's activities – and discuss how they contrast with those of a typical rural African woman.

The material should also help students begin to better understand the differences between men and women's workload in many developing countries. Differences include the following:

- Women and men do very different things during the day
- Women usually work longer hours
- Women have varied tasks, often doing more than on task at one time
- Work for the family and inside the home is usually done by women
- Men's work usually is outside the home and often takes them away from family or community
- Men have more leisure time to enjoy
- Women have less opportunities for sleep
- Men are more involved in decision-making processes
- Men's work is more socially acknowledged and prestigious

In more traditional societies, roles of men and women were more balanced in terms of workload, but changes in society and culture have altered and decreased men's traditional roles and increased the roles and responsibilities of women.

This activity can start the discussion around gender roles in developing countries and Canada and how they impact not only the lives of individual women, but of society as a whole. Note that this activity begins with an analysis of a typical rural African woman's daily workload, but deliberately ignores differences due to age, class, season, historical period, the political climate etc. In doing this, the activity remains simpler for a more focused participatory learning experience.

Procedure:

- 1. Divide class into small groups of about four. As a group, have students imagine the lives of a typical rural West African farming family with the average number of kids (about five) living in a small compound in a village and then brainstorm what tasks men and women farmers in rural West Africa might have to carry out in a typical day. Have a recorder write down the tasks for each gender.
- 2. Once the groups are done, (about 10-15 minutes), have a reporter read out the tasks they identified for men and women. Record these on a flip chart of chalk board under the headings "Rural African Woman" and "Rural African Man." What gender differences did the groups identify? Why?
- 3. Now have students refer to the handout *A Rural African Woman's Day*, based on actual case studies. What do they notice about the woman's day? What tasks are there the group overlooked? What other comments do they have about the chart?
- 4. Now hand out the student's *Chart <u>Your</u> Day* forms. Explain that they are to chart a day (to get a more typical comparison, you might ask students to focus on a weekend) in their lives, noting what they do in half-hour blocks. Have students bring their completed charts to class and break them into small groups. Students share their charts with each other and discuss. How were the students' charts similar? Different? How did they differ from the African woman's chart? Discuss these ideas as a class.
- 5. Then hand out a copy of *Mr. Bojang's Story* and read it aloud. What does this story say about the roles of women and men in traditional society? What does it say about the nature of men's and women's work? How could these attitudes affect development?
- 6. Follow up by showing the cartoon (on transparency) which further examines the phenomena of gender work roles and the social attitudes associated with them in many traditional societies. By saying, "So no, we don't work" (assuming they're not being ironic!), how have women come to view themselves? How might this impact their ability to affect change? To take leadership roles? To challenge traditional gender disparity?

Debriefing:

What have you learned about gender roles in African societies and how they might affect development projects and social change? Do women or men work harder in African society? Would African men agree? African women? How does your day compare to that of either African men or women?



A Rural African Woman's Day

	n Kurai milican woman 5 Day
4:45 am	Wakes up, the first in the family
4:50 am	Kindles the fire
5:00 am	Breast-feeds the baby
5:30 am	Walks over a mile to fetch water
6:00 am	Makes breakfast and feeds the family – she eats what is left over
6:30 am	Washes and dresses the children, uses water to feed and water the livestock
7:00 am	Washes the cooking utensils
7:15 am	Walks another mile to fetch more water
7:45 am	Washes clothing
8:15 am	Breast-feeds the baby and gets the children off to school
8:45 am	Walks to the family plot, with the baby on her back
9:00 am	Depending on the season, she plows, hoes, weeds and plants in her husband's field
11:00 am	Returns home to prepare the afternoon meal
11:45 am	Breast-feeds the baby
12:15 pm	Walks to the field where her husband is working to bring the food she has prepared
12:45 pm	Walks to her own field
1:00 pm	Weeds and tends to her own field, with her baby on her back
3:15 pm	Returns home, and on the way, gathers firewood
4:00 pm	Breast-feeds the baby
4:30 pm	At home, she pounds and grinds maize into flour
5:30 pm	Fetches more water
6:15 pm	Kindles the fire
6:30 pm	Prepares the evening meal
7:30 pm	Serves food to her family – she eats last
8:30 pm	Washes the children, breast-feeds the baby
9:30 pm	Washes the dishes, washes herself
10:00 pm	Puts the house in order
10:30 pm	Goes to bed, last in the family
	1



Chart <u>Your</u> Day

	Onart <u>Ibar</u> Day
6:00 am	
6:30 am	
7:00 am	
7:30 am	
8:00 am	
8:30 am	
9:00 am	
9:30 am	
10:00 am	
10:30 am	
11:00 am	
11:30 am	
12:00 pm	
12:30 pm	
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7:30 pm	
8:00 pm	
8:30 pm	
9:00 pm	
9:30 pm	
10:00 pm	
10:30 pm	
11:00 pm	
	·



Mr. Bojang's Story

'What is your job?' asked the community development worker. 'I am a ground nut farmer' replied Mr. Bojang proudly.

'Have you any children?' the community development worker asked. 'God has not been good to me. Of 12 born, only seven have remained healthy and survived to grow big.' Mr. Bojang said with regret.

'Does your wife work?' 'No, she stays at home in the village.'

'Oh, I see. How does she spend her day?

'Well, she gets up at four in the morning, fetches the wood and water for the house, makes a fire, cooks breakfast for us all, cleans up after we are finished eating, and tends to the housework. Then she goes to the community well to wash our clothing. Once a week she walks to the commodity market to get supplies. Twice a week she walks to the vegetable market to get use fresh produce. When she is not at the market, she takes our two smallest children and sells tomatoes from the garden by the side of the road where she weaves baskets to pass the time. She is often home to prepare and cook the midday meal."

'You come home at midday?'

'Oh, no I work too far from home to come home to eat. She packs me a meal and brings it to me.'

"And when she comes home, what does she do?"

'She stays in the field to do some weeding, then goes to the vegetable garden on her way home to water the plants.'

'What do you do, Mr. Bojang?'

'I finish farming just after midday, as it is too hot to work. I head back to the village to meet the other men there to discuss business and politics. We often drink beer when we are together. We have a lot of fun together, they are all good friends'

'And after that?'

'I go home to have dinner. That is when our discussions and socializing ends, all the other men have to go home to eat as well.'

'What does your wife do after she has prepared the family's dinner? Does she go to bed and rest shortly after?'

'No, no, she still has things to do. I go to bed. I have to get up and go to work early in the morning. She does not go to bed until around 10 p.m.'

'But I thought you said that your wife does not work?' the community development worker stated confusedly.

'Of course she does not work. I told you she stays at home in the village.'

Source: Women and Development Sub-committee Ministry of Community Development and Comminute Affairs, Zimbabwe to Women's Regional Ecumenical Workshop, 1989



Unit 8 – Gender and Development Activity 4 Handout D / Overhead A



Unit 8 – Gender and Development

Activity 5: SWOT Case Studies

<u>Purpose</u>: To identify the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats illustrated in the case studies provided and to encourage students to identify strategies for helping create more gender-sensitive development projects and programs.

<u>Materials:</u>

- Flip chart paper and markers
- SWOT Analysis handout
- SWOT Chart handout
- Case Studies One to Four

Time: 1¹/₂ hours

Notes on Use:

The case studies included in this activity have all been provided by a Gambian NGO and illustrate current successes and issues associated with gender and development at a community level. They are provided here as learning tools and community development examples for students to reflect on and discuss in order to better understand the challenges and benefits of building gender equity into community-focused initiatives.

SWOT analysis allows students to examine and discuss the different aspects of the case studies by using a structured framework that assists the students in identifying internal and external costs and benefits, or "pros and cons," of the community development project or programme. Point out that SWOT analysis can be used to analyze any social issue or challenge.

The use of the SWOT analysis here will foster discussion and allow the students to look at different aspects of the case studies in terms of gender awareness, gender impact, gender sensitivity, and gender and development in projects and programmes.

Procedure:

- 1. Divide the group into four sub-groups. Distribute the *SWOT Analysis* handout and *SWOT Chart* handout to assist you in explaining to them the SWOT acronym and how it swill be applied using the Notes on Use above.
- 2. Tell the groups that they will be receiving a Gambian case study to discuss and work with. It is important that they understand that a Gambian community development worker recorded these case studies based on his field experience. The case studies themselves reflect current examples of gender and development needs and approaches taken in communities in their country. The case studies are authentic examples of contemporary gender approach successes and failures in community development.

- 3. Distribute one case study per each sub-group. Each group will have a different case study to discuss. Allow the groups time to read and reflect on the case studies.
- 4. When all students have read the case studies, have each group fill-in the SWOT chart on a piece of flip chart paper. The group members should discuss the case study by following the guide questions in the *SWOT Analysis* handout. Each group selects a recorder to record the group's ideas on the SWOT analysis on the flip chart paper. If needed, have each group select an additional person to lead the discussion.
- 5. When the groups have completed their SWOT charts, have them prepare a short presentation that will be shared in front of the large group. Remind each group that they will be presenting a case study that the other groups have not read; therefore each presentation must include a summary of the community development situation outlined in the case study in order for the others to understand the SWOT analysis being presented. Allow for brief comments and questions at the end of each presentation.
- 6. As the groups are presenting, the facilitator should record any common points or themes presented on flip chart paper for end of session reflection and comments.
- 7. When all case studies have been presented, the facilitator can move on to the debriefing questions.

Debriefing:

Based on the case studies presented, what are the major challenges to ensuring greater gender equity in development projects? What are the major opportunities for expanding gender equity? What are the benefits to the community of incorporating greater gender equity? How have the case studies expanded your understanding of gender and development issues? Of the real problems faced in achieving gender equity at the community level?



SWOT Analysis

The SWOT analysis is designed to help people identify strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats in a given situation or environment. In this activity, you are asked to discuss the SWOT analysis of the case study you have been given as a group. Read the following SWOT guide questions to structure your discussion and information recorded on your SWOT chart.

S – strengths of the development approach taken in the project/programme illustrated in the case study. **Ask yourselves the following:** What are the strengths of the development project/programme and approach taken to plan and initiate the given project/programme? What are the benefits to the community and community members due to the strengths of the development approach taken?

W – weaknesses of the development approach taken and the project illustrated in the case study. **Ask yourselves the following:** What are the major weaknesses of the development approach taken and the project/programme? What are the costs to the community and community members due to the weaknesses of the development approach taken?

O – opportunities that are available to the community and community members due to a successful community development approach taken and the association with an effective project/programme in their village. **Ask yourselves the following:** What opportunities do the community members have access to due to an effective development approach taken and a successful development project/programme in their village? List the opportunities made available to them as a result of the impact of the project/programme illustrated in the case study.

T – threats that are now a major consideration to the community or community members due to the use of an ineffective development approach taken and a failed community development project/programme in their village. **Ask yourselves the following:** What are the possible threats, or threatening issues, that may be found at the community level as a result of the impact of the project/programme illustrated in the case study? What threats are present if attitudes do not change?

Keep in mind that all case studies illustrate and demonstrate aspects of and issues associated with gender and development and your discussion and analysis should be focused on your awareness and interpretation of these.



Unit 8 – Gender and Development Activity 5 Handout B / Overhead A

SWOT Analysis Chart

Strengths	Weaknesses
Opportunities	Threats



Case Study #1 Increasing Girls in Local Schools

The main goal of this project was to increase community awareness on the importance of girl's education in four pilot villages within our eco-zones and to encourage parents to send their girl children to school. The overall objective was to increase girl's enrolment and retention at school within the four eco-zones. In order to meet the objectives of this project, Islamic scholars and successful women who attended schools, and who were working and supporting their families due to having an education, were used to promote female girls' education.

In the past, religion was blended with traditional beliefs to misinterpret Western education, especially when it concerned girls' education. Traditional religious leaders had vehemently opposed the sending of girls to Western schools as this was seen to be anti-Islamic and against local cultural values.

