

# GCSE Geography

Unit Two: The Development.

Question 4.



# The Development Gap Checklist:



1. Read through your notes and tick off whether you have notes on the topics that have been covered. If not, you must copy up ASAP.
2. For each topic you must provide a score to reflect how well you think you understand what you've covered. Provide a score of 1-5.
3. Identify the topics you most need to revise – and do this as a priority!

1 = Don't understand	3 = Understand some	5 = Understand all
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Section of Topic	Pages:	Notes ?	Understanding?
<b><u>DEVELOPMENT INDICATORS:</u></b>  <u>Different ways of measuring:</u> GNP, GNI per head, Human Development Index, birth rates, death rates, infant mortality, people per doctor, literacy rate, access to safe water, life expectancy. The correlation between different measures and the limitations of using a single development measure.  <u>Global variations:</u> The different ways of classifying different parts of the world. <u>Quality of life/standard of living:</u> The relationship between quality of life and standard of living. Different perceptions of acceptable quality of life in different parts of the world. Attempts made by people in the poorer part of the world to improve their own quality of life.	103/104/ 105/106		
<b><u>GLOBAL INEQUALITIES:</u></b>  <u>Environmental factors:</u> – the impact of natural hazards. <b>Case study:</b> of a natural hazard. <u>Economic factors:</u> – global imbalance of trade between different parts of the world. <u>Social factors:</u> – differences in the quantity and quality of water available on peoples' standards of living. <u>Political influences:</u> – the impact of unstable governments.	104/105/ 106/107		
<b><u>THE IMPACT OF TRADE:</u></b>  <u>Trade:</u> The imbalance in the pattern of world trade and the attempts to reduce it. The contributions of Fair Trade and Trading Groups. <u>Debt:</u> The reduction in debt repayments through debt abolition and conservation swaps. <u>Aid:</u> The advantages and disadvantages of different types of aid for donor and recipient countries. The role of international aid donors in encouraging sustainable development. <b>Case study:</b> A case study of one development project.	108/109/ 110		
<b><u>EU CONTRASTS:</u></b>  Conditions leading to different levels of development in two contrasting countries of the EU. The attempts by the EU to reduce these different levels of development.	111		

## What is development and how is it measured?

The Geography of development is all about how wealth and the quality of life of people living on our planet varies from place to place. We can study this on a local scale, and consider with our own community how different groups of people on one estate might be wealthier and have a better quality of life than others. We could look at development a national scale, and consider how health and wealth change across the British Isles (life expectancy is lower in Scotland than it is in England for example). The last scale we can look at is globally, because there are huge differences between the quality of life between countries and continents. There are 2 very broad groups of countries;

1. More Economically Developed Countries or MEDCs
2. Less Economically Developed Countries or LEDCs

There are a huge number of measures that can be used to measure the level of Development of a place. These measures can be classified as Social - relating to the development of the people of the place; Economic, relating to the finances and wealth of the place; and Political, relating to the political systems and freedoms afforded by the place. Some countries may have imbalances in these measures, so a country may have very high levels of wealth and economic development, but poor levels of political freedom so poor political and social development. It is therefore better to look at a NUMBER of different measures of development of places before coming to a judgment about its level of development. The most powerful individual number or measure is probably the Human Development Index, because it combines together economic and social measures into one figure.

The Exam board expects you to know the definitions below, but there are many other Indicators of development that you could investigate;

1. **GNP -Gross National Product** - how much money a country earns as a population excluding business taxes. This is a total sum, and shows the overall size of the economy. We need to be very careful when using this measure, as it does not take into account population size as shown in the example below. Brazil and the UK have very similar GNPs in 2011, but the UK is much richer per person as it has a smaller population.

2. **GNI per head** - Gross national income is a measure of the country's wealth. GDP is part of GNI. It includes the total value of goods and services produced within a country (i.e. its Gross Domestic Product), together with its income received from other countries (such as interest and dividends), and minus similar payments made to other countries. So if a British-based company such as BP sends profits back to the UK our GNI is enhanced, whilst profits flowing out of the country from a company such as Nissan to Japan will count to Japan's GNI and not the UKs. GNI is therefore different to GDP because it includes it!

3. **Human Development Index (HDI)** - This is a composite (combined) measure that considers life expectancy, GNI and an education index to give a value between 0 and 1, 1 being the most developed. This is powerful as it includes both economic and social factors.

4. **Birth Rates** - How many babies are born per 1000 people in a population per year. We tend to find that the poorest countries have high birth rates, and wealthier countries have lower birth rates. This is because poorer countries have high replacement rates to compensate for high infant mortality, poorer access to family planning and contraception, and a tradition for large family size to supplement a largely agricultural workforce.

5. **Death rates** - How many people die per 1000 people in a population per year. This is becoming less useful as a measure of development, as death rates fall due to imported medicine and technology in many poorer countries. It would be better to look at CAUSE of death, as in MEDCs it will be wealth and age related illnesses

6. **Infant mortality** - How many babies die per 1,000 live births per year. This is a useful measure as it indicates the medical systems in the country and how well the most vulnerable in society, the very young, are protected and looked after in their early years.
7. **People per doctor** - How many people there are for every doctor in a country or place. Again, this indicates how much money is available in a country for the training and recruitment of doctors, which has an instant knock on effect on the well-being and quality of life of a person.
8. **Literacy rate** - What percentage of the country is able to read and write as adults. This is another social measure, and helps to indicate the standard of education within a country or place.
9. **Access to safe water** - What percentage of people have access to sanitary and safe water that is free from bacteria and parasites. This is something we take for granted in the UK, but according to Water.org 780 million people lack access to safe water and 3.4million die every year from a water related disease.
10. **Life expectancy** - The average age a person can expect to live to at birth. This is a very useful indicator as it reveals how good food security, water quality, shelter and medical care are in a country.

### Mapping development - Different ways of classifying different parts of the world:

One of the most useful things we can do to understand development and how it changes over space from place to place is map it! There are many different things that we could map to show how development varies from place to place, and we could map them at different scales. The most common way to map data or information is to use a choropleth map, which is basically a coloured in map where the colours represent certain values. We could map the number of people per doctor, the literacy level of a place, the number of calories consumed, the number of mobile phones in a population, the average wage, the number of AIDS sufferers etc. to see how these features of a population vary over space.

