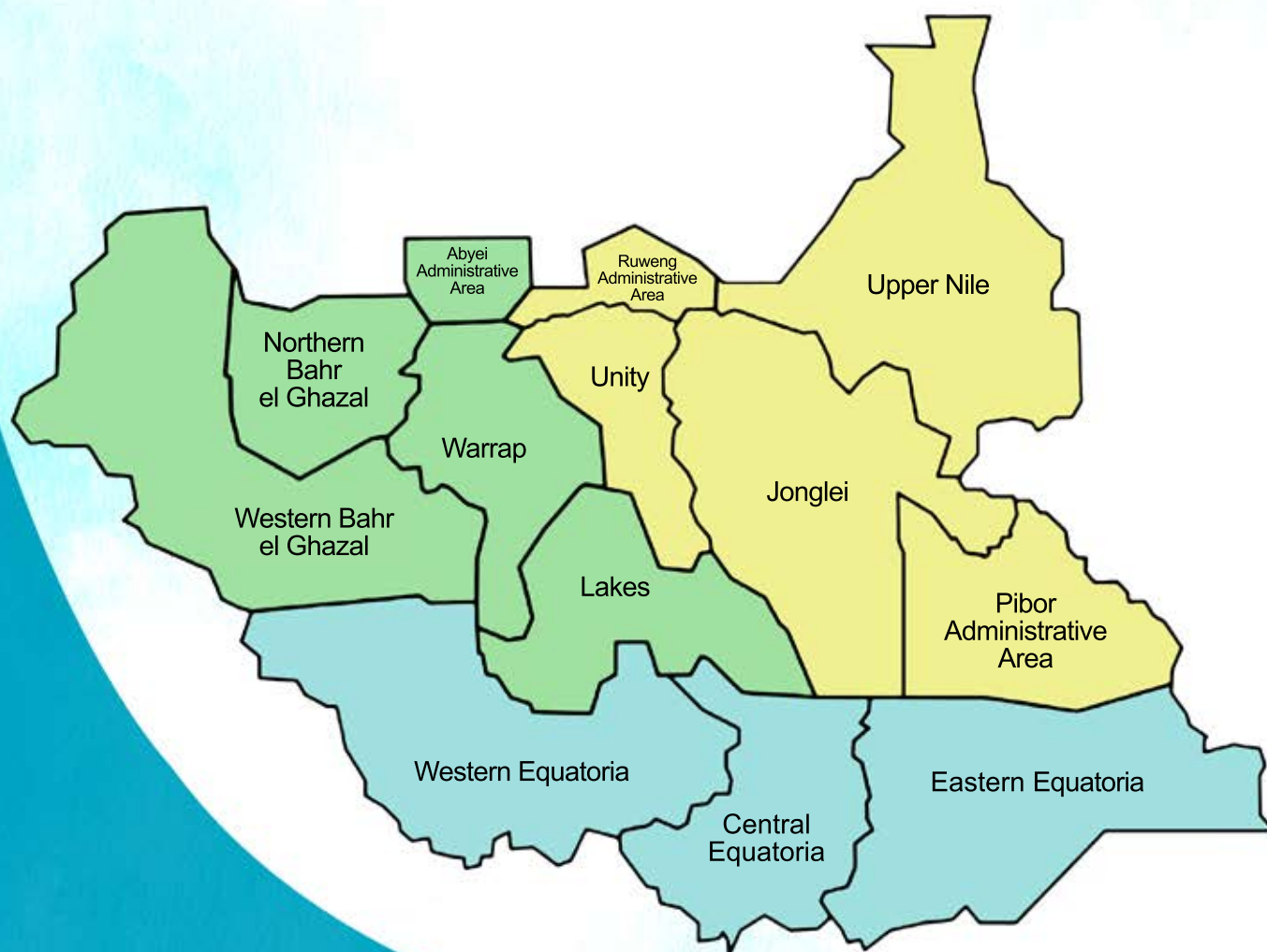




# INTRODUCTION TO INTERNATIONAL DEVELOPMENT



**Dr. Gabriel Alier Riak**  
**Mr. Dut Bol Ayuel B.**

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## **Introduction to International Development**

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## **Dedication**

I would like to dedicate the success of this study to my almighty god for granting me his protection and knowledge in coming out with this importance study I wish to recognize my Co-author PhD Candidate Dut Bol Ayuel Bill with his Family and colleagues with whom I work closely during the stages of writing this Book am also thankful to Prof Marial Awuou Vice Chancellor of Upper Nile University and in particular my Colleagues in the Faculty of Economic and Social Studies for their help and courage from the day one to the last day of Writing this Book,

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I would like to express my sincere gratitude and appreciation to the good Lord for enabling and guiding me through my academic life. I am grateful to My Wife Elizabeth Atong Abuoi, my Son Peter Riak Alier, Yar Alier Riak Known as Manyinadhieu, Thomas Thon Alier Riak, Mary Anai Agau Riak Special thanks goes to entirely staffs of Upper Nile University and Juba University for their Support.

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# Introduction

This Book contains 13 units that introduce you to the key concepts and definitions in international development and it is an interdisciplinary focusing on the problems of the developing countries. This unit helps you to build capacity among staff in the public and private sector and develop the attitudes, skills and competencies of students for work within the field of both domestic and international environment. The key issues to be addressed are related to the Millennium Development Goals and poverty reduction strategies through the applicability of theory and practice of the knowledge and skills acquired in this paper. Once you conceptualize this module, you will gain skills for teaching, research, development work and leadership in public and private institutions. I request you to read this book carefully so that you can be able to understand and get solutions to poor quality lives in less developed states.

***Thank You and God Bless You***

# 1| Introduction to International Development

## 1.1. Introduction

This unit contains the nature and meaning of development, international development, a brief history of international development, and means of development, conclusion, summery, self- assessment exercise and the references/further reading.

## 1.2. What Is Development?

The word 'development' is vaguely defined and has diverse meanings in all aspects (political, economic, social, technological, environmental, legal and so forth).

Development can be qualitative or quantitative, but this paper concentrates on the qualitative part, although it agrees that qualitative development is the foundation for quality improvement of lives around the world. However, below are some of the generally accepted meanings:

According to the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), it uses a more detailed definition- according to them development is 'to lead/live long and healthy lives, to be knowledgeable, to have access to the resources needed for a decent standard of living and to be able to participate in the life of the community.' According to the UNDP, development is looked as "Human Development" (Henk, 2005:2).

According to the Department of Foreign Affairs, (Canada, 1999:5), Canada has also incorporated human security/development approach into its foreign policy formulation process(es). The country has redefined the concept of security from the traditional one to that which guarantees "safety for people from both violent and non-violent threats.....characterized by freedom from pervasive threats to people's rights, their safety, or even their lives". The country has also backed its new commitment by expending huge amounts of money and other resources to promote human security worldwide, especially in the form of aid. According to the South Africa White Paper on Defence, 1996, development is an all-encompassing condition in which individual citizens live in freedom, peace and safety; participate fully in the process of governance; enjoy the protection fundamental rights; have access to resources and the basic necessities of life; and inhabit an environment which is not detrimental to their health and wellbeing not only in terms of the internal security of the state, but also in terms of secure systems of food health, money and trade (it is about human security supported by the states and non-state actors).

Therefore development is to empower the poor, it is about local people taking control of their own lives, expressing their own demands and finding their own solutions to their problems.

Development encompasses capacity building, sensitization training, workshops, seminars and conferences aimed at exploiting the ability or potential of an individual to become self-sustained and support themselves at least to have a decent life.

Therefore, development is the act of improving quality of life and making sure everyone has an improved standard of live in the world with the help or efforts of the local people, international bodies, governments and a variety of civil society organizations such as NGOs, community organizations and religious groups.

## 1.3. What Is International Development?

It is also called global development or international development, a vague term covering a wide range of activities, but in simplistic terms it can be understood as the fight against poverty to allow



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developing countries to 'catch up' with the rest of the world. It has become important to focus on sustainable strategies that focus on long term development rather than quick fixes (Thomas, 2000).

International development or global development is most used in a holistic and multi-disciplinary context of human development and aims at the development of greater quality of life for humans. It, therefore, encompasses foreign aid, governance, healthcare, education, poverty reduction, gender equality, disaster preparedness, infrastructure, economics, human rights, environment and issues associated with these (Worsley,1999).

International development ensures that all human beings in the world live a quality life to lift themselves out of poverty and raise their standard of living to one that is closer to the standard of living of the developed states by ensuring that they have access to basic needs of life (food, shelter, clothing, clean and safe water, medicine among others). About 2.6 billion people (about two out of five) live on less than \$2 per day.

In another comparison, the World Bank, almost one-half of the world's 6.5 billion inhabitants live on the equivalent of less than two dollars a day, and about one-fourth of the world live on the equivalent of less than \$1.25 a day (Chen and Ravallion, 2008). Meanwhile, people in the 20-richest countries on average earn 39 times more than people in the poorest 20 (Milanovi, 2007). At the same time, the extent of poverty has declined significantly. For example, the World Bank estimates that from 1981-2005 the percentage of people living on less than \$1 per day was halved. The amount decreased from 52 percent to 26 percent in this period (Chen & Ravallion, 2008).

In order to improve on the quality of life or to reduce poverty, donor countries, like Canada, provide developing countries with technical expertise, goods and money. According to Worsley (1999), this is also called international development aid focused on:

- Improving the health and education of the people in a country so that people do not die from lack of food, medical services or knowledge (basic needs).
- Creating a sustainable food supply so that people can feed themselves,
- Boosting economic development so that people can get decent jobs and support their families,
- Promoting safety, human rights, and law and order so that people can thrive.

According to the (*Human Development Report 1996*), published by the United Nations Development Program, "human development is the end economic growth which agrees that that economic growth, by increasing a nation's total wealth, also enhances its potential for reducing poverty and solving other social problems. But in poor states what all we see are greater inequality, higher unemployment, weakened democracy, loss of cultural identity, or overconsumption of natural resources needed by future generations (Todaro & Smith, 2009).

International development, however, can promote the concept of international aid aimed at alleviating some of the problems associated with a lack of development. These can only help solve or fix short term challenges and not necessarily long-term solutions (Browne, 1990). The use of foreign aid should be short term, not long term as it can make poor states dependents on the west and becomes a tool for imperialism and exploitation which keeps poor state underdeveloped.

International development, on the other hand, seeks to implement long-term solutions to problems by helping developing countries create the necessary capacity needed to provide such sustainable solutions to their problems. But a truly sustainable development project is one which will be able to carry on genuine international support, be it financial or otherwise.

There are many international development projects to address a specific problem or a series of projects targeted at several aspects of improving the quality of lives in many societies. Genuine projects must involve problem solving that reflects the unique culture, politics, geography, and economy of a region. It must be participatory, appropriate, gender sensitive, respect human life, capacity building and empowerment of all people (Parfitt, 2002).

On the other hand, international development seeks to implement long-term solutions to problems by helping developing countries create the necessary capacity needed to provide sustainable solutions to their problems. A truly sustainable development project will be able to carry on indefinitely with no further international involvement or support, financial or otherwise. International development projects may consist of a single, transformative project to address a specific problem or a series of projects targeted at several aspects of society. Promoted projects are those which involve problem solving that reflects the unique culture, politics, geography, and economy of a region. More recently, the focus in this field has been projects that aim towards empowering women, building local economies, and caring for the environment (Escobar, 1995).

International development also encompasses foreign aid, governance, healthcare, education, poverty reduction, gender equality, disaster preparedness, infrastructure, economics, human rights, environment and issues associated with these. International development is different from simple development in that it is specifically composed of institutions and policies that arose after the Second World War. These institutions focus on alleviating poverty and improving living conditions in previously colonized countries.

### *1.4. Brief History of International Development*

The history is traced back for centuries, the movement gained coherent shape after the Second World War as many countries gained independence in the process of decolonization. The last five or six decades have seen international development grow tremendously in both size and scope. Perhaps the best way to understand what the term 'international development' means today is by looking at the Millennium Development Goals. (Fukuyama, 2006)

In its very meaning, International Development is geared towards colonies that gained independence. The governance of the newly independent states should be constructed so that the inhabitants can enjoy freedom from poverty, hunger, and insecurity. The idea of international development was launched on January 20, 1949, when Harry S. Truman made these remarks in his inaugural address:

Although international relations and international trade have existed for many hundreds of years, it is only in the past century that international development theory emerged as a separate body of ideas.

*"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"*

Before this date, however, the United States had already taken a leading role in the creation of the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (now part of the World Bank Group) and the International Monetary Fund (IMF), both established in 1944, and the United Nations in 1945.

The launch of the Marshall Plan was another important step in setting the agenda for international development, combining humanitarian goals with the creation of a political and economic bloc in Europe that was allied to the U.S. This agenda was given conceptual support during the 1950s in the form of modernization theory espoused by Walt Rostow and other American economists.

By the late 1960s, the critics of modernization were advancing a dependency theory to explain the evolving relationship between the West and the Third World. In the 1970s and early 1980s, the modernists at the World Bank and IMF adopted the neoliberal ideas of economists such as Milton Friedman which were implemented in the form of structural adjustment programs, while their opponents were promoting various 'bottom up' approaches, ranging from civil disobedience and conscientization to appropriate technology and Rapid Rural Appraisal. In response various parts of the UN system led a counter movement, which in the long run has proved to be successful (Schuurman, 1993).

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By the 1990s, after the Cold War had ended, capitalism had become the dominant mode of social organization, and UN statistics showed that living standards around the world had improved over the past 40 years. Nevertheless, a large portion of the world's population was still living in poverty, their governments were crippled by debt and concerns about the environmental impact of globalization were rising (ibid).

In response to the impasse, the rhetoric of development is now focusing on the issue of poverty, with the metanarrative of modernization being replaced by shorter term vision embodied by the Millennium Development Goals and the Human Development approach. At the same time, some development agencies are exploring opportunities for public-private partnerships and promoting the idea of Corporate social responsibility with the apparent aim of integrating international development with the process of economic globalization (Skelton, & Allen, 1999).

The critics have suggested that this integration has always been part of the underlying agenda of development. They argue that poverty can be equated with powerlessness, and that the way to overcome poverty is through emancipatory social movements and civil society, not paternalistic aid programmes or corporate charity.

### *1.5. Goals of International Development*

- Improving the well-being of the majority of the population,
- Poverty eradication/reduction
- Ensuring people's freedom,
- Increasing their economic security,
- Increase life expectancy,
- Increase adult literacy,
- Increase people's average income/Improved standards of living,
- To create economic growth
- Sustainable development ,etc

Conversely, slow human development can put an end to fast economic growth. According to the *Human Development Report 1996*, "during 1960–1992 not a single country succeeded in moving from lopsided development with slow human development and rapid growth to a virtuous circle in which human development and growth can become mutually reinforcing." Since slower human development has invariably been followed by slower economic growth, this growth pattern was labeled a "dead end."

### *1.6. Self-Assessment Questions*

- Q1. What is development and international development?
- Q2. Attempt a brief history of international development.
- Q3. Clearly identify the goals and means of development.

### *1.7. Conclusion*

These contrasts highlight both the problem and the progress of what is known in the international community as "development". Large numbers of the world's inhabitants are mired in poverty, especially in Africa, while inhabitants of the world's richest countries live in both relative and absolute luxury. However, international development aims to improve general government policies of these developing countries through the provision of basic needs.

The term "development" in international parlance, therefore, encompasses the need and the means by which to provide better lives for people in poor countries. It includes not only economic growth, although that is crucial, but also human development that aims at providing health, nutrition, education, and a clean environment.

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## **2| Approaches of Understanding International Development**

### *2.1. Introduction*

Approaches/theories/perspectives are a set of assumptions, propositions, or accepted facts that attempt to provide a reasonable or sensible explanation of cause-and-effect (causal) relationships among a group of observed phenomenon, for example the world around us and the things that happen would be practically impossible to explain or understand. Theories are mental models of the perceived reality.

Theories are analytical tools for understanding, explaining, and making predictions about a given subject matter in many and varied fields of study, including the arts and sciences. Theory is constructed of a set of sentences which consist entirely of true statements about the subject matter under consideration. However, the truth of any one of these statements is always relative to the whole theory. Therefore the same statement may be true with respect to one theory, and not true with respect to another (a good theory must be criticized or generate debates).

Sometimes two theories have exactly the same explanatory power because they make the same predictions. A pair of such theories is called indistinguishable, and the choice between them reduces to convenience or philosophical preference.

In sum, a theory is a set of interrelated concepts, definitions, and propositions that explains or predicts events or situations by specifying relations among variables. Social science theories are better understood as models that work in a limited range of settings, rather than laws of science which hold and apply universally.

### *2.2. Importance of Theory in International Development*

- A theory provides an explanatory framework for some observation and from the assumptions of the explanation follows a number of possible hypotheses that can be tested in order to provide support for, or challenge the theory
- A principle expresses the relationship between two or more concepts or constructs
- They help us to understand or explain what is going on around us. They help us predict future events (Can be causal or correlational)
- Can be used for building of knowledge and skills through research due to the gaps that a particular theory could have left
- For analysis
- Comparisons
- Prediction among others

### *2.3. The Theories Used in Studying/ Understand International Development*

#### 2.3.1. Modernization Theory

According to Gilman (2004), the modernization theory emerged in the 1950s as an explanation of how the industrial societies of North America and Western Europe developed. The theory argues that societies develop in fairly predictable stages through which they become increasingly complex. Development depends primarily on the importation of technology as well as a number of other political and social changes believed to come about as a result including among others:

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This is aimed at rising living standards, self-esteem and good leadership for international development.

Modernization theory is a grand theory encompassing many different disciplines as it seeks to explain how society progresses, what variables affect that progress, and how societies can react to that progress.

Modernization theory focuses specifically on a type of modernization thought to have originated in Europe during the 17<sup>th</sup> century, which brought social mores and technological achievements into a new epoch (Giddens, 1991b).

The foundations of modernization theory go back to the Age of Enlightenment, when a number of philosophers began to look at how society changed and progressed with the basic premise that humans were able to change their society within a generation, and that this change was often facilitated by advancements in technology, production, and consumption (ibid).

In the modern age, modernization theory looks at how new technologies and systems are leading to a more greatly homogenized world. Modernization theory encompasses the world of globalization, where cultural mores and ideas are easily spread across the globe, leading to a sort of universal culture that serves as a baseline for all cultures. As societies in the world modernize further technologically, some theorists within modernization theory hold that those cultures will also become more like one another (Dijk, 1993b).