Against this background, an advocacy campaign was spearheaded using prominent, well respected and highly regarded Islamic scholars and cleric to promote the education of young girls and raise awareness about this misconception that had been a major obstacle to girls' enrolment in schools. To provide addition support to the awareness campaign, female community role models were used to talk about their educational experiences and successes. The female role models used were women who had received an education and were successful in securing good jobs and providing financial support for themselves and their families. The role models illustrated that an educated woman can bring benefits to a number of others in her family and community. When possible, successful women from the same communities were used as role models and would talk with their own people.

Within six months of the education advocacy campaign and project, the enrolment of girls in schools dramatically increased in four intervention schools.



Case Study #2 Women Rice Growers

Following the results of a study conducted by an international non-governmental organisation, the study indicated that some upland methods of farming could be adopted and utilized by lowland farmers to improve production and reduce labour burden and the work load of women rice growers. The study confirmed that farming implements, such as animal traction and seeders, could also be used in the planting of rice in rows as opposed to broadcasting. This realisation would allow rice to be planted in rows as oppose to broadcasting the seeds. The overall result of this method would lead to easier weeding and higher yields for farmers as it is easier to weed crops in rows and the yield is higher than in broadcasted fields.

A local NGO decided to promote this concept among its target group in another geographical location. At a meeting with a group of women and representatives from local institutions within the region, the women suggested that an exchange visit to a successful crop and field trial would be valuable. The women also recommended training on the use of these techniques and implements on the lowland since they had never tried these on their own. The support of their husbands was also seen to be essential in the successful promotion of this concept, as they are the landowners of all the family farm implements.

A field trip to a successful demonstration site was arranged and carried out and representatives were invited from each of the villages to visit a trial in another village where men and women were actively involved in rice production with men owning the land being farmed. A total of 40 women and 62 men attended the field trip and site visits.

Knowing that the men in the community were the owners of the farm implements and that these implements were key to the success of the program was vital, men were then invited to the training sessions, following site visits, with hopes of the NGO soliciting their support and interest in the initiative. It was the women, during the initial meeting, who had made it very clear that the men in the community needed to be involved in the programme for important and vital reasons. The training provided was also aimed at changing the traditional belief that rice growing is a women's job while on the other hand, enlightening men on the significance of their participation in rice production. The men in the community needed to be aware of this since most of their produce from the upland is spent on purchasing rice. Challenges were faced during the program: lack of access to implements, flooding of fields before sowing began, difficulty using implements in muddy areas, etc. Men were seen to increase their participation and support and got out in the fields and provided implements and even cultivated rice themselves in order to assist their wives.



Case Study #3 Village Vegetable Garden

The villagers of Yiriwa were being supported by a philanthropic organization to establish a village vegetable garden. The concept for the project came from the organization that felt sympathetic to the imagined hardships of the women living in the village. The local women travel approximately four kilometers to reach their vegetable gardens located in the rice fields.

The staff of this organization decided to approach the villagers to inform them that they had an opportunity to receive funding to fund a garden project for the women in the community. According to the NGO staff, this project would reduce the workload on women, as it would save them travel time to the gardens located in the rice fields. The NGO staff met with the Village Development Committee (VDC), comprised of mostly men, to discuss the project and their intentions. The VDC of this particular village was comprised of village elders and men. Even though the VDC did not discuss the project with the local women, they saw this garden project as a chance to have a development project happening in the community like other communities around them. They accepted the idea of the project, and even helped the NGO staff identify a site 50 meters away from the village across the highway. A few weeks later, a truck arrived with garden materials such as cement, nails, rods, and BRC. A team of well diggers was also sent to the village to dig eight concrete lined wells in the garden. A total of about CAD 2,000 was spent on the project.

When construction work in the garden was completed, the VDC called a village meeting to demarcate the garden between 150 women. Each of the women was allocated four plots of one by four metres. While some women cultivated the garden that year, most of them also maintained their gardens in their rice fields. However, by the second year they had abandoned the new garden and had gone back to their original long distance gardening in the rice fields. The following reasons were given:

- The plot sizes provided in the new garden were too small to meet their needs. In their own fields, each woman could cultivate as much land as they desired and needed
- Water supply in the new garden was inadequate as several women shared the same well, which dries up easily. In their own fields, water supply is adequate as each woman could dig as many wells as possible and the wells themselves are not very deep
- The women also felt that the soil in the garden was of poor quality unlike their fields, which had ample fertiliser and had other soil fertility due to the rains. They hardly required the application of fertilisers after the rice crops were harvested



Case Study #4 Village Loan Scheme

A PRA exercise was carried out in Bereba village with the aim of identifying, through community participation, issues found in the village and possible solutions to address these issues. A key problem that emanated from the study was that local women were very enterprising but lacked the necessary financial means and support to improve their economic status and situation. To address this problem, a revolving loan scheme was funded for the village of Bereba. This was intended to be a community-managed revolving loan scheme for women to access loans. To establish this scheme, interest free loans were provided to a group of women in the village. The group was trained in methods required to manage funds. The group was required to come up with scheme bylaws that would guide the operations of the scheme. A key clause in the bylaw clearly made the group an exclusively women's only organization but allowed the group to have one male helper.

After six months in operation, some male village leaders began to put pressure on the women to give them loans. Some sought loans from the group either directly or indirectly through their wives. After much pressure, the women yielded to their demands and provided loans of up to CAD 100 to four men to be paid in six months with interest. One year later, these loans were unpaid and no one in the group was willing to pursue the debts. One of the reasons why the women did not want to demand the outstanding debt was that the loan concerned several prominent elderly men in the village and the women did not want to embarrass them. As a result, the scheme collapsed and the funding agency decided to withdraw financial support from the group before most of members could access loans.

Following the collapse of the first financial scheme approach and credit delivery, a new approach was adopted in another community. This time, the NGO decided to sensitize the women's group and helped them develop scheme bylaws on their own without the participation of a single man in the process. The women were also made to realize the importance of implementing the agreed rules of the game by not allowing men into the group and asking individual members of the group to place collateral forward when they took out loans or guarantees for any non-member of the group who acquires loans from the scheme.

Despite these rigid rules, one man was able to access a loan of about CAD 25 from the group through his wife to open a small shop. In accordance with the bylaws, the women asked that a sheep be placed as collateral in case of the husband defaulting on his payments. Unfortunately for her – but fortunate for the group – the husband could not pay the loan and the group had to

sell the sheep in order to pay the sum owed towards the loan. This sent a strong signal to the rest of the members and non-members alike. Since this initial loan incident, non-members never acquired loans from the group because members would not guarantee them.

This group is still in operation after five years since its inception. The group has successfully paid back money owed to the funding NGO that provided the initial funds to the scheme. At the same time, some women now have thriving enterprises emanating from the loans acquired from the group. In addition, the group continues to support agricultural loans, mainly agricultural inputs such as seeds and fertilisers, which were previously not available to them.

(All case studies provided by Mamsamba Joof, Team Leader of ADWAC. The Gambia 2002)

Unit 9 – Aid and Development Assistance

How do we make it better? How to help the developing world may be the most difficult question of this guide. The WARD program in The Gambia presents one alternative to development assistance, one that facilitates development from the bottom up (involvement by those that need assistance) as opposed to top down (imposed by those who are granting assistance). The activities in this unit will address WARD's model of development and the more controversial question: Should we be helping the developing world by supplying aid at all?

These first two activities examine several short articles about aid and allow students to reflect on the different opinions about the usefulness of aid. The question of "Does Aid Matter?" is genuinely discussed and debated.

Activity three looks at Canadian Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) and Aid Agencies and their role in development assistance. This activity provides students with an opportunity to investigate an aid agency on their own and to analyze what they feel makes an effective aid agency.

The developed world says it wants to help the developing world, but is the intention sincere? In the 1990's the United Nations (UN) set forth the UN Millennium Development Goals to end poverty by 2015. This was a lofty plan, and some say one that followed a process that was too top down or too prescribed by the developed world. In Activity 4, students will assess these goals and whether they can be realistically reached by 2015.

Canada's main governmental aid agency, the Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA), is the topic of the final activity. Should we be using taxpayer's money for foreign aid? What areas and what nations should we be focusing on? Two articles, one in defence of CIDA and the other critical of CIDA, are presented in this activity. To conclude the unit students are involved in a classic pro and con debate about the usefulness of CIDA and its mandate to help assist developing countries.

Unit 9 – Aid and Development Assistance

Activity 1: About Aid

<u>Purpose:</u> To examine the concept of development aid from several perspectives and to provide information on how aid can be reformed to make it more effective.

<u>Materials:</u>

- About Aid handouts for each student
- Six Rules for Real Aid handout for each student
- Six Rules for Real Aid transparency
- Overhead projector

<u>Time:</u> 1 to $1\frac{1}{2}$ hours

Notes on Use:

One of the biggest and most controversial areas of economics and development is the issue of aid. This activity is the first of two that focuses on this important question. The activity revolves around a series of readings that are used in a "jigsaw puzzle" approach – different groups read different articles and share their readings with the whole group, resulting in a more complete picture of the issue. It is followed by a look at "real aid" principles based on reaching the poorest and reforming the "aid machine."

Note: The activity involves summarizing five short articles on different aspects of aid. Summary writing is a difficult and complex task. Review the basics of summary writing, including the need to **paraphrase and condense the main points rather than just reading the entire article.** By working with their group to identify key ideas and condense them, the students are working with the material in a way that will increase their understanding of the sections while helping other students grasp the gist of the text being summarized and presented.

Procedure:

- 1. Divide class into five groups. Assign each group a different *About Aid* reading. Give groups 20 minutes to read the article together and discuss it. Explain that they will present a summary of their article and their comments on it to the class. Go over again the concept of a summary identifying the main ideas of an article and paraphrasing them (restating them in your own words). The purpose is to condense the article so that other students can be presented with just the key elements. Ask the groups to write their summary which can be in point form on a separate sheet of notepaper so that they are not tempted to simply read the article aloud.
- 2. When the small groups are ready, have the groups present the summaries of their readings to the class. The groups should summarize the main points rather than reading the article aloud. Make sure they highlight the main ideas from their article.

- 3. Allow time for questions and discussion.
- 4. Ask students to return to their small groups. Place the following on the flip chart: "If you were in charge of changing international aid to make it more successful in assisting developing nations, what six rules would you create?" Allow the groups about 15 minutes to discuss the question and arrive at their six rules. Have them record their rules on a sheet of flip chart paper and post these on the wall. Have the groups read their rules and explain why they decided on these.
- 5. Put the *Six Rules for Real Aid* on the overhead. Go over each one and discuss. Compare the results of the class's work to the rules developed by aid reformers. How are they similar? How are they different?

Debriefing:

How does aid help developing countries? How can it create problems? What are the biggest obstacles to making aid work effectively and reach those in the greatest need? How will this information on aid affect community development workers such as those in The Gambia?



Unit 9 – Aid and Development Assistance Activity 1 Handout A

ABOUT AID #1: THE BENEFITS OF RECEIVING AID

What motivates a country to seek and accept financial assistance from abroad? There are three main reasons:

- 1. Economic Reasons
- 2. Political reasons
- 3. Moral reasons

Economic Reasons

Clearly the most important reason why countries seek and accept aid is for the purpose of economic development. There are three general economic reasons to accept aid:

Supplementing the lack of domestic resources such as foreign exchange

Enabling infrastructure changes to be made to the economy such as dams and roads

Contributing to the take-off phase in sustained economic growth

Usually both donor and recipient countries agree about the purpose of aid. There is often less agreement about the amount and the conditions placed upon recipient country by the donor country that lends it. Recipient countries would prefer to have aid in the form of grants with no conditions, such as the structural adjustment programs of the World Bank, and not tied to a donor country's exports. Donor countries often argue that this results in resources being 'wasted' on military goods or supporting inefficient bureaucratic government enterprises, such as extravagant parliament buildings, or being corruptly appropriated by government officials.