For a long time Geographers have been trying to CLASSIFY or put into groups countries around the globe with similar characteristics. This has been particularly relevant to development, and these characteristics have changed over time.

One of the earliest classifications was a 3 fold division used by the United Nations for the first time in 1945. First, second, and third worlds.



The First World included mainly capitalist free-market countries found in Western Europe and their old colonies such as the USA and Australia.

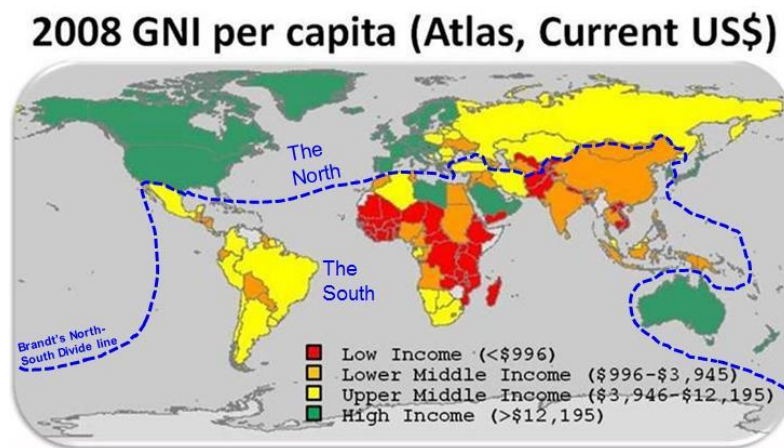
The second world comprised centrally planned, socialist or communist countries. These countries had different structure to those of the first world and had much more government control of business and public services. The second and first worlds were at odds for decades during the cold war.

The third world comprised the least developed countries and developing countries.

This division had a bias towards the democratic first world and hid huge differences between countries in the third world.

### The North-South Divide

The North-South Divide is a division that exists between the wealthy developed countries, known collectively as "the North", and the poorer developing countries (least developed countries), or "the South." The divide was part of a report by Brandt on the state of world development in 1971 and classified countries broadly as economically wealthy manufacturing countries (the North) or agricultural (the South).



The "North";

1. Is home to four of the five permanent members of the United Nations Security Council
2. Has all members of the G8, the group of the 8 most powerful nations/economies on Planet Earth
3. Has enough food and water for 95% of its population
4. Has 95% of people with access to a functioning education system.
5. Controls four fifths of the world income.
6. Owns 90% of the manufacturing industries

This distinction has fallen out of favour because;

- It is too simple - large variations in wealth are hidden in both the rich North and poor south
- It is geographically incorrect - Australia and New Zealand are geographically south but included in the North, whilst more poor countries that make up the South are above the Equator than below it!
- Development changes over time -the BRIC economies of Brazil, India and China (but not Russia as it was already north of the line) have grown massively since the map was made
- Economies have become more varied that manufacturing and agriculture.

Countries at different stages of development

This is a more recent classification that groups countries into;

- MEDC - More Economically Developed Country (UK, USA, Japan, and France). These are richer countries that have lots of industry and service jobs such as the UK and Japan.

- LEDC means Less Economically Developed Countries. These are poorer countries that have mainly primary jobs such as farming and mining. Countries include Bangladesh and Mali.
- NIC - Newly Industrialised Country (Taiwan, Singapore, India). These countries are those that have developed fastest over the latter part of the 20th Century, profiting from globalisation and technology transfer.

#### **The five - fold division based on wealth:**

1. Rich industrialising countries e.g. UK, USA, Japan, Australia, etc.
2. Oil Exporting countries e.g. UAE.
3. New Industrializing countries e.g. India, China.
4. Former centrally planned economies (previous communist systems) e.g. Russia.
5. Heavily indebted poor countries e.g. Chad, Congo.

This is a more recent method designed to try and classify countries and their level of development. It makes a better distinction between countries of lower levels of development and accounts for different reasons for wealth. It also takes into account the variable success of the formally centrally planned economies such as Russia. The UN also has a program for LDCs, the Least Developed Countries.

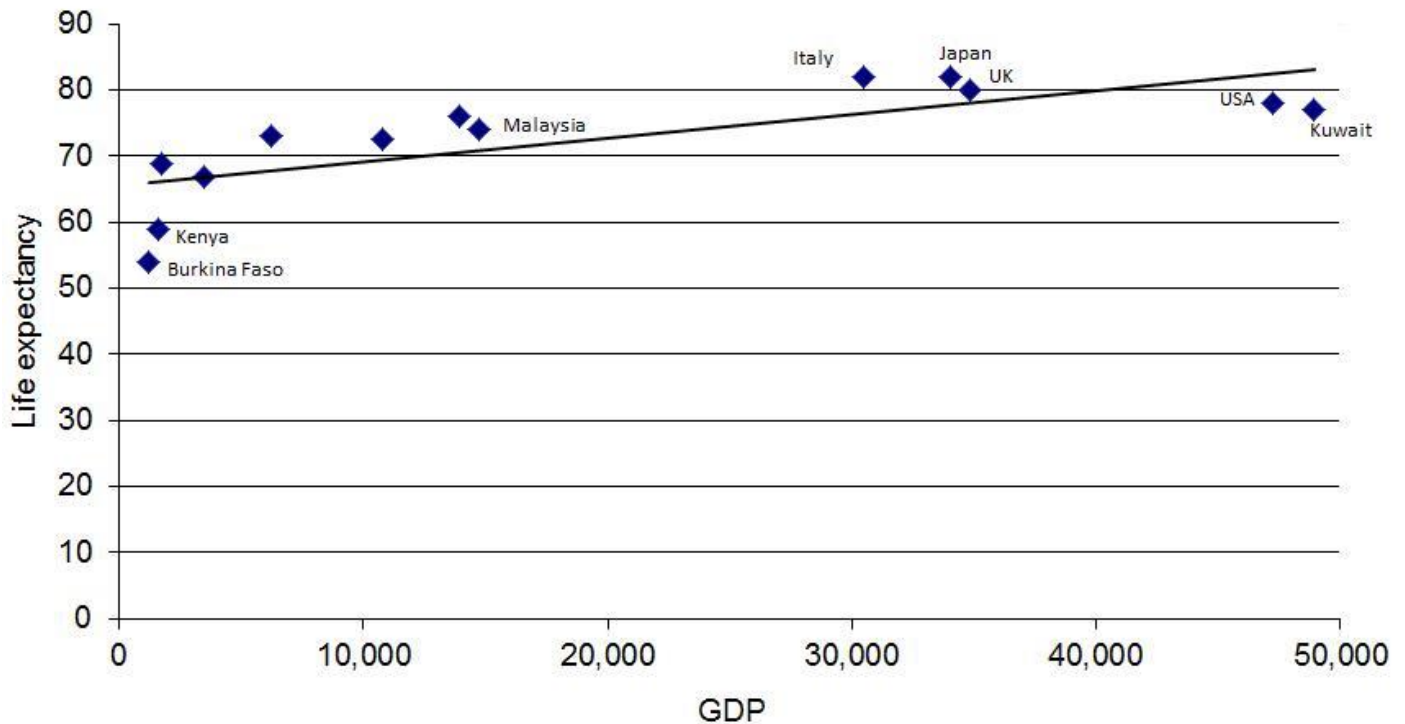
#### **Correlation between Development measures:**

