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**FINAL EXAMINATION IN INTERNATIONAL DEVELOPMENT**

Answer all questions in this section

1.**How can development be measured?**

The most indicators used index measurements for development are following:

Gross National Product (GNP) measures the economic output of a given nation. GNP can be used to measure the increase in real national income over a given period of time.

Per Capital Real Income (PCRI) is a measurement of income which also factors in population.

According to Morris D Morris: Physical Quality of Life Index (PQLI) is a measurement of the most basic needs of the people. It factors in a wide range of indicators such as health, education, water conditions, nutrition and sanitation.

The Human Development Index (HDI) is a quality of life index prepared by the United Nations Development Program. It is a composite index of life expectancy, adult literacy and years of schooling. It also considers P.C.I. (real) HDI is a composite index of a long and healthy life, knowledge and a descent standard of living. Human development is the process of enlarging people’s choices and raising the level of well-being.

Human capabilities is the measurement of freedom of choices. At the core of human well-being is freedom of choice by enhancing people’s capabilities for attaining higher standards of health, knowledge, self-respect and the ability to participate actively in community life. The relevant factors in determining choices are 1. Free from starvation 2. Free from hunger 3. Free from under nourishment 4. Free from participation in communal life 5. Adequate shelter.

These indicators measure policies. Indicators also embody values to be carried into those policies. In today’s economics in general, when implementing they tend to carry on policies or actions based on current, often international trends of development, without taking into consideration the values behind such trends. Overcoming this is possible by recognizing the bigger picture and the fact that between values and policy implementation are indicators that mediate between them. Indicators capture imagination easier and help convince the lay people, but it is not always easy for the people to discern that indicators are not value neutral, and that the underlying values and principles eventually determine actions and policies. In fact, one can go beyond this and say that indicators drive society in certain direction. (Professor Karma Ura, WHO 2008). From the policies implemented through indicators, due to their interrelation, it is possible to gain glimpse of the values that operate behind, both the indicators and policies, by comparing these means with an end they produce. And the most measuring methods used in today’s societies focus their policies on aspects such as financial development which means growth, nature and environmental condition, and various functions producing societal well-being in mostly material perspectives. In addition to that, great variety of things producing well-being and happiness are valued by standards outside the material and mental dimension. These are as important things to pay attention to, since what good are financial and technological value generated, or achievements from environmental resources, unless it is also a vehicle for that which brings true value, happiness and wellbeing. Therefore, must be understood that the environmental resources as a whole are a value-basis for a possibility to any of this to appear and therefore indexes measuring these resources with honesty can be important complementation to what is used by economics.

2**. What is participatory development? How can it be achieved**?

As the basic premise for discussing, participatory development is the objective of economic and social development in developing countries to set in motion a process of self-reliant and sustainable growth through which social justice can be achieved. Development within a developing society aims, we believe, at building into society the mechanisms that will ultimately permit self-reliant growth without foreign assistance, at sustaining stable growth patterns for economic development in harmony with the environment, and at providing equal and appropriate opportunities to take part in development to overcome income gaps, regional disparities, and inequalities between men and women.

And for this to be possible achieved, the central focus of development is not necessarily to boost production of material goods; instead, it should be to foster and enhance people's capability to have a role in their society's development. To this end, people should be willingly involved in a wide range of development activities, as agents and beneficiaries of development. It is this participation that is important. We believe it is needed both as a goal and as a tool of development.  
  
Our study committee regards participatory development as an approach to development that is designed to enhance sustainability and self-reliance and to achieve social justice through improvements in the quality of people's participation. For us, the focal point of participatory development should be the qualitative enhancement of participation in local societies which can be defined as groups of rural communities and as administrative and developmental units.  
  
The government-led development approach adopted by many developing countries beginning in the 1950s and 1960s was, on the one hand, effective and efficient as a method of planned and concentrated investment of scarce resources into industry. Given insufficient participatory capabilities of local people and local societies, however, it tended on the other hand to put the intended beneficiaries of development these very local people and societies in a passive position. This government-led approach to development left intact, or even widened, deep-rooted problems including economic and social disparities between social classes, between genders, between regions, and between urban and rural areas, in effect reinforcing the position of the classes and regions that benefited from development. Regrettably, this has undermined and counteracted the effectiveness and sustainability of development projects and of development itself.  
  