Political reasons

In some cases foreign aid is seen as being necessary in order to maintain power. Often foreign aid in the form of military goods provides the power base that suppresses opposition and maintains the existing government in power. During the period of the cold war such aid was donated to maintain the balance of power between the industrialized West and the Soviet Union within the continent of Africa.

Moral reasons

Many people within the Less-Developed Countries (LDCs) and the More-Developed Countries (MDCs) consider that the MDCs have a moral responsibility to provide development assistance for the poorer countries. This may be because of basic humanitarian reasons or a feeling that the

colonial powers such as the UK that occupied countries such as The Gambia and Ghana have a responsibility to redistribute resources, having exploited so many of the resources of the LDCs during colonization.

Adapted from Biz/ed website: http://www.bized.ac.uk/virtual/dc/

ABOUT AID #2: THE ARGUMENTS AGAINST FOREIGN AID

Most West African nations have been recipients of considerable foreign aid over the years. There are a number of arguments put forward against development assistance. The arguments come from different philosophical standpoints.

The political right argues that foreign aid will have a number of negative effects

Foreign aid crowds out private investment

Foreign Development Assistance may provide funding for production that the private sector might have invested in for commercial reasons. This argument is used against some of the micro credit facilities operated by NGOs. Micro credit lends comparatively small sums of money to small-scale entrepreneurs. This could have been undertaken by commercial banks that might have operated this service on a more commercial and profitable basis. It creates and perpetuates a welfare dependency.

Foreign Aid distorts markets

Transfers of low interest loans or grants to fill the savings or foreign exchange gaps will interfere in the market determination of interest rates and exchange rates.

Foreign aid funds inefficient infrastructure projects

Supporting projects that are non-commercially viable may give benefits such as reducing unemployment whilst the project is being constructed. However, when the development assistance is withdrawn the project may fail to stand on its own feet and either collapse or require additional funding.

Foreign aid falls into the hands of corrupt officials

The political left argues that foreign aid will also create problems

Foreign aid leads to a culture of dependency

Dependency theory argues that aid ensures the continuation of the LDCs on the periphery and the dominance of the MDCs in the core. The LDCs, rather than relying on transfers of funds from the MDCs, need to build and develop from within their own capabilities and not depend upon the funding and the conditions required by the donor countries providing the funding. The 'Trade not Aid 'slogan is often used as a watchword for this argument. MDCs do have a responsibility to ensure that LDCs are not financed through aid but to ensure that the exports of the LDCs are able to have access into the markets of the MDCs at realistic prices.

Foreign aid focuses on the modern commercial sector

Considerable multilateral aid into LDCs has been focused on areas of the economy which are considered to stimulate economic growth. However, this assistance is not always welcomed or accepted.

Adapted from Biz/ed website: <u>http://www.bized.ac.uk/virtual/dc/</u>

ABOUT AID #3: DEVELOPMENT ASSISTANCE PHILOSOPHY

In the two decades following Independence, development assistance focused very much on trying to simulate economic growth. The prevailing view was that increased incomes of the business community would trickle down to those people dependent on it for their incomes. Large aid projects such the Akosombo dam in Ghana certainly contributed to West Africa's economic growth of the period; however, there is considerable evidence that while growth occurred, levels of absolute poverty continued or worsened. In addition, the promised "spillover" benefits (e.g., fishing, manufacturing) never occurred.

Increasingly poverty became central to those organisations involved with development assistance, and in the 1970s much development assistance was aimed at basic human needs and integrated rural development. Both public development assistance (such as that from the NGOs) and private development assistance targeted much of their assistance at specific projects. This was often at rural community level, such as providing access to clean water and primary health care, and teaching farmers new skills. However, aid projects were often criticised because they failed to involve the institutions and infrastructure of the communities.

The 1980s were a difficult time for foreign aid organisations. The decade produced a number of crises that impacted on the LDCs. Food crises and the World Debt crisis both took their toll with the plight of the LDCs being given high media profile. There was growing public discontent with many aid organizations, which were considered to be overly bureaucratic and failing to effectively target poverty reduction. Populist movements such as Band Aid and Live Aid were seen as having more of an immediate impact than the existing NGOs and official aid.

Overseas development assistance (ODA) still continued providing funds for infrastructure projects such as dams, community involvement, and food relief programs. Much official development assistance was accompanied with strict macroeconomic stabilisation conditions and structural adjustment programs aimed at creating an economic environment where economic growth might flourish. Some development economists argued that the theory of trickle-down was still underlying much of the assistance.

There was once again a need to find ways in which poverty reduction became the main focus of development assistance. A new approach to an old problem was needed. In the late 1980s microfinance had emerged as a possible solution. Many microfinance schemes were started and supported by Non-Governmental Organisations.

Adapted from Biz/ed website: http://www.bized.ac.uk/virtual/dc/

ABOUT AID #4: TYPES OF FOREIGN AID

The term "Foreign Aid" is a broad one. It refers to any money or resources that is transferred from one country to another without expecting full repayment. It does not include private foreign direct investment such as inward investment by multilateral corporations, nor does it include preferential tariff reductions offered by MDCs to LDCs enabling them easy access for their exports into the markets of the MDCs.

To be considered foreign aid a flow of funds should meet two simple criteria:

- 1. It should be non-commercial from the donors point of view
- 2. It should be concessional so that the interest and repayment is less stringent or softer than commercial terms

Foreign aid includes all grants and concessional or soft loans that are intended to transfer resources from MDCs to LDCs with the intention of fostering economic development. Most studies considered concessional loans are those that have a grant element at 25% or more. Foreign aid can be divided into public development assistance and private development assistance:

- Public or Official Development Assistance
- Individual government assistance, known as bilateral aid
- Multilateral donor agencies such as the IMF and World Banks offering multilateral aid
- Private Development Assistance
- Private non-governmental organisations (NGOs) such as the Red Cross, Oxfam

A considerable amount of foreign aid is tied aid. Here the grants or concessionary loans have conditions laid down by the donor country about how the money should be used. Tied means that the recipient country receiving the aid must spend it on the exports of the donor country. Tied aid by project means that the donor country requires the recipient country to spend it on a specific project such a road or a dam. Often this might be to the commercial or economic benefit of the firms in the donor country. For example their engineers might be the designers of the project.

Adapted from Biz/ed website: <u>http://www.bized.ac.uk/virtual/dc/</u>

ABOUT AID #5: WHY DO DONOR COUNTRIES GIVE AID?

Donor countries generally give aid because it is in their own interest to do so. Undoubtedly some aid is given with humanitarian motives in mind; however, most foreign aid is given for variety of political, strategic and economic reasons that benefit the donor countries in the longer term.

Political reasons

During the period of the cold war in the 1960s, 1970s and 1980s much development assistance was given to LDCs in order to maintain politically acceptable governments and the supply of natural resources that many LDCs produced. The fear of LDCs becoming allied to the former Soviet Union motivated considerable foreign aid from the west. Likewise the Soviet Union also provided development assistance to countries to maintain their allegiance.

Economic reasons

Filling the gaps

Providing aid to LDCs ensures that the savings gap and the foreign exchange gap are filled. For domestic investment to take place domestic savings must also occur. If these are absent then a flow of development assistance can help finance investment projects. Likewise, an inflow of foreign exchange may also enable LDCs to import foreign capital considered necessary for economic growth and development. In the case of Zambia, where there have been considerable shortages of foreign exchange earning due to falling commodity prices, inflows of foreign exchange through aid have enabled the capital investment needed to maintain the copper industry. However, some economists argue that aid for capital investment can be antidevelopmental as more capital intensive production in countries may contribute to increasing levels of unemployed and consequential poverty. It should also be mentioned that if development assistance is given to fill the foreign exchange gap there should also be technical assistance to ensure that the capital is efficiently used.

Self Interest of Donor Countries

Less and less development assistance is given in the form of outright grants and increasingly interest is being charged albeit at concessionary rates. Tied aid is also becoming more prevalent. Tied aid occurs where conditions are place by the donor upon the recipient about what they use the aid assistance for. Usually the recipients are required to purchase the exports of the donors. This may be a more expensive option than purchasing the capital from sources other than the donors. Tied aid may help fill savings and foreign exchange gaps; however, it may not always be in the best interests of the recipient country.

Adapted from Biz/ed website: <u>http://www.bized.ac.uk/virtual/dc/</u>



Unit 9 – Aid and Development Assistance Activity 1 Handout B / Overhead A

Six Rules for Real Aid

Rule 1: Aim at the poorest – Aid has to be targeted at development projects working with and run by the landless labourers, sharecroppers, tenant farmers, and urban jobless who make up the bottom 40% of the world's population.

Rule 2: Mobilise the poor – The poor are usually the least organised and, therefore, the least powerful, which is one of the reasons why they remain poor. Support should be extended to initiatives by the poor to organize themselves to fight politically, and to gain some control over the decision which affect their lives.

Rule 3: Fit aid to countries – The governments of developing countries have different development strategies. Those governments which are most successful at reducing corruption and at directing development at the poor are, often, those which the western countries of the North are not aligned with politically. If the objective of aid is to alleviate poverty then an emphasis should be made on those countries which are most effective at doing so.

Rule 4: Rebuild the aid machine – Almost invariably, the most effective agents of development are people's organisations, e.g., Women's groups, trade unions, cooperatives, community movements. Government to government aid tends not to find its way to such organisations. This should be changed, either by diverting more official aid through national agencies which do support people's initiatives, or by creating a new International Development Agency.

Rule 5: Abolish tied aid – Many donor countries use their aid budgets to make subsidies to their own firms trying to win contracts to supply steel mills, copper refineries, to developing countries. This is not really aid at all and should either be stopped or taken from other budgets.

Rule 6: Have an independent audit – The aid programmes of donor countries should be regularly assessed by the people who will be most critical and demanding – i.e., the development agencies and the people working at the grassroots in the South.

Adapted from Teaching Development Issues Section 7 by Dave Cooke et al.
Unit 9 – Aid and Development Assistance

Activity 2: Does Aid Matter?

Purpose: To examine different opinions on the usefulness of aid.

<u>Materials:</u>

- Six *Does Aid Matter* handouts for each student
- Example of summary of handout #1 (*No, but...*) on transparency
- Flip chart and markers
- Overhead projector

Time: 1 hour

Notes on Use:

This exercise continues the examination of aid, this time in terms of its benefit to developing countries. The activity uses an article adapted from a *New Internationalist* in which six development workers/experts give different opinions on the significance of aid. The opinions are organized in increasing order of importance, i.e., from "aid doesn't matter " to "aid does matter."

In recognition of the difficulty of some of these positions and the problems with summary writing (see previous activity), and example of a summary – in this case of the first reading – is provided to help groups see what a summary of this material might look like.

Procedure:

- 1. Ask students to think of some reasons why aid still matters in today's world. After this has been discussed, ask them to think of reasons why it should be stopped.
- 2. Have all students turn to the six *Does Aid Matter*? Handouts. Tell the groups that each is going to be assigned one of the positions to summarize for the class. Review the concept of a summary (see previous exercise) Then have students turn to the first article, *No*, *but*... Have them read the piece silently. Once they have read it, place the summary (below) on the overhead and discuss it. Does the summary capture the main ideas in the article? Does it make it simpler to understand?
- 3. Divide the students into five groups. Assign one of the five remaining *Does Aid Matter?* handouts to each group. Ask students to read their assigned opinion silently or aloud as a group, then discuss what they have read in their small groups. Tell students that after 15 minutes of reading and discussion, and the preparation of a written summary that does not simply restate the article but identifies the main points and condenses the argument they will present the article to the class by summarizing the main points that the author makes, and whether or not they agree with it.