The indicators we use to measure development are useful in determining the level of development of places. Generally, we would expect many of the indicators to be correlated together. The expression “correlated” means that they should link to one another and affect one another. For example, in a country with high Gross National Product we would expect a high number of Internet users as the country has the money available for a high quality cable network. Similarly, we might expect countries with Low Gross National Product to have high numbers of people per doctor as it is expensive to train and pay doctors, and to pay for the facilities they would require.

There are 2 examples below dealing with the following measures of development:

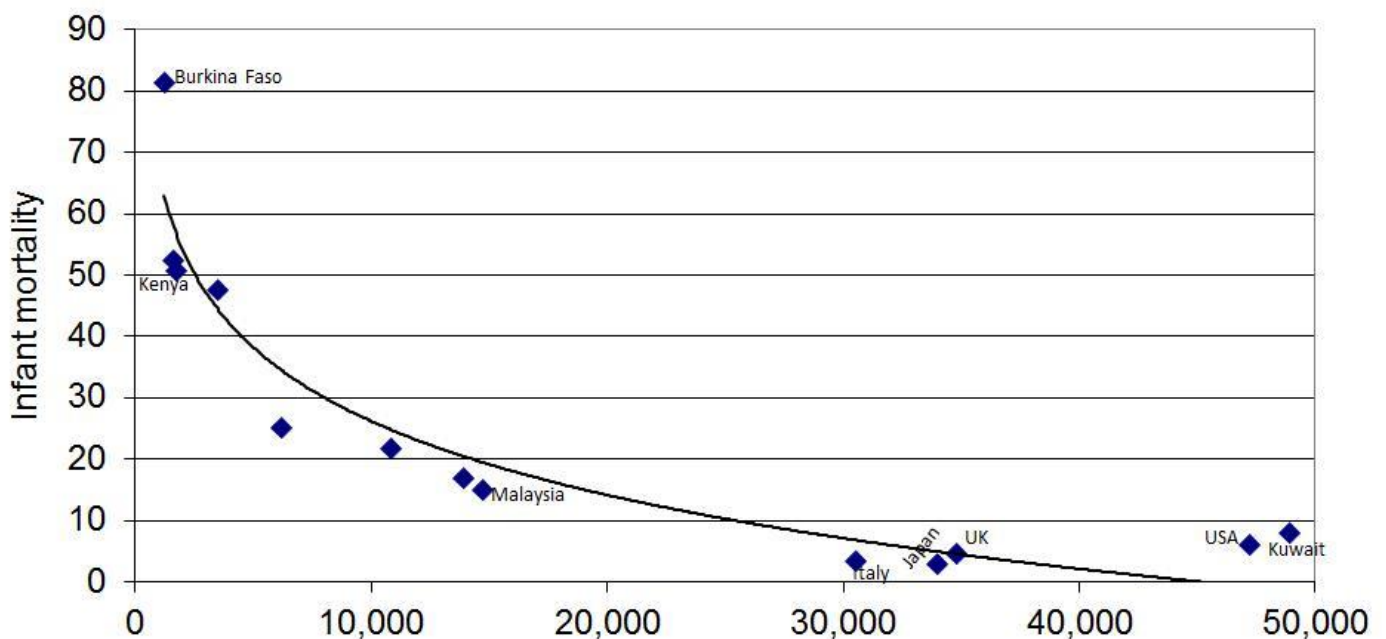
- Gross Domestic Product is the total market value of goods and services that a country produces in a year per person. This is measured in US\$.
- Life Expectancy is the length of time the average person in a country can expect to live for.
- Infant mortality is the number of babies who do not survive past the age of 1 year old for every 1000 live births in a population.

**A scattergraph of life expectancy and GDP**



The graph reveals a POSITIVE correlation that is reasonably STRONG. This is because the points are close to the line and as one variable goes up so does the other. This means that as GDP goes up so does the average age a person can expect to live to. This makes logical sense, in countries with high GDP such as the USA there are very good food distribution systems, clean water, education facilities and excellent medical care. All of these features maximize people's chances of living a long and healthy life. Sadly, in poorer countries such as Burkina Faso their lack of wealth and high levels of debt mean that they cannot afford the same things as the USA, resulting in a lower life expectancy.

**A scattergraph showing Infant Mortality per 1000 and GDP**



The scatter graph above shows a NEGATIVE correlation between the 2 variables. Here, we can see that as the GDP per capita (person) goes up, the infant mortality falls rapidly. In Burkina Faso, a huge infant

mortality of 81 infants under 1 dying before the age of 1 in every 1,000 live births is a tragedy. It is a reflection of their status as a Highly Indebted LDC, which cannot afford decent maternal care, vaccines and medical care for newborn infants. This will not be the case in richer countries such as the UK and Japan.