Participatory development is not an attempt to replace the top-down development approach with a local-community-led approach. Rather, it is a viewpoint that simultaneously stresses the need for the government-led approach in terms of national-level economic planning and coordination of development planning and the demerits of widening disparities and worsening poverty inherent in that approach when used alone. Participatory development attempts to introduce a bottom-up style of development in order to remedy the government-led approach's shortcomings, specifically by focusing on qualitative improvements in local society's participation.  
  
This participation must not be transient; it must entail the sustainable upgrading of participation quality. For this to happen, the underlying conditions must be met to facilitate the long-term process of participation and its self-reliant sustainability. The long-term process of participation cited here is: raising the awareness of local people, forming community groups, upgrading their requisite resource management abilities, and creating norms or internalizing their mechanisms, and improving capabilities for external negotiations. The shaping and planning of this participatory process requires both a long-term vision and a willingness to selectively improve and bolster traditional community systems as tools of development. Support from NGOs is needed to help accumulate the organizational learnings and experiences of local groups and to train leaders.  
  
To create the conditions for promoting sustainable participation, governments must create and adapt basic legislation and institutions that guarantee political and economic freedoms as well as strive to meet a broader range of basic human needs (BHN: food, housing, health and medical care, education, etc.). Governments also need to relax regulations in order to remove obstacles to economic participation, improve financial management, build infrastructure, and train business people and entrepreneurs. These are important components of participatory development.

3. **Explain the role of government in economic development**

In modern times, State participation in economic activity can hardly be a matter of disagreement.

The free play of economic forces, even in highly developed capitalist countries, has often meant large unemployment and instability of the economic system.

In the advanced countries, State intervention has been invoked to ensure economic stability and full employment of resources. State action is all the more inevitable in under-developed economies which are struggling hard to get rid of poverty and to attain higher living standards.

Accordingly, Governments are playing a vital role in the development of under-developed economies.

Their role is all the more remarkable in the following respects:

(i) Comprehensive Planning:

In an under-developed economy, there is a circular constellation of forces tending to act and react upon one another in such a way as to keep a poor country in a stationary state of under-development equilibrium. The vicious circle of under-developed equilibrium can be broken only by a comprehensive government planning of the process of economic development. Planning Commissions have been set up and institu­tional framework built up.

(ii) Institution of Controls:

A high rate of investment and growth of output cannot be attained, in an under-developed country, simply as a result of the functioning of the market forces. The operation of these forces is hindered by the existence of economic rigidities and structural disequilibria. Economic development is not a spontaneous or automatic affair

On the contrary, it is evident that there are automatic forces within the system tending to keep it moored to a low level. Thus, if an underdeveloped country does not wish to remain caught up in a vicious circle, the Government must interfere with the market forces to break that circle. That is why various controls have been instituted, e.g., price control, exchange control, control of capital issues, industrial licensing.

(iii) Social and Economic Overheads:

In the initial phase, the process of development, in an under-developed country, is held up primarily by the lack of basic social and economic overheads such as schools, technical institutions and research institutes, hospitals and railways, roads, ports, harbors and bridges, etc. To provide them requires very large investments.

Such investments will lead to the creation of external economies, which in their turn will provide incentives to the development of private enterprise in the field of industry as well as of agriculture. The Governments, therefore, go all out in building up the infrastructure of the economy for initiating the process of economic growth.

Private enterprise will not undertake investments in social overheads. The reason is that the returns from them in the form of an increase in the supply of technical skills and higher standards of education and health can be realized only over a long period. Besides, these returns will accrue to the whole society rather than to those entrepreneurs who incur the necessary large expenditure on the creation of such costly social over-heads.

Therefore, investment in them is not profitable from the standpoint of the private entrepreneurs, howsoever productive it may be from the broader interest of the society. This indicates the need for direct participation of the government by way of investment in social overheads, so that the rate of development is quickened.

Investments in economic overheads require huge outlays of capital which are usually beyond the capacity of private enterprise. Besides, the returns from such investments are quite uncertain and take very long to accrue. Private enterprise is generally interested in quick returns and will be seldom prepared to wait so long.