- 4. The groups should present in order of their opinions, from two to six. As they present, write down their article's heading (e.g., 1. *No, but...;* 2. *Not much*) on the flip chart with space on the left to write numbers. Once all groups have presented, discuss the various opinions on aid, encouraging students to draw on their personal experience with foreign aid.
- 5. To complete the exercise, go back over the six opinions on aid. This time, by a show of hands, identify which opinion the individual students most agree with. Ask each person to examine the six opinions and decide which one he or she most supports. Then as you go through the opinions, have people supporting that position raise their hands. Record the number of supporters to the left of each opinion.
- 6. For each item one or more people have selected, have a volunteer explain why he or she most agreed with that position. Discuss. Was there general agreement? A wide range of points of view? Why?

Debriefing:

Given the different perspectives on the relevance of aid that have been presented and your own experience, what do you think – does aid matter?



Unit 9 – Aid and Development Assistance Activity 2 Overhead A

Does Aid Matter?

1. No, but...

Aid is a Western idea of charity that is being forced on the rest of the world. It is an old technique used to keep down unrest and demands for justice. But the fact is the major issues in the world are solved by political action, not charity. In fact, the more aid that is provided, the less the real reasons – the political reasons – for such atrocities as famine are ignored. It's not a matter of determining what aid organizations can operate where. We need to get back to finding out who is to blame, who is guilty, what policies have caused the problems. If there is a famine in Africa, instead of people being held accountable and disciplined, international aid organization administrators actually benefit through increased activity and promotions.



1. No, but...

Aid is essentially a Western, Anglo-Saxon model of charitable endeavour that's being imposed on the rest of the world. It goes back to Elizabethan times when Queen Elizabeth's Privy Councillors – wise, cynical souls that they were – saw the dissolution of the monasteries as creating unrest, even famine. They realized that the best way to keep a lid on unrest is to promote charitable endeavour. The truth of that insight echoes down the centuries, reinforced by the 1961 court judgment on Amnesty International which said: 'Justice is political, justice is not charitable. Amnesty cannot be a charity.'

The reality is that if you look at major problems – such as civil war and famine – around the world, the way they are solved is not through charitable action, it's through political action. The more resources – financial, political and intellectual – that are put into the charitable/technical model, the more the political discourse withers on the vine.

What's happening is that international law is being rewritten by the UN Security Council to take any element of criminality or moral deviance out of famine and invert it, so that the only moral issue is: Are Médécins sans Frontières or Oxfam allowed to operate? Which of course is completely beside the point. What we need to do is put back culpability and guilt – up to and including criminal guilt – into these situations, which is an act of solidarity with the victims. There are all sorts of public, transparent processes to go through to find out who's guilty, who's innocent, who behaved heroically, what mechanical procedures were at fault. In provincial India, if there's a massive food shortage, Members of Parliament or senior civil servants lose their jobs. If there's a famine in Africa international civil servants get promoted.

Alex de Waal works for African Rights.



2. Not much

Aid is decreasing and perhaps it does not matter, if one considers the way it is used. I don't think it is effective in terms of reaching the poor. All I do know is that very, very few people benefit from it. The poor remain poor.

If aid ended, life would still go on. It would only change for the people who benefit from aid. They are driven in huge cars and without it they would be forced to ride bicycles and would definitely lose weight. Resources benefit those people who are better placed to exploit them. Who, in the first place, negotiates aid? Who defines what are considered the 'development needs' of a country?

People in powerful positions also happen to be men, and it is not always true to say that they represent the poor. Some have lived in positions of power so long that they have forgotten what it means to be poor. There are many people who are getting poorer despite aid, and because of aid. It is as if there is some kind of strategic silence about the fate of the extremely poor: 'Let them pull their socks up! If they do not have any, let them borrow from the non-governmental organizations!'

Take the example of aid and the conditions that are imposed before it is given, like democracy and human rights in the receiving country. What is meant by democracy? Who defines it? To most people 'democracy' means one man, one vote. The man who casts that one vote is as much a tyrant at home with his family as the one he votes for. Both are in their sixties. Are they going to learn democratic values in the afternoon of their lives? No. Democracy starts at home and in other institutions such as schools and churches. Yet when one raises issues of the family, gender relations, patriarchy, one is told that these are 'cultural' issues. We are talking about power relations here. Where does 'culture' come in?

Poor people should be able to have a say. In fact they have said many times over that they know what their problems are. They want food, schools, hospitals. But beyond that they want to build a strong, democratic society.

Hope Chigudu works for the Zimbabwe Women's Resource Centre and Network, Harare.



3. Sometimes

A lot of us who were very much for aid as a tool for development have become a bit disillusioned about how effectively it has been used.

Along with the move to private enterprise, it is non-governmental organizations (NGOs) which have been identified as healthy, rather than the state. Everyone is very critical of the Government of India, say, for its failure to deliver effectively to the poorest of the poor, to low-caste people and to women. The reason they are so critical is because it has been documented – it's out there in the public domain, it's published. When we come to NGO evaluation – nothing. Absolutely nothing!

'Gender' has served a lot of these organizations in the same way as 'empowerment' and 'participation', as a trendy label. Women, as long as they suffer from gender subordination, are not going to be a politically volatile category to work with. 'You need people to do free community healthcare for you? Right! We'll get the women. You need people to plant trees for you for free? We'll get the women.'

We do not want aid to be an accepted feature of North/South relationships into the indefinite future. We would like a world where aid is limited to humanitarian crisis, conflict situations, rather than an integral aspect of development. Because aid does breed dependency, it is always on the terms of the giver. But if you were to pull aid out of Africa or Bangladesh completely tomorrow, I don't know if anyone on the Left would be prepared to take on the responsibility for what might happen. The Left got it wrong because they forgot that issues around basic needs don't take care of themselves in very poor countries.

Naila Kabeer has written extensively on gender and development and is a Fellow of the Institute of Development Studies, University of Sussex.



4. Maybe

Aid that builds, that is responsive to national processes, enhances local, collective and democratic processes. Aid – sitting where I am sitting – is more than a supplement. It is the bulk of our resources. It is the thing that determines how economies evolve, how policies nationally are made.

Changes in the global system have suddenly abandoned the processes that created support for Africans. During the past 15 years, as Africa remained a candidate for aid, there was nonetheless a massive outflow of capital from the continent; there is still a massive outflow of capital. Commitments were made between Africa and the rest of the world to undertake economic restructuring. In exchange our so-called global partners undertook to resolve the debt problem and reduce net transfers. That didn't happen. Those promises were not kept.

It would be a sad thing to put the blame on aid, despite the callousness of transnational companies who have influenced aid policies in their own interests. We'd be backing the wrong horse if we put too much weight on the idea that aid has failed Africa.

Charles Abugre works for the Integrated Social Development Centre (ISODEC) in Accra, Ghana and, with Yao Graham, is also head of Third World Network, Africa.



5. Yes, but...

The secret of development is now seen in prudent fiscal and monetary policies, control of inflation and increasing savings. A lot is left to the market. This is known as the 'Washington Consensus'. But while such liberalization may raise world income as a whole it creates greater inequalities, both between and within countries. The World Bank and the IMF are very worried about these inequalities and the way Africa, for instance, is left out.

Aid will only work if it is a genuine contract, with obligations on both donors and recipients. What happens is that the countries do not accept the structural-adjustment programme that the World Bank or the IMF imposes on them, but they say they agree with it in order to get the money. At the first occasion they drop the programme, or it breaks down – it may have been unrealistic from the beginning.

Just think of it. You have a three-week IMF or World Bank mission consisting of monetary macro-economists from Washington, most of them with a PhD from Chicago. The group goes into a country that they know nothing about for three weeks and they sit together with people from the Central Bank and the Ministry of Finance, who are also monetary macro-economists – in fact many of them will have been former staff members of the IMF and World Bank. The real economy of the country is not represented at all. There's nobody there who looks after the interests of agriculture or industry. There's not much discussion of social problems, of employment, of income distribution and no data on poverty. It is, to my mind, a very unsatisfactory way of evolving these programmes.

Five or six years ago I was pretty desperate about the kind of thing I've been saying today. Everything was in vain. But now I'm much more hopeful again. The drawbacks of the 'Washington Consensus' are much more visible now, and more widely accepted.

Sir Hans Singer was present at the Bretton Woods Conference in 1944 and is now Emeritus Professor at the University of Sussex.



6. Yes

Christian Aid still has to take very seriously our relationship with lots and lots of very local communities across the world. Whilst they ask us to stand by them and support them I think we must do our best to do so. When I talk about 'walking on two legs' that's one of them. The other is campaigning on the structures that seem to go on maintaining and indeed creating poverty. There's been a considerable shift in this direction in the last few years. But we mustn't just shout to fulfill our own needs. We must ask: 'Is this really making a difference?' I think, in some cases, it is.

As a Christian who fulminates against religious fundamentalists I have a right to fulminate against economic fundamentalists. Questioning the economic order seems to be out for them – they really do have a passionate or fundamentalist faith in it. But the evidence grows that structural-adjustment programmes – not least in Africa – are not working, and that despite or because of this economic system poverty persists.

We used to think that the problem was in the South and the resources for tackling it were in the North. We now have to accept that the problem is everywhere. We have to create instruments – international, global, lobbying, research, policy networks – where the North and the South work together. Of course, sitting here as Christian Aid, one thing I'm very concerned to do is to maximize the huge potential of the churches network around the world.

If people see governments cutting aid, at the very least they should be asking loud questions. Are you cutting it because you think the reality of world poverty is less than it was? Are you cutting it because you think governments of the Western world don't have responsibilities towards the poor? What is your alternative strategy? Is it really a better way of fulfilling your responsibilities – and ours as part of the people you govern – towards the poor of the world?

Michael Taylor is Director of Christian Aid.

Unit 9 – Aid and Development Assistance

Activity 3: NGOs and Development Assistance

<u>Purpose:</u> To examine Canadian Non-Governmental Organizations (NGO) Aid Agencies and their role in Development Assistance.

<u>Materials:</u>

- Copy of *History of the Nova Scotia Gambia Association* or use the website <u>www.novascotiagambia.ca</u>
- Copy of What is an NGO?
- Canadian Agencies Working in Africa Appendix B

<u>**Time:**</u> $2\frac{1}{2}$ to 3 hours

Notes on Use:

This activity will involve the use of computer research. Students can use a computer lab or computers in the school library to research an NGO. Ideally students should have access to one computer for every two students. Before the teacher assigns the questions regarding the Nova Scotia – Gambia Association they should read the article and answer the questions for themselves.

Procedure:

- 1. From the video *The Gambia: Communities in Action*, students should have a sense of what an NGO is, such as the West African Rural Development (WARD) agency and the role they play in providing development assistance to developing countries. The teacher should review that NGO's are not formally attached to a government but they often work closely with and receive money from governments in order to provide development assistance to people in Africa and other parts of the world.
- 2. Make copies of the handouts entitled *What is an NGO*? and the *Nova Scotia Gambia Association History* (or have the students use the website <u>www.novascotiagambia.ca</u>) and provide them to the students. Have the students read the handout on the Nova Scotia Gambia Association and answer the questions in their Journal or on a separate piece of paper. Afterward, the teacher may wish to assess the answers for completion or simply take them up as a class to ensure every student understands the questions and provides appropriate answers.
- 3. Organize the students into groups of two and distribute copies of the list of NGO's handout (*Canadian Agencies Working in Africa*) and have the students select an NGO to research using computers and the Internet. Using the link provided on the list of NGO's have the students answer the same questions they did for the Nova Scotia Gambia

Association but this time they research answers for their chosen NGO. For most of the listed web-sites there are links called <u>About us</u> or <u>Who we are</u>, <u>Projects</u>, <u>Where your</u> <u>money goes</u>, <u>Budget</u> etc., that provide background information on the NGO. Students may have to use several links on the website to eventually answer all of the questions. Students may also use the search tool for each website, if one is provided, to find their information. As well, students may use search engines (Google) to find more information, outside of the NGO's website, about the NGO. One of the informal outcomes of this assignment is to allow students to become familiar with finding information on an NGO website.