Not all variables will be linked together in this way, but the majority will be, and there will always be countries that disrupt the trend. However, when correlating data this way some distressing patterns emerge for the world's poorest countries which have;

- The highest infant mortalities
- Shorter life expectancies
- Lower calorie intake per person
- Higher maternal death rates
- Higher incidents of HIV, AIDS and Malaria
- Lowest access to safe drinking water
- The highest % of people undernourished
- The lowest per capita incomes
- The poorest literacy rates and shortest educations

This is where Aid and fairer trading can really make a difference to the poorest people in the world, who have been dubbed the “bottom billion”.

### **The relationship between quality of life and standard of living:**

The patterns outlined on the scatter graphs show that there are huge issues that the world needs to deal with in terms of standard of living and quality of life. Indeed, income variations across the world can have huge impacts upon the quality of life a person has. There are a massive range of things that are directly impacted by a person or a countries ability to pay for them. These things include access to clean water, education, and access to health care, access to medicines, adequate shelter, security, electricity and many more.

The term **quality of life** is used to evaluate the general well-being of individuals and societies. It is a qualitative measure in that it is not easily measured and many of the factors affecting it are tied in with the United Nations Universal human rights such as the right to freedom, the right to marry and freedom from discrimination. None of these things are ECONOMIC. Standard indicators of the quality of life include not only wealth and employment, but also the built environment, physical and mental health, education, recreation and leisure time, and social belonging

In contrast, **standard of living** is based primarily on income and what that level of income will allow a person to buy in the way of necessities and luxury goods. Standard of living refers to the level of wealth, comfort, material goods and necessities available to a certain group of people in a certain geographic area. Don't forget that the standard of living will vary greatly from country to country and what one level of wealth can buy in one country will not necessarily buy in another. For example, you can buy far more with your money, and live comfortably for longer in India than the same amount of money would allow in the UK.

Ideally both measures should be used when judging if a person is comfortably off or not. A new measure has been developed in the 1980s that is also helpful, the Physical Quality of Life Index (PQLI). The PQLI is an average of 3 social indicators: literacy rates, infant mortality and life expectancy.

One more thing to consider is the different perceptions/views of acceptable quality of life in different parts of the world. What may be totally unacceptable in richer nations such as living in shanty towns might be the norm in poorer nations. Imagine people living in shanty towns in Mumbai, those that have been improved and stabilized over the years might offer a reasonable quality of life compared to the



pavement dwellers of that city, but would be totally unacceptable for most Western people to consider living in!

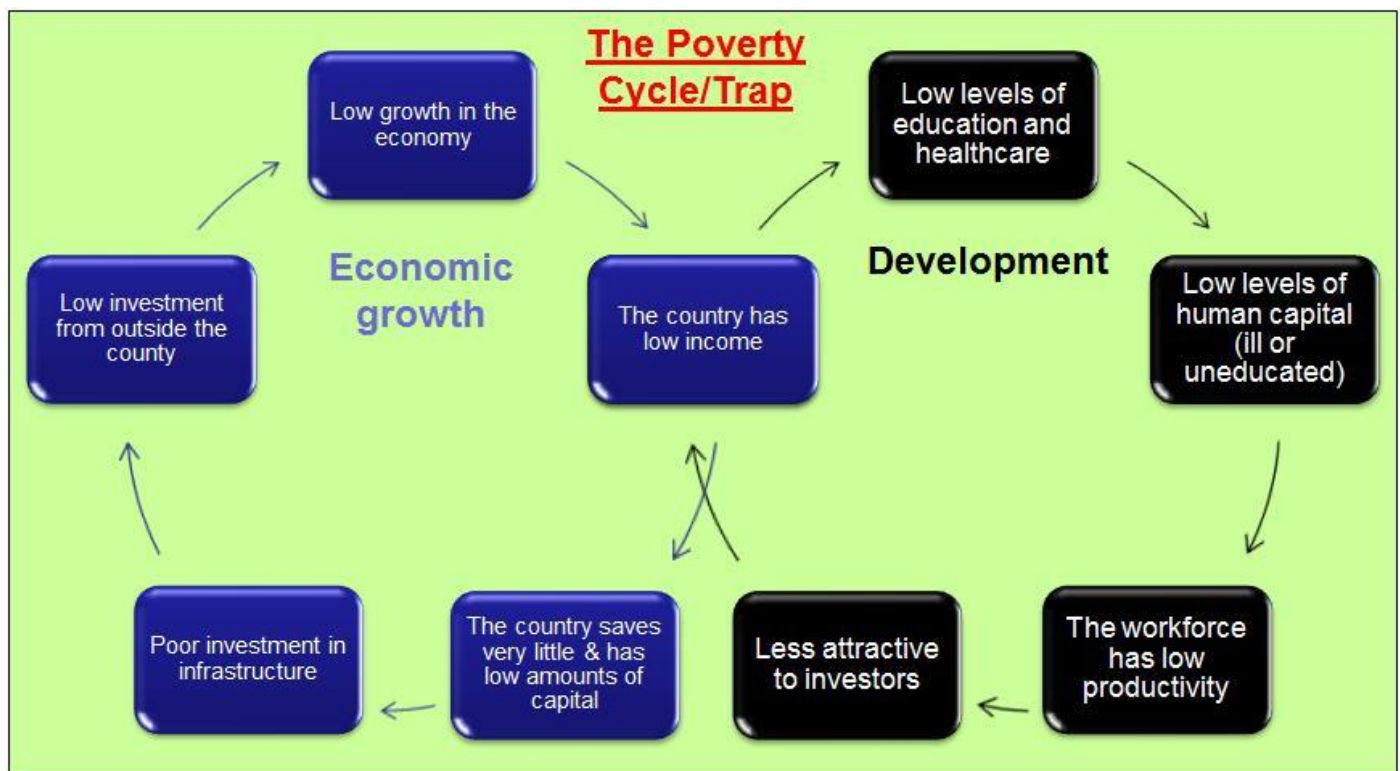
There can also be big gaps in countries in terms of standard of Living and Quality of life. In the UNDP Human Development Report (HDR) of 2005 only 9 countries (4% of the world's population) have reduced the wealth gap between rich and poor, whilst 80% of the world's population recorded an increase in wealth inequality. The report states that 'the richest 50 individuals in the world have a combined income greater than that of the poorest 416 million. The 2.5 billion people living on less than \$2 a day 40% of the world's population receive only 5% of global income, while 54% of global income goes to the richest 10% of the world's population.'