Nor can private enterprise easily mobilize resources for building up all these overheads. The State is in a far better position to find the necessary resources through taxation borrowing and deficit-financing sources not open to private enterprise. Hence, private enterprise lacks the capacity to undertake large-scale and comprehensive development. Not only that, it also lacks the necessary approach to development.

Hence, it becomes the duty of the government to build up the necessary infrastructure.

(iv) Institutional and Organizational Reforms:

It is felt that outmoded social institutions and defective organization stand in the way of economic progress. The Government, therefore, sets out to introduce institutional and organizational reforms. We may mention here abolition of zamindari, imposi­tion of ceiling on land holdings, tenancy reforms, introduction of co-operative farming, nationalization of insurance and banks reform of managing agency system and other reforms introduced in India since planning was started.

(v) Setting up Financial Institutions:

In order to cope with the growing requirements for finance, special institutions are set up for providing agricultur­al, industrial and export finance. For instance, Industrial Finance Corporation, Industrial Development Bank and Agricultural Refinance and Development Corporation have been set up in India in recent years to provide the necessary financial- resources.

(vi) Public Undertakings:

In order to fill up important gaps in the industrial structure of the country and to start industries of strategic importance, Government actively enters business and launches big enterprises, e.g., huge steel plants, machine-making plants, heavy electrical work and heavy engineer­ing works have been set up in India.

(vii) Economic Planning:

The role of government in development is further highlighted by the fact that under-developed countries suffer from a serious deficiency of all types of resources and skills, while the need for them is so great. Under such circumstances, what is needed is a wise and efficient allocation of limited resources. This can only be done by the State. It can be done through central planning according to a scheme of priorities well suited to the country’s conditions and need.

**4.In your own assessment, is economic growth a necessary precondition of development?**

It's a necessary condition. very important: economic growth, when a country needs development. Besides, it’s important the rate. Mexican Economy in the last 30 years has been growing slowly (Gross Domestic product 2 or 3 percent in a year) that´s why It doesn´t have development.

**5.With reference to examples, explain how colonialism impacted on social and economic development.**

A feature of the theoretical and ideological debate about the history of economic development in Africa is that it is possible to reach rather similar conclusions from very different scholarly and political starting-points. Regarding the colonial impact, the case for the prosecution, which a generation ago was urged most strongly by dependency theorists and radical nationalists (Amin 1972; Rodney 1972), is now championed by “rational choice” growth economists. Daron Acemoglu, Simon Johnson and James A. Robinson (2001; 2002) have argued that Africa’s relative poverty at the end of the 20th century was primarily the result of the form taken by European colonialism on the continent: Europeans settling for extraction rather than settling themselves in overwhelming numbers and thereby introducing the kinds of institution (private property rights and systems of government that would support them) that, according to Acemoglu, Johnson and Robinson, was responsible for economic development in Europe and the colonies of European settlement in North America and Australasia.

Colonial extraction in Africa could be seen most decisively in the appropriation of land for European settlers or plantations, a strategy used not only to provide European investors and settlers with cheap and secure control of land, but also to oblige Africans to sell their labour to European farmers, planters or mine-owners (Palmer and Parsons 1977). Even in the “peasant” colonies, i.e. where the land remained overwhelmingly in African ownership, we will see that major parts of the services sector were effectively monopolized by Europeans. Then there was coercive recruitment of labour by colonial administrations, whether to work for the State or for European private enterprise (Fall 1993; Northrup 1988). Of potentially great long-term importance was the unwillingness of colonial governments to accept, still less promote, the emergence of markets in land rights on land occupied by Africans, whether in “settler” or “peasant” colonies (Phillips 1989). From the perspectives of both dependency theory and “rational choice” institutionalism, the original sin of colonialism in Africa was that it did not introduce a full-blooded capitalist system, based upon private property and thereby generating the pressures towards competition and accumulation necessary to drive self-sustained economic growth.

A narrower but important argument was made by the then small group of liberal development economists between the 1950s and 1970s. At a time when development economists (especially but not exclusively those writing in French) tended to favour a leading role for the State in the search for development in mixed economies (Hugon 1993; Killick 1978) P. T. Bauer (1953; 1972) attacked the late colonial State for introducing statutory marketing boards and thereby laying the foundation of what he considered to be deadening State interventionism.