Modernization theory is a theory used to explain the process of modernization within societies. The theory looks at the internal factors of a country while assuming that, with assistance, "traditional" countries can be brought to development in the same manner more developed countries have. Modernization theory attempts to identify how development can be achieved in all states and explain societal changes.

Modernization theory stresses the process of change and the responses to that change. It also looks at internal dynamics while referring to social and cultural structures and adapting new technologies (Lerner, 1958). Modernization theorists often saw traditions as obstacles to economic growth. Furthermore, while modernization might deliver violent, radical change for traditional societies, it was thought worth the price.

### 2.3.1.1. Core Assumptions and Statements of the Modernization Theory

According to (McQuail, 2000: 84): the assumptions are:

- Increased levels of schooling,
- Development of mass media, both of which foster democratic political institutions, and to promote the global diffusion of many technical and social innovations that are essential to modernization (Rogers, 1962).
- Transportation and communication become increasingly sophisticated and accessible,
- Populations become more urban and mobile,
- The extended family declines in importance as a result (no big families),
- Literacy and cultural development: mass media can teach literacy and other essential skills and techniques. They encourage a 'state of mind' favorable to modernity, e.g. the imagination of an alternative way of life beyond the traditional way is said to promote quality of lives international,
- National identity development: mass media could support national identities in new nations (colonies) and support attention to democratic policies (elections) that will lead to good governance, hence quality lives
- It leads to modernity and quality life of individuals by empowering them to attain a good standard of living, and self-confidence

### 2.3.1.2. Critics of the Modernization Theory

- Modernization theory is subject to criticism originating among socialist and free-market ideologies, world-systems theorists, globalization theory and dependency theory among others.

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- Critics insist that traditional societies were often destroyed without ever gaining promised advantages if, among other things, the economic gap between advanced societies and such societies actually increased.
- The net effect of modernization for some societies was therefore the replacement of traditional poverty by a more modern form of misery.
- Others point to improvements in living standards, physical infrastructure, education and economic opportunity to refute such criticisms (Barber, 1996).

### 2.3.1.3. Conclusion

Modernization theory has a belief that industrialization, technology and economic development lead directly to positive social and political change which in turn leads to quality of lives especially in poor states for example in Africa. Modernization theory has evolved in three waves. The first wave appeared in the 1950s and 1960s. One made the attempt to explain the diffusion of Western styles of living, technological innovations and individualist types of communication as the superiority of secular, materialist, Western, individualist culture and of individual motivation and achievement (Lerner, 1958; Schramm, 1964).

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### 2.3.2. The Dependency Theory

Dependency theory is the perception that resources flow from a "periphery" of poor and underdeveloped states to a "core" of wealthy states, enriching the rich states at the expense of the poor states. It is a central contention of dependency theory that poor states are impoverished and rich ones enriched by how poor states are integrated into the "world system".

The theory arose as a reaction to modernization theory, an earlier development theory discussed to accelerate them along this supposed common path of development by various means such as investment, technology transfers, and closer integration into the world market. Dependency theory rejected this view, arguing that underdeveloped countries are exploited by developed states (Gunder, 1972).

Indeed, their studies suggested that economic activity in the richer countries often led to serious economic problems in the poorer countries. Such a possibility was not predicted by neoclassical theory, which had assumed that economic growth was beneficial to all even if the benefits were not always equally shared (Theotonio, 1971).

This theory was developed in Latin America in the early 1950s and late 1960s by leading proponents like Andre Gunder Frank, Former Brazilian President Fernando Henrique Cardoso their colleagues who were troubled by the fact that economic growth in the advanced industrialized countries did not necessarily lead to

growth in the poorer countries. This theory stems from a Marxist perspective and criticizes the modernization theory for being imperialistic and exploitative of poor states and stagnating in continued widespread poverty, reducing the quality of life.

Therefore, many dependency theorists advocate social revolution as an effective means to the reduction of economic disparities in the world system though bad terms of trade for underdeveloped countries relative to the developed countries had deteriorated over time (Susanne, 2003). The debates among the liberal reformers (Prebisch), the Marxists (Andre Gunder Frank), and the world systems theorists (Wallerstein) was vigorous and intellectually quite challenging.

There are still points of serious disagreements among the various strains of dependency theorists and it is a mistake to think that there is only one unified theory of dependency. Nonetheless, there are some core assumptions which seem to underlie the analyses of most dependency theorists sighting the following guiding assumptions of the dependency theory as;

- Poor states are the suppliers of raw materials exports to the developed states;
- Dumping by the developed states into poor states for example old (obsolete) technology and other things like cars, machinery, in general goods and services that will suffocate the young industries in poor states and hence closure. It is the developed states who controlled the technology and the systems for generating technology. Foreign capital could not solve the problem, since it only led to limited transmission of technology, but not the process of innovation itself;
- They will also become suppliers of cheap labor to facilitate their industries,
- They will become markets for finished goods and services developed nations.

### 2.3.2.1. Solutions to Dependency Theory by the Poor States

- Underdeveloped nations must employ some degree of protectionism in trade if they were to enter a self-sustaining development path,
- Poorer countries should embark on programs of import substitution not a trade-and-export orientation, was the best strategy for underdeveloped countries so that they need not purchase the manufactured products from the richer countries. The poorer countries would still sell their primary products on the world market, but their foreign exchange reserves would not be used to purchase their manufactures from abroad,
- Dependent states, therefore, should attempt to pursue policies of self-reliance. Contrary to the neo-classical models endorsed by the International Monetary Fund and the World Bank, greater integration into the global economy is not necessarily a good choice for poor countries promote self-reliance to improve the social and economic welfare of the larger citizenry,
- Expand internal markets of the poorer countries to make them large enough to support the economies of scale used by the richer countries to keep their prices low,
- The second issue concerned the political will of the poorer countries as to whether a transformation from being primary products producers was possible or desirable through value addition in their agricultural products,
- Industrialization, so that the poorer countries can control their primary products, particularly in the area of selling those products abroad by avoiding dumping in their own states by the developed states

### 2.3.2.2. Conclusion

According to this theory, poor countries exported primary commodities to the rich countries that then manufactured products out of those commodities and sold them back to the poorer countries. The "Value Added" by manufacturing a usable product always cost more than the primary products used to create



those products. Therefore, poorer countries would never be earning enough from their export earnings to pay for their imports.

Dependency is an ongoing process since wealthy nations actively perpetuate a state of dependence by various means. This influence may be multifaceted, involving economics, media control, politics, banking and finance, education, culture, sport, and all aspects of human resource development including recruitment and training of workers and failure by poor states to a bid by the assumptions leading to sanctions. This theory also proves that modernization theory is exploitative of the poor states.

In short, dependency theory attempts to explain the present underdeveloped state of many nations in the world by examining the patterns of interactions among nations and by arguing that inequality among nations is a central part of those interactions. For the dependency theorists, underdevelopment is a wholly negative condition which offers no possibility of sustained and autonomous economic activity in a dependent state.

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#### 2.3.3. World Systems Theory

The theory was mainly advanced by Immanuel Wallerstein, who developed the best-known version of world-systems analysis, beginning in the 1970s. He argues that Europe (the West) utilized its advantages and gained control over most of the world economy, presiding over the development and spread of industrialization and capitalist economy, indirectly resulting in unequal development (Wallerstein, 2004). Other world-systems thinkers include Samir Amin, Giovanni Arrighi, and Andre Gunder Frank among others. World-systems theory was aiming to replace modernization theory. World-systems theory was also significantly influenced by dependency theory as a neo-Marxist explanation of development processes. So, the world-systems analysis builds upon, but also differs fundamentally from, dependency theory (Wallerstein, 1974).

Just like the dependency theory, Marxists share their views as well for being critical of the modernization theory.

According to the world systems theory and the Marxist, modernization theory aims at:

- a stress on social conflict,
- a focus on the capital accumulation process and
- competitive class struggles,
- a focus on a relevant totality,
- the transitory nature of social forms, and
- a dialectical sense of motion through conflict and contradiction.

According to Wallerstein (2004), the world systems theory, expanded on dependency arguments, proposes a third category of countries, the *semi-periphery*, intermediate between the core and periphery. In

this model, the semi-periphery is industrialized, but with less sophistication of technology than in the core and it does not control finances. The rise of one group of semi-peripheries tends to be at the cost of another group, but the unequal structure of the world economy based on unequal exchange tends to remain stable (Tausch 2003). The assumptions of the world system are:

- there is a financial and technological penetration by the developed capitalist centers of the countries of the periphery and semi-periphery;
- this produces an unbalanced economic structure both within the peripheral societies and between them and the centers;
- this leads to limitations on self-sustained growth in the periphery;
- this favors the appearance of specific patterns of class relations;
- these require modifications in the role of the state to guarantee both the functioning of the economy and the political articulation of a society, which contains, within itself, focus of inarticulateness and structural imbalance.

By the assumptions of the world systems theory, Chirot (1986) agrees that they lead to dependency of poor states through making them suppliers of large quantity of raw material, cheap labor, enormous profits from direct capital investments, market for exports, and skilled professional labor through migration of these people from the noncore to the core.

### 2.3.3.1. Criticisms of the World Systems Theory

World-systems theory has attracted criticisms from its rivals as;

- notably for being too focused on economy and not enough on culture, and
- for being too core-centric and state-centric
- The positivists criticize the approach as too prone to generalization,
- Lacking quantitative data and failing to put forth a falsifiable proposition.
- Orthodox Marxists find the world-systems approach deviating too far from orthodox Marxist principles, such as not giving enough weight to the concept of social class.
- The state autonomists criticize the theory for blurring the boundaries between state and businesses. Further, the positivists, the orthodox Marxists and the state autonomists argue that state should be the central unit of analysis.
- Finally, the culturalists argue that world-systems theory puts too much importance on the economy and not enough on the culture (Chirot, 1977)

### 2.3.3.2. Conclusion

Dependency and world system theory propose that the poverty and backwardness of poor countries are caused by their peripheral position in the international division of labor. Since the capitalist world system evolved, the distinction between the central and the peripheral nations has grown and diverged. Proponents of world-systems analysis see the world stratification system the same way Karl Marx viewed class (ownership versus non-ownership of the means of production) and Max Weber viewed class (which, in addition to ownership, stressed occupational skill level in the production process).

The core nations primarily own and control the major means of production in the world and perform the higher-level production tasks. The periphery nations own very little of the world's means of production (even when they are located in periphery nations) and provide less-skilled labor. Like a class system with a nation, class positions in the world economy resulting in unequal rewards or resources. The core nations receive the greatest share of surplus production, and periphery nations receive the least. Furthermore, core nations are usually able to purchase raw materials and other goods from noncore nations at low prices, while demanding higher prices for their exports to noncore nations.

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Wallerstein characterizes the world system as a set of mechanisms which redistributes surplus value from the *periphery* to the *core*. In his terminology, the *core* is the developed, industrialized part of the world, and the *periphery* is the "underdeveloped", typically raw materials-exporting, poor part of the world; the *market* being the means by which the *core* exploits the *periphery*.

### 2.3.4. Marxist Theory

This approach became popular in security studies in the 1970s. According to this approach, economic factors and struggle for the control of state resources are the bases for security threats /relations among states. Some of the assumptions are:

Within the structure powerful states struggling for the control of means of production can lead to violent conflict situations between the proletariat and bourgeois.

Marxist approach contends that the state should control the economy and abolish private ownership of property and every individual should be catered for according to his/her needs. If the state unilaterally controls the economy, selfish pursuits, which form major security threat, must be addressed.

The issue of selfish accumulation of wealth would not arise if private ownership of property is discouraged. The crimes and threats that crop-up through the struggle for control of resources would have been eliminated, if no individual is allowed to own a property.

Nevertheless, struggle for the control of the state resources by individual actors tends to generate tension in the polity and those who perceive exclusion can resort to violence and other forms of criminality like armed robbery, terrorism, and insurgency.

Weak nations or developing countries appear to be the most palpable victims of such structural tension. In the process, the insurgents engage government forces in armed struggle. In replenishing their armoury, insurgents and government often use valuable resources (they are fighting over) to purchase weapons, most of which come from developed countries. In this case, powerful nations derive enormous economic benefits from such a situation of violence and insecurity in the weak states.

Marxist ideals reject the modernization and other western theories as exploitative of the poor states explaining the persistent high levels poverty and underdevelopment of the poorer countries. The traditional neo-classical approach said virtually nothing on this question except to assert that the poorer countries were late in coming to solid economic practices and that as soon as they learned the techniques of modern economics, then the poverty would begin to subside.

However, Marxists theorists viewed the persistent poverty as a consequence of capitalist exploitation. And a new body of thought, called the world systems approach, argued that the poverty was a direct consequence of the evolution of the international political economy into a fairly rigid division of labor which favored the rich and penalized the poor.

### 2.3.5. The Globalisation Theory

This will be discussed in class as a case study.

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## 3| Concepts Used in International Development

### 3.1. Introduction

A concept is a general idea derived or inferred from specific instances or occurrences. It is something formed in the mind as a thought or notion. Some examples of Concepts are mental representations, where concepts are entities that exist in the brain and abstract objects, where objects are the constituents of propositions that mediate between thought, language, and referents (Carey, 1999). The concepts below are in common use today in international development. The unit has the main body defining the key terms.

### 3.2. International Economic Inequality

International inequality is inequality between countries (Milanovic, 2002). Economic differences between rich and poor countries are considerable. According to the United Nations Human Development Report 2004, income inequality is surging especially in poor states. The distance between rich and poor is denying quality life to people.

Economic inequality (also described as the gap between rich and poor, income inequality, wealth disparity, or wealth and income differences) is the difference between individuals or populations in the distribution of their assets, wealth, or income. The term typically refers to inequality among individuals and groups within a society, but can also refer to inequality among countries. The issue of economic inequality involves equity, equality of outcome, equality of opportunity, and life expectancy (Wiemer, Brian & Timothy, 2009).

Economic inequality varies between societies, historical periods, economic structures and systems, such as capitalism or socialism, and individuals' abilities to create wealth. The term can refer to cross sectional descriptions of the income or wealth at any particular period and to the lifetime income and wealth over longer periods of time.

International development institutions and International Organizations such as the UN promote the realization of the fact that economic practices such as rapid globalization and certain aspects of international capitalism can lead to, and, allegedly, have led to an economic divide between countries, sometimes called the North-South divide. Such organizations often make it a goal to help reduce these divides by encouraging co-operation amongst the Global South and other practices and policies that can accomplish this.

International development can also cause inequality between richer and poorer factions of one nation's society. For example, when economic growth boosts development and industrialization, it can create a class divide by creating demand for more educated people in order to maintain corporate and industrial profitability. Thus, the popular demand for education drives the cost of education higher through the principle of 'supply and demand' as people would want to be part of the new economic elite. Higher costs for education lead to a situation where only the people with enough money to pay for education can receive sufficient education to qualify for the better-paying jobs that mass-development brings about. This restricts poorer people to lesser-paying jobs but technological development makes some of these jobs obsolete (for example, by introducing electronic machines to take over a job, such as creating a series of machines such as lawn mowers to make people such as gardeners obsolete). This leads to a situation where poorer people can't improve their lives as easily as they could have in a less developed society. That is partially why institutions such as the Center for Global Development are searching for "pro-poor" economic policies to improve quality of life.

### 3.3. Dignity

Dignity is a term used in moral, ethical, legal, and political discussions to signify that a being has an innate right to be valued and receive ethical treatment. It is an extension of the Enlightenment-era concepts of inherent, inalienable rights. Dignity is often used in proscriptive and cautionary ways: for example in politics it is usually used to critique the treatment of oppressed and vulnerable groups and peoples, but it has also been extended to apply to cultures and sub-cultures, religious beliefs and ideals, animals used for food or research, and plants. Dignity also has descriptive meanings about human worth, although no exact or agreed-upon definition exists. In general, the term has various functions and meanings depending on how the term is used and on the context.

Modern poverty reduction and development programmes often have dignity as a central theme if quality life must be attained in the world. Dignity is also a central theme of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, the very first article of which starts with:

***"All human beings are born free and equal in dignity and rights."***

The concept of dignity in development has been extensively explored by many, and related to all of the development sectors. For example, in *Development with Dignity* Amit Bhaduri argues that full employment with dignity for all is both important and possible in India, while the UN Millennium Project's task force on Water and Sanitation links the sector directly to dignity in the report *Health, Dignity and Development: What will it take?*. The Asian Human Rights Commission released a statement in 2006 claiming that:

***"Human dignity is the true measure of human development."***

In international development dignity denotes respect and status, and it is often used to suggest that someone is not receiving a proper degree of respect, or even that they are failing to treat themselves with proper self-respect.

It is an inherent right to be valued or esteemed, it is something more profound and important than "respect," which itself is more substantive than "face," which is often considered an Asian concept but in reality is a human universal desire for respectability. It is the basis on which much of our lives operate, or on which we hope that they would. Humans try to ensure dignity in our normal activities through protocols and good manners, means to codify dignity so that everyone understands what is expected, and thus dignity is maintained (Nauert, 1995).

### 3.4. Participation

The concept of participation is concerned with ensuring that the intended beneficiaries of development projects and programmes are themselves involved in the planning and execution of those projects and programmes. This is considered important as it empowers the recipients of development projects to influence and manage their own development - thereby removing any culture of dependency. It is widely considered to be one of the most important concepts in modern development theory. The *UN System Network on Rural Development and Food Security* describes participation according to UN System Network on Rural Development and Food Security as:

***"One of the ends as well as one of the means of development"***

### 3.5. Appropriateness

The concept of something being appropriate is concerned with ensuring that a development project or programme is of the correct scale and technical level, and is culturally and socially suitable for its beneficiaries. This should not be confused with ensuring something is low-technology, cheap or basic. A

project is appropriate if it is acceptable to its recipients and owners, economically affordable and sustainable in the context in which it is executed. For example, in a rural sub-Saharan community, it may not be appropriate to provide a chlorinated and pumped water system because it cannot be maintained or controlled adequately simple hand pumps may be better; while in a big city in the same country it would be inappropriate to provide water with hand pumps, and the chlorinated system would be the correct response. This means that if international development must be achieved as stated by the Millennium Development Goals 2000-2015, then projects to improve the quality of lives should be appropriate not to the sponsors but to the people it intends to help adopted through a participatory approach.

The economist E. F. Schumacher championed the cause of appropriate technology and founded the organization ITDG (Intermediate Technology Design Group), which develops and provides appropriate technologies for development (ITDG has now been renamed Practical Action). While the concept of right-financing has been developed to reflect the need for public and private financial support systems that foster and enable development, rather than hinder it.