### **Environmental factors affecting development - the impact of natural hazards:**

The physical environment can have a direct impact upon the development of a place. The UK benefitted in many ways from its physical or natural environment for its rise to a global superpower during the Industrial Revolution. Its Island natural gave it a coastline to fully exploit for resources and many potential trade routes. It had the right mix of natural resources to exploit for many Industrial processes, including coal, iron Ore and Limestone. It also had a temperate climate without the extremes of weather that can damage development. Many countries are not as fortunate and the following factors can limit development;

1. **Climate related disease** - many tropical countries unfortunately suffer from diseases that thrive in hot humid conditions, such as Dengue Fever, Chagas Disease and Malaria. People who get these diseases are incapacitated and cannot work or may even die, limiting development.
2. **A lack of natural resources** - countries with few natural resources start off at a very low economic base and find it hard to create products that can sell on world markets.
3. **Natural resource curse theory** - this is a theory that states if a country has one very valuable resource all efforts of the country are put into the exploitation of that resource. That limits the POTENTIAL development of other industries and if the resource is in the hands of a minority unscrupulous ruling elite, the profits are not shared well amongst people in the country.
4. **being landlocked with bad neighbours** - although this has a political element to it, countries that have no access to the sea are at the mercy of their neighbours. If they are "bad neighbours" who expect huge payments or have regular conflict, this can severely limit development.
5. **Climatic hazards** - such as hurricanes and drought are more likely to strike some countries than others. For fragile countries a drought could have a devastating impact on development. The 2011 to 2012 Horn of Africa famine that affected Ethiopia, Eritrea, Kenya and Somalia had a long term impact. As well as killing and weakening people from hunger and thirst, many of these countries had to deal with a refugee crisis, diverting valuable resources away from other development objectives.

### **Economic factors affecting development:**



Unfortunately poverty can lead to poverty. The diagram shows the poverty trap, which is often thought of as a cycle. Low investment in key areas such as infrastructure (roads, rail, telecommunications etc.), education and healthcare can have dire consequences for a population. Populations in countries at low levels of development can become more vulnerable to ill health (as we have seen with HIV and AIDs in sub-Saharan Africa) which reduces the productivity of the workforce. In addition, a lack of education leads to a lower quality workforce, and poor road networks are not attractive to outside investors. Simple things like these can exacerbate (make worse) poverty, and keep countries mired in a low level of development.

It is very difficult to expand from a very low base, particularly in today's very competitive global economy. In addition, countries at low levels of economic development are also more likely to be victims of civil wars and their after effects. Countries such as the Sudan, Democratic Republic of the Congo and Rwanda are good examples of this. Wars consume vital resources and divert attention away from the crucial issues for normal people, healthcare, reliable food supplies, stability, economic well-being and access to clean drinking water.

The world's poorest countries have also been at the mercy of a global trade system designed and controlled by the world's richest countries. Several measures put in place by the world's richest countries mean that the world's poorest countries are at a disadvantage;

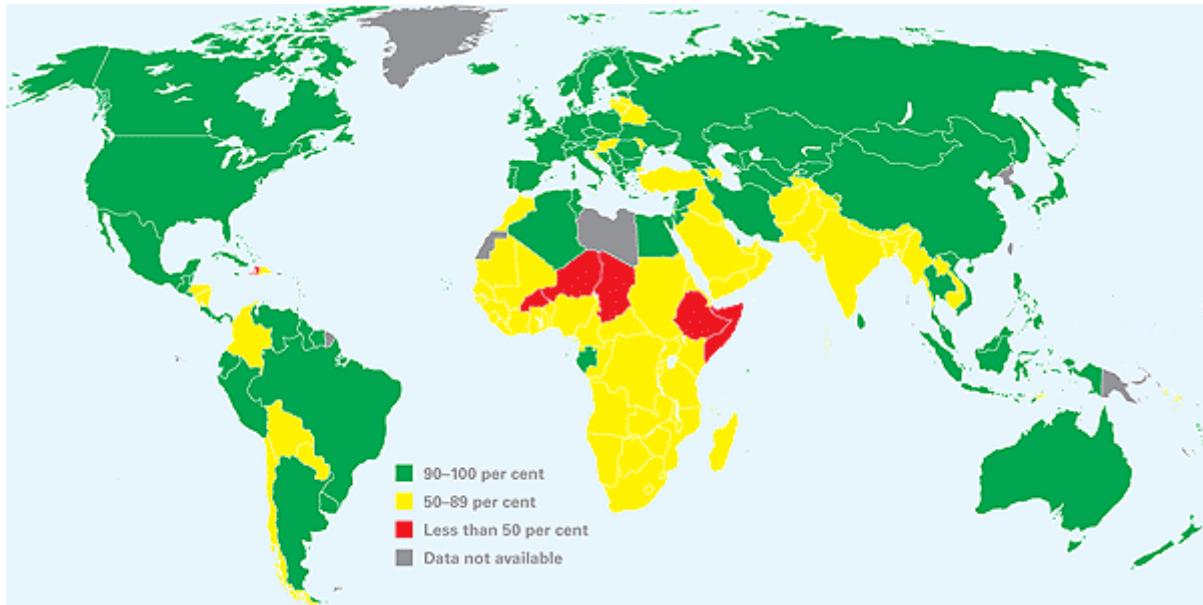
1. Import tariffs of goods from poorer countries put the prices of those goods UP
2. Subsidies (payments from governments to the producer) of goods produced in richer countries push the prices of rich world goods cheaper. This makes it harder for poorer countries to compete.
3. The world trade system encourages a "race to the bottom", where buyers from richer countries go from place to place around the world driving down prices because supply of goods often outstrips demand.

In addition, the lack of reliable energy supply, political stability, infrastructure and educated workforce put countries at a disadvantage. The net result in many poorer countries is that they are forced to export only lower value raw materials such as agricultural goods, whilst they buy back more expensive manufactured goods or services. Poorer countries do not have the capital to set these types of industries up.