4. If teachers wishes to formally assess this assignment, they can have the students hand in the questions. The work can be assessed for satisfactory completion and/or quality or writing in the answers.

Debrief:

As an extension activity, have students choose an NGO from the list – *Canadian Agencies Working in Africa*. Have them visit the organization's website for additional information and email the NGO if they have further questions.

With the students in groups, have them discuss *What is an NGO*? and compare their answers in relation to the organization they had selected.

Place the questions on an overhead and have each group spokesperson report back to the entire class about their organization. On the basis of the information reported, which NGOs would the class endorse, which would the give money to and which would they volunteer with.



History of the Nova Scotia – Gambia Association

The Nova Scotia – Gambia Association (NSGA) began in 1985 as a high school-based, one-shot development education project. Through a series of inter-related projects, it has grown into an organization that is a major force in education in The Gambia. Most recently, NSGA has initiated a project in Sierra Leone.

NSGA was incorporated in 1989 under the Societies Act of Nova Scotia as a voluntary nonprofit development education and assistance organization. It has a fifteen member Board of Directors. NSGA supports a modest Field Office in The Gambia, a Project Support Office in Sierra Leone, and a small head office in Halifax. NSGA supports busy field offices in The Gambia and Sierra Leone, and a head office in Halifax staffed by well-qualified and experienced volunteers.

The Association has operated from project to project, with or without CIDA or other grants, always on a shoe-string budget and with volunteer labor. NSGA has attracted more than \$1.5 million in matching grants from national and international funders. NSGA has raised more than \$500,000 through fund raising activities and students' contributions, and has had the benefit of perhaps a million dollars worth of in-kind contributions. Individual participation has led to linkages with local schools, universities, service clubs, church organizations and other community groups. One person's involvement has often led to a whole family's support in project activities.

A Delegation Visits The Gambia

In 1980, a small delegation of Nova Scotians traveled to The Gambia to explore the possibility of Canadian linkages with two Gambian institutions: Gambia College, which was seeking to build up its programs in teacher training and agriculture, and The Gambia Technical Training Institute (GTTI), which was still in the conceptual stage. Certainly the group did not foresee the complex network that would develop between individuals, groups, institutions and communities in Nova Scotia and The Gambia.

The University College of Cape Breton (recently renamed University of Cape Breton), the first Nova Scotian institution to work in The Gambia, was invited to assist in the establishment of GTTI. In accepting a position at the fledgling GTTI, Burris Devanney, current NSGA Executive Director, developed a personal commitment to The Gambia that embraced his family as well. Their extensive network of colleagues, friends and acquaintances continues to support activities years later. Youth and Education: Project Mainstays Gambia Project I was born when Burris Devanney returned to Canada in September 1984. Although Burris had returned to Canada, he found it impossible to leave The Gambia experience behind. As vice-principal of Halifax West High School, he initiated an educational visit to West Africa. Several months of orientation and fund raising led to a one-week trip to The Gambia in March 1986 by nineteen students and two teachers. The project's uniqueness attracted a great deal of media attention in Canada and \$13,700 in financial support from the Canadian Secretary of State.

This first project set out the principles that have governed future projects of the Association. It was conducted as a development education experience for the students. It emphasized the concept of "learning by doing", of learning through active involvement. It included a development assistance component, providing an opportunity to do what tourists usually cannot do – visit schools, villages and rural development projects and learn, at first hand, about some of the issues confronting a less developed country. Students reciprocate this hospitality by contributing, from fund raising, to community development projects in schools and villages. It set out to establish linkages between groups and institutions in Nova Scotia and The Gambia, in this case two high schools.

The students' enthusiasm was infectious. It spread to staff members at Halifax West and to teachers in other schools and then to other institutions, including Dalhousie and Saint Mary's Universities.

Subsequent NSGA projects have included:

- university-level development education courses at Canadian universities,
- summer school skills upgrading programs in English, Mathematics and French (offered in The Gambia with the volunteer graduates of university B.Ed. programs),
- a program to improve delivery of environment education in secondary schools, emphasizing stewardship and appropriate environmental behavior, through training for teachers, improved resource materials and support of school-based projects,
- programs exploring students' guidance needs and the professional development of Gambian school counsellors,
- peer health education programs in both Nova Scotia and The Gambia (and now in Sierra Leone),
- establishment of youth health education and counseling centres in high schools throughout The Gambia,
- a program to repatriate almudos (young boys in the "care" of local Koranic teachers known as marabouts) to their home villages and off urban streets,
- a "mini-university" summer program in both Canada and The Gambia to expose youth to the university culture, and
- the University Extension Program, in conjunction with Saint Mary's University and the Government of The Gambia, which led to the formation of the University of The Gambia.

NSGA has also co-operated with other Nova Scotia institutions on their projects in The Gambia, most notably the linkage between the Nova Scotia Agricultural College (NSAC) in Truro and the School of Agriculture at Gambia College, and Dalhousie University with the School of

Education at Gambia College. Both these projects involved training of Gambian faculty, cooperative curriculum development between Gambian and Canadian faculty, and the provision of equipment and education materials.

Currently, NSGA is working with Mount Saint Vincent University on a community policing initiative.

Partnerships

NSGA has established a cross-cultural network of individuals, groups and institutions that share ideas, skills, experience and creative enthusiasm. This partnership demonstrates a remarkable web of relationships. The result is not only Nova Scotians and Gambians working together, but Gambians working more effectively with Gambians, and Nova Scotians with Nova Scotians.

Along the way, the NSGA has attracted a small army of converts to development work. Over 600 Canadians have been provided with an intense, first-hand experience of life in one of the smallest countries in the developing world. More than 30 Gambians have had the opportunity to study or be trained briefly in Canada, in addition to those Gambians who traveled to Canada on our partners' projects. In The Gambia, in just the last health education program alone, more than 80 percent of all secondary students (approximately 90,000) participated.

The Road Ahead

The activities of the Nova Scotia – Gambia Association in the area of development education and development assistance in the past twenty years have been significant. It has stirred the hearts and imaginations of hundreds of Nova Scotians and other Canadians, Gambians and Sierra Leoneans who want to become involved in community-based international development work. The opportunities for learning and doing provided by NSGA have attracted ordinary (and perhaps a few extraordinary) people of diverse ages, education and backgrounds. They personally bear witness that practically any of us can become truly energized and effective when confronted with practical ideals, achievable goals and an interesting, challenging process. They remain eager to continue their participation in this work in progress.

Adapted from www.novascotiagambia.ca



What is an NGO?: The Nova Scotia – Gambia Case Study

- 1. When did the NGO begin and why was it founded.
- 2. Where is the head office of the NGO?
- 3. In general terms what does the NGO provide to people in Africa? For example does it provide health care, education or food aid? Also indicate whether the NGO provides aid to several African countries or is its aid tied to just one country.
- 4. Who is in charge of the day-to-day operations (the Chief Executive Office or Executive Director) of the NGO? Do they have a Board of Directors? How many members are on the Board and who are some of its members. What do they do for careers/jobs other than being on the NGO's Board of Directors.
- 5. How many permanent members (employees) work for the NGO? How many people volunteer for the NGO?
- 6. How does the NGO get its money and what is its yearly budget or total budget (money raised) so far?
- 7. What percentage of its total budget goes directly to people the NGO is trying to help and what percent goes toward administrative costs?
- 8. Write a paragraph about of the type of work or projects (provide specific examples) the NGO does in Africa.
- 9. Write about how effective you feel this NGO is in providing development aid to Africa. Provide several reasons for your answer.
- 10. Describe whether or not you would provide money to this NGO or perhaps even volunteer or work for the NGO.
- 11. Rate the website. Discuss how useful the website was in finding your information. Is it easy to find information on the NGO's website? Is it easy to read and do you like the layout and graphics?

Unit 9 – Aid and Development Assistance

Activity 4: UN Millennium Development Goals

Purpose: To identify and understand the UN Millennium Development Goals and to assess whether or not the goals can be realistically reached by 2015.

<u>Materials:</u>

- Overhead and handout: UN Millennium Development Goals (MDGs)
- Article *Fixing the Aid System*
- The Economist article "The Magnificent Seven"

<u>**Time:**</u> 1 to $1\frac{1}{2}$ hours

Notes on Use:

World leaders established the UN Millennium Development Goals at the Millennium Summit in 2000. These leaders committed their nations to a new global partnership to reduce extreme poverty in the world. The Summit committed those nations to time bound targets by 2015. These targets have become known as the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). This activity will introduce students to the goals, help students analyze how to fix the development aid system, and have them critically analyze whether these goals are achievable. The last reading, the *Magnificent Seven*, discusses how impoverished villages can transform themselves and hopefully meet the Millennium Development Goals.

Procedure:

- 1. Using the handout *UN Millennium Development Goals*, make an overhead to introduce the goals to the students and initiate a discussion around the goals. The teacher may wish to ask questions such as:
 - What do each of the goals mean?
 - Can students put them in their own words so they understand them better? Are these good goals for developing countries?
 - Can the MDG goals be achieved by 2015?
 - Should we concentrate on one goal first?
 - How should developed countries, such as Canada, be involved in order to achieve these goals?
- 2. Divide the students into groups of three to four students and provide them with the handout *Fixing the Aid System*. Have the groups discuss the 10 ways needed to fix the aid system and have the groups list and summarize, in one or two lines, the 10 ways needed to fix the aid system.

- 3. Afterward, **debrief** as a class asking some probing questions such as:
 - Can the system be fixed?
 - Which problem would they try to fix first, and why?
 - How can we as Canadians, as young people, influence change in order to fix the aid system?
- 4. Hand out the article *The Magnificent Seven* and have the students write a one page (two to three paragraph) summary of the article in the their journal. This article is about how a few simple reforms can lift African villages out of poverty. This is a refreshing solution to fixing the aid problem that students should find interesting. Also, have them answer the following question in one paragraph.
 - To what extent will the Millennium Project reduce world poverty, especially in Africa, by the year 2015? Remind them that a "to what extent" question requires their opinion and reasons for their opinion on the subject.

<u>Debrief</u>

At the end of the lesson, the teacher may choose to have students share their thoughts, recorded in their journals, about whether the concept of Millennium Villages can significantly reduce poverty by the year 2015.



Unit 9 – Aid and Development Assistance Activity 4 Overhead A / Handout A

The Millennium Development Goals

AT the Millennium Summit in September world leaders adopted the UN Millennium Declaration. These leaders committed their nations to a new global partnership to reduce extreme poverty in the world. The Summit set a series of time bound targets, the deadline of 2015, that have become known as the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs).

Goal 1: Eradicate Extreme Hunger and Poverty

- Reduce by half the proportion of people living on less than a dollar a day
- Reduce by half the proportion of people who suffer from hunger

Goal 2: Achieve Universal Primary Education

• Ensure that all boys and girls complete a full course of primary schooling

Goal 3: Promote Gender Equality and Empower Women

• Eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education preferably by 2005, and at all levels by 2015

Goal 4: Reduce Child Mortality

• Reduce by two thirds the mortality rate among children under five

Goal 5: Improve Maternal Health

• Reduce by three quarters the maternal mortality ratio

Goal 6: Combat HIV/AIDS, Malaria and other diseases

• Halt and begin to reverse the spread of HIV/AIDS

• Halt and begin to reverse the incidence of malaria and other major diseases

Goal 7: Ensure Environmental Sustainability

- Integrate the principles of sustainable development into country policies and programmes; reverse loss of environmental resources
- Reduce by half the proportion of people without sustainable access to safe drinking water
- Achieve significant improvement in lives of at least 100 million slum dwellers, by 2020

Goal 8: Develop a Global Partnership of Development with developing countries, develop and implement strategies for decent and productive work for youth

- Develop further an open trading and financial system that is rule-based, predictable and non-discriminatory, includes a commitment to good governance, development and poverty reduction nationally and internationally
- Address the least developed countries' special needs. This includes tariff- and quota-free access for their exports; enhanced debt relief for heavily indebted poor countries; cancellation of official bilateral debt; and more generous official development assistance for countries committed to poverty reduction
- Address the special needs of landlocked and small island developing States
- Deal comprehensively with developing countries' debt problems through national and international measures to make debt sustainable in the long term
- In cooperation with the developing countries, develop productive work for youth
- In cooperation with pharmaceutical companies, provide access to affordable essential drugs in developing countries
- In cooperation with the private sector, make available the benefits of new technologies especially information and communications technologies



Fixing the Aid System

The development aid system has the potential to help countries achieve the Millennium Development Goals, but it needs a much more focused approach to do so. Here are the 10 main problems with the system today.