However, you must carefully analyze if the developmental projects sent to the third world should be appropriate to the needs of the local people, tailored to their African problems. Many times, the projects are not designed to solve the needs of the Africans for example meaning that even the use of the word is selective, when it comes to its implementation in western states-it succeeds but many times fails in the poor states due to all the reasons that have made poor states poor of stagnant in poverty.

### *3.6. Sustainability/ Sustainable Development*

The term 'sustainable development' was used by the Brundtland Commission, which coined what has become the most often-quoted definition of sustainable development: "development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs."

It is one of the key concepts in international development, and is critical in removing dependency on overseas aid. A sustainable approach to development is one which takes account of economic, social and environmental factors to produce projects and programmes which will have results which are not dependent on finite resources.

Something, which is sustainable, will not use more natural resources than the local environment can supply; more financial resources than the local community and markets can sustain; and will have the necessary support from the community, government and other stakeholders to carry on indefinitely, for Sustainable business practices lead to economic growth and empowerment for farming communities in northern Uganda under National Agricultural Advisory Development projects (NAADS).

Sustainable development refers to a mode of human development in which resources use aims to meet human needs while ensuring the sustainability of natural systems and the environment. These needs can be met in the present and for generations to come.

Sustainable development ties together concern for the carrying capacity of natural systems with the social challenges faced by humanity. As early as the 1970s, "sustainability" was employed to describe an economy "in equilibrium with basic ecological support systems." Ecologists have pointed to *The Limits to Growth*, and presented the alternative of a "steady state economy" in order to address environmental concerns.

The concept of sustainable development has in the past most often been broken out into three constituent parts: environmental sustainability, economic sustainability and socio-political sustainability. More recently, it has been suggested that a more consistent analytical breakdown is to distinguish four domains of economic, ecological, political and cultural sustainability. This is consistent with the UCLG move to make 'culture' the fourth domain of sustainability. Other important sources refer to the fourth domain as 'institutional' or as 'good governance'.

Sustainability interfaces with economics through the social and environmental consequences of economic activity. Sustainability economics involves ecological economics where social aspects including

cultural, health-related and monetary/financial aspects are integrated. Moving towards sustainability is also a social challenge that entails international and national law, urban planning and transport, local and individual lifestyles and ethical consumerism.

Ways of living more sustainably can take many forms from reorganizing living conditions (e.g., eco-villages, eco-municipalities and sustainable cities), reappraising economic sectors (perma culture, green building, sustainable agriculture), or work practices (sustainable architecture), using science to develop new technologies (green technologies, renewable energy and sustainable Fission and Fusion power), to adjustments in individual lifestyles that conserve natural resources.

Despite the increased popularity of the use of the term "sustainability", the possibility that human societies will achieve environmental sustainability has been, and continues to be, questioned in light of environmental degradation, climate change, overconsumption, and societies' pursuit of indefinite economic growth in a closed system.

Sustainable development is a term widely used by politicians all over the world, even though the notion is still rather new and lacks a uniform interpretation. Important as it is, the concept of sustainable development is still being developed and the definition of the term is constantly being revised, extended, and refined.

According to the classical definition given by the United Nations World Commission on Environment and Development in 1987, development is sustainable if it "meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs." It is usually understood that this "intergenerational" equity would be impossible to achieve in the absence of present-day social equity, if the economic activities of some groups of people continue to jeopardize the well-being of people belonging to other groups or living in other parts of the world. Imagine, for example, that emissions of greenhouse gases, generated mainly by highly industrialized countries, lead to global warming and flooding of certain low lying islands resulting in the displacement and impoverishment of entire island nations. Or consider the situation when higher profits of pharmaceutical companies are earned at the cost of millions of poor people being unable to afford medications needed for treating their life-threatening diseases.

"Sustainable" development could probably be otherwise called "equitable and balanced," meaning that, in order for development to continue indefinitely, it should balance the interests of different groups of people, within the same generation and among generations, and do so simultaneously in three major interrelate areas like economic, social, and environmental. So, sustainable development is about equity, defined as equality of opportunities for well-being and comprehensiveness of objectives.

### 3.6.1. Self-Assessment Questions

- Q1. Discuss the concept sustainability as used in international development today.
- Q2. What challenges do poor states face in trying to ensure sustainability in international development?

### *3.7. Capacity Building*

Capacity building for some is concerned with increasing the ability or potential of the recipients of development projects to continue their future development alone, without external support. It is a parallel concept to sustainability, aimed at empowering the person as it furthers the ability of society to function independently in its own microcosm. For others it has had a wider connotation for several decades.

For example, the lead within the UN system for action and thinking in this area was given to United Nations Development Program (UNDP) and it has offered guidance to its staff and governments on what was then called institution building since the early 1970s. This involved building up the ability of basic national organizations, in areas such as civil aviation, meteorology, agriculture, health, nutrition to do their tasks well. All UN specialized agencies were supposed to be active in support of capacity building in the areas for which they were technically qualified e.g. FAO for the rural sector and agriculture, World Health Organization

(WHO) for health etc., but they achieved mixed results. USAID UK/Department for International Development (DFID) and some of the Nordic donors were also active in the area, as were some of the Soviet bloc countries, but the success of their efforts was affected by the perception that national political interests motivated their efforts.

By 1991, the term had evolved and become 'capacity building'. UNDP defined 'capacity building' as the creation of an enabling environment with appropriate policy and legal frameworks, institutional development, including community participation (of women in particular), human resources development and strengthening of managerial systems, adding that, UNDP recognizes that capacity building is a long-term, continuing process, in which all stakeholders participate (ministries, local authorities, non-governmental organizations and water user groups, professional associations, academics and others).

By 1995, the UN General Assembly had commissioned and received (1998) evaluations of the impact of the UN system's support for capacity building. These evaluations were carried out as part of the UN General Assembly's triennial policy review during which it looks at and provides overall guidance of all UN system development activities. It remains a protean concept used by different agencies in different ways to serve their respective agendas. One essential element common to most serious organizations working in the field is that it covers much more than training.

Capacity building has fast become a major topic among nonprofits and management support organizations (funders, associations, training centers, consultants, etc.) that provide services to nonprofits. There are a variety of definitions for capacity building. Perhaps the most fundamental definition is "actions that improve nonprofit effectiveness". Some other discussions about capacity building refer to the concept as actions that enhance a non-profit's ability to work towards its mission.

The concept of capacity building in nonprofits is similar to the concept of organizational development, organizational effectiveness and/or organizational performance management in for-profits. Capacity building efforts can include a broad range of approaches, e.g., granting operating funds, granting management development funds, providing training and development sessions, providing coaching, supporting collaboration with other nonprofits, etc. Prominent methods of organizational performance management in for-profits are beginning to be mentioned in discussions about capacity building, for example, the Balanced Scorecard, principles of organizational change, cultural change, organizational learning, etc.

### *3.8. Rights-Based Approach*

Rights-based approach to development has been adopted by many non-governmental organizations and the United Nations as the new approach to international development. Rights-based approach combines many different concepts of international development, such as capacity building, human rights, participation, and sustainability. The rights-based approach to development aims to empower the rights-holders, or the group that does not exercise full rights, and strengthens the capacity of the duty-bearers, or the institution or government obligated to fill these rights.

### *3.9. Gender Based Approach*

The Gender and Development (GAD) approach determines how best to structure development projects and programs based on analysis of gender relationships. It was developed in the 1980s as an alternative to the Women in Development (WID) approach that was in common use until then. Unlike WID, the GAD approach is not concerned specifically with women, but with the way in which a society assigns roles, responsibilities and expectations to both women and men. GAD applies gender analysis to uncover the ways in which men and women work together, presenting results in neutral terms of economics and efficiency (Janet, 2009).

Caroline Moser developed the Moser Gender Planning Framework for GAD-oriented development planning in the 1980s while working at the Development Planning Unit of the University of London. Working



with Caren Levy, she expanded it into a methodology for gender policy and planning. The Moser framework follows the Gender and Development approach in emphasizing the importance of gender relations.

As with the WID-based Harvard Analytical Framework, it includes collection of quantitative empirical facts. Going further, it investigates the reasons and processes that lead to conventions of access and control. The Moser Framework includes gender roles identification, gender needs assessment, disaggregating control of resources and decision making within the household, planning for balancing the triple role, distinguishing between different aims in interventions and involving women and gender-aware organizations in planning.

The 'World Bank' was one of the first international organizations to recognize the need for Women in Development, appointing a WID Adviser in 1977. In 1984 the bank mandated that its programs consider women's issues. In 1994 the bank issued a policy paper on Gender and Development, reflecting current thinking on the subject. This policy aims to address policy and institutional constraints that maintain disparities between the genders and thus limit the effectiveness of development programs since they have impact on quality of lives.

The concept of GAD has been criticized for emphasizing the social differences between men and women while neglecting the bonds between them and also the potential for changes in roles. Another criticism is that GAD does not dig deep enough into social relations and so may not explain how these relations can undermine programs directed at women. It also does not uncover the types of trade-off that women are prepared to make for the sake of achieving their ideals of marriage or motherhood. The concept is said to benefit the women in developed states of the world and neglect those of the poor states (Raana, 1996).

### *3.10. The Millennium Development Goals*

These include the 8 goals and the 3 additional goals that were reached at in the United Nations termed the MDGs 2000-2015 aimed at eradication of poverty and improvement of lives around the world especially poor states. The MDGs become a core concept for anyone who seeks to understand international development. They will be discussed later in our lectures for deeper analysis.

#### 3.10.1. Self-Assessment Exercise

- Discuss the politics of development in the world using the key concepts
- What is capacity building?
- What is sustainable development?
- Why are development policies in Africa not participatory and appropriate to support long term development?
- "Women have been left out in issues of development in poor states" do you agree?

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## 4| The Causes of Under Development in Third World States

### 4.1. Introduction

#### 4.1.1. What Is Underdevelopment?

It is a term used to refer to less industrialized states of the world found in the South with low levels of technology, industrialization, high populations, poverty, diseases, political instabilities, and poor governance. The world consists of a group of rich nations and many developing nations. The countries that are now fully developed have never been underdeveloped in the first place, though they might have been undeveloped.

In contrast, underdeveloped nations are said to be caught up in a vicious circle of poverty. In such countries as Asia, Africa, and Latin America, where financial problems and Economic stagnancy exist, people live below the poverty line, leading to poor quality of life.

Since the end of World War II (1939-1945) the world has been experiencing a worldwide struggle to improve living conditions in the so-called developing countries.

#### 4.1.2. What Is a Developed Country?

This is one which provides a high standard of living to its people as a result of the per capita income and Gross Natural Product (GNP), for example European countries, which have already developed all their resources and have reached a high level of development, can now generate their own capital as they do not have any financial restrictions and can thus enjoy a high standard of living, a high capital income and a high productivity.

According to Professor Ragnar Nurkse, 'Economic development has much to do with human endowments, social attitudes, political conditions and historical accidents,' implying that underdevelopment is a man-made problem, for which man-made solution needs to be found.

According to dependence theories, the cause of underdevelopment is the dependence on industrialized countries while internal factors of developing countries are considered irrelevant or seen as symptoms and consequences of dependence.

### 4.2. Causes of Underdevelopment

#### 4.2.1. Internal Causes

- Ligancy of slave trade and colonialism
- Globalization and its effects (imperialism leading to dependency)
- High population growth
- Rural- urban migrations
- Poverty, illiteracy and disease
- Poor governance
- Training and skills development
- Low/no industrialization
- Lack of political stability accounts for many of the development problems in post-colonial Africa, and has deep historical roots

## The Causes of Under Development in Third World States

- The ethnic diversity of the continent is extraordinary; linguists have identified around 900 separate language groups
- Nation-building in Africa's independent states has thus been particularly difficult
- National endeavors have been hampered by internal conflicts and civil wars, and at worst a form of anarchy, as seen in the Congo
- Bad governance for example abuse of human rights, lack of free and fair elections, no rule of law among others, etc

### 4.2.2. External Causes

- Slave trade
- Foreign aid
- Dumping
- Foreign domination, etc

### *4.3. Impacts on International Development*

- Cause poor quality of lives in third world states which have become an international concern for the world at large by threatening human security.
- Led to many intra-state conflicts that have made third world states for example the ones in Africa have created one of the worst living conditions in the world
- Corruption
- Wrong policies
- Dependency upon developed countries, and
- Terrorism
- Under elopement
- High levels of unemployment
- Wide disparity between their rich and poor populations, and
- An unhealthy balance of trade

### *4.4. Symptoms of Underdevelopment (Lack of Basic Needs)*

- Lack of access to job opportunities,
- Health care,
- Lack of safe and clean drinkable water,
- Lack of food,
- High levels of unemployment
- Education and,
- Housing

### *4.5. Solutions to Underdevelopment*

- Industrialize to create employment and economic development
- Add value to agricultural product and sell high
- Develop African theories for African problems
- Stop/limit dependency on Foreign aid
- Training and skills development to enhance capacity building and empowerment
- Practice good governance

4.5.1. Self-Assessment Questions

- Q1. Discuss how underdevelopment is causing poor quality lives in less developed countries in international development
- Q2. Discuss the concept of globalization as the cause of poor quality lives in Africa
- Q3. What are the negative impacts of underdevelopment in Africa?
- Q4. What solutions can you suggest for improvement of quality lives in poor states of Africa
- Q5. "The cause of underdevelopment in Africa is majorly caused by slave trade and colonialism" Do you agree?

*4.6. Conclusion*

The underdevelopment of underdeveloped states is the lack of determination. If people and the Government work together for the better future of their nation, they can do it, but the problem is who to start and where to start because the system is very weak. Developed states do not guide properly to underdeveloped nations, developed nations take them as their competitor. Yes, underdeveloped states can be developed with the help of proper utilization of wealth, resources, and labor. The main focus of underdeveloped states should be on the education of their people, because educated people and skilled people can play a fruitful role in the development of the nation. All these causes of underdevelopment are mainly due to Slave trade and colonialism.

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# 5| Communication for International Development

## 5.1. Introduction

Communication in Latin is *commūnicāre*, meaning "to share" which is the activity of conveying information through the exchange of thoughts, messages, or information, as by speech, visuals, signals, writing, or behavior. It is the meaningful exchange of information between two or more living creatures (people). Communication is like a double-acting hinge, swinging outward to release your own ideas and swinging inward to receive the worthy thoughts of others.

According to the website Ask Define:

*Communication is the process of transferring information from a sender to a receiver with the use of a medium in which the communicated information is understood by both sender and receiver. It is a process that allows organisms to exchange information by several methods.*

In its simplest form communication is the use of words to describe and convey a message or give information to another person. We communicate using language as a code to share information, ideas and feelings.

Communication is "any act by which one person gives to or receives information from another person about that person's needs, desires, perceptions, knowledge, or affective states. Communication may be intentional or unintentional, may involve conventional or unconventional signals, may take linguistic or non-linguistic forms, and may occur through spoken or other modes."

Communication requires a sender, a message, and a recipient, although the receiver doesn't have to be present or aware of the sender's intent to communicate at the time of communication; thus communication can occur across vast distances in time and space. Communication requires that the communicating parties share an area of communicative commonality. The communication process is complete once the receiver understands the sender's message.

Communicating with others involves three primary steps:

- Thought: First, information exists in the mind of the sender. This can be a concept, idea, information, or feelings.
- Encoding: Next, a message is sent to a receiver in words or other symbols.
- Decoding: Lastly, the receiver translates the words or symbols into a concept or information that a person can understand
- Feedback

### 5.1.1. Self- Assessment Question

- Q1. What does communication mean to you?

## 5.2. Nature of Global Communication

- The study of global communication examines the continuous flows of information used in transferring ideas globally.
- It has been developed worldwide due to globalization and the increasing ability to interact on a global scale.
- Globalization has led to an increasing ability for interaction on a global scale through media.
- Global communication is a growing discipline within university, Communications departments.

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- The study of global communication has increased dramatically due to changes in global interactions and has led to cultural homogenization.
- Global communication spans the entire Earth. Communication is at the heart of everything in our communities, in the workplace and around the world.
- Communication is essential to our identity and our culture. The Global Communication majorly recognizes that communication does not occur in a vacuum and is always situated in a cultural context.
- Global communication at the turn of the 21<sup>st</sup> century has brought about many effects. On the one hand, it is blurring technological, economic, political, and cultural boundaries. Print, photography, film, telephone and telegraphy, broadcasting, satellites, and computer technologies, which developed fairly independently, are rapidly merging into a digital stream of zeros and ones in the global telecommunications networks.
- Politically, global communication is undermining the traditional boundaries and sovereignties of nations. Direct Broadcast Satellite (DBS) is violating national borders by broadcasting foreign news, entertainment, educational, and advertising programs with impunity.
- Similarly, the micro-media of global communication are narrow casting their messages through audio and videocassette recorders, fax machines, computer disks and networks, including the Internet and the World Wide Web. Culturally, the new global communication patterns are creating a new global Coca-Colonized pop culture of commodity fetishism supported by global advertising and the entertainment industry.
- On the other hand, global communication is empowering hitherto forgotten groups and voices in the international community. Its channels have, thus, become the arena for contestation of new economic, political, and cultural boundaries.
- Global communication, particularly in its interactive forms, has created immense new moral spaces for exploring new communities of affinity rather than vicinity. It is, thus, challenging the traditional top-down economic, political, and cultural systems.
- Telecommunications is contributing to changes in the economic infrastructures, competitiveness, trade relations, as well as internal and external politics of states. It also affects national security, including the conduct and deterrence against wars, terrorism, civil war, the emergence of new weapons systems, command and control, and intelligence collection, analysis, and dissemination.
- Global communication is thus redefining power in world politics in ways that traditional theories of international relations have not yet seriously considered. More specifically, it is bringing about significant changes in four major arenas of hard and soft power (Nye & Owens 1996; Cohen 1996).

### 5.3. Types of Communication Used in ID

- *Satellite global networks:* Communication satellites are an important part of global networks.
- *Mobile wireless networks:* It is estimated that 80% of the global mobile market uses the GSM standard, present in more than 212 countries and territories. Its ubiquity makes international roaming very common between mobile phone operators, enabling subscribers to use their phones in many parts of the world.
- *Network interconnection:* The telegraph and telex communication networks have been phased out, so interconnection among existing global networks arise at several points, such as between the voice telephony and digital data networks, and between these and satellite networks. Many applications run now on several networks, such as VoIP (voice over IP).
- *Mobile communication (voice and data) networks* are also intimately Cultural communication
- Internet
- Conferences

## Communication for International Development

- Media (TV, News Papers, etc)
- Social networks
- Digital global networks require huge carrying capacity in the main backbones. This is currently achieved by fiber optic cables.