### Social factors affecting development:

There are many social factors that can affect the level of development of a place. Things like lack of drive of social motivation for betterment, unproductive social functions such as war or having very large family sizes, negative social cultures such as gambling and drinking, and lack of skills due to poor training and education are some of these factors. Education is particularly important, as many countries cannot afford to send all children to school even at a basic level.

### A map of Primary school enrolment:



The exam board expects you to focus on WATER SUPPLY and QUALITY. Water quality can have a massive impact on people, and this links to India and its attempts to clean up the River Ganges. Poor water quality has a direct impact on people's lives as it is an essential element for life. Poor water quality can lead to disease, which weakens people and therefore has a direct impact on their productivity and hence economic development. Diseases related to poor quality water include Bilharzia (snail fever, where snails transmit flatworms to people causing internal organ damage), Yellow fever and Malaria (both related to mosquitos which breed around water) and cholera (extreme diarrhoea). Water supply is another major issue because in many parts of the world unreliable water supplies limit agriculture and other development areas. If people are searching for and carrying water they cannot focus their energies on other areas of the economy, limiting development further. According to WaterAid;

- Around 700,000 children die every year from diarrhoea caused by unsafe water and poor sanitation. That's almost 2,000 children a day
- 768 million people in the world don't have access to safe water. This is roughly one in ten of the world's population.
- 2.5 billion people don't have access to adequate sanitation, almost two-fifths of the world's population.

### POLITICAL FACTORS - The impact of unstable governments:

Governments play a lead role in the development process, and many governments are filled with honest people who do a good job trying to raise both the standard of living and quality of life of the people who live there. Unfortunately there are cases of governments that have corrupt officials who make money and wealth at the expense of the people that they are supposed to represent. Nigeria has been labelled as one of the most corrupt countries on Planet Earth by the BBC. When politicians are corrupt developments in health, education, roads, power generation and clean water are less likely. Companies

and other governments are also less likely to invest in those countries as they are unstable. There is even a corruption perception index which correlates reasonably well with GNI!

## **A case study of a natural hazard - the Haiti Earthquake in the Caribbean (LEDC):**

### **Where?**

The earthquake happened in Haiti, the poorest country in the Western hemisphere. Haiti is an old French colony on the Island of Hispaniola in the Greater Antilles in the Caribbean Sea. It owes its existence to subduction of the North American plate under the Caribbean plate. Even before the 2010 earthquake, Haiti was the poorest country in the western hemisphere. Over the past decade, it has been hit by no less than 20 large-scale natural disasters. The 2010 earthquake exposed just how vulnerable it had become.

### **Why?**

Port au Prince is on a fault line running off the Puerto Rico Trench, where the North American Plate is sliding under the Caribbean plate. The fault line is a strike slip fault, the Caribbean Plate south of the fault line was sliding east and the smaller Gonave Platelet north of the fault was sliding west. There were many aftershocks after the main event.

**When?** January 12th 2010

### **Background:**

The Haiti earthquake centred just 10 miles southwest of the capital city, Port au Prince and the quake was shallow—only about 10-15 kilometres below the land's surface. The event measured 7.0 on the Richter Magnitude scale.

### **Impacts:**

316,000 people died and more than a million people were made homeless, even in 2011 people remained in make shift temporary homes. Large parts of this impoverished nation where damage, most importantly the capital Port Au Prince, where shanty towns and even the presidential palace crumbled to dust. 3 million people in total were affected. Few of the Buildings in Haiti were built with earthquakes in mind, contributing to their collapse

The government of Haiti also estimated that 250,000 residences and 30,000 commercial buildings had collapsed or were severely damaged. The port, other major roads and communications link were damaged beyond repair and needed replacing. The clothing industry, which accounts for two-thirds of Haiti's exports, reported structural damage at manufacturing facilities. It is estimated the 1 in 5 jobs were lost as a result of the quake

Rubble from collapsed buildings blocked roads and rail links. People had to live in make shift shanty towns which had no running water and no waste disposal systems. Mass graves had to be dug as the cities morgues could not cope, and many bodies remained trapped under rubble as the Haitians struggled to cope. The port was destroyed. Sea levels in local areas changed, with some parts of the land sinking below the sea. The roads were littered with cracks and fault lines

### **Impacts on development:**

The loss of population is catastrophic as many of the industries Haiti uses for export are people intensive. The loss of productive workforce therefore has a long term economic consequence. In addition, the homelessness and trauma caused by the earthquake makes for a less productive workforce.

The economic consequences will hinder Haiti's development for decades to come. The loss of a fragile clothing industry and the cost of rebuilding buildings are too much for one of the world's poorest countries to cope with.

Damage to key infrastructure such as the port and airport isolated Haiti internationally having a damaging impact on their development and economy. Rubble littered streets for years after the earthquake; slowing down the road network and making businesses suffer as the country is less efficient.

#### **Responses:**

Many countries responded to appeals for aid, pledging funds and dispatching rescue and medical teams, engineers and support personnel. Communication systems, air, land, and sea transport facilities, hospitals, and electrical networks had been damaged by the earthquake, which slowed rescue and aid efforts. There was much confusion over who was in charge, air traffic congestion, and problems with prioritisation of flights further complicated early relief work. Port-au-Prince's morgues were quickly overwhelmed with many tens of thousands of bodies having to be buried in mass graves. As rescues tailed off, supplies, medical care and sanitation became priorities. Delays in aid distribution led to angry appeals from aid workers and survivors, and looting and sporadic violence were observed.

#### **Management after the quake:**

The US raised \$48million to help Haiti recover after the earthquake. The EU gave \$330 million and the World Bank waived the countries debt repayments for 5 years. The Senegalese offered land in Senegal to any Haitians who wanted it! 6 months after the quake, 98% of the rubble remained not cleared, some still blocking vital access roads. The number of people in relief camps of tents and tarps since the quake was 1.6 million, and almost no transitional housing had been built. Most of the camps had no electricity, running water, or sewage disposal, and the tents were beginning to fall apart. Crime in the camps was widespread, especially against women and girls. Between 23 major charities, \$1.1 billion had been collected for Haiti for relief efforts, but only two percent of the money had been released. One year after the earthquake 1 million people remained displaced, 6 months after the quake 98% of the rubble was still where it fell. These have grave consequences for the long term development of Haiti.