Explicitly positive overviews of colonial rule in Africa are rare (but see Duignan and Gann 1975). Many studies, though, mention the suppression of intra-African warfare, the abolition of internal slave trading and slavery, the introduction of mechanized transport and investment in infrastructure, and the development of modern manufacturing in the “settler” economies and in the Belgian Congo. Excited by the late 20th century wave of economic “globalization”, some economic liberals have argued that the British empire pioneered the process through its general opposition to tariff protection (1846-1931) and by other pro-market measures (Ferguson 2003; Lal 2004). With respect to tariffs, this case would apply less strongly to French colonies because of the protectionism of the French empire. It is also much less true of the final 30 years of British rule in Africa, which saw not only tariffs but also the creation of marketing boards. From the perspective of institutional change, a fundamental observation applicable to the region generally was highlighted by John Sender and Sheila Smith (1986). Writing in the “tragic optimist” tradition of Marx’s writings on British rule in India, they emphasized that wage labour was rare at the beginning of colonial rule and increasingly common by the end of it. For them, as for Bill Warren (1980), imperialism was the “pioneer of capitalism”.

Besides optimism and pessimism, a third view of colonial rule, and by implication of its legacy, is that its importance has been over-rated. There are different routes to this conclusion. Many historians are struck by the brevity of colonial rule south of the Sahara, i.e. about 60 years in most of tropical Africa (Ajayi 1969), and by the weakness of the colonial State (Herbst 2000). In this setting it can plausibly be argued that whatever went well in the “peasant” economies (and cash crop economies expanded greatly) was mainly the responsibility of Africans, through their economic rationality and entrepreneurship, a position epitomized by Polly Hill (1997). More ambivalent are the arguments of Jean-François Bayart (1989; 2000). Building on the familiar observation that rulers in Africa have usually found it hard to raise large revenues from domestic sources, Bayart argues that, during colonial rule and since, African elites became clients of colonial or overseas States. Thereby they forged relations which, though unequal, benefited themselves as well as the foreigners. Whereas dependency theory emphasized the primacy of foreign agency in determining historical outcomes, Bayart insists that African elites played a calculating and key role in establishing the “extraverted” pattern of African political economy.

**6.Discuss the role of NGOs in International development**.

NGOs have varied roles in international development, and have varied approaches based on different models of development practice. However, there are strong similarities in the objectives they aim to achieve, and in their overall mandates. Key objectives for INGOs typically include the reduction of poverty and inequality, the realization of rights, the promotion of gender equality and social justice, protection of the environment and strengthening of civil society and democratic governance. For example, three of the largest INGOs have primary objectives based on poverty reduction:

CARE International “shares a common vision to fight against worldwide poverty and to protect and enhance human dignity.

Oxfam International is a “global movement for change, to build a future free from the injustice of poverty.

World Vision is “dedicated to working with children, families and communities to overcome poverty and injustice. INGOs work with a wide range of target groups and sectors to achieve their possibilities development objectives. While some have a special focus, many work in similar areas. Save The Children and Plan International, as their names suggest, have a specific focus on children and undertake programme in health, nutrition, education, protection and child rights. ActionAid works on food rights, women’s rights, democratic governance, education, climate change and HIV/AIDS. Many INGOs, such as World Vision International or Oxfam International, are involved in humanitarian assistance as well as long-term development programme. One of the world’s largest INGOs, Medicines sans Frontiers works only on humanitarian assistance, delivering emergency aid “to people affected by armed conflict, epidemics, healthcare exclusion and natural or man-made disasters”. Programme approaches: Most INGOs are directly involved in planning, implementing and managing development programme and humanitarian assistance in developing countries. Their approaches can range from the operational implementation of programme, to working wholly through partners, where they have no direct role in programme implementation. Most INGOs undertake a mix of approaches, often informed by practice models and theoretical frameworks, and by performance and quality standards. In these respects, INGOs do not necessarily differ from national CSOs: the difference, as stated above, relates to the scale and geographic reach of INGOs’ programmatic approaches. Policy dialogue and campaigning: Some INGOs are also involved in policy dialogue, advocacy, lobbying and campaigning work at the domestic and international level. This work may be undertaken as part of global campaigns or coalitions, and is usually designed to bring about structural or policy change. in relation to development problems. These roles are connected to a view that, in addition to undertaking programmes in developing countries to address the symptoms of poverty, CSOs should also be involved in addressing the underlying causes of poverty — and that this means undertaking policy dialogue and influencing roles. As a result, INGOs such as World Vision and CARE have increased their policy, advocacy and campaigning roles in recent years. For instance, CARE states that: “Advocacy is a key aspect of CARE’s humanitarian and development efforts, addressing not only the immediate needs of the poor, but also the root causes of poverty and obstacles to its elimination. INGOs draw on the global reach and the cumulative experience of their confederation members for both their programme delivery and for their policy influence work. They undertake research and learning processes to ensure that both their development programmes and their policy influence work are informed by their own programme experience and knowledge, and in particular by their relationships with developing country partners and communities. Increasingly, some INGOs are commissioning research to establish a stronger evidence base for both programming and policy influence. Many national INGO affiliates now have dedicated research units, along with teams in the international secretariat of INGOs (their consortium’s coordinating body). For instance, in the first half of 2012, the Oxfam International research unit produced reports on climate change, food security, the arms trade and the African Union. INGO roles are not static: they change and respond to the changing global context for development. Some commentators suggest that changing geopolitical dynamics at the global level have particular implications for the roles of INGOs. In this context, INGOs are assuming greater and more important roles at the supranational level, ensuring that global public goods are handled and distributed in ways that benefit rather than disadvantage poor people. INGOs are also increasingly drawing on their capacity to work with States and international organizations to address transnational problems, such as climate change, global poverty, urbanization, complex humanitarian crises and security threats in a globalized world.