### 5.4. Social and Economic Impact

#### 5.4.1. Positives

- Emergency of Global Village
- Economic development
- Access to information
- social interaction, activities and organizing
- Modern TV communications have broadcast those areas that cause human suffering
- Advertises for awareness on jobs, goods and services

#### 5.4.2. Negatives

- Destruction of Culture
- Propaganda
- Use to overthrow regimes, etc

### 5.5. Challenges of Global Communication to Poor States in (Africa)

- Poor technology (obsolete)
- Lack of personal
- High levels of illiteracy
- Corruption and embezzlement of funds meant to buy the technology
- Lack of affordability of the technology, etc

#### 5.5.1. Self- Assessment Questions

- Q1. Broadly define Global Communication
- Q2. What are the types of Global Communication in international Development?
- Q3. What are the impacts of global communication in ensuring quality lives in poor states today?
- Q4. Identify the Challenges and Solutions that poor states face in Global Communication today?

### 5.6. Conclusion

Global Communication is promoted using information technology under the concept of globalization. It has connected the world, and students of international development will need to get acquainted with the concepts, use, types, and challenges of global communication. However, third-world states still lag behind this technology for many reasons ranging from poverty to poor leadership and dependency.



## 6| Millennium Development Goals and Other Goals

### 6.1. Introduction

Millennium Development Goals and the Human Development approach. At the same time, some development agencies, for example WHO, are exploring opportunities for public-private partnerships and promoting the idea of corporate social responsibility with the apparent aim of integrating international development with the process of economic globalization.

### 6.2. Millennium Summit

Preparations for the 2000 Millennium Summit launched with the report of the Secretary-General entitled, "***We the Peoples: The Role of the United Nations in the Twenty-First Century.***" Additional input was prepared by the Millennium Forum, which brought together representatives of over 1,000 non-governmental and civil society organizations from more than 100 countries. The Forum met in May, 2000 to conclude a two-year consultation process covering issues such as poverty eradication, environmental protection, human rights and protection of the vulnerable.

MDGs derive from earlier development targets, where world leaders adopted the United Nations Millennium Declaration. The approval of the MDGs was the main outcome of the Millennium Summit. The MDGs originated from the United Nations Millennium Declaration. The Declaration asserted that every individual has the right to dignity, freedom, equality, a basic standard of living that includes freedom from hunger and violence and encourages tolerance and solidarity. The MDGs set concrete targets and indicators for poverty reduction in order to achieve the rights set forth in the Declaration. Predecessor of the MDGs is the Brahimi Report which provided the basis of the goals in the area of peace and security.

The Millennium Summit Declaration was, however, only part of the origins of the MDGs. More ideas came from the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund. A series of UN-led conferences in the 1990s focused on issues such as children, nutrition, human rights and women. The OECD criticized major donors for reducing their levels of Official Development Assistance (ODA). UN Secretary General Kofi Annan signed a report titled, *We the Peoples: The Role of the United Nations in the 21<sup>st</sup> Century*. The OECD had formed its International Development Goals (IDGs). The two efforts were combined for the World Bank's 2001 meeting to form the MDGs.

The MDGs stressed three areas: human capital, infrastructure and human rights (social, economic and political), with the intent of increasing living standards.

- Human capital objectives include nutrition, healthcare (including child mortality, HIV/AIDS, tuberculosis and malaria, and reproductive health) and education.
- Infrastructure objectives include access to safe drinking water, energy and modern information/communication technology; increased farm outputs using sustainable practices; transportation; and environment.
- Human rights objectives include empowering women, reducing violence, increasing political voice, ensuring equal access to public services and increasing security of property rights. The goals were intended to increase an individual's human capabilities and "advance the means to a productive life". The MDGs emphasize that each nation's policies should be tailored to that country's needs; therefore most policy suggestions are general.

## Millennium Development Goals and Other Goals

The three areas of human capital, infrastructure and human rights to promote the partnership, the role of developed countries in aiding developing countries, as outlined in Goal Eight, which sets objectives and targets for developed countries to achieve a "global partnership for development" by supporting fair trade, debt relief, increasing aid, access to affordable essential medicines and encouraging technology transfer. Thus developing nations ostensibly became partners with developed nations in the struggle to reduce world poverty.

### 6.3. What Are the Millennium Development Goals?

The MDGs were developed out of the eight chapters of the Millennium Declaration, signed in September 2000. There are eight goals with 21 targets and a series of measurable health indicators and economic indicators for each target.

#### 6.3.1. Goal 1

Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger to save over 1 billion people living on less than \$1 a day.

The first target is to achieve halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people living on less than \$1.25 a day and the indicators are:

- *Proportion of population below \$1.25 per day (PPP values)*
- *Poverty gap ratio [incidence x depth of poverty]*
- *Share of poorest quintile in national consumption*

The second target is to achieve Decent Employment for Women, Men, and Young People and the indicators are:

- *GDP Growth per Employed Person*
- *Employment Rate*
- *Proportion of employed population below \$1.25 per day (PPP values)*
- *Proportion of family-based workers in employed population*

The third target is to halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people who suffer from hunger and the indicators are:

- *Prevalence of underweight children under five years of age*
- *Proportion of population below minimum level of dietary energy consumption*

#### 6.3.2. Goal 2

Achieve universal primary education. Education is development. It creates choices and opportunities for people, reduces the twin burdens of poverty and diseases, and gives a stronger voice in society. In 2000, over 104 million school-age children were not in school and 94% of them were in developing countries. The target is that by 2015, all children can complete a full course of primary schooling both girls and boys.

##### 6.3.2.1. Strategy

This means enrollment in primary education and completion of primary education.

#### 6.3.3. Goal 3

Promote gender equality and empower women to have an enormous impact on the well-being of their families and societies, yet their potential is not realized because of discriminatory social norms, incentives, and legal institutions. Gender inequality starts early and keeps women at a disadvantage throughout their lives. In some countries, infant girls are less likely to survive than infant boys because of

parental discrimination and neglect even though biologically infant girls should survive in greater numbers. Girls are more likely to drop out of school and to receive less education than boys because of discrimination, education expenses, and household duties.

The target is to eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education preferably by 2005, and at all levels by 2015, and the indicators are the

- *Ratios of girls to boys in primary, secondary and tertiary education*
- *Share of women in wage employment in the non-agricultural sector*
- *Proportion of seats held by women in national parliament*

#### 6.3.4. Goal 4

Reduce child mortality rates. More than 10 million children die each year in the developing world, the vast majority from causes preventable through a combination of good care, nutrition, and medical treatment. Mortality rates for children under five dropped by 15 percent since 1990, but the rates remain high in developing countries. One child out of 10 dies before its fifth birthday in developing countries compared with 1 out of 143 in high-income countries.

The target to reduce by two-thirds, between 1990 and 2015, the under-five mortality rate through the indicators below:

- *Under-five mortality rate*
- *Infant (under 1) mortality rate*
- *Proportion of 1-year-old children immunized against measles*

#### 6.3.5. Goal 5

Improve maternal health. Worldwide more than 50 million women suffer from poor reproductive health and serious pregnancy related illness and disability. And every year more than 500,000 women die from complications of pregnancy and childbirth. Most of the deaths occur in Asia, but the risk of dying is highest in Africa. Women in high-fertility countries in Sub-Saharan Africa have a 1-in-16 lifetime risk of dying from maternal causes, compared with women in low-fertility countries in Europe, who have a 1-in-2,000 risk, and in North America, who have a 1-in-3,500 risk of dying. High maternal mortality rates in many countries are the result of inadequate reproductive health care for women and inadequately spaced births.

The target is to reduce by three quarters, between 1990 and 2015, the maternal mortality ratio and the indicators are:

- *Maternal mortality ratio*
- *Proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel*

The other target is to achieve, by 2015, universal access to reproductive health and the indicators are:

- *Contraceptive prevalence rate*
- *Adolescent birth rate*
- *Antenatal care coverage*
- *Unmet need for family planning*

#### 6.3.6. Goal 6

Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria, and other diseases. HIV/AIDS, tuberculosis, and malaria are among the world's biggest killers, and all have their greatest impact on poor countries and poor people. These diseases interact in ways that make their combined impact worse. Effective prevention and treatment programs will save lives, reduce poverty, and help economies develop. The economic burden of epidemics such as tuberculosis, malaria, and HIV/AIDS on families and communities is enormous. Estimates suggest that

## Millennium Development Goals and Other Goals

tuberculosis costs the average patient three or four months of lost earnings, which can represent up to 30 percent of annual household income; Malaria slows economic growth in Africa by about 1.3 percent a year; and when the prevalence of HIV/AIDS reaches 8 percent, the cost in growth is estimated at about 1 percent a year.

The first target is to have halted by 2015 and begun to reverse the spread of HIV/AIDS. The indicators are:

- *HIV prevalence among population aged 15–24 years*
- *Condom use at last high-risk sex*
- *Proportion of population aged 15–24 years with comprehensive correct knowledge of HIV/AIDS*

The second target is to achieve, by 2010, universal access to treatment for HIV/AIDS for all those who need it and the indicator is: *Proportion of population with advanced HIV infection with access to antiretroviral drugs*

The third target is to have halted by 2015 and begun to reverse the incidence of malaria and other major diseases and the indicators;

- *Prevalence and death rates associated with malaria*
- *Proportion of children under 5 sleeping under insecticide-treated bed nets*
- *Proportion of children under 5 with fever who are treated with appropriate anti-malarial drugs*
- *Incidence, prevalence and death rates associated with tuberculosis*
- *Proportion of tuberculosis cases detected and cured under DOTS (Directly Observed Treatment Short Course)*

### 6.3.7. Goal 7

Ensure environmental sustainability. The environment provides goods and services that sustain human development, ensuring that development sustains the environment. Better natural resource management increases the income and nutrition of poor people. Improved water and sanitation reduce child mortality, and better drainage reduces malaria. It also reduces the risk of disaster from floods. Managing and protecting the environment thus contribute to reaching the other Millennium Development Goals. Fortunately, good policies and economic growth, which work to improve people's lives, can also work to improve the environment.

The first target is to integrate the principles of sustainable development into country policies and programs; reverse loss of environmental resources (No indicators given).

The second reduce biodiversity loss, achieving, by 2010, a significant reduction in the rate of loss and the indicators are:

- *Proportion of land area covered by forest*
- *CO<sub>2</sub> emissions, total, per capita and per \$1 GDP (PPP)*
- *Consumption of ozone-depleting substances*
- *Proportion of fish stocks within safe biological limits*
- *Proportion of total water resources used*
- *Proportion of terrestrial and marine areas protected*
- *Proportion of species threatened with extinction*

The third target is to halve, by 2015, the proportion of the population without sustainable access to safe drinking water and basic sanitation (for more information see the entry on water supply) and indicators are;

- *Proportion of population with sustainable access to an improved water source, urban and rural*
- *Proportion of urban population with access to improved sanitation*

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The fourth target is by 2020, to have achieved a significant improvement in the lives of at least 100 million slum-dwellers

- *Proportion of urban population living in slums*

### 6.3.8. Goal 8

Develop a global partnership for development. Goal 8 calls for an open, rule-based trading and financial system, more generous aid to countries committed to poverty reduction, and relief for the debt problems of developing countries. It draws attention to the problems of the least developed countries and of landlocked countries and Small Island developing states, which have greater difficulty competing in the global economy. It also calls for co-operation with the private sector to address youth unemployment, ensure access to affordable, essential drugs, and make available the benefits of new technologies.

The first target is to develop further an open, rule-based, predictable, non-discriminatory trading and financial system and the indicators:

- *Includes a commitment to good governance, development, and poverty reduction – both nationally and internationally*

The second target addresses the Special Needs of the Least Developed Countries (LDCs)

- *Includes: tariff and quota free access for LDC exports; enhanced programme of debt relief for HIPC and cancellation of official bilateral debt; and more generous ODA (Official Development Assistance) for countries committed to poverty reduction*

The third target is to address the special needs of landlocked developing countries and Small Island developing States and the indicators are:

- *Through the Programme of Action for the Sustainable Development of Small Island Developing States and the outcome of the twenty-second special session of the General Assembly*

The fourth target is to deal comprehensively with the debt problems of developing countries through national and international measures in order to make debt sustainable in the long term

- *Some of the indicators listed below are monitored separately for the least developed countries (LDCs), Africa, landlocked developing countries and Small Island developing States.*
- *Official development assistance (ODA):*
  - *Net ODA, total and to LDCs, as percentage of OECD/DAC donors' GNI*
  - *Proportion of total sector-allocable ODA of OECD/DAC donors to basic social services (basic education, primary health care, nutrition, safe water and sanitation)*
  - *Proportion of bilateral ODA of OECD/DAC donors that is untied*
  - *ODA received in landlocked countries as proportion of their GNIs*
  - *ODA received in small island developing States as proportion of their GNIs*
- *Market access:*
  - *Proportion of total developed country imports (by value and excluding arms) from developing countries and from LDCs, admitted free of duty*
  - *Average tariffs imposed by developed countries on agricultural products and textiles and clothing from developing countries*
  - *Agricultural support estimate for OECD countries as percentage of their GDP*
  - *Proportion of ODA provided to help build trade capacity*
- *Debt sustainability:*
  - *Total number of countries that have reached their HIPC decision points and number that have reached their HIPC completion points (cumulative)*

## Millennium Development Goals and Other Goals

- *Debt relief committed under HIPC initiative, US\$*
- *Debt service as a percentage of exports of goods and services*

The fifth target is to, in co-operation with pharmaceutical companies; provide access to affordable, essential drugs in developing countries and the indicators are:

- *Proportion of population with access to affordable essential drugs on a sustainable basis*

The sixth target is to, in co-operation with the private sector; make available the benefits of new technologies, especially information and communications

- *Telephone lines and cellular subscribers per 100 population*
- *Personal computers in use per 100 population*
- *Internet users per 100 Population*

### 6.4. Other Goals

International development also aims to:

- Improve general government policies of these developing countries,
- State building which is the strengthening of regional institutions necessary to support long-term economic, social, and political development,
- Education is another important aspect of international development. It is a good example of how the focus today is on sustainable development in these countries; education gives people the skills required to keep themselves out of poverty,
- Provision of clean and save water

### 6.5. The Gaps That States Face in Their Attempt to Achieve the Goals

Gaps are those areas that have not been achieved in the process of implementing the goals by states or non-state actors due to and may need more weaknesses/challenges that states have faced in their attempt to achieve the goals. These include:

#### 6.5.1. Lack of Analysis of the Goals

This was right from the start of the goals which did not consider the different levels of development of the different states and did not have to justify the chosen behind the chosen objectives.

#### 6.5.2. Lack of Clear Indicators

The MDGs lack strong objectives and indicators for within-country equality, despite significant disparities in many developing nations.

#### 6.5.3. Lack of Legitimacy

The entire MDG process has been accused of lacking legitimacy as a result of failure to include, often, the voices of the very participants that the MDGs seek to assist. The International Planning Committee for Food Sovereignty, in its Post 2015 thematic consultation document on MDG 1 states "The major limitation of the MDGs by 2015 was the lack of political will to implement due to the lack of ownership of the MDGs by the most affected constituencies."

#### 6.5.4. Human Rights

According to Deneulin & Shahani, the MDGs underemphasize local participation and empowerment (other than women's empowerment). FIAN International, a human rights organization focusing on the right to adequate food, contributed to the Post 2015 process by pointing out a lack of: "primacy of human rights;

qualifying policy coherence; and of human rights based monitoring and accountability."Without such accountability, no substantial change in national and international policies can be expected.

#### 6.5.5. Infrastructure

The MDGs were attacked for insufficient emphasis on environmental sustainability. Thus, they do not capture all elements needed to achieve the ideals set out in the Millennium Declaration. Agriculture was not specifically mentioned in the MDGs even though most of the world's poor are farmers.

#### 6.5.6. Human Capital

MDG 2 focuses on primary education and emphasizes enrollment and completion. In some countries, primary enrollment increased at the expense of achievement levels. In some cases, the emphasis on primary education has negatively affected secondary and post-secondary education. The goals related to maternal mortality, malaria and tuberculosis are impossible to measure and that current UN estimates lack of scientific validity or are missing. Household surveys are the primary measure for the health MDGs. Furthermore, countries with the highest levels of these conditions typically have the least reliable data collection and inaccurate measures, it is impossible to determine the amount of progress.

#### 6.5.7. Equality

Further developments in rethinking strategies and approaches to achieving the MDGs include research by the Overseas Development Institute into the role of equity. Researchers at the ODI argued that progress could be accelerated due to recent breakthroughs in the role equity plays in creating a virtuous circle where rising equity ensures the poor participate in their country's development and creates reductions in poverty and financial stability. Yet equity should not be understood purely as economic, but also as political.

#### 6.5.8. Women's Issues

Although states in developing countries have improved maternal health, more than 50 million women globally still suffer from poor reproductive health and serious pregnancy related illness and disability. And every year more than 500,000 women die from complications of pregnancy and childbirth. Most of the deaths occur in Asia, but the risk of dying is highest in Africa.

#### 6.6. Conclusion

The intentions of the MDGs are good but the strategies being used need to be checked or reviewed as many poor states have faced more underdevelopment towards the end time frame of the goals 2015. These goals clearly will not achieve its aims and objectives due to the gaps discussed above.

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# 7| International Development Organizations

## 7.1. Introduction

According to Evans, Graham, and Richard Newnham (1998), an international organ is an organization with a global membership, scope, or presence. There are three main types: International non-governmental organizations, non-governmental organizations, and Inter-governmental organizations, also known as international governmental organizations.

According to Inis Claude (1964), the process of an international organization is a significant feature of the dynamic pattern of international relations in the contemporary world. They tie all the world's peoples together in unprecedented intimacy of contact, the interdependency of welfare, and mutuality of vulnerability to escape all factors that may disrupt peace in the world community.

International organization is fundamentally, even though not exclusively, a reaction to the problem of war, but the fact remains that their main impetus is to avoid war through peaceful methods.

An *international organization* is "a body that promotes voluntary cooperation and coordination between or among its members". There are many types of international organizations, but one way of categorizing them is to distinguish between *intergovernmental organizations* and *supranational organizations*. The European Union is partly an intergovernmental organization and partly a supranational organization. Both of these elements exist in the European Union.