#### **Aid:**

The Dominican Republic which neighbours Haiti offered support and accepted some refugees. Medicin San frontiers, a charity, tried to help casualties whilst the USA took charge of trying to coordinate Aid distribution.

### **The imbalance in the pattern of world trade:**

#### **Trade:**

Trade is the exchange of goods, money and services between countries and regions. The goods made in a region and sold to other places and known as Exports (they Exit the country or region). The goods bought into a place from other regions are known as Imports (they come into the country or region).

If value of exports for a country or region is greater than its Imports it will have a trade surplus and will make money. If a region imports more than it sells then it will have a trade deficit. Most MEDCs Import primary products which have low value and export high value manufactured goods an even higher value services.

Most LEDCs export lower value primary products (such as cocoa, cotton etc.), this means that they struggle to raise standards of living in their countries because they do not have much foreign money coming in from trade. The price of primary goods also varies widely and producers can lose out massively, so the trade in a sense is unfair.

Below is an image revealing where the money for a banana goes...



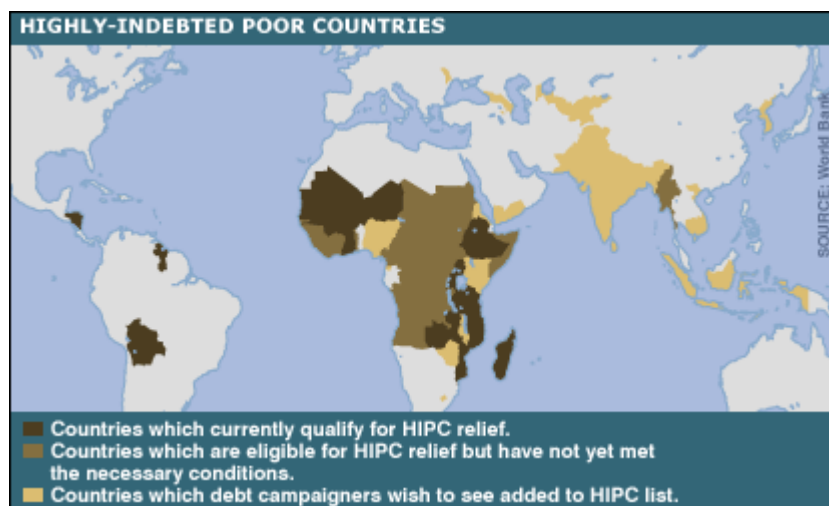
### **Attempts to reduce imbalances in world trade & poverty:**

#### **Fair Trade**

This is a scheme designed to get a better deal for the producers of the primary products that MEDC countries need. The producers get access to the market for their goods, a contract (for extra financial security), better prices for their products and access to the Fair Trade Premium, which is a sum of money available from the Fair Trade foundation to be spent upon improving yields, farming practices, health care or education. Fair Trade is an international movement and its influence is growing, more than 4,500 products now bear the fair trade mark, and 72% of the UK population recognise the Fair Trade logo. In addition, more than 7 million people in Africa, Asia and Latin America benefit from Fair Trade.

#### **Debt and its issues:**

Many LEDCs took out huge loans (for Millions of pounds) during the 1970s, offered to them by banks and governments in rich MEDCs. The LEDCs wanted to use the money for various development projects such as building dams, roads, schools etc. The idea was to help countries to develop by improving their industries and infrastructure. The loans had to be paid back, and the longer the loan went unpaid the larger it got, because the MEDCs added a sum of money called interest every month. Over time these loans got so large because of interest that some LEDCs would never be able to pay them off. It also meant that some MEDCs spent more on loan payments than on health care and education for the people living in their countries. This has had a really damaging effect on the quality of life of people who live in these areas. Countries can borrow money from many sources, including other countries, banks and international organisations such as the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and World Bank. If a project succeeds debts are easily repaid and there is no issue. However, if a project fails debts can build up because of the interest and countries can get into huge financial trouble. This issue can massively affect the development of a country, which directly affects the standard of living of the people who live there.



In the run up the new millennium a campaign was started to drop the debt, which has had some success in cancelling some debt, freezing the interest on some debt and in some cases giving the poorer LEDCs more time to pay back their debts. This campaign was called Jubilee 2000. As a result of this campaign the UK government cancelled much but not all of the debts owed to it by poorer nations. Banks have not cancelled debts however, and many countries the world over suffer the effects of debt.

### CONSERVATION SWAPS:

This is another way for poorer countries to make money and get themselves out of debt. Many poorer countries have abundant natural resources and these can be used or exploited in many ways. The rain forests are a good example; these are exploited in an unsustainable manner for wood, agriculture and mineral wealth. Conservation swaps offer an alternative to poorer countries to reckless exploitation of their natural wealth. These swaps basically see poorer countries have portions of their debts wiped out or paid for by richer nations or charities of richer nations in exchange for promising to protect or CONSERVE large parts of their natural environment. This has large scale global effects, by protecting the atmosphere and the hydrosphere. In 1984 the World Wildlife Fund came up with the idea of conservation swaps and in 1987 the first was launched in partnership between the Government of Bolivia and Conservation International (CI) for US\$ 650000 which protected 3 natural areas. Many countries have since followed, including the Philippines, Sudan, Zambia, Ecuador and Uganda.

### International aid & sustainable development.

Aid is basically a form of help given from one country to another; or one person to another, or from a charity (often called Non-Government Organisations or NGOs) to a country or region. It is most likely that you will have given aid at some point in your life! Aid can be given in the short term for emergencies, like during the 2004 Boxing Day Tsunami, when money poured into South East Asia to help the victims and the sick. Development aid is longer term, and seeks to help people in poorer countries raise their standard of living. Below is a table summarising the different types of aid;

Type of aid	What it is
Medical assistance	During emergencies rich nations and charities like the Red Cross or Medecin sans frontiers can provide medical assistance to the affected country. This could take the form of qualified staff or medicines.