7.**The Sustainable Development Goals focuses on seventeen areas for change. Identify three of these goals. How will achievement of these three goals change the current state of development?**

1. Gender equality

Gender inequality is one of the biggest obstacles to sustainable development, economic growth and poverty reduction. Thanks to MDG 3 on gender equality and women’s empowerment, progress in enrolling girls into school and integrating women into the job market has been considerable. MDG 3 gave the issue of gender parity a lot of visibility, but its narrow focus meant that it failed to address important issues such as violence against women, economic disparities and the low participation of women in political decision-making.

This goal advocates equal opportunities for men and women in economic life, the elimination of all forms of violence against women and girls, the elimination of early and forced marriage, and equal participation at all levels.

To achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls

1.1: End all forms of discrimination against all women and girls everywhere

1.2: Eliminate all forms of violence against all women and girls in the public and private spheres, including trafficking and sexual and other types of exploitation

1.3: Eliminate all harmful practices, such as child, early and forced marriage and female genital mutilation

1.4: Recognize and value unpaid care and domestic work through the provision of public services, infrastructure and social protection policies and the promotion of shared responsibility within the household and the family as nationally appropriate

1.5: Ensure women’s full and effective participation and equal opportunities for leadership at all levels of decision-making in political, economic and public life

1.6: Ensure universal access to sexual and reproductive health and reproductive rights as agreed in accordance with the Programme of Action of the International Conference on Population and Development and the Beijing Platform for Action and the outcome documents of their review conferences

1.a: Undertake reforms to give women equal rights to economic resources, as well as access to ownership and control over land and other forms of property, financial services, inheritance and natural resources, in accordance with national laws

1.b: Enhance the use of enabling technology, in particular information and communications technology, to promote the empowerment of women

1.c: Adopt and strengthen sound policies and enforceable legislation for the promotion of gender equality and the empowerment of all women and girls at all levels

2. End poverty in all its forms everywhere

Despite considerable progress in the fight against poverty since 1990, over 800 million people, 70% of whom are women, still live in extreme poverty. The new Sustainable Development Agenda will now aim to eradicate extreme poverty by 2030.

Besides aiming to eradicate extreme poverty, this goal takes a comprehensive approach to poverty as a whole by including a target on relative poverty based on national definitions. The poor are particularly vulnerable to economic and political crises, loss of biodiversity and ecosystem services, and natural disasters and violence. To ensure that people who have escaped poverty do not fall back into it, this goal also envisages measures to strengthen livelihood resilience, including the establishment of social security systems.