An international organization is an organization with an excellent membership, scope, or presence. There are two main types:

- International non-governmental organizations (INGOs): non-governmental organizations (NGOs) that operate internationally. There are two types:
  - International non-profit organizations. Examples include the World Organization of the Scout Movement, International Committee of the Red Cross and Médecins Sans Frontières.
  - International corporations, referred to as multinational corporations. Examples include The Coca-Cola Company and Toyota.
- Intergovernmental organizations, also known as international governmental organizations (IGOs): the type of organization most closely associated with the term 'international organization'. These are organizations made up primarily of sovereign states (referred to as member states). Notable examples include the United Nations (UN), Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe (OSCE), Council of Europe (CoE), European Union (EU; which is a prime example of a supranational organization), and World Trade Organization (WTO). The UN has used the term "intergovernmental organization" instead of "international organization" for clarity.

## 7.2. International Organization and Function

In the United Nations

- World Food Programme for Food
- Food and Agricultural Organization for Food
- World Health Organization for Health
- United Nations Environment Program for Environment
- United Nations Development Program for Development
- United Nations Higher Commission for Refugees for taking care of refugees rights



## International Development

- United Nations International Education Fund for educating Children
- International Labor Organization 1919: the declaration contains four fundamental policies; the right of workers to associate freely and bargain collectively, the end of forced and compulsory labour, and the end of child labour; and the end of unfair discrimination among workers

### 7.3. Outside the United Nations

- Red Cross and Red Crescent,
- Amnesty International,
- International Committee of the Red Cross,
- The International Organization for Migration,
- The Department for International Development (DFID) leads the UK's work to end extreme poverty. We're ending the need for aid by creating jobs, unlocking the potential of girls and women and helping to save lives when humanitarian emergencies hit,
- International Committee of the Red Cross
- Médecins Sans Frontières for Medicines

### 7.4. Conclusion

International Organizations have different functions but work together to ensure international development the world over, although they have been accused of favouritism of the developed states and neglect of the poor states explaining the states of the North are developed and the one of the South not developed in a world said to be "Globalized".

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## 8| Non-Governmental Organization (NGO)

### *8.1. Introduction*

NGOs are considered as the 'third' sector of the economy as it bridges the gaps left by the private and public sectors in order to promote quality lives and sustainable development especially in poor states of the world.

The term, "non-governmental organization" or NGO, came into use in 1945 because of the need for the UN to differentiate in its Charter between participation rights for intergovernmental specialized agencies and those for international private organizations. Virtually all types of private bodies can be recognized as NGOs at the UN. They only have to be independent from government control, not seeking to challenge governments either as a political party or by a narrow focus on human rights, non-profit-making and non-criminal. The majority of these organizations is charity organizations, and thus would not fall under the category of development-oriented NGOs. The term NGO is primarily used for organizations other than charitable organizations in this document.

The structures of NGOs vary considerably. More locally-based groups, referred to as grass-roots organizations or community-based organizations, have become active at the national or even the global level with the improvement in communications. Increasingly, this occurs through coalitions with other NGOs for particular goals and objectives to promote international development the world over.

A civil society is composed of three sectors: government, the private sector and civil society. NGOs are components of social movements within a civil society but in many poor states like in Africa, the civil society is not yet mature, but NGOs can have an important role in strengthening the foundations of an emergent civil society, a key issue in international development. The issue of independence is an important one in the credibility of an NGO. It is hard for NGOs not to come under any governmental influence. Individual governments do at times try to influence the NGO community in a particular field, by establishing NGOs that promote their policies. This has been recognized by quite common use of the acronym GONGO, to label a government-organized NGO.

Also, in more authoritarian societies, NGOs may find it very difficult to act independently and they may not receive acknowledgment from other political actors even when they are acting independently. On the other hand, development and humanitarian relief NGOs need substantial resources, to run their operational programs, so most of them readily accept official funds. It is thus important for the NGO to have transparency in its operations and goals so that its relationship.

### *8.2. Types of NGOs*

NGOs can be distinguished into two groups: Operational and advocacy NGOs. This may be interpreted as the choice between small-scale change achieved directly through projects and large-scale change promoted indirectly through influence on the political system.

#### 8.2.1. Operational NGOs

These have to mobilize resources, in financial donations, materials, or volunteer labor, to sustain their projects and programs. This process may require quite complex organization. Finance obtained from grants or contracts, from governments, foundations, or companies require time and expertise to prepare applications, budget, accounting, and reporting. Major fund-raising events require skills in advertising, media

relations and motivating supporters. Thus, operational NGOs need to possess an efficient headquarters bureaucracy and the working staff in the field.

### 8.2.2. Advocacy NGOs

These will carry out much the same functions, but with a different balance between them. Fund-raising is still necessary, but on a smaller scale and it can serve the symbolic function of strengthening the donors' identification with the cause. Persuading people to donate their time is necessary, but, in addition to a small number of people giving a great deal of time, it is also necessary to be able to mobilize large numbers for brief periods. External donors may not impose onerous administrative burdens, but supporters still have to be supplied with information efficiently. Major events will aim to attract favorable publicity rather than raise funds. Therefore, both operational and advocacy NGOs need to engage in fund-raising, mobilization of work by supporters, organizing special events, cultivating the media, and administering a headquarters despite their differences. Only the defining activities implementing projects or holding demonstrations serve to differentiate them. In reality, the distinctions are not as sharp as the labels suggest.

Note that: Operational NGOs often move into advocacy when projects regularly face similar problems and the impact of the projects seems to be insufficient. All the large development and environment operational NGOs now run some regular campaigns, at least by supporting campaigning networks. Similarly, advocacy NGOs often feel they cannot ignore the immediate practical problems of people in their policy domain. Human rights NGOs and women's NGOs end up having programs to assist the victims of discrimination and injustice.

### *8.3. Range of NGO Activities*

- *Community Health Promotion and Education which involves:* contraception and intimacy education, general hygiene, waste disposal, water usage, vaccinations and youth counseling services
- *Emerging health crises:* HIV/AIDS education and support, hepatitis, education and drug addiction recovery
- *Community Social Problems:* juvenile crimes, runaway girls, street children and prostitution
- *Environmental:* sustainable water and energy consumption education, *and* keeping mountains and forests clean
- *Economic:* microenterprises and micro-loans, skill training (computers, technician training, catering services, clothing and textile, etc.), product promotion and distribution (bazaars, etc.), cooperative creation, financial consulting, *and* career services and job search assistance
- *Development:* school construction, infrastructure construction, cultural center construction and operation, agriculture and aquaculture expert assistance
- *Women's Issues:* women and children's rights, battered women assistance center, group therapy for sexually abused women, counseling hotlines (telephone-based counseling services for women), legal assistance to women and literacy drives
- *Good governance*

### *8.4. Constituting an NGO Board*

There is a growing need for non-profit and non-governmental organizations (NGOs) to be more effective and productive throughout the world. One of the many ways through which they are achieving this is by broadening and strengthening the constitution of their Boards. An increase in the effectiveness of the NGO board itself has been achieved by bringing together organizations and leaders with a shared interest in the boards; building capacity by training; and developing management and governance tools.

Having a good and effective NGO Board provides a basis for successful management of its organization; familiarizes its target constituents with the activities of the NGO; help in better understanding

the organizational structure of the NGO, and also assists in distributing responsibilities among the team members within the NGO organization. An NGO Board may be called by different names - 'Board of Directors', 'Steering Committee', 'Advisory Group' etc. The term 'Board' is used collectively and interchangeably to mean all these names.

#### *8.5. Board Functions*

How does an NGO board function? What does it do? It, first of all, sets policies and strategies for the NGO, in line with the agreed purposes, principles and scope of the NGO. It also sets operational guidelines, work plans and budgets for the NGO and policy and program support. Many times, it is also called on to make funding decisions. It assists the internal workings of the NGO by setting criteria for membership of, and appointing, review panels and/or support groups. It may also establish a framework for monitoring and periodic independent evaluation of performance and financial accountability of activities supported by the NGO.

One of its main roles is representation of the NGO in the larger community. It represents views of the NGO in various constituencies, or within the NGO community in relation to outside.

Constituting an NGO Board organization is frequently asked to co-ordinate with outside agencies, as well as advocate for the NGO, and mobilize resources. Often, the Board is the first contact that an NGO's target audience has, and in some cases it is the first contact where peoples' concerns are actually heard - due to the high standing of Board members in the community. The Board's presence in the field sometimes forces decision-makers to listen to affected peoples' concerns, and can help to open up alternative solutions. Within the board set-up itself, an NGO board selects and appoints chairpersons for the Board, and also participates on committees and working groups of the NGO.

#### *8.6. Mandate and Working Methods*

What are the mandate and working methods of NGO board members? They participate fully in all meetings of the Board (including study all relevant documents in order to provide input in the decision-making process). Many NGO Board Members are also expected to participate in teleconferences and other virtual means of communications among Board members, the NGO community, networks and with the other NGO Board members - especially due to their work schedules, etc.

NGO Board Members advocate the participation of community representatives in the design, implementation and evaluation of policies and programs at all levels of the NGO. They provide input into equitable and appropriate allocation of resources and maintain a focus on issues of importance to the community and NGO movements in general. Board members also seek information from the community on critical issues related to relevant documents and consult with and report to the broader community of NGOs and CBOs and people and communities and appoint advisors for the NGO's programs and projects.

#### *8.7. Qualifications and Criteria for Selection*

Who should become an NGO's Board Member? What criterion is necessary to select Board members? Based on the Board's functions, including representing the various constituencies, the process of selection of Board members (and their designated Alternates) takes several criteria into consideration. Board members should possess an understanding of the scope of work of the NGP/NPO and opportunities it presents; the ability to strengthen the Board's understanding of NGO and other issues; have experience and responsibility to carry out tasks and roles of the Board; represent issues related to NGO involvement in its target issue/area; and represent issues related to the NGO's target community. They should also have a minimum number of years in front-line community work, and an ability and capacity to communicate and network effectively and broadly (for example, they must have functioning communications linkages such as telephone, fax, computer and email).

Board Members are expected to have the ability to represent and promote the NGO publicly, as a

Board member representing the NGO community; ability to act within a team setting; be gender sensitive; possess diplomatic and strategic political skills, including capacity to think and work strategically; possess the ability to work in international and local languages; and also have linkages to an organization that can facilitate communication and liaison; and provide consultation and support.

### *8.8. Composition of a Board*

An NGO Board usually has 10 to 15 members, with a President, a Treasurer and other positions to specific tasks/issues related to the NGO's program areas. The member positions could be rotating and/or renewable.

#### 8.8.1. Length of Terms

The length of terms for NGO Board Members and Alternates varies from organization to organization, but usually ranges from one to three years.

#### 8.8.2. Cessation of Appointment

Due to the nature of the work and contribution to the workings of an NGO board, criteria for cessation of appointment are also usually set out. An NGO Board Member could cease to be a

Member if he/she resigns, he/she no longer has an employer who is supportive of the time commitment required or he/she no longer has links to the organizations that secured his/her nomination and/or selection to the Board; he/she is unable to perform the agreed upon tasks; he/she is unable to work with the other NGO Board Members as part of a team; or if a conflict of interest is declared.

### *8.9. Setting up an NGO By-Laws*

By-laws are internal documents, a set of rules that enables each organization to conduct its affairs.

It is important they be written clearly and in language that is easily understood by all organization stakeholders. This document is frequently necessary for the registration of an NGO with national and public authorities. Typical items addressed in the by-laws are:

- *Name and purpose of the NGO:* The Purpose is usually a restatement of the NGO's Mission Statement, but can contain additional details
- *The frequency, notice, and quorum requirements for organizational meetings:* These can be internal or regular meeting of the NGO, or external meetings such as those for the general public, with other stakeholders, etc. Voting qualifications, proxies, and procedures for approval of boards. This is related to the governance structure of the NGO's board. The number and term for members of the board, scope of authority, method of nomination and election to the board, and provision for filling vacancies. List of board officers, method of nomination and election, terms of office, powers, duties, and succession.
- *Membership and authority of committees or working groups:* Many of an NGO's works are done through sub-committees or groups, and provisions need to be made for such committees. Title and scope of authority for the executive director and other staff members who are responsible for the day to day functioning of the NGO.
- *Record-keeping and financial reporting responsibilities:* In many countries this is necessary for the maintenance of the tax-exempt status of an NGO.

**Note:** Amendment procedures for the by-laws and provisions for dissolution of the organization. Writing and gaining approval for a set of by-laws takes thought, time, and the involvement of the organization's constituents. By-laws should be written with an emphasis on fair treatment and transparent governance.

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### *8.10. An NGO Approach to Solving Community Problems*

When an NGO approaches solving a problem, they can pursue the following structures:

- Gather information on the issue
- What exactly is the problem?
- What is causing the problem?
- Who are the persons/organizations responsible (for e.g. it could be a particular department of the government/an industry)?
- What are the consequences going to be? Assess magnitude, quality and prevalence.
- What are the alternatives/possible solutions?
- How much would they cost? Is it better to invest the money in other projects?
- Talk to people in the community to hear different views that will enable a holistic view of the issue
- Talk to people who are in-charge and hear their side of the issue. Tell them about the problems that you see
- You may be able to work towards solving problems together if you do not see yourself as hostile parties
- Connect with people to increase awareness
- Ask older, influential or respected people in the community to address public gatherings
- Use the media (newspapers and the internet) to generate interest, communicate the facts and discuss options
- Write polite, succinct articles for magazines and newspapers identifying the issues
- Include people from diverse backgrounds, so that your organization is not linked with any particular political party or religious sect
- For fundraising purposes, let people know why funds are needed and how they will be used. Transparent and detailed accounts are imperative to build trust
- Link up with other NGOs to maximize the effect of the effort

### *8.11. Financial Management for NGOs*

All organizations need money. Alongside staff, money is the one thing that takes up most management time. Good financial management involves the following four building blocks:

#### 8.11.1. Keeping Records

The foundations of all accounting are basic records that describe your earnings and spending. This means the contracts and letters for money you receive and the receipts and the invoices for things that you buy. These basic records prove that each and every transaction has taken place. They are the cornerstones of being accountable. You must make sure that all these records are carefully filed and kept safe. You must also make sure that you write down the details of each transaction. Write them down in a 'cashbook' - which is a list of how much you spent, on what and when. If you are keeping your basic records in good order and writing down the details of each transaction in a cashbook, you cannot go far wrong.

#### 8.11.2. Internal Control

Make sure that your organization has proper controls in place so that money cannot be misused. Controls always have to be adapted to different organizations. However, some controls that are often used include:

- Keeping cash in a safe place (ideally in a bank account).
- Making sure that all expenditure is properly authorized.
- Following the budget.
- Monitoring how much money has been spent on what in every month.

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- Employing qualified finance staff.
- Having an audit every year.
- Carrying out a 'bank reconciliation' every month - which means checking that the amount of cash you have in the bank is the same as the amount that your cashbook tells you that you ought to have. This last control is particularly important. It proves that the amounts recorded in the cashbook and the reports based on it are accurate.

### 8.11.3. Budgeting

For good financial management, you need to prepare accurate budgets, in order to know how much money you will need to carry out your work.

### 8.11.4. Financial Management for NGOs

A budget is only useful if it is worked out by carefully forecasting how much you expect to spend on your activities. The first step in preparing a good budget is to identify exactly what you hope to do and how you will do it. List your activities, then plan how much they will cost and how much income they will generate.

### 8.11.5. Financial Reporting

The fourth building block is writing and reviewing financial reports. A financial report summarizes your income and expenditure over a certain period of time. Financial reports are created by adding together similar transactions. Financial reports summarize the information held in the cashbook. This is normally done using a system of codes, to allocate transactions to different categories.

### *8.12. Solving Organization Problems in NGOs*

The signs of organizational distress in an NGO aren't difficult to identify. Here are the most typical symptoms of decline and some practical responses:

Program	Symptom	Treatment
1). Sales	Demand has declined, and capacity to deliver services is under-utilized.	Reassess the needs of target audiences, and revise programs to meet current needs. Or, add new offerings to the program mix, and eliminate outmoded ones. Restaffing or retraining may be required to deliver new or revised services.
2). Management	Symptom	Treatment
	Management is unable to think creatively about the organization's mission or approach.	Enlist help from external advisors to generate fresh alternatives and provide objective perspectives. A change in leadership may be appropriate.
3). Staffing	Symptom	Treatment
	The staff is torn by infighting and turf wars.	Consider reorganizing staffing structure, including reallocating responsibility and retraining people. Retain consultants to help clarify disputed issues and assess staff members' capabilities.

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4). Board	Symptom	
	The same few board members show up	Contact all board members and discuss their Solving Organization Problems in NGOs' every meeting to rehash familiar issues. Commitment to the organization. Revise the board's structure to reflect present-day needs. As part of this process, some board members may resign voluntarily and new members with critical skills can be recruited.
5). Fundraising	Symptom	
	The organization is "chasing dollars" by inventing new initiatives primarily to attract available funding, contorting existing programs to match funders' special interests, or responding to Requests for Proposals indiscriminately.	
6). Financial Management	Symptom	Treatment
	Pare expenses by dropping or curtailing non-essential services. Develop new sources of income based on revised programs. Internal Communications	Staff members don't willingly speak out on critical problems and feel disconnected from important decision-making. Create an operational policy that outlines procedures for involving staff. Give senior staff opportunities to work with the board.
7). External Relations	Symptom	Treatment
	The organization's reputation has diminished; there is confusion among outsiders about its mission and programs.	Inform funders and other constituents of your progress as you revise goals and programs. Be sure that messages about newsworthy accomplishments are conveyed to key audiences.

Table 1

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# 9| The Multinational Corporations (MNCs)

## 9.1. Introduction

Corporations are promoted by the globalization theory and have both advantages and disadvantages that will help us understand how you should deal with them so that you can know how to improve the quality of life in your society as international development experts.

## 9.2. A Multinational Corporation (MNC) or Multinational Enterprise (MNE)

It is a corporation that is registered in more than one country or that has operations in more than one country. It is a large corporation which produces and sells goods or services in various countries. It can also be referred to as an international corporation. They play an important role in globalization explaining why they actually share the benefits and challenges to poor states. The concept of MNCs is clearly promoted by the globalization of modernization theory, which does not favor poor states as it makes them dependents. In a modern society, many multinational companies have been founded. They are called multinational corporations because these corporations operate in more than one country at a time, for example, McDonalds, Pepsi, KFC, Nike. The advantages and disadvantages of these corporations include.