Lack of MDG-based aid processes

The system lacks a coherent MDG-based approach to reducing poverty. For example, the Bretton Woods institutions should do much more to help countries design and implement MDG-based poverty reduction strategies. Inter-national Monetary Fund (IMF) program design has paid almost no systematic attention to the Goals when considering a country's budget or macroeconomic framework. In the vast number of country programs supported by the IMF since the adoption of the Goals, there has been almost no discussion about whether the plans are consistent with achieving them.

In its country-level advisory work, the UN Millennium Project has found that multilateral and bilateral institutions have not encouraged the countries to take the Millennium Development Goals seriously as operational objectives. Many low-income countries have already designed plans to scale up their sector strategies, but due to budget constraints could not implement them. In other cases, countries are advised not even to consider such scaled-up plans. Fortunately, the Bretton Woods institutions are now showing more interest in basing the country programs that they support on the Millennium Development Goals, and it is important for them to follow through on that expressed interest.

Development partners do not approach country-level needs systematically

Since development partnership is not driven by a coherent set of operational targets, there are no clear criteria for evaluating the types or amounts of development assistance required by individual countries. There is no established framework, for instance, for differentiating support to countries with corrupt governments as opposed to those that are weak but willing.

Most development processes are stuck in the short run

Development is a long-term process, but the key processes for international partnership are short term in their orientation. Most important for low-income countries, PRSPs are typically three-year strategies, tending to make many constraints as given rather than identifying ways to overcome them over time. In many cases the actual planning cycles are even shorter, dictated by the annual meetings of Consultative Groups.

Technical support is inadequate for MDG scale-up

Most low-income countries require technical support from the international system to put forward scaled-up investment plans to achieve the Goals. Yet the international agencies that are the global repositories of sector-specific knowledge – such as FAO or IFAD for agriculture, UNICEF for child health, UNIDO for industrial development, or WHO for health systems and disease control – are usually asked instead to focus on small pilot projects. In general, the technical UN agencies on the ground are not prepared to help countries scale up national programs.

Multilateral agencies are not coordinating their support

Multilateral organizations frequently compete for donor government funding to implement small projects, instead of supporting country-scale plans and budgets. The various UN agencies, programs, and funds have begun to coordinate their efforts through the structure of the UN Development Group at headquarters and the UN Country Teams at country level, but this is still often more a forum for dialogue rather than real coordination. Moreover, the UN agencies are frequently not well linked to the local activities of the Bretton Woods institutions and regional development banks, which tend to have the most access in advising a government since they provide the greatest resources.

Development assistance is not set to meet the Goals

As the IMF Managing Director has recently written, it is the developed world that has the greatest responsibility for ensuring the achievement of the Goals. Public investments cannot be scaled up without greatly increased official development assistance. This is particularly important in low-income countries where assistance levels are generally set more by donor preferences than by developing country needs. Although long-term sustainability and capacity building in the poorest countries require support for recurrent costs – such as salaries and maintenance – donors have historically refused to support them, thus preventing any hope of true sustainability. Similarly, even though worker shortages are often the major bottleneck for countries trying to deliver basic social services, donors do not systematically invest in preservice training of health, education, and other key workers. Aid flows are also not growing as fast as promised. Since even the much-heralded Monterrey commitments have not fully materialized, developing countries wonder whether developed countries are genuinely committed to the Goals.

Debt relief is not aligned with the Goals

The targets for debt relief are based on arbitrary indicators (debt-to-export ratios) rather than MDG-based needs. Many heavily indebted poor countries (HIPCs) retain excessive debt owed to official creditors (such as the Bretton Woods institutions) even after relief. Many middle-income countries are in a similar situation and receive little or no debt relief.

Development finance is of very poor quality

The quality of bilateral aid is often very low. It is too often:

- Highly unpredictable.
- Targeted at technical assistance and emergency aid rather than investments, long-term capacity, and institutional support.

- Tied to contractors from donor countries.
- Driven by separate donor objectives rather than coordinated to support a national plan.
- Overly directed to poorly governed countries for geopolitical reasons.
- Almost never evaluated or documented systematically for results.

What advanced economies can do to achieve the Goals

In a recent opinion piece published throughout Africa, IMF Managing Director Rodrigo de Rato y Figadero described how developed countries bear the greatest responsibility for supporting developing countries to achieve the Millennium Development Goals.

"If we are to achieve the Millennium Goals, the heaviest responsibility inevitably must fall on the advanced economies, which have a dual task. First, they must meet their commitment to provide higher levels of aid, whenever possible on grant terms. Current aid flows are insufficient, unpredictable, and often uncoordinated among donors. Better coordination and multiyear commitments are keys to making development assistance more effective.

"Second, the developed countries must improve access to their markets for developing country exports and dismantle trade-distorting subsidies. The framework agreements reached at the World Trade Organization last July are welcome, and place the Doha Round back on track. This needs to be followed by determined progress to maintain the momentum and achieve the goals of the Doha development agenda. In doing so, both rich and poor countries carry responsibilities in promoting the fuller integration of developing countries into the global trading system."

Low-quality official development assistance has fostered the serious misperception that aid does not work and has thereby threatened long-term public support for development assistance. Aid works, and promotes economic growth as well as advances in specific sectors, when it is directed to real investments on the ground in countries with reasonable governance. The problem is not aid – it is how and when aid has been delivered, to which countries, and in what amounts. For low-income countries, only 24 percent of bilateral aid can actually finance investments on the ground. The proportion for multilateral aid is better, at 54 percent, though still well short of ideal.

Major MDG priorities are systematically overlooked

Development programs routinely overlook needed investments in regional integration, environmental management, technological upgrading, efforts to promote gender equality, and even such core investments as roads, electricity, adequate shelter, disease control, soil nutrients, and sexual and reproductive health.

Policy incoherence is pervasive

Many developed countries have identified incoherence as a core problem in their policies. For instance, a government might provide aid to support agriculture in a food-exporting country while also applying market access barriers to the same agricultural exports. Similarly, a finance ministry might collect debt payments that negate the benefits of aid being disbursed by the development ministry. Incongruous policies highlight the need for a clear set of measurable objectives to align developed country policies.

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The Magnificent Seven

Apr 27th 2006 | SAURI, KENYA From The Economist print edition

How a few simple reforms can lift African villages out of poverty

With its multitude of problems, Africa is often treated like some ailing patient by international

agencies, with regular bulletins on the continent's vital signs issuing from its bedside. And in case

it ever gets out of the intensive-care ward, it also has a daunting rehabilitation programme to keep

up with: the UN's Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), agreed on in 2000, which set such

targets as halving the proportion of people living on less than \$1 a day by 2015. Other continents

have the same targets, but as the most egregious examples of poverty, poor health and under-

development are usually to be found in Africa, that is where most of the world's attention is

focused.

The latest bulletins on Africa's progress bring the usual mix of good and bad news. A combined

World Bank-IMF report on the MDGs strikes some hopeful notes. There has been a reduction in

child deaths in Burkina Faso and Mozambique, for instance, and the report cites a decline in

HIV/AIDS infection rates in such high-prevalence countries as Uganda and Zimbabwe. But the report also says that African countries are still not doing enough to meet their targets on

poverty reduction.

A report from Unicef, the United Nations Children's Fund, is still gloomier. Whereas China managed to cut its proportion of underweight children by more than half between 1990 and 2002,

in Africa over a quarter of children under five are still underweight, "a catastrophe for development". Moreover, in east and southern Africa the number of underweight children has

actually increased.

It is this sort of statistic that fires up Jeffrey Sachs, a voluble macroeconomist who serves as the

head of the UN's Millennium Project, which aims to see the MDGs achieved. The sometimes

pathetic performance of African countries, and in particular their governments, is not, he believes,

a fair reflection of the desire and capacity of ordinary Africans to pull themselves out of poverty.

Governments, often corrupt, can do only so much anyway. To have a real chance of ending

poverty, more needs to be spent at the bottom. In short, Africa's leap forward must begin, barefoot and with hoe in hand, in the parched and pestilential villages where up to 80% of poor

Africans actually live.

To this end, Mr. Sachs has set up 12 "research villages" in ten African countries, to pioneer

models of development that can be replicated by other villages in the future. Another 66 villages

have been added to the experiment in clusters around the original 12. The hope is for 1,000 such

villages by 2009, with exponential growth thereafter. Each village will receive practical help from

the Millennium Project amounting to \$250 per person over five years.

Take the experience of three of the villages: Alafia, near Timbuktu in Mali; Koraro, in the Tigrayan

highlands of Ethiopia; and Sauri, in the verdant lowlands of western Kenya. The Millennium

Project is trying to show how a few simple reforms, seven in all, can substantially improve lives

and provide livelihoods. These are: fertiliser and seed to improve food yield; antimalarial bed

nets; improved water sources; diversification from staple into cash crops; a school feeding programme; de-worming for all; and the introduction of new technologies, such as energy-saving

stoves and mobile phones.

Progress is most advanced in Sauri, the first Millennium village. There, committees of elders (and

some not so elderly) have taken responsibility for almost every innovation, proving themselves to

be competent and resourceful. According to Glenn Denning, of the Millennium Project's Nairobi

office, the incidence of malaria in Sauri has dropped by at least 50% since the distribution of free

bed nets. Food yield has more than doubled and villagers say that everyone can now find at least

a little to eat. A school feeding programme, whereby farmers give a portion of their harvest to the

village schools, has had a dramatic effect. Children stay in school longer and, with a bowl of

maize and beans in their belly, are able to concentrate. Since school feeding began, Sauri has

risen from 108th to 2nd in district exam results, out of 253 schools.

Almost two years into its five-year boost, there are signs of economic activity in Sauri as well.

Several shops have opened. A few people have purchased mobile phones, one or two have

managed to invest in dairy cows, and many more are diversifying into cash crops. Most significantly, there are 200 new households in a village of 5,000 people, some of whom

have returned from towns and cities.

But is the Millennium-village concept capable of having any real impact across the whole continent? Mr. Sachs concedes that the seven reforms can, in the short term at least, be repeated

only with "resources from the outside". This makes the model unduly dependent on foreign aid, a

common complaint of Africans about many Western-inspired development projects. Some also

claim that the villages suck in resources from neighbouring districts, rather than spreading the

benefits outwards.

However, it is still early days, and the ease with which Mr. Sachs has raised money from hard-

nosed American businessmen is significant. If you want to help the poor, there is hardly a better

investment. Half the children in Sauri carry a range of worms. Some of the worms, such as the

hookworm, are disabling. It would cost about the same as a cup of coffee in New York City to

de-worm a child in Sauri for a year, so the equation goes.

Adapted from The Economist Newspaper and The Economist Group, 2006.

Unit 9 – Aid and Development Assistance

Activity 5: CIDA and Development Aid

<u>Purpose:</u> To examine the Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA) and its role in providing development aid to less developed countries.