To achieve end of poverty in all its forms everywhere

2.1: By 2030, eradicate extreme poverty for all people everywhere, currently measured as people living on less than $1.25 a day

2.2: By 2030, reduce at least by half the proportion of men, women and children of all ages living in poverty in all its dimensions according to national definitions

2.3: Implement nationally appropriate social protection systems and measures for all, including floors, and by 2030 achieve substantial coverage of the poor and the vulnerable

2.4: By 2030, ensure that all men and women, in particular the poor and the vulnerable, have equal rights to economic resources, as well as access to basic services, ownership and control over land and other forms of property, inheritance, natural resources, appropriate new technology and financial services, including microfinance

2.5: By 2030, build the resilience of the poor and those in vulnerable situations and reduce their exposure and vulnerability to climate-related extreme events and other economic, social and environmental shocks and disasters

2.a: Ensure significant mobilization of resources from a variety of sources, including through enhanced development cooperation, in order to provide adequate and predictable means for developing countries, in particular least developed countries, to implement programmes and policies to end poverty in all its dimensions

2.b: Create sound policy frameworks at the national, regional and international levels, based on pro-poor and gender-sensitive development strategies, to support accelerated investment in poverty eradication actions

3.Take urgent action to combat climate change and its impacts\*

Climate change is a key challenge with regard to sustainable development. The warming of the earth’s atmosphere is triggering changes in the global climate system that threaten the livelihoods of large sections of the population in less developed countries, while infrastructure and certain economic sectors in particular are vulnerable to the risks of climate change in developed regions. Furthermore, changes in precipitation and temperature cycles are also affecting ecosystems such as forests, agricultural land, mountain regions and oceans, as well as the plants, animals and people that live in them. Global carbon dioxide (CO2) emissions increased by over 50% between 1990 and 2012.

This goal calls on countries to incorporate climate protection measures in their national policies and assist each other in responding to the challenges at hand. It acknowledges that the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change is the primary international, intergovernmental forum for negotiating the global response to climate change. Supplementing this dialogue, Goal 13 advocates strengthening resilience to climate-related natural disasters and reaffirms the commitment undertaken by developed countries to mobilise each year USD 100 billion jointly from all sources by 2020 to help developing countries adapt to climate change.

To achieve this goal, all countries should take urgent action to combat climate change and its impacts\*

3.1: Strengthen resilience and adaptive capacity to climate-related hazards and natural disasters in all countries

3.2: Integrate climate change measures into national policies, strategies and planning

3.3: Improve education, awareness-raising and human and institutional capacity on climate change mitigation, adaptation, impact reduction and early warning

3.a:  Implement the commitment undertaken by developed-country parties to the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change to a goal of mobilizing jointly $100 billion annually by 2020 from all sources to address the needs of developing countries in the context of meaningful mitigation actions and transparency on implementation and fully operationalize the Green Climate Fund through its capitalization as soon as possible

3.b: Promote mechanisms for raising capacity for effective climate change-related planning and management in least developed countries and small island developing States, including focusing on women, youth and local and marginalized communities

**8. Health issues divide the developing and the developed world. Discuss**

One of the reasons that the process of development garners so much attention is the stark divide between rich (developed) and poor (developing) countries. The United Nations Development Program (UNDP) rates countries’ development annually according to its Human Development Index (HDI), which includes measurements of citizens’ access to healthcare, educational attainment, and standards of living, among other factors.

During 2012, the five countries with the highest HDI rankings were Norway, Australia, United States, Netherlands and Germany, while the five countries with the lowest rankings were Niger, Democratic Republic of Congo, Mozambique, Chad and Burkina Faso, all African countries. In fact, 37 of the 46 states ranked as having low human development are located in Africa. In contrast, 32 of the 47 states considered to be very high human development are found in Europe (Human Development Report 2013). As these figures demonstrate, development is often a highly localized issue, leading to great wealth disparities between distinct global regions.

**9. Aid has done more harm than good to those countries most in need of assistance. To what extent do you agree with this statement?**

This topic views the harms of aid and argues that aid does developing countries more harm than it does good. Aid is the economic assistance from one nation to another. There are different reasons for why this topic is so controversial. Aid does not always benefit the poor countries economic stride; aid may also cause political and psychological harm, and also enlarges the power between developed countries and developing countries. With the different types of aid, each aid does harm to poor countries differently. Tied aid, Food aid, Military aid, and Aids that aren’t grants, are the types of aid that put developing countries in harm.