It is an enterprise operating in several countries but is managed from one (home) country. Generally, any company or group that derives a quarter of its revenue from operations outside of its home country is considered a multinational corporation.

Clearly, multinational corporations can provide developing countries with critical financial infrastructure for economic and social development. However, these institutions may also bring with them relaxed codes of ethical conduct that exploit the neediness of developing nations, rather than providing the critical support necessary for countrywide economic and social development.

When a multinational invests in a host country, the scale of the investment (given the size of the firms) is likely to be significant. Indeed governments will often offer incentives to firms in the form of grants, subsidies and tax breaks to attract investment into their countries. This foreign direct investment (FDI) will have advantages and disadvantages for the host country.

### 9.2.1. There Are Four Categories of Multinational Corporations

- A multinational, decentralized corporation with strong home country presence,
- A global, centralized corporation that acquires cost advantage through centralized production wherever cheaper resources are available,
- An international company that builds on the parent corporation's technology or R&D, or
- A transnational enterprise that combines the previous three approaches. According to UN data, some 35,000 companies have direct investment in foreign countries, and the largest 100 of them control about 40 percent of world trade.

According to Howard Perlmutter (1969), Multinational companies may pursue policies that are **home country-oriented** or **host country-oriented** or **world-oriented**. According to Franklin Root (1994), an MNC is a parent company that

- Engages in foreign production through its affiliates located in several countries,
- Exercises direct control over the policies of its affiliates,

## The Multinational Corporations (MNCs)

- Implements business strategies in production, marketing, finance and staffing that transcend national boundaries (geocentric).

In other words, MNCs exhibit no loyalty to the country in which they are incorporated.

### 9.3. Multinational Company (MNC) and Transnational Corporation (TNC)

The terms multinational company (MNC), multinational enterprise (MNE), and transnational corporation (TNC) are widely and interchangeably used by international business commentators, practitioners and scholars. Firms are specialized social communities that help transfer knowledge and power both within and across national borders. Multinational corporations arise because of their superior efficiency as dominant vehicles of internationalization which provide the company with the access to new markets and specialized resources by sharing the cognizance they possess (Kogut and Zander, 1993). It also broadens the strategy of the firm in competing with its national and international rivals by allowing access to new markets and new sources of information. Business enterprises evolved from mid-nineteenth-century from independent units of production and units of distribution into large, integrated, and diversified, multinational corporations in the early twentieth century. Understanding why companies go global requires students of international development to know the process and methods of operation of these corporations.

### 9.4. Advantages and Disadvantages

The Advantages and disadvantages help us to understand and analysis why these corporations have justified their status as leading proponents for development without considering that they have created negative impacts for states especially the poor states amidst the modernization of global theories. There are a number of advantages and disadvantages of multinational companies.

#### 9.4.1. Advantages

The possible benefits of a multinational company investing in a country may include:

- *Improving the balance of payments:* inward investment will usually help a country's balance of payments situation. The investment itself will be a direct flow of capital into the country and the investment is also likely to result in import substitution and export promotion. Export promotion comes due to the multinational using their production facility as a basis for exporting, while import substitution means that products previously imported may now be bought domestically
- The growth of multinational companies in those countries will increase level of industrial and economic development and hence employment to the locals. Because they need more materials in the host country so the MNCs create much more opportunities for the industry.
- *Providing employment:* FDI will usually result in employment benefits for the host country as most employees will be locally recruited. These benefits may be relatively greater given that governments will usually try to attract firms to areas where there is relatively high unemployment or a good labour supply. Therefore, Multinational corporations play a big role in creating employment in the foreign countries. Because of having many branch companies, they employ local people in those countries to work for the corporation. This is especially important in developing countries where unemployment is high.
- *Source of tax revenue:* profits of multinationals will be subject to local taxes in most cases, which will provide a valuable source of revenue for the domestic government.
- *Technology transfer:* multinationals will bring with them technology and production methods that are probably new to the host country and a lot can therefore be learnt from these techniques. Workers will be trained to use the new technology and production techniques and domestic firms will see the benefits of the new technology. This process is known as technology transfer.

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- *Increasing choice*: if the multinational manufactures for domestic markets as well as for export, then the local population will gain a wider choice of goods and services and at a price possibly lower than imported substitutes. Multinational products and services provide the best possible standards. Because in a foreign country, since consumers are willing to spend their money on only the best products, the multinational companies need to keep the strong competitiveness then they must produce good goods.
- *National reputation*: the presence of one multinational may improve the reputation of the host country and other large corporations may follow suite and locate as well.

### 9.4.1.1. Others Are

- The staffs from those companies are of different nationalities and culture; they can share different thinking to make the company grow up better which is in line with millennium development goals.
- MNCs result in capital inflows and start expensive and state of the art projects in the host country that country itself cannot afford.
- MNCs train and equip the local human capital with modern technologies and skills
- MNCs help host countries to improve their relationships with companies' parent countries
- MNCs provide high quality and modern facilities and services to the consumers of host countries

### 9.4.2. Disadvantages

The possible disadvantages of a multinational that fails to achieve the goals of international development are so many that may not be mentioned here but a few include:

- *Environmental impact*: multinationals will want to produce in ways that are as efficient and as cheap as possible and this may not always be the best environmental practice. They will often lobby governments hard to try to ensure that they can benefit from regulations being as lax as possible and given their economic importance to the host country, this lobbying will often be quite effective.
- *Access to natural resources*: multinationals will sometimes invest in countries just to get access to a plentiful supply of raw materials and host nations are often more concerned about the short-term economic benefits than the long-term costs to their country in terms of the depletion of natural resources.
- *Uncertainty*: multinational firms are increasingly 'footloose'. This means that they can move and change at very short notice and often will. This creates uncertainty for the host country and can lead to unemployment of the staff of those particular MNCs.
- *Increased competition*: the impact of the local industries can be severe, because the presence of newly arrived multinationals increases the competition in the economy and because multinationals should be able to produce at a lower cost or even employment, etc.
- *Crowding out*: if overseas firms borrow in the domestic economy, this may reduce access to funds and increase interest rates.
- *Influence and political pressure*: multinational investment can be very important to a country and this will often give them a disproportionate influence over government and other organizations in the host country. Given their economic importance, governments will often agree to changes that may not be beneficial for the long-term welfare of their people.
- *Transfer pricing*: multinationals will always aim to reduce their tax liability to a minimum. One way of doing this is through transfer pricing. This aims to reduce their tax liability in countries with high tax rates and increase them in countries with low tax rates. They can transfer components and part-finished goods between their operations in different countries at differing prices. Where the tax liability is high, they share the goods at a relatively high price to make the costs appear higher. This is

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then recouped in the lower tax country by transferring the goods at a relatively lower price. This will reduce their overall tax bill. MNCs are not liable to pay taxes in the host countries.

- *Low-skilled employment:* the jobs created in the local environment may be low-skilled with the multinational employing expatriate workers for the more senior and skilled roles.
- *Health and safety:* multinationals have been accused of cutting corners on health and safety in countries where regulation and laws are not as rigorous.
- *Export of Profits:* large multinationals are likely to repatriate profits back to their 'home country', leaving little financial benefits for the host country.
- *Cultural and social impact:* large numbers of foreign businesses can dilute local customs and traditional cultures. For example, the sociologist George Ritzer coined the term **McDonaldization** to describe the process by which more and more sectors of American society as well as of the rest of the world take on the characteristics of a fast-food restaurant, such as increasing standardization and the movement away from traditional business approaches.
- Many of these multinational companies seek to take advantage of the political system by pressuring because they have such a strong impact on the economy. The companies can just pay off government officials to protect their company from being shut down. They may avoid tax by practicing transfer pricing. The multinational companies may afford a low salary to their labor force. This again denies the state its chance to collect taxes to provide political goals for the people for example education, security, and health among others
- MNCs take their profits out of the host countries in Dollars that causes a reduction in foreign reserves for host countries (Capital Flights).
- MNCs increase the dependence of the host country on their parent countries that may affect the foreign policy of host countries.
- MNCs often provide costly services to local consumers as compared to government sector companies or other domestic companies

### 9.5. Conclusion

Firms which aspire to go international depend on many factors which may be internal like resource seeking or external like political pressures. Some companies internationalize by gradually moving up the scale through joint ventures to direct foreign investments but few like Wal-Mart move straight to high commitment high control mode of operations. The impacts of MNCs and TNC are similar since they share the same theoretical background of modernization/developmental/globalization/liberal perspectives. These are exploitative of the poor states in the international system.

### 9.6. Summary

These corporations MNCs result in a significant increase of foreign exchange reserves in their home states, by assisting parent country in building good relations with other countries, and assisting in the promotion of parent country's culture and traditions in other countries. Since these MNCs are from the developed states, this gives chance to their people to be accorded with better quality lives than the poor states who are used as markets. The strategies these corporations use are to locate in a geographical region that has economic and other laws that are more free-market-oriented than a country's typical or national laws. It could also choose a more rationalized decision and run with the money back home which does not support international development in poor states but only in developed states where they have a permanent base.

Anti-corporate advocates criticize multinational corporations for entering countries that have low human rights or environmental standards. They claim that multinationals give rise to large merged conglomerations that reduce competition and free enterprise, raise capital in host countries but export the

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profits, exploit countries for their natural resources, limit workers' wages, erode traditional cultures, and challenge national sovereignty.

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# 10 | The Civil Society and Community Based Organizations

## 10.1. Introduction

Civil society organizations have gained particular importance in aligning economic activities with social and environmental priorities to promote human development and improvement of lives. *The term civil society*: has a range of meanings in contemporary usage:

- It is sometimes considered to include the family and the private sphere, and referred to as the "third sector" of society, distinct from government and business who most times do voluntary work (not for profit) to improve the quality of lives in the world.

According to the Collins Dictionary, defines the civil society as;

- The aggregate of non-governmental organizations and institutions that manifest interests and will of citizens or,
- Individuals and organizations in a society which are independent of the government.<sup>[2]</sup> Sometimes the term is used in the more general sense of "the elements such as freedom of speech, an independent judiciary, etc, that make up a democratic society" (Collins English Dictionary).

Since its creation, civil society organizations have been an integral part of the Global Compact. Their perspectives, expertise and partnership-building capabilities are indispensable (important) in the evolution and impact of the Global development.

The IMF uses the term "civil society organization" to refer to the wide range of citizens' associations that exist in virtually all member countries to provide benefits, services, or political influence to specific groups within society.

The term 'civil society', according to Aristotle, in politics refers to a 'community', characterized by a shared set of norms, principles, and rules in which citizens are free and equal under the law. The main aim of the civil-society is the wellbeing or ensuring quality life of citizens.

In international development, the civil society and democratic political society, to facilitate better awareness, capacity building, and a more informed citizenry, who make better voting choices, participates in politics, and holds government more accountable as a result. This is under the principles of Liberalism/modernization or global concepts.

More recently, non-political organizations in civil society are vital for democracy (good governance). This is because they build social capital, trust and shared values, which are transferred into the political sphere and help to hold society together, facilitating an understanding of the interconnectedness of society and interests within it.

However, the critics are that:

- It has also been argued that civil society is biased towards the global north neglecting the needs of the south due to the different levels of development of the civil society which has made the society in the poor states more reluctant since it's demographically limited.
- Civil society is a neo-colonial project driven by global elites in their own interests.
- Finally, other scholars have argued that, since the concept of civil society is closely related to democracy and representation, it should, in turn, be linked with ideas of nationality and nationalism.
- This then suggests that civil society is a neoliberal ideology.

### *10.2. The Composition of the Civil Society*

- academia
- activist groups
- charities
- citizens' militia
- civic groups
- clubs (sports, social, etc.)
- community foundations
- community organizations
- consumers/consumer organizations
- cooperatives
- churches
- cultural groups
- environmental groups
- foundations
- intermediary organizations for the voluntary and non-profit sector
- men's groups
- non-governmental organizations (NGOs)
- non-profit organizations (NPOs)
- policy institutions

### *10.3. The Role of Civil Society in International Development*

There are many roles that the different civil societies play to promote international development the world over. These roles depend on many factors including the type of government, level of development, type of leadership, empowerment of the civil society among others in order to maximize collaboration and have a stronger voice in their effort to influence policy-making and sustainable development processes in the states through the following;

- advocacy and lobbying
- Transparency and Accountability
- Budgeting and planning
- Enforce the rule of Law
- To ensure the availability of an effective court system,
- Efficiency of governments
- Speeding up the process of international development
- Promoting human rights,
- Promoting women emancipation,
- Justice promotion,
- Promotion of agricultural development
- Policy coordination and implementation
- The civil societies have also encouraged cultural and historical affinities among the peoples of the regions to speed up quality lives
- The civil society has engaged in all types of research with their governments to bring together a comprehensive list of recommendations on addressing challenges and leveraging opportunities to better life
- They are seeking integration for better standards of living by pressuring their governments remove inherently structural bottlenecks which needs political decisions to coordinate regional initiatives,

enhance regional infrastructure, reduce informal trade, harmonise business practices and establish a regional monitoring body (Cook, & Sachs, 1999).

- According to Cook, & Sachs (1999), the civil society has also advocates and lobbies for their governments and citizens on the issue of international development for example forging of healthy links between competition policy and law on the one hand, and intellectual and industrial policy on the other.
- Public-private partnerships (PPPs), micro-enterprise development and harmonization of regional property rights.
- Reforms being implemented to increase country ownership, an effort that gives civil society organizations an important role to play. They help set priorities for country resources in the recipient countries through their participation in the National Portfolio Formulation Exercises. They exchange valuable information through constituency workshops among others.

### *10.4. What Challenges Do Civil Society Face in Third World States?*

These challenges are actually problem, but in international development today the word 'problem' is no longer used as it gives an impression that they cannot be solved. The word challenge was adopted in international development as it gives an impression that a problem can be solved to promote international development especially in poor states as below among others;

- Corruption,
- Political instabilities,
- Bad governance (abuse of human rights, no respect of the rule of law, etc),
- Lack of funds to carry out the capacity building and empowerment programmes,
- Political influence
- Poor decision making mechanism,
- Lack of manpower, and
- Poor technology and communication, etc

### *10.5. Community Based Organizations*

Over the years, the International Monetary Fund in 1980s, has become more transparent and has sought to become more accountable not only to the governments that own it but also to the broader international public. This has led to more active involvement with CSOs as well as legislatures. The aims of CBOs include:

- Advocacy by groups concerned with economic and social justice,
- Public education campaign,
- Mobilization for funds to sustain the CBOs
- Enhance capacities of the CSOs to identify integration opportunities, bring citizens on board and enhance their monitoring and evaluation capabilities. (Duina, 2009).
- Engagement at the country level, especially in low-income countries, and at the global level Increased focus on promoting poverty reduction in low-income countries through a participatory approach, emphasis on transparency and good governance through outreach and communication by CBOs supported by IMF country work as well.

The Fund has become committed to ensure CBOs achieve:

- Being transparent about its work. Dialogue with CSOs is an important channel for communication.
- Fostering a culture of listening and learning.
- CSOs can highlight important issues, offer information to supplement official data, and provide insights that may differ from perspectives in official circles.



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- Strengthening country ownership of policies, which is essential to successful stabilization and reform.
- Constructive dialogue with CSOs can help build mutual understanding and increase support for reform.

Community Based Organizations include:

- Business forums,
- Faith-based associations,
- Labor unions,
- Local community groups, non-governmental organizations (NGOs),
- Charitable foundations, and
- Think tanks.

### *10.6. Conclusion*

The civil society and community based organizations need to secure an institutionalized mechanisms to guarantee and ensure active engagement of an informed civil society with capacity for international development by influencing state governments and negotiations in favor of the poor people aimed at improving their standard of living to aver poverty, illiteracy and disease among other poor states.

They should suggest ways to attract, retain and spread skills across the region for governments to provide basic necessities (medicare, shelter, food, water, clothing, clean and safe water).

The civil society has also made some clear policy recommendations including trade facilitation, support programmes for small enterprises and improvement of the business environment to better lives. This is through

- Advocate states to have better external trade policy coordination,
- There should be policy harmonization that help all the people of the policies, especially those dealing with trade and trade related aspects, should be prioritized to create an enabling environment for increased intra-regional trade by ensuring governments political stability, and the emerging market size would make the region more attractive to investors while enabling faster development through trade led growth and enhance the living standards and livelihood of its people,
- Institutional coordination: There is need for better institutional coordination between the national and regional bodies. This would enable uniform implementation of treaty obligation on issues of international development,
- Capacity building to empower the people through sensitization, seminars, training among others,
- Improve on research capabilities and dissemination of information,
- The civil society recommends mainstreaming trade: Mainstream trade and trade policies jointly in national development plans through a regional trade policy “blue-print” that is coordinated at all level to ensure that such a blue print is mainstreamed in the national policies of all member states through harmonisation of regional development plan priorities.
- Public awareness and information exchange: Awareness raising and bringing on board all stakeholders, especially the private sector, is crucial. This would ensure that their needs are addressed in various policies while also ensuring that they are aware of opportunities arising for the people
- There is also need for continuous monitoring and evaluation of the impact of policies being implemented with a view to continuously improving and making necessary adjustments for the betterment of its people, and

## The Civil Society and Community Based Organizations

- There should be public investment in upgrading the physical infrastructure for better trade and other related activities. This would ensure trade facilitation to allow faster and cheaper business transactions within the region and improving people's livelihoods through trade.

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# 11| Project Planning and Management

## 11.1. Introduction

The next three units (starting from this unit 11, 12, and 13) are designed with the aim of developing an in-depth understanding of alternative approaches to planning and management of international projects by ensuring that you can plan and manage projects using the different tools. The purpose of these units is to improve understanding and practice of project management by assessing whether two of its core myths also prevail in international development (ID): first, that project managers (PMs) plan fully for project success, including implementation success and end-user satisfaction; and second, that they can focus on “getting things done”, free of concern for strategic issues in both internal and external environments.