<u>Materials:</u>

- Handout In Support of CIDA produced by CIDA
- Handout *Questioning CIDA* produced for the CBC

Time: 1¹/₂ hours

Notes on Use:

This activity involves an informal mini-debate (or verbal argument) between two pairs of students regarding the pros and cons of CIDA providing development aid to less developed countries. Students should be reminded about the debate procedures such as: staying on topic and arguing about one resolution (statement); taking turns between the affirmative (the side for the resolution) and negative (the side against the resolution; and being prepared before you debate. A mini-debate is one, which involves a less formal style of debating than competition debating, but still has enough structure to allow students to take turns and to not allow one side of the argument to dominate the discussion. Mini-debates also allow for the debate to go on simultaneously, which greatly shortens the activity time.

Procedure:

- Students should already have a good of idea about what CIDA is and the role they play in providing development to less developed countries. CIDA is mentioned in the DVD – as WARD is a CIDA initiative – and in several student texts about this topic, such as Counterpoints. If they are not familiar with CIDA, the teacher should review what CIDA is and the role and mandate it has toward providing development aid. The first article *In Support of CIDA has* introductory information.
- 2. In order to understand the pros and cons of CIDA providing aid, a teacher may wish to explore the two articles using the following mini-debate format:
 - **Organize the debate** Split the class into groups of four students and break these groups into pairs. Give one set of pairs the one article *In Support of CIDA*. Give the other article, *Questioning CIDA* to the other set of pairs. Advise the class that each foursome will be debating the resolution. Note that depending on its size, the class could have five, six or more debates going on at once and the teacher will have to circulate to informally assess the students and to answer questions.
 - **Prepare to Argue** Explain that in 20-30 minutes the students will be expected to debate the resolution (statement): <u>CIDA is doing an excellent job in providing</u>

sustainable development and reducing poverty for less developed or developing countries in the world. Students will read their respective articles. One group will develop points supporting CIDA and the other will develop points against CIDA. Students should develop several speaking points from their respective articles either supporting or refuting the resolution above.

- Argue When ready, one student representing the affirmative will be allowed a maximum of three minutes to argue in favour of CIDA. While the affirmative is making its case the negative should be taking notes and trying to find two flaws or counter points to the affirmatives arguments for their rebuttal. After, one student representing the negative will present their arguments for up to three minutes while the affirmative takes notes for the rebuttal.
- **Rebuttal** Allow the pairs of students several minutes (5 minutes) to put together rebuttal arguments from their notes. After, the students who did not present the opening arguments will now present at least two more arguments in favour of their position or critical of the their opposition's opening statements. The teacher may want to reverse the order of the teams here, negative goes first followed by the affirmative.
- **Concluding statement**: Again provide students with about five minutes to create a one to two minute closing statement that summarizes their position in a clear and straight-forward manner.
- 3. Debrief the activity with the students as an entire class. The teacher will most likely want to debrief the activity on two levels: 1) entertaining comments about the usefulness of debating as a way of learning; and 2) reviewing the pros and cons of CIDA.
- 4. As a follow up activity the teacher may wish to have the students answer a question in their journals such as "To what extent is CIDA reducing poverty in the less developed world?".

Debriefing:

Make sure students are able to look critically not only at CIDA, but at Canada's aid policies and contributions generally. What are the strengths and weakness of Canada's programs and agencies designed to alleviate global poverty and assist developing countries? How could we improve our assistance programs? If you were the Minister of International Cooperation responsible for CIDA, what three things would you do to improve the organization?



In Support of CIDA

The Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA) is Canada's **lead agency for development assistance**. It has a mandate to support sustainable development in developing countries in order to reduce poverty and to contribute to a more secure, equitable, and prosperous world.

Aid Effectiveness – The Facts

The Government will support "a more effective use of aid dollars." (Speech from the Throne 2006.)

Canada knows that aid works best when countries take responsibility for their own development.

Aid works best when donors reinforce developing country priorities, work in a coordinated manner, and reward good performance. This is the approach Canada takes, and it delivers results.

CIDA is sharpening its focus and concentrating its bilateral assistance in a limited number of countries in order to achieve the greatest impact. In 2005-06, CIDA provided direct bilateral funding to 77 countries, while in 2000-01 bilateral funding went to 89 countries. These numbers are expected to decrease in the future.

CIDA will concentrate its aid efforts in fewer places, where the right conditions exist for sustained development and where Canada has the best chance of making a difference. Tanzania and Ghana are examples of country partners with the type of accountable institutions, strong civil society, and adherence to rule of law and human rights that make aid more effective.

CIDA also focuses resources on specific program sectors where our experience and expertise can do the most good.

Priority sectors are: democratic governance, health (including HIV/AIDS), basic education, private sector development, environmental sustainability, and equality between women and men.

CIDA works in conjunction with other donor countries to harmonize and customize programs to reduce development burdens in specific countries, focusing mainly on its priority sectors.

In one example, the Government of the Netherlands has demonstrated such confidence in CIDA's aid effectiveness that it has asked the Agency to manage \$45 million of its funds in a sector-wide education reform program in Nicaragua.

We continue to make progress on the further untying of aid. Canada's level of bilateral aid not tied to Canadian sources has increased from 25 percent in 2000 to 66 percent in 2005. Also in 2005, the amount of food aid that can be purchased outside of Canada was increased from 10 percent to 50 percent.

Canada recognizes that corruption is a serious problem in some developing countries and works with its partner countries to help them overcome this barrier to development.

We do not accept any form of corruption. Canada maintains sound financial controls on its aid program, including regular financial audits and anti-corruption clauses in all CIDA contracts.

Development Results – The Facts

CIDA's strategic and focused approach to aid effectiveness delivers results, and the good news is that there are many examples of real successes and important global progress:

- Extreme poverty has been reduced by half worldwide since 1980.
- Chronic hunger is being reduced and food security strengthened.
- Democracy is spreading, with significant gains in democratization made in 81 countries since 1980, including in Africa and Eastern Europe, according to the UN.
- Gross national income per capita is growing, from US\$335 to US\$507 between 1995 and 2004.
- Primary education completion is rising, from 64 percent of primary age students to 78 percent between 1990 and 2004.
- One million people with HIV/AIDS are receiving treatment, up from 100,000 in 1990.
- Access to safe drinking water has grown substantially in the past decade, from 64 percent of developing country populations to 75 percent.

Canadian aid saves lives

According to UNICEF, Canada's support for delivery of Vitamin A supplements has saved more than 2.1 million young lives since 1998; measles deaths have been reduced thanks to increased immunization programs for children aged between 12 and 23 months, up from 58 percent of children in 2000 to 64 percent in 2004; and the World Health Organization indicates that CIDA's support in the fight against tuberculosis has saved 750,000 lives in the last decade.

Canadian aid rebuilds lives

The 2004 tsunami affected over seven million people in 10 countries. CIDA reached more than two million of them with immediate humanitarian assistance. Thousands more are being helped through ongoing reconstruction work in housing, food and water, health care, rebuilding communities, and creating jobs.

Canadian aid promotes economic growth

Canada has provided support to private sector development in east and south Asia, where countries like India, Thailand, and Vietnam have achieved economic growth, prompting rising income levels, reduced hunger and child mortality, and improved equality between women and men.

Development results – A few examples

There are many country-level successes. A few examples include:

Tanzania

- Since 2000, primary school enrolment has increased from 66 percent to 100 percent in 2004, and child mortality has dropped by a third since 2000.
- GNI/capita increased between 2000 and 2005 from US\$260 to US\$340.
- The adult (15 years and above) literacy rate grew to over 70 percent in 2004.
- Eight and a half million voters registered as part of a multi-donor democratic development initiative to which CIDA contributed.

Mozambique

- The country has averaged more than eight percent economic growth since 1995, and has witnessed a remarkable decline in absolute poverty.
- With 15 years of peace, following some 25 years of conflict, Mozambique was recently hailed by the OECD as a model of successful post-conflict transition.

Ghana

- The number of undernourished people has been nearly halved between 1990 and 2002, from 5.8 million to 2.5 million.
- During this period, 58 percent of the population has received improved access to sanitation, up from 43 percent.
- The nation has seen four free and fair elections since 1992 and a real GNI growth rate of nearly six percent.

Bangladesh

- Despite chronic famine in early 1970s, the country is now nearly food selfsufficient.
- Infant mortality continued to decline between 2000 and 2004, from 66 to 56 infants per 1000 live births.

Peru

- Peru has returned to democracy with improved civilian oversight and strengthened civil society.
- Fiscal reform is leading to faster economic growth.

Ukraine

• Important political reforms have taken place in public administration, equality between women and men, and European integration, with Canada's help.

Greater Accountability – The Facts

The Government will "work to ensure greater accountability in the distribution and results of Canada's international assistance." (Budget 2006)

Canada's focus on accountability and results is as appropriate and necessary for its aid program as it is for the Government as a whole.

The Government already has a strong set of policies to ensure that Canadian aid does not go astray. CIDA is going further, by helping developing countries become more accountable for all their expenditures, regardless of the source of donor funding.

CIDA recognizes that aid works best when developing countries and donors work together to produce results based on mutual accountability.

A growing convergence of international aid reforms – whether results-based program approaches, or more rigorous attention to performance and accountability – is starting to produce concrete benefits.

CIDA is committed to being accountable to Canadians on the management of their aid resources and the results achieved.

Besides regular reporting on planned activities, expenditures, and performance, the Minister for International Cooperation will present a report on development results to Parliament.

Conclusion

Canada's international development assistance program works. While there is more that needs to be done, Canada is committed to strengthening its aid effectiveness to best meet current and future development requirements. At the same time, its agenda is clear and achievable and is fully in line with this Government's commitment to ensuring effectiveness, results, and accountability.



Questioning CIDA

Is the Harper government changing the aid game?

Last Updated March 21, 2007

By Robert Sheppard, CBC News

Two almost throwaway lines in the new federal budget have Ottawa's foreign aid community in a tizzy and appear to signal a new direction for how Canada's now \$4.1 billion in annual development aid will be delivered abroad.

One was the statement that the Conservative government intends to focus traditional bilateral aid on fewer countries where "we will aim to be among the largest five donors in core countries of interest."

The other was the pledge to "put more of our staff in the field, allowing us to be more responsive and make better choices on the ground."

Of the two, the second may be the more surprising and follows strong criticism recently of the Canadian International Development Agency - that it has too many of its administrative staff in Hull rather than out in the field, which has been the trend of late among some of the more aggressive European nations such as Britain.

Both the Senate foreign affairs committee last month and a C.D. Howe Institute study a year ago took CIDA to task for being overly administered and overly centralized. The Senate committee, for example, noted that nearly \$12.4 billion in Canadian aid has been sent to sub-Saharan Africa since the late 1960s, but that fewer than 20 per cent of the CIDA staff members devoted to these programs are actually on site to administer the funds.

But if sending more CIDA officials off "into a lot of sweaty capitals in the Third World" is an unexpected policy twist, focusing Canada's aid on a much smaller group of countries will be the more substantive, notes development expert John Richards of Simon Fraser University in B.C., where he is a professor of public policy, and one of the authors of the C.D. Howe report.

The previous Liberal governments had already signalled a shift to a more concentrated foreign aid approach: It had narrowed the list of Canada's main so-called development partners to 25 countries and was planning to increase the amount CIDA spent on these countries from 42 per cent to 66 per cent of its budget by 2010.

Canada's development 'partners' in order of aid received

1. Bangladesh 2. Ghana 3. Mali 4. Mozambique 5. Ethiopia 6. Tanzania 7. Vietnam 8. Indonesia 9. Ukraine 10. Senegal 11. Pakistan 12. Malawi 13. Bolivia 14. Burkino Faso 15. Kenya 16. Honduras 17. Guyana 18. Zambia 19. Rwanda 20. Niger 21. Sri Lanka 22. Cambodia 23. Cameroon 24. Nicaragua 25. Benin

Have the Conservatives changed this list of 25 partners? It's not clear. They haven't spelled anything out yet and CIDA's president Robert Greenhill is not commenting at the moment. An official with International Co-operation Minister Josée Verner said the minister would be willing to answer questions later in the week. But the aim to be "among the largest five donors" in certain countries could signal a fairly substantive shift in priorities, some suggest, and Richards says the Stephen Harper government looks like its being "a lot blunter about this than the Paul Martin people."