Everything that goes on this beautiful place we call Earth always has an effect on someone other than ourselves. Sometimes it’s for the better, and others for the worst mainly because each individual is entitled to their own opinion based on the facts that are gathered and what is portrayed by society. A conclusion is then found and the individual will stick to his claim regardless of what the opposing side has got to say, so why would it be any different in this case. Developing countries usually receive foreign aid and there are a number of reasons to why these countries need aid, such as poverty, medical and health, and environmental problems. Poverty is one of the main reasons for countries receiving aid, and the people are unable to provide the basic needs for their families. With aid, developing countries not just receive free money; they need to pay back money they received. Aid covers a large number of things, involving a vast variety of organizations; structures and activities, which are involving, aid work (Regan, 2002). Aid is in the form of advanced countries helping and encouraging economic growth in developing countries. There are many forms of aid, from short-term disaster relief, to longer-term development aid, but with all these different forms of aid, it is followed with a problem and criticized, with either inefficiency of delivery, dependency, or political agendas (Shah, 2010). Government aid has been around for centuries doing all they can to help those in need. As time goes on and the help continues, its only normal for us as human beings to rely on what is being provided for us. This is just the beginning of all our problems. Some types of aid that is doing harm and has an effect on the receiving countries is food aid, military aid, tied aid etc. Aid has been helping the world’s poorest people in coming to aid and trying to help improve the situations and conditions of developing countries, but issues of aid still rise and it is to a great extent from being non-controversial, and the arguments and problems with aid is that aid is doing more harm than good (Regan, 2002).

With the number of different aids brought by donors and developed countries, there are a number of problems, cases, and failures to the current system of aid prove that, and why it is doing more harm than it is good. Many questions have come up due to the failure of international aid to encourage the emergence of a self-sustained growth in agricultural and industrial sectors. Aid from government to government has little effect on the poor and benefiting only the rich. Only one country is benefiting and aid has been used to strengthen the power of the authoritarian government (Regan, 2002). Aid is used for different reasons, and different aids have different effects, currently aid is being used for economic, political and strategic reasons. The problem with this is that it is intended to sustain the current character of world inequality, instead of trying to fix and challenge it, aid is only supporting the problem. Many times aid money is misspent, or handled wrong. Aid money may be used for a number of different projects that may be helpful in the short run but not much profitable in the long run. ‘Tied’ aid the donor country also benefits economically from the aid. The receiving country buys goods or services from the donor country to get the aid. Aid is given depending on receiving country agreeing to buy. Tied aid is then seen as harmful if it supports governments that suppress their people. It is a hidden endowment to the industry in the industrialized world (Regan, 2002). Tied aid also focuses more on profiting their countries rather than what the developing countries need. It also increases dependency by being loaned to a country (Webster, 1990). Weaker governments/countries become dependent on donor a country, which puts them at a disadvantage in economic or political negotiations (Regan, 2002).

Food aid can be related to many issues, but it is mainly about providing food and related assistance to challenge the problem of hunger, that many poor countries face, either due to emergency situations (natural disasters), or to help people who are living in hunger and fear of starvation. Food aid does help developing countries under some circumstances, but also doing much harm, and causing social and economic consequences. One of the reasons food aid has not been a success is due to the tying of food aid with constraints that benefit the donor country more than its recipients (Shah, 2007). Economically food aid can hurt the Third World agricultural sector, by depressing and discouraging local markets and production and may cause local prices to fall, eventually leading farmers going out of business and it just adds on to more unemployment (Webster, 1990). Other problems that contribute to the problem with food aid is that it is a donor-driven system and politically puts an effect on Third World governments, feeling obligated to buy donor goods unquestioningly. Food aid promotes domestic interests in donor countries, it is a foreign policy tool, and exporters drive international institutions and development is not necessarily the objective (Shah, 2007).

Another aid that is harming receiving recipients is military aid. Military aid is to help allies or poor countries fight terrorism and maintain control over their territory, or help the fight against drug wars. Military aid may be given in the form of credits for foreign militaries to buy weapons and equipment from donor countries of even in the form of training (shah, 2010). Military aid can start to feed violence and not fix the real problem that is going on in countries. It is argued that with military aid, the relationship between military and nations can be strengthened.