## 11.2. Definition of Key terms

### 11.2.1. A Project

- Planned set of interrelated tasks to be executed over a fixed period and within certain cost and other limitations.
- A Project is unique undertaking with a sequence of tasks that planned from beginning to end within a project triangle (Time, Quality, Cost and Scope)
- It's a temporary group activity designed to produce a unique product, service or result. A project is **temporary** in that it has a defined beginning and end in time, and therefore defined scope and resources.
- A project should therefore be completed

**Note:** Project management, then, is the application of knowledge, skills and techniques to execute projects effectively and efficiently. It's a strategic competency for organizations, enabling them to tie project results to business goals and thus, better compete in their markets. You should know a project triangle as seen below:

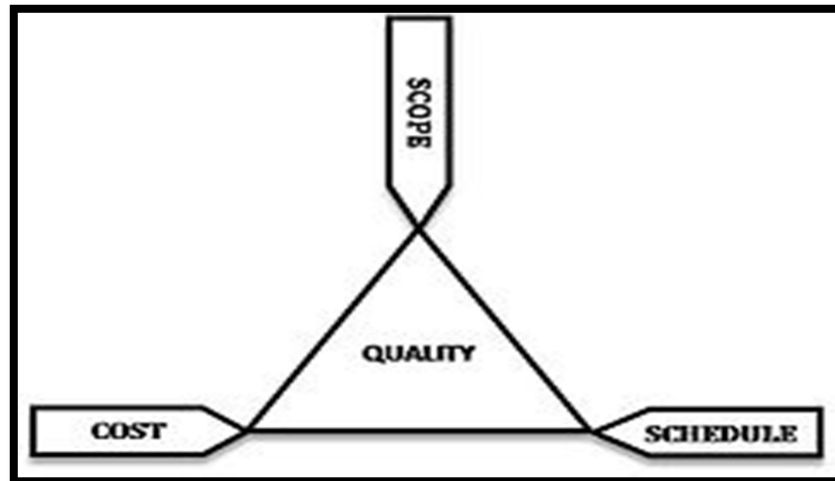


Figure 1

11.2.2. A Project Has Five Features That You Should Know

- Defined beginning, end, schedule, and approach,
- Use resources specifically allocated to the work
- End results have specific goals (time, cost, performance/quality),
- Follows planned, organized approach,
- Usually involves a team of people.

*11.3. Project Managers*

- A project manager is a professional in the field of project management. Project managers can have the responsibility of the planning, execution, and closing of any project, typically relating to construction industry, engineering, architecture, computing, and telecommunications. Many other fields in production engineering, design engineering, and heavy industrial have project managers.
- A project manager is the person accountable for accomplishing the stated project objectives. Key project management responsibilities include creating clear and attainable project objectives, building the project requirements, and managing the triple constraint for projects: cost, time, and scope.
- A project manager is often a client representative and has to determine and implement the client's exact needs based on knowledge of the firm they are representing. The ability to adapt to the contracting party's various internal procedures and form close links with the nominated representatives is essential in ensuring that the key issues of cost, time, quality, and above all, client satisfaction can be realized.

Each project will have a clearly designated project manager who will devote appropriate time to project management as agreed with the Programme Manager and documented in the project plan. The role of the project manager will vary depending on the scope and nature of the project.

Typically the project manager will:

- Prepare the project plan
- Coordinate and manage project work
- Monitor project progress and performance
- Ensure that project outputs are delivered on time
- Identify risks, problems, and issues, and escalate them as appropriate
- Manage communication within the project and with the programme manager
- Prepare progress, final, and other reports
- Arrange meetings (e.g. management committee) and write the minutes
- Manage project resources, including the budget
- Coordinate work on any legal agreements, e.g. consortium, vendor, or license agreements
- Maintain the project web site
- Maintain project documentation
- Ensure that the project abides by the letter of grant, the (Terms and Conditions, and the Project Management guidelines).

**Note:** Getting a project manager in place as soon as possible will get the project off to a good start and up and running quickly. You could consider using a consultant to get the project up and running until you find a permanent project manager.

### 11.4. Resources (And Constraints) of a Project

- Movement (Time)
- Manpower (People)
- Materials
- Money (Finance)
- Machinery (Equipment)
- Market
- Methods
- Facilities

### 11.5. What Makes a Project Successful?

- Organized, well planned approach
- Project Team Commitment
- Balance among
- Time
- Resources
- Results
- Customer Satisfaction

### 11.6. A Program

It is a collection of project at all level (some beginning, middle, and ending). They are

- Recurring project
- Happens predictably
- New plan
- New end result
- New set of resources

### 11.7. A project Plan

According to the Project Management Body of Knowledge, it is; a formal, approved document used to guide both *project execution* and *project control*. The primary uses of the project plan are to document planning assumptions and decisions, facilitate communication among *stakeholders*, and document approved scope, cost, and schedule *baselines*. A project plan may be summarized or detailed. The project manager creates the project management plan following input from the project team and key stakeholders. The plan should be agreed upon and approved by the project team and its key stakeholders.

#### 11.7.1. The Purpose of the Plan

The objective of a project plan is to define the approach to be used by the Project team to deliver the intended project management scope of the project. At a minimum, a project plan answers basic questions about the project:

- **Why?** - What is the problem or value proposition addressed by the project? Why is it being sponsored?
- **What?** - What is the work that will be performed on the project? What are the major products/deliverables?
- **Who?** - Who will be involved and what will be their responsibilities within the project? How will they be organized?

- **When?** - What is the project timeline and when will particularly meaningful points, referred to as milestones, be complete?

### 11.7.2. Plan Contents

To be a complete project plan according to industry standards such as the PMBOK or PRINCE2, the project plan must also describe the project's execution, management, and control. This information can be provided by referencing other documents that will be produced, such as a Procurement Plan or Construction Plan, or it may be detailed in the project plan itself. The project plan typically covers topics used in the project execution system and includes the following main aspects:

- Scope Management
- Requirements Management
- Schedule Management
- Financial Management
- Quality Management
- Resource Management
- Stakeholders Management
- Communications Management
- Project Change Management
- Risk Management
- Procurement Management

**Note:** It is good practice and mostly required by large consulting and professional project management firms, to have a formally agreed and version controlled project management plan approved in the early stages of the project, and applied throughout the project.

### *11.8. A stakeholder*

**A stakeholder** is any person or organization, who can be positively or negatively impacted by, or cause an impact on the actions of a company, government, or organization. Types of stakeholders are:

- Primary stakeholders: are those ultimately affected, either positively or negatively by an organization's actions.
- Secondary stakeholders: are the 'intermediaries', that is, persons or organizations who are indirectly affected by an organization's actions.
- Key stakeholders: (who can also belong to the first two groups) have significant influence upon or importance within an organization.

Project stakeholders are entities that have an interest in the project. These stakeholders may be inside or outside an organization and they are:

- Sponsors of a project, or
- Have an interest or a gain upon a successful completion of a project;
- May have a positive or negative influence in the project completion.

Project stakeholders are individuals and organizations that are actively involved in the project, or whose interests may be affected as a result of project execution or project completion. They may also exert influence over the project's objectives and outcomes. The project management team must identify the stakeholders, determine their requirements and expectations, and, to the extent possible, manage their influence in relation to the requirements to ensure a successful project. The following are examples of project stakeholders:

## International Development

- Project leader
- Project team members
- Upper management
- Project customer
- Resource Managers
- Line Managers
- Product user group
- Project testers
- Customer,
- The user group,
- Project manager, etc.

**Note:** Project success is directly linked to a project manager's ability to effectively identify and manage stakeholders' expectations. It is, therefore, helpful to understand what makes a stakeholder.

### *11.9. Stakeholder Analysis*

(Stakeholder Mapping) is a way of determining who among stakeholders can have the most positive or negative influence on an effort, who is likely to be most affected by the effort, and how you should work with stakeholders with different levels of interest and influence.

In conflict resolution, project management, and business administration is the process of identifying the individuals or groups that are likely to affect or be affected by a proposed action, and sorting them according to their impact on the action and the impact the action will have on them. This information is used to assess how the interests of those stakeholders should be addressed in a project plan, policy, program, or other action. Stakeholder analysis is a key part of stakeholder management.

Stakeholder analysis is a term that refers to the action of analyzing the attitudes of stakeholders towards something (most frequently a project). It is frequently used during the preparation phase of a project to assess the stakeholders' attitudes regarding the potential changes. Stakeholder analysis can be done once or regularly to track changes in stakeholder attitudes over time.

Therefore, stakeholder analysis aims to develop cooperation between the stakeholder and the project team and, ultimately, assure successful outcomes for the project. Stakeholder analysis is performed when there is a need to clarify the consequences of envisaged changes or at the start of new projects and in connection with organizational changes. It is important to identify all stakeholders to identify their success criteria and turn these into quality goals. (Rodi et al., 2012).

Most methods of stakeholder analysis or mapping divide stakeholders into one of four groups, each occupying one space in a four-space grid:

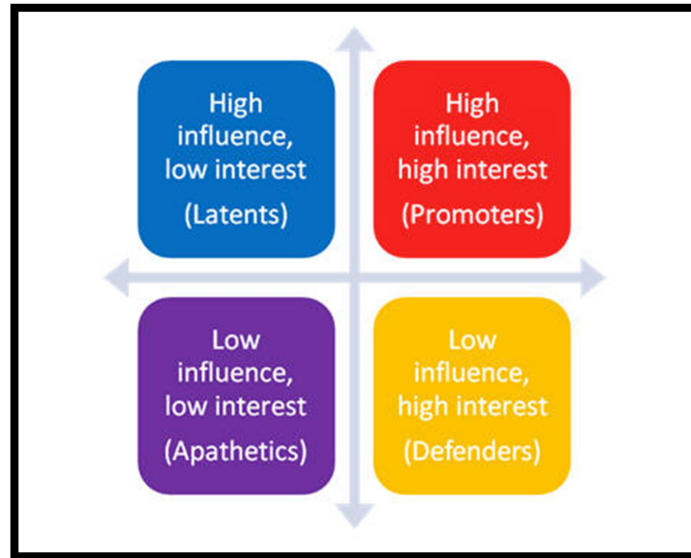


Figure 2

As you can see, low to high influence over the effort runs along a line from the bottom to the top of the grid, and low to high interest in the effort runs along a line from left to right. Both influence and interest can be either positive or negative, depending on the perspectives of the stakeholders in question. The lines describing them are continuous, meaning that people can have any degree of interest from none to as high as possible, including any of the points in between.

The people we've described as "key stakeholders" would generally appear in the upper right quadrant.

**Note:** The purpose of this kind of diagram is to help you understand what kind of influence each stakeholder has on your organization and/or the process and potential success of the effort. That knowledge in turn can help you

- decide how to manage stakeholders
- how to marshal the help of those that support you,
- how to involve those who could be helpful, and
- how to convert or at least neutralize those who may start out feeling negative.

#### 11.9.1. Interpretation of the Different Stakeholders

- *Promoters* have both great interest in the effort and the power to help make it successful (or to derail it).
- *Defenders* have a vested interest and can voice their support in the community, but have little actual power to influence the effort in any way.
- *Latents* have no particular interest or involvement in the effort, but have the power to influence it greatly if they become interested.
- *Apathetics* have little interest and little power, and may not even know the effort exists.

#### 11.9.2. Benefits

Stakeholder analysis helps with the identification of the following:

- Stakeholders' interests
- Mechanisms to influence other stakeholders



## International Development

- Potential risks
- Key people to be informed about the project during the execution phase
- Negative stakeholders as well as their adverse effects on the project

### 11.10. Critical Project Factors

- Computer system as major technology component
- New characteristic requires research
- Narrow domain to fit imposed semester deadline
- Commercial competition
- Acceptable risk factors

### 11.11. Phases of a Project (Generally)

- Conceptualization
- Feasibility
- Preliminary planning
- Detailed planning
- Execution
- Testing
- Termination

### 11.12. Project Management Processes

Project management processes fall into five groups (specifically) as seen below:



Figure 3

#### 11.12.1. Phase 1: Initiating

- Recognize the project should be done
- Determine what the project should accomplish
- Define the overall project goal
- Define the general project scope
- Select initial members of the project team
- Define general expectations of customers, management, or other stakeholders as appropriate

#### 11.12.2. Phase 2: Planning

- Refining the project scope
- Listing tasks and activities

## Project Planning and Management

- Optimally Sequencing activities
- Developing a working schedule and budget for assigning resources
- Getting the plan approved by stakeholder

### 11.12.3. Phase 3 - Executing

- Leading the team
- Meeting with team members
- Communicating with stakeholders
- Fire-fighting to resolve problems
- Securing necessary resources to complete the project plan

### 11.12.4. Phase 4 - Controlling

- Monitoring deviation from the plan
- Taking corrective action to match actual progress with the plan
- Receiving and evaluating project changes requested
- Rescheduling the project as necessary
- Adapting resource levels as necessary
- Changing the project scope
- Returning to the planning stage

### 11.12.5. Phase 5 - Closing

- Acknowledging achievement and results
- Shutting down the operations and disbanding the team
- Learning from the project experience
- Reviewing the project process and outcomes
- Writing a final project report

### *11.13. Project Team*

You will have considered staffing requirements while writing the project proposal. Many projects choose to have a project director. Some choose to have a technical manager or a project administrator. Staff may work on the project full time or part time. You may need no particular requirements on project staffing **other than** to make sure that roles are well-defined and to send the programme manager a list of all project staff (e.g. name, job title, postal address, email address, telephone, and fax). During the project, the programme manager should be informed of any changes in staffing.

### *11.14. Training*

A project needs to have well-qualified staff competent to undertake the project work. The team's qualifications and experience may be a factor in evaluating proposals during the bidding process. If a need for training is foreseen (e.g. in technical areas), you should plan for it in the budget and arrange it as soon as possible.

It's useful to do a skills audit at the start of the project. This will help you to identify any unforeseen training needs. Be honest and objective. If you know about training needs, you can send staff on appropriate courses, and they can 'hit the ground running'. If you don't ask, staff may feel uncomfortable raising the issue.

### *11.15. Management Committee*

These are the members of the advisory board who are experts in the field but work at programme level and do not get involved in the day to day running of projects and stakeholders could be useful members.

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Of the management committee upmost projects find local management committees. A management committee provides a forum for discussion and decision making, and a management framework above the level of project manager allowing the partners and team members to buy into the project work and spread the responsibility.

Typically the role of the management committee is to:

- Steer and guide the project
- Review progress and outputs (project work).
- Review outcomes and their impact on the community
- Advise the project team
- Represent the interests of the project partners
- Agree important decisions and changes to plan
- Discuss risks, problems, and issues, explore solutions, and identify any that should be escalated to the programme manager
- Formative evaluation to reflect on how things are going and what could be improved
- Suggest changes

The management committee might include:

- Representative(s) of each project partner
- Key project staff (e.g. the project manager, project director)
- Project stakeholders, champions, experts, or advisors

**Note:** It's useful to draw up a term of reference for the management committee, so that all concerned understand its role and operation. This would typically include:

- Role and responsibilities
- Membership
- Chairperson
- Frequency of meetings
- Location and conduct of meetings
- Decision process (e.g. voting or consensus, and who gets to vote)

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# 12| Tools of Project Planning and Management

## 12.1. Introduction

These are process, plans and project planning tips or rules, processes and tools for project planning and project management that you should never ignore in planning and management of international projects if you should achieve success as explained below.

## 12.2. Project Management Software

It is important for:

- Has capacity to help plan,
- Organize, and
- Manage resource pools and develop resource estimates.
- Estimation (cost, resources, time, scope, and quality).
- scheduling,
- Cost control and budget management,
- Resource allocation,
- Collaboration software,
- Communication,
- Decision-making,
- Quality management and documentation or administration systems.

**Note:** Today, numerous PC-based project management software packages exist, and they are finding their way into almost every type of business. Software may range from the high-end Microsoft Project to a simple spreadsheet in Microsoft Excel.

## 12.3. Work Breakdown Structure (WBS)

It is a tree structure that shows a subdivision of effort required to achieve an objective for example a program, project, and contract. The WBS may be hardware, product, service, or process-oriented.

A WBS can be developed by starting with the end objective and successfully subdividing it into manageable components in size, duration, and responsibility (e.g., systems, subsystems, components, tasks, sub-tasks, and work packages), which include all steps necessary to achieve the objective.

The work breakdown structure provides a common framework for the natural development of the overall planning and control of a contract and is the basis for dividing work into definable increments. The statement of work can be developed and technical; schedule, cost, and labor hour reporting can be established.

## 12.4. Project Management Framework

The program (investment) life cycle integrates the project management and system development life cycles with the activities directly associated with system deployment and operation. By design, system operation management and related activities occur after the project is complete and are not documented within this guide.

### 12.5. Leveling

- Adjust tasks to match resources available
- Automatic systems available, but do not always give an optimum result
- Tasks may be delayed within slack without affecting project dates
- Otherwise consider extending project, or using more resource
- Adding resource to late project may cause

### 12.6. Project Critical Path Analysis (Flow Diagram or Chart)

'Critical Path Analysis' sounds very complicated, but it's a very logical and effective method for planning and managing complex projects. A critical path analysis is normally shown as a flow diagram, whose format is linear (organised in a line), and specifically a time-line.

Critical Path Analysis is also called Critical Path Method; it's the same thing - and the terms are commonly abbreviated, to CPA and CPM.

A commonly used tool within Critical Path Analysis is PERT (Program/Programme/Project Evaluation and Review Technique), a specialised method for identifying related and interdependent activities and events, especially where a big project may contain hundreds or thousands of connected elements. PERT is not normally relevant in simple projects, but any project of considerable size and complexity, particularly when timings and interdependency issues are crucial, can benefit from the detailed analysis enabled by PERT methods. PERT analysis commonly feeds into Critical Path Analysis and to other broader project management systems, such as those mentioned here.

Critical Path Analysis flow diagrams are very good for showing interdependent factors whose timings overlap or coincide. They also enable a plan to be scheduled according to a timescale. Critical Path Analysis flow diagrams also enable costings and budgeting, although not quite as easily as Gantt charts (below), and they also help planners to identify causal elements, although not quite so easily as fishbone diagrams (below).

This is how to create a Critical Path Analysis. As an example, the project is a simple one - making a fried breakfast.

- First note down all the issues (resources and activities in a rough order), again for example:
- Assemble crockery and utensils, assemble ingredients, prepare equipment, make toast, fry sausages and eggs, grill bacon and tomatoes, lay table, warm plates, serve.
- Note that some of these activities must happen in parallel and crucially they are interdependent.

That is to say, if you tried to make a fried breakfast by doing one task at a time, and one after the other, things would go wrong. Certain tasks must be started before others, and certain tasks must be completed in order for others to begin.