150 countries eligible for Canada's help

At the moment, Canada's international aid budget is on a roll, part of the Liberal-initiated plan to double it, in nominal terms anyway, by the end of this decade. It rose by 17 per cent this year and is to go up by a further seven per cent to \$4.4 billion in 2008-09.

But that amount still only represents about half the 0.7 per cent of GDP that activists like singing star Bono and British Prime Minister Tony Blair have been urging Canada to take on. What's more, what aid money does go out is spread among an unusually large number of recipients.

The 25 "partners" receive somewhere in excess of 42 per cent of Canada's international aid budget (it's difficult to judge at the moment because large chunks, \$100 million last year alone, have been hived off for Afghanistan). But according to CIDA's website, in excess of 150 countries are eligible for Canadian aid, though in practical terms the number is closer to 70 or so. And of course all have their political constituencies here to press their case.

When the Senate foreign affairs committee held its hearings, groups questioned why Canada was giving development money to China, one of the emerging powerhouses of the world, instead of their favoured recipients, or Pakistan, which has nuclear weapons.

Even the list of 25 has its political component: Ukraine is on it, for obviously political reasons, observes Richards, and the 14 African countries are almost equally divided between English- and French-speaking nations.

The big question, however, is whether this list will change given the now-stated ambition to be "among the largest five donors" in the countries Ottawa hopes to help. No one has crunched the numbers yet, perhaps not even CIDA. But from what has come out in earlier studies, Canada is only among the top five in a handful of countries it tries to support.

Among them are Haiti and Afghanistan, two countries not on the list of 25 partners.

Tracking donations important

Targeting donations is clearly the emerging trend among donor nations. The Brits do it. So do the Scandinavian countries, which can focus on about a dozen or so countries. "You have a negligible impact if you're just dribbling out your aid," says Richards. "The rationale for aid is not just to dole out money but to have influence over the host countries. It sounds a bit neo-colonial. But if Canada wants to be any kind of actor in this game, it has to step up and become a significantly important donor."

Giving more money, however, also means tracking its use more carefully. Are the teachers really teaching in that school you built a year ago? Are doctors making the rounds of the clinics as they promised?

This is one of the rationales for having more development officers on the ground in the host countries. But it's a much more expensive proposition for agencies like CIDA.

It experimented with decentralization, as it is called, a decade or so ago and the result was that administrative costs soared, fuelling a reputation that has stayed with the agency even today.

One of the goals of this shift is to bring administrative costs down, the finance minister said in passing. That could be hard to do if you are sending people out to the field.

Appendix A: How to Build Global Community

<u>Purpose</u>: To provide a follow-up to the general study of Africa, international development and global issues with a concluding activity that challenges students to think in terms of how they can be better, more engaged global citizens.

Time: Variable

<u>Materials:</u>

- Handout of the poster *How to Build Global Community* for each student
- Colour transparency of the poster
- Overhead projector

Notes on Use:

This poster was developed and distributed by the Syracuse Cultural Workers (<u>www.syrculturalworkers.com</u>), an organization that promotes and supports global peace and justice initiatives, and is used with permission. The poster is presented here as a way to provoke reflection on what it really means to be a global citizen, to genuinely contribute to a global community, and is meant as a concluding activity that could be used to generate commitment in students toward greater global responsibility and engagement.

The poster can be blown up and placed in your room, or used as a colour transparency or PowerPoint insert. The activities suggested here are just a few of the many ways you could use the poster to bring your study of international development and global education to a close.

Procedures:

- 1. Begin by passing out a copy of the poster to each student and reading each suggestion. Have students alternate read. After each item has been read out, ask "What does this mean? How would this help build a global community? Why is it hard to do?"
- 2. Break students into teams of two. Have them choose one item on the list that most intrigues or resonates with them. Have them then elaborate on the idea in any creative way they like: e.g., write a song, complete a collage, write a poem, make a video, interview people on their views on the topic and create a sound collage. Then have them present their project to the class as a whole and discuss why they chose the topic. (Note: more than one group can choose the same topic.
- 3. Have each student choose one of the ideas which they are willing to actually *do*. Then have them devise some way of reporting the experience (diary, research report, recorded impressions, experience summary) and present the results to the class.
- 4. Some of these ideas are quite provocative. Have students act as "investigative reporters" and track down the stories on some of the more controversial issues (e.g., Know how

your lettuce and coffee are grown, Understand the global economy in terms of people, land and water, Know where your bank banks, Question military/corporate connections, Know where your water comes from and where your wastes go). Where can they go for more information on these topics? Once they have investigated the issue, have them write a newspaper story. Get it published.

- 5. Invite people from other countries into the classroom to discuss their backgrounds, culture, aspirations and reasons for coming to Canada. Or have students develop interview questions and then interview an immigrant, transcribe the interview and present a summary to the class.
- 6. Have students brainstorm how they could become more involved in addressing global justice and poverty issues. Have each student choose an activity for a minimum of a month and report on the experience.
- Introduce students to the National Geographic Genographic Project (www.nationalgeographic.com/genographic), which traces the common origins of all humans, and raise money so students can participate and see the long migration of their own ancestors out of Africa.
- 8. Bring people into the classroom that are working with international development NGOs (e.g., CUSO, Canada World Youth, CIDA, CARE, Doctors Without Borders, OXFAM) and talk about their work and how students might get involved.

Debriefing:

This instructional guide and the DVD, *The Gambia: Communities in Action*, are designed to assist teachers expose their students to critical global issues and to help students better understand how we all share the same planet and the interconnectedness of our lives. Use this exercise to review not only the issues you have explored, but as a way to challenge them to become more engaged, responsible global citizens.



Appendix A Activity 1 Handout A



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Appendix B: Canadian Agencies Working in Africa

The following is list of some development agencies working in Africa. Most of these Agencies belong to the *Canadian Council for International Co-operation* (our first agency on the list). The Council is a coalition of Canadian voluntary sector organizations working globally to achieve sustainable human development.

Canadian Council for International Co-operation <u>http://www.ccic.ca</u>

The Stephen Lewis Foundation <u>http://www.stephenlewisfoundation.org/</u>

Hope For African Children www.hopeforafricanchildren.org

Keep A Child Alive www.keepachildalive.org

Save the Children www.savethechildren.ca www.savethechildren.org

Unicef <u>www.unicef.ca</u> <u>www.unicef.org</u>

World Vision www.worldvision.ca www.worldvision.org

Care Canada www.care.ca

Christian Children's Fund of Canada http://www.ccfcanada.ca

Make Poverty History http://www.makepovertyhistory.ca

Médecins Sans Frontières www.msf.ca www.msf.org Oxfam <u>www.oxfam.ca</u> <u>www.oxfam.org</u>

Ontario Library Association: Be the Change www.accessola.com/osla/bethechange

Plan International www.plan-international.org

Rotary Club International <u>www.rotary.org</u>

The Canadian Rotary Collaboration for International Development (CRCID) http://www.crcid.org/

Marquis Project (The) Fair Trade Campaign http://www.marquisproject.com

Habitat for Humanity http://www.habitat.org/

Kairos Canadian Ecumenical Justice Initiatives <u>http://www.kairoscanada.org/e/index.asp</u>

Queen's Project on International Development (QPID) <u>http://www.engsoc.queensu.ca</u>

Appendix C: Additional Resources

There are literally thousands of global education web sites and publications available to teachers and students. The following are just a few that we have found particularly useful and motivating.

- British Columbia Teachers' Association: <u>www.bctf.ca</u>. The BCTF's Global Education Teaching Resources section contains excellent global lesson plans for secondary and elementary students as well as links to other resources. (GCI funding recipient)
- Central Intelligence Agency Fact Book: <u>www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/index.html</u>. It may sound odd, but the *CIA Fact Book* is an invaluable resource to teachers in the area of Global Education. The *Fact Book* provides excellent maps, statistics and other interesting tid-bits about virtually every country in the world. Generally quite objective.
- Earthbeat: <u>www.earthbeat.sk.ca</u>. Excellent source of practical global education lessons (such as *Getting Active in the Fight against Malaria*) collected from around the world. Very practical and classroom-friendly material. (GCI funding recipient)
- Falls Brook Centre: <u>www.fallsbrookcentre.ca</u>. Exciting global education centre in New Brunswick with many sustainable development materials and programs for classrooms and students of all ages. (GCI funding recipient)
- Global Classroom Initiative: <u>www.acdi-cida.gc.ca/gci</u> and click on "Youth and Teachers", followed by "Teacher Zone." Excellent Canadian resource for teachers working at all grade levels. Provides resource links as well as effective global education materials for students.
- International Institute for Sustainable Development: <u>www.iisd.org</u>. One of the best web sites on sustainable development, this site provides original material, as well as hundreds of links that emphasize a truly global perspective. Good material on how the lifestyles of those in developed countries contribute to global poverty and environmental problems – and what we can do about it.
- SD Gateway: <u>www.sdgateway.net</u>. Funded in part by CIDA, this network provides hundreds of links on sustainable development that relate to Canada and the developed world as well as to developing nations.
- Social Justice Committee: <u>www.s-j-c.net</u>. This Montreal-based organization's web page contains updates on global justice and human rights issues, links to other anti-poverty and global justice groups, and their on-line publication *Upstream Journal*, which focuses on economic, social and cultural rights, with a perspective of Third World poverty as a human rights issue. (GCI funding recipient)
- Stephen Lewis Foundation: <u>www.stephenlewisfoundation.org</u>. Although already mentioned in the text, the SLF provides excellent background on HIV/AIDS pandemic while providing students with concrete ways to make a difference.

- *The A to Z of World Development.* Compiled by Andy Crump; Edited by Wayne Ellwood. Published with New Internationalist Publications, Oxford, U.K. Isbn 1-896357-20-2 1998. A beautifully produced, large-format reference book with hundreds of full-colour photographs and graphics throughout. The A to Z of World Development contains over 700 entries, listed alphabetically, covering key themes and factors of global development.
- *Training for Transformation*. Three volumes by Ann Hope and Sally Timmel, illustrator: Chris Hodzi. (Gweru, Zimbabwe: Mambo Press, 1994.) Based on the educational concepts of Paulo Freire, the three-volume manual is a basic text that is used by adult educators, social workers, community development workers, church workers, and trade union educators throughout the world. Loaded with excellent activities adaptable to Canadian classrooms.
- United Nations Association of Canada: <u>www.unac.org</u>. While understandably UN oriented, this site contains excellent lesson plans and resources that will be valuable to any teacher working in the area of global education. (GCI funding recipient)
- United Nations: <u>www.un.org</u>. Go to their Sustainable Development Division home page and dive in. Under their "Sustainable Development Topics A-Z," there are literally hundreds of resources, many accessible through the web site, on every facet of development.
- United Nations Millennium Project: <u>http://www.unmillenniumproject.org/</u>. The United Nations Millennium Project web site provides an independent commissioned report, and other resources, which suggest ways to reverse disease, hunger and overall poverty in the developing world by 2015.
- War Child Canada: <u>www.warchild.ca</u>. Your kids want to get involved? Here's a good place to start. Hip, music-oriented site provides information on everything from how to mount a fundraiser to how to buy really cool message t-shirts. (GCI funding recipient)
- World Bank: <u>www.worldbank.org</u>. While the World Bank has received much harsh (and largely justified) criticism, especially for past policies, the Bank is changing its approach and provides a rich resource for all topics related to development. Look especially at Documents and Reports (an astounding array of policy and research papers organized by region and country), Sustainable Development (excellent articles and research on sustainable development), and Development Outreach (WB's monthly online development journal).