Due to the fact that some of the aid is loans instead of direct grants, poorer countries may be getting more in to debt (Webster 1990). The debt is ruining developing countries, and their living standards are only getting worse due to resources going towards paying back their debt. It is very hard for countries to rely on one of two items to produce enough income from exports to repay loans (Webster, 1990). Many of these third world countries try to use their aid to boost their export rates, but when aid stops, export rates drop and it may cause social distress and poorer countries become dependent on the aid so they can increase their productions, not realizing they still need to payback their aid loan. As debt continues to increase, aid is dropping. Even with disaster relief and aid, poor countries are still paying debt repayment (Shah, 2007). In 2000, at the UN Millennium Summit, rich countries agreed to use aid only for poverty reduction. However international institutes like the World Bank and IMF continued to attach conditions to the loans, which struck the poor hard (ActionAid, 2006). Due to all the poor countries owing outrageous debts to rich countries, it forces these poor countries to focus on debt repayment, rather than meeting needs of their country and the people.

Aid does not always benefit the poor and many developing countries are unable to control majority of their economic life, and become dependent on their donor country. Poor countries are profiting and it making richer countries richer. Dependency theory was developed to disapprove the view of what is currently going on in developing countries and see if they could achieve modernization and industrialization by colonizing the majority world. Dependency explains the underdeveloped circumstances of many nations and assesses the different structures of interactions among nations. Supporters of dependency theory see economic aid and technical assistance being in command of, which causes cultures to be vulnerable, because they need the help and they begin to rely on donors. Developing countries become so dependent on aid that they don’t improve what needs to be done for the people and the country. When dealing with Third World Countries they lack the control of their economic life, due to power and dominance of minority world or developed countries, dependency theory comes into play. Many poor countries are dependent on the aid and on the national government due to the fact that they lack the acceptable skills, knowledge and attitude they need to take in control of their own, and have poor work ethics (Webster, 1990).

There are many different forms of aid, and aid can be very beneficial to MEDCs and LEDs, it can save lives, help improve living standards of people living in developing countries, improve exports and secure jobs and also open markets for goods. With all the help that Aid provides countries and people in need it does more harm than good and the flow of aid may not always be dependent on. The continuation of poverty in the developing countries is an image of its dependency they have on the minority world. Foreign aid causes corruption and mistrust in developing countries or countries receiving aid. Tied aid focuses on profiting donor countries and not on the developing countries when they are the ones most in need, food aid causes social and economic consequences, and aids that is in the form of a loan only puts developing countries in a deeper debt. We ask ourselves is aid really doing developing countries of the Third World good? But to this extent as we have discussed aid is doing more harm than good, and not helping the developing countries improve aspects of their life as aid should be. Donors and developed countries have to stop the dependency between the developing countries and actually start helping developing countries improve their way of life and get out of poverty.

**10. Discuss the relationship between gender and development**

Gender equality is considered a critical element in achieving Decent Work for All Women and Men, in order to effect social and institutional change that leads to sustainable development with equity and growth. Gender equality refers to equal rights, responsibilities and opportunities that all persons should enjoy, regardless of whether one is born male or female.

Despite many new local, national and international laws focusing on development, equality and human rights, despite many reports of positive change in deed and attitude on the part of governments, religious and other institutions, it is still necessary, when looking at the key development issues, to look at these through gendered lens - looking at how development decisions and practices affect both men and women. In addressing gender and development issues, it is usual to look at the relations between women and men (social, political, economic), focusing on global inequalities, always keeping in mind, however, that we all play a part in supporting inequality no matter where we live in the world. We look at issues of power, which can prevent development and which can hinder participation in, and opportunities for, involvement in one’s own community. This chapter looks at the issue of gender and development and how this relationship has progressed or otherwise to its current stage. There are many commentators who argue that taking a separate gender focused view is wrong in that development is all encompassing and by its nature benefits all equally (or not as may be the case). To date, however, development has impacted differently on women and, generally speaking, they have not benefited as much as men. Development commentators and practitioners have also been forced to recognize that dealing with the relations between women and men in a development context is an integral and vital element in ‘getting development right’. It must be acknowledged from the outset that this chapter recognizes the importance of men and women working together to improve their lives and the lives of their families. That said, however, comparisons will be made between the progression of men and the progression of women to draw attention to just how successful gender equality and empowerment of women in particular has been and currently