The plates need to be warming while other activities are going on. The toast needs to be toasting while the sausages are frying, and at the same time the bacon and sausages are under the grill. The eggs need to be fried last. A Critical Path Analysis is a diagrammatical representation of what needs to be done and when. Timescales and costs can be applied to each activity and resource. Here's the Critical Path Analysis for making a fried breakfast:

This Critical Path Analysis example below shows just a few activities over a few minutes. Normal business projects would see the analysis extending several times wider than this example, and the time line would be based on weeks or months. It is possible to use MS Excel or a similar spreadsheet to create a Critical Path Analysis, which allows financial totals and time totals to be planned and tracked. Various specialised project management software enable the same thing. However, Beware of spending weeks on the intricacies of computer modelling, especially in the early stages, a carefully hand drawn diagram - which requires no computer training at all - can put 90% of the thinking and structure in place. (See the details about the most

incredible planning and communications tool ever invented, and available for just a tiny fraction of the price of all the alternatives.) Project critical path analysis flow diagram example-

12.6.1. Critical Path Analysis

- Compute earliest and latest start/finish for each task
- The difference is the *slack*
- The Critical Path joins the tasks for which there is no slack
- Any delay in tasks on the critical path affects the whole project

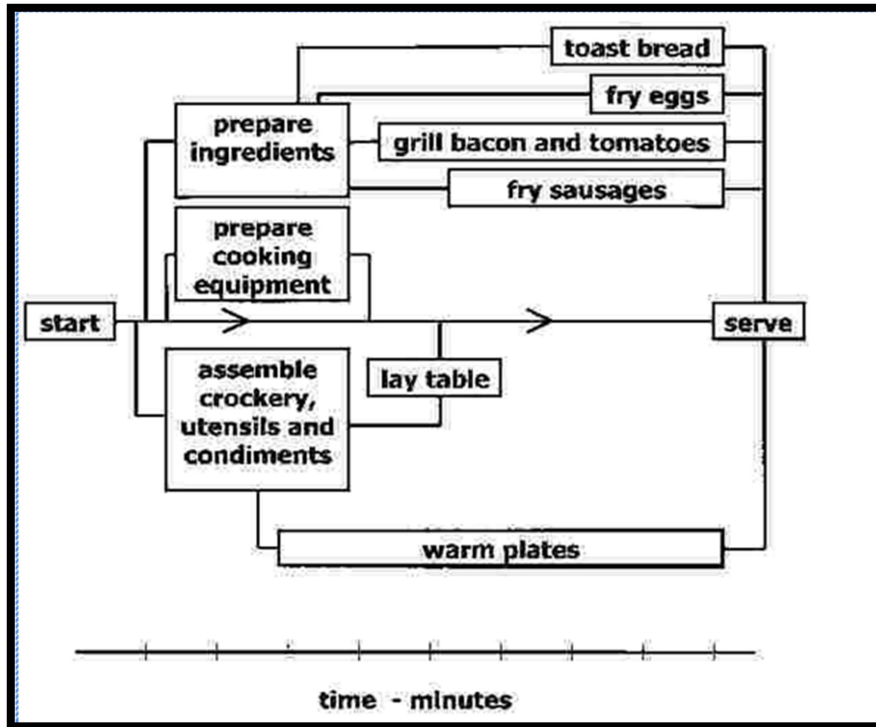


Figure 4

12.7. Project Management Process

Brainstorming is usually the first crucial creative stage of the project management and project planning process in the following areas:

- *Agree Precise Specification for the Project - 'Terms of Reference'*

The project specification should be an accurate description of what the project aims to achieve, and the criteria and flexibilities involved, its parameters, scope, range, outputs, sources, participants, budgets and timescales (beware - see note below about planning timescales). A template for a project specification:

- Describe purpose, aims and deliverables.
- State parameters (timescales, budgets, range, scope, territory, authority).
- State people involved and the way the team will work (frequency of meetings, decision-making process).
- Establish 'break-points' at which to review and check progress, and how progress and results will be measured.
- **Plan the project:** involves your team in the planning for time, teamwork, activities, resources, financials using suitable project management tools.

- **Communicate the project plan:** Communicate the project plan to your project team and to any other interested people and groups.
- **Agree and delegate project actions**
- **Manage and motivate:** inform, encourage, enable the project team.
- **Check, measure, monitor, review project progress:** adjust project plans, and inform the project team and others.
- **Complete project:** review and report on project performance; give praise and thanks to the project team.
- **Project follow-up:** train, support, measure and report results and benefits.

### 12.8. Fishbone Diagrams

- It involves a lot of brainstorming, it is usually the first crucial creative stage of the project management and project planning process for quality management
- Fishbone diagrams are chiefly used in quality management fault/detection, and in business process improvement, especially in manufacturing and production, but the model is also very useful in project management planning and task management generally
- Within project management fishbone diagrams are useful for early planning, notably when gathering and organizing factors, for example during brainstorming.
- Fishbone diagrams are very good for identifying hidden factors which can be significant in enabling larger activities, resources areas, or parts of a process.
- Fishbone diagrams are also called 'cause and effect diagrams' and Ishikawa diagrams, after Kaoru Ishikawa (1915-89), a Japanese professor specializing in industrial quality management and engineering, devised the technique in the 1960s. Ishikawa's diagram became known as a fishbone diagram, obviously, because it looks like a fishbone.

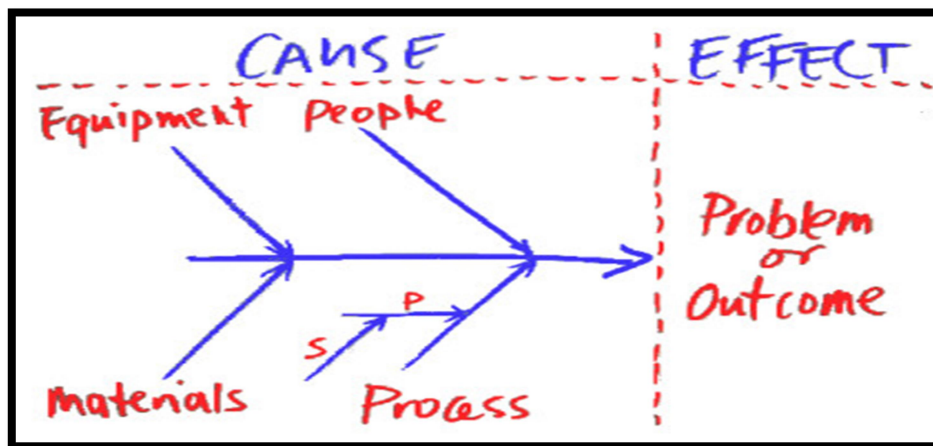


Figure 5

A fishbone diagram has a central spine running left to right, around which is built a map of factors which contribute to the final result (or problem). The main categories of factors for each project are identified and shown as the main 'bones' leading to the spine.

Into each category can be drawn 'primary' elements or factors (shown as P in the diagram), and into these can be drawn secondary elements or factors (shown as S). This is done for every category, and can be extended to third or fourth level factors if necessary.

The diagram above is a very simple one. Typically fishbone diagrams have six or more main bones feeding into the spine. Other main category factors can include Environment, Management, Systems, Training, Legal, etc.

The categories used in a fishbone diagram should be whatever makes sense for the project. At a simple level, the fishbone diagram is a very effective planning model and tool especially for 'mapping' an entire operation.

Where a fishbone diagram is used for project planning, of course the 'Effect' is shown as an aim or outcome or result, not a problem.

The 'Problem' term is used in fault diagnosis and in quality management problem-solving. Some fishbone diagrams can become very complex indeed, which is common in specialised quality management areas, especially where systems are computerized.

**Note: Fishbone diagrams are not good for scheduling or showing interdependent time-critical factors.**

### 12.9. Gantt Charts

Gantt Charts are extremely useful project management tools. The Gantt Chart is named after US engineer and consultant Henry Gantt (1861-1919) who devised the technique in the 1910s. Gantt charts are excellent models for

- scheduling
- budgeting,
- reporting
- Presenting
- Communicating project plans
- showing progress easily and quickly

**Note:** As a rule Gantt Charts are not as good as a Critical Path Analysis Flow Diagram for identifying and showing interdependent factors, or for 'mapping' a plan from and/or into all of its detailed causal or contributing elements.

- You can construct a Gantt Chart using MS-Excel or a similar spreadsheet
- Every activity has a separate line
- Create a time-line for the duration of the project
- You can colour code the time blocks to denote type of activity (for example, intense, watching brief, directly managed, delegated and left-to-run, etc.)
- You can schedule review and insert break points
- At the end of each line you can show as many cost columns for the activities as you need
- A Gantt chart like this can be used to keep track of progress for each activity and how the costs are running



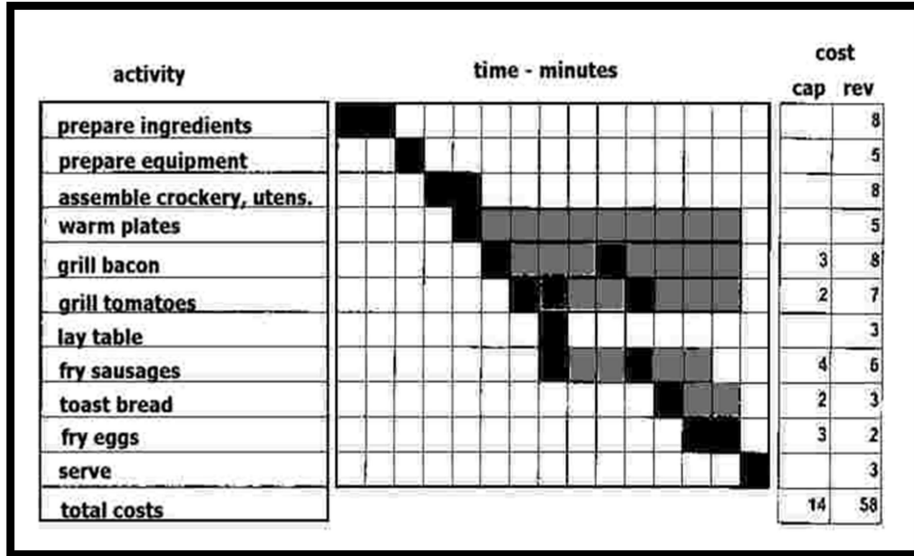


Figure 6

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# 13| Management Functions

## 13.1. Introduction

The international development project environment poses special problems for the project managers due to inherent characteristics. The World Bank Group's data (World Bank, 1999) and other evidence (Bastani, 1988, Beamish, 1993) suggest high incidents of challenged international development projects. Please identify the factors that fail projects, including PESTEL, managerial, environmental, social, corruption, and physical.

## 13.2. Management

It is the process of reaching organizational goals by working with and through people and other organizational resource while **Project management** is the discipline of planning, organizing, motivating, and controlling resources to achieve specific goals. Management has the following 3 characteristics:

- It is a process or series of continuing and related activities.
- It involves and concentrates on reaching organizational goals.
- It reaches these goals by working with and through people and other organizational resources.

### 13.2.1. Management Functions

The 4 basic management functions that make up the management process are described in the following sections:

#### 13.2.1.1. Planning

Planning involves:

- Choosing tasks that must be performed to attain organizational goals.
- Outlining how the tasks must be performed.
- Indicating when they should be performed

Managers outline exactly what organizations should do to be successful. Planning is concerned with the organization's success in the short term and the long term.

#### 13.2.1.2. Organizing

Organizing can be thought of as assigning the tasks developed in the planning stages, to various individuals or groups within the organization. Organizing is to create a mechanism to put plans into action. People within the organization are given work assignments that contribute to the company's goals. Tasks are organized so that the output of each individual contributes to the success of departments, which, in turn, contributes to the success of divisions, which ultimately contributes to the success of the organization.

#### 13.2.1.3. Influencing

It is also referred to as motivating, leading or directing. Influencing can be defined as guiding the activities of organization members in the direction that helps the organization move towards the fulfillment of the goals.

### 13.2.1.3.1. The Purpose of Influencing

The purpose of influencing is to increase productivity. Human-oriented work situations usually generate higher production levels over the long term than do task-oriented work situations because people find the latter type distasteful.

### 13.2.1.4. Controlling

The following roles played by the manager:

- Gather information that measures performance.
- Compare present performance to pre established performance norms.
- Determine the next action plan and modifications for meeting the desired performance parameters.

**Note:** Controlling is an ongoing process. Projects are key instruments of development administration in developing countries and a widely used modality of international development assistance.

## 13.3. Factors That Fail Projects

### 13.3.1. Political Factor

These refer to national and regional issues, including inconsistency in policies, laws and regulations, and political instability. From development project's perspective, these factors contribute to an environment of uncertainty on return of capital investment. For example, political uncertainty and lack of *transparency* in policy among others appear small but its impact is relatively large. This coupled with underdeveloped institutions and lack of awareness in the people may result in frequent change of governments or stimulate abrupt change of policies adversely affecting the successful achievement of development project objectives. Several associated factors that may prompt political challenge to the project are:

- Political takeover or military coup,
- War or revolution,
- Allegations of corruption causing government resignation, and
- Nationalization of assets with or without adequate compensation.

### 13.3.2. Legal Factor

These refer to unexpected changes in government policies pertinent to laws and regulations and currency conversion; absence of appropriate regulatory systems; rates and methods of taxation including customs, royalties, convertibility of currency; role of local courts in arbitration; and the methods by which electricity tariffs are set and approved. Cho (1999) attributes the legal challenge to the change in any legislation or agreement set by the government related to the following issues: pricing, taxation, royalties, ownership, arbitration, convertibility, corporate law, accounting rules, funds remittances, process regulation, and environment issue.

### 13.3.3. Cultural Factor

In international development projects, cultural issue is the least known but the most hazardous. Staudt (1991) states that "Understanding culture is the starting point for learning the meaning of development [management], the values that guide people's actions, and the behavior of administrators. Cultural differences emerge in many types of development settings, from assumptions to project design to technology transfer and management styles." Culture can cause conflict of interests, extra pressure, and frustration, fail project progress and often lead to lost opportunities, directing of development efforts at wrong groups, project cost overrun, and schedule delays. Therefore, the project manager must take cultural

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factors of traditions, values, customs, and beliefs into consideration at the project planning stage itself so that project objectives are consistent with the values and customs of the beneficiaries.

### 13.3.4. Technical Factor

Technical factors refer to the use of technology including design, engineering, procurement, construction, equipment installation, and operation of the equipment and its compatibility with accomplishment of project objectives. International development projects are located in developing countries, lacking adequate resources, technical and managerial skills, and low human capital productivity. Therefore, project design standards, specifications, and construction methods must be carefully selected so that they will be appropriate to the local financial, human, and material resources required during both the implementation phase of the project and its subsequent operation.

### 13.3.5. Managerial/Organizational Factor

Managerial or organizational factors refer to inadequate or ineffective management of the project by project sponsor or project management agency. The events in managerial factors include the following:

- Inadequate communication
- Unclear objectives
- Too optimistic goals in relation to project cost and schedule
- Lack of project sponsorship
- Unclear lines of responsibility, authority, and accountability
- Slow and cumbersome decision-making process
- Lack of training of the local staff for sustainability, and
- Lack of end-user participation

### 13.3.6. Economical Factor

Economic factors refer to the issues influencing the project's economic feasibility, including the changes in domestic economic conditions of the recipient country or inaccurate project development plan due to unpredictable economic conditions. This may be caused by increased competition, decreased consumption, and regulatory changes requiring changes in selling price of the product or renegotiating concessions awarded to the project and would reduce the profit margin.

### 13.3.7. Environmental Factor

Environmental factors refer to issues in conflict with established environmental regulations of the recipient country. This comprises pollution-related problems such as noise, air pollution, water pollution, and visual disturbances and those related to natural resources such as unsustainable use of natural resources including minerals, water, land, and flora and fauna. Until the mid-1980s, environmental concerns fared far less in project appraisal, as the basic benefit-cost criterion was the main consideration for selecting projects. Severe environmental degradation can affect a country's macro-economic performance over the long run. If not dealt with appropriately and early can eventually impose a heavy burden on an economy and hamper the country's economic growth. To counter such denigrating effects caused by development projects, Wilson (1997) suggests integrating a proper valuation of the environmental effects of the projects in order to improve the conventional methods of project evaluation.

### 13.3.8. Social Factor

Social factors refer to social environment of the recipient country and encompass the following:

- Hostility due to religion, customs, and ethnicity of the project participants

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- Social uprising or riots due to ethnicity or polarization of social strata (i.e. rich may become richer and poor become poorer thus increasing rich to poor gap)
- Security of the stakeholders
- Overestimation of capacity of the beneficiaries, and
- Resistance of the beneficiaries to new social values and standards or to absorb the effects of economic change or new technology

### 13.3.9. Corruption Factor

The World Bank defines corruption as "the abuse of public office for private gain". Inevitable politics interference coupled with lack of transparency and lack of regulatory institutions, bribery and corruption are widespread in international development projects resulting in ineffective use of development resources.

Corruption is based on using unlawful influence to extract additional costs to receive or give a preferential consideration in connection with awarding and agreement to a project developer. The project developer includes these costs into the project development cost. The higher these costs are, the lower the returns from the project investment will be.

For example in Thailand, Mahitthirook (2000) estimates that 10% of the project cost is lost to corruption due to the following six factors which enable corruption to take place.

- State agencies and politicians that implement projects.
- Lenders that may favor some contractors.
- The delegation of architects, engineers, supervisors, and consultants responsible for each project.
- Panels inspecting and accepting finished projects.
- Contractors who are ready to buy projects with bribes.
- Laws and regulations that can be misinterpreted to favor any parties.

### 13.3.10. Physical Factor

Physical factors refer to the circumstances beyond the project developer's or government's control such as natural disaster (e.g. fires, floods, drought, lightning, typhoon, earthquake), wars, hostilities, military coups, civil strife, and acts of terrorism. Developing countries provide unmeasurable instances of such events. A competent international development project manager should have a good understanding and judgment of the conditions in the recipient country and mitigate these.

### *13.4. Conclusion*

The history of international development projects is fraught with plenty of challenging projects. This unit showed you that the various factors causing the challenges are classified based on their nature and discussed. But the best way is always to ensure projects against any risk that is likely to fail its success as projects are complex.

Thus, the project manager must appreciate the environment of development projects, maintain flexibility, and be competent to analyze the nature of associated problems and their adverse effects on the project's success and address these promptly.

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**‘Introduction to International Development’** focuses on how development can be achieved across the globe and the way less developed countries can play the same role in the development with the developed countries. This book will help the readers and more specially, the young scholars to understand the process of development in the world today.



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