People	Richer nations or charities might choose to send qualified people to help in poorer nations. In the short term during emergencies qualified medical staff and trained pilots and the army can be of great assistance. In the longer term teachers, engineers, consultants can all play a role in advising and train people within a poorer nation, to help its long term development.
Money	Money is often sent to LEDCs, for investment in projects and the local people. The UK sent £45million in aid to Tanzania to be spent on education.
Large scale projects	MEDCs can invest in large scale development projects, such as building roads, dams and factories. The idea behind these projects is that they act as a growth point for development, allowing industry and farming to develop and raise massive profits.
Intermediate technology	This type of technology is designed to improve on current technology within LEDC countries and to be manageable for local people to use. There is no point in sending machinery and technology into an area if the people can get no use of it because it is too complicated.
Equipment	Large scale equipment can also be provided in aid to LEDCs. Equipment such as tractors, irrigation equipment and earth movers have all been provided in the past.

Aid can also be tied or untied. Tied aid is when the country giving the aid expects something in return for the aid - the host country may have to trade more with the donor country for example. Untied aid is where the receiving country does not have to give anything in return.

#### An evaluation of the types of aid:

Type of aid	Donor countries		Recipient countries	
	Advantages	Disadvantages	Advantages	Disadvantages
Short term aid	People will give freely in a disaster - this gives them a feel good factor	It costs money and uses up technical expertise and technology in the short term. This means that a donor countries resources are lost to the recipient country for a short period of time  It costs the tax payer in the donor country money	Short term aid gives help which can save lives immediately  Short term aid can develop into long term aid after a disaster, as people in MEDCs realise how poor people are in the affected zone.	Reduces the receiving country's ability to produce the items they get from us (i.e. if we send them short term food aid, then their farmers won't be able to sell their crops for higher prices)



Long term aid	<p>Companies and individuals find satisfying and well paid work overseas</p> <p>Trade may continue into the future after the initial stimulus of aid</p> <p>It engenders good will towards the donor country and enhances its International reputation</p> <p>Aid can also be a good way of forming strong relationships with other countries; curb terrorism and gain political will for global issues and deals but these are in the purest sense of aid not its purpose.</p> <p>It can boost employment in large industries in the donor countries - in arms manufacturers and construction industries particularly.</p>	<p>It costs the tax payer of the donor countries - often those citizens wonder why their money is going to foreign countries.</p>	<p>New industries can develop which improves peoples chances of getting skills and long term employment</p> <p>It can lead to improvements in long term farming methods - introducing new crops and better land management practises</p> <p>Trade with the donor country may continue into the future</p> <p>Schools, hospitals, roads, dams and other infrastructure projects improve the lives of many people and will last for a long time</p>	<p>Some foreign aid is given as military and weapons gifts, potentially fanning the flames of global wars instead of dealing with them</p> <p>Tied aid can make the recipient countries reliant on the donor country</p> <p>The senior posts created by the aid are often given to foreigners as local people do not have the necessary skills for those jobs</p> <p>The funding for big projects is often just for the construction (e.g. of a hospital) but may not cover the long term maintenance costs for the recipient country</p> <p>Local people can lose their land to large projects such as dams</p>
Top-down aid	<p>It feels controlled for the donor country as it is coordinated by the actual government or International Organisations such as the UK</p> <p>It allows for LARGE SCALE planning over large areas without having to worry about every Individuals needs</p>	<p>Large scale projects can use up huge amounts of money that donor countries may feel are wasted</p> <p>Corruption and the theft of aid has happened in the past, this makes donor countries less likely to give money to big top down projects</p>	<p>Projects aim to solve large scale problems in a recipient country so are well coordinated and backed by money</p> <p>Large scale projects such as dams and superhighways improve the national infrastructure for the majority of people</p>	<p>Big projects are capital intensive and poor countries may have to add more money to the aid given to ensure that the projects are completed.</p> <p>Large scale projects are often part of TIED aid, where the LEDC has to either pay back loans or allow richer</p>

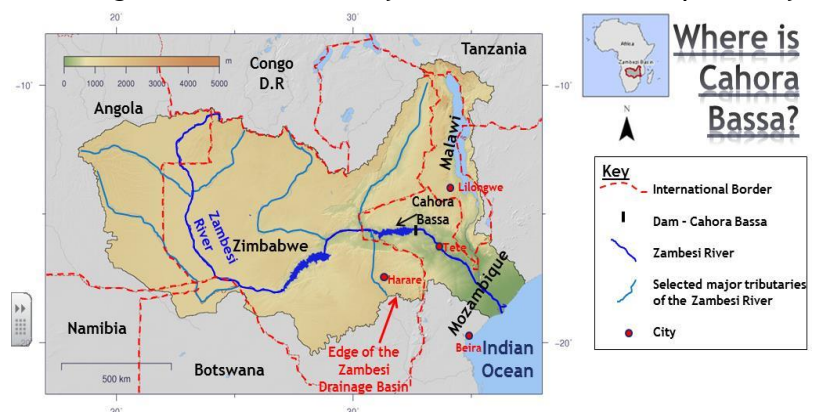
				countries access to its resources.
				Projects often less sustainable, consuming large amounts of time, land and resources
Bottom up aid	<p>More individuals in Donor countries are likely to give to Bottom up aid as it is organised by charities and gives a feel good factor</p> <p>Many bottom up charities have a direct link between the individual donor and the recipient - through sponsorship, letter writing and websites</p>	<p>Lots of the money collected in richer donor nations by charities gets swallowed up by advertising and collection costs, and therefore never reaches the destination recipient country.</p>	<p>NGOs work with the recipient communities, gathering their ideas before starting projects</p> <p>Local people are involved in Bottom up aid and projects are democratic</p> <p>Less money is lost to corruption</p> <p>Projects tend to be more sustainable</p>	<p>Less reliable, in times of recession people give less to charities.</p> <p>Often lacks coordination, with many charities competing in the same areas, so is therefore inefficient in delivering whole sale change to countries and regions</p>

### A case study of one development project - Cahora Bassa, Mozambique:

Dams are often seen by countries as a great way of raising the development level of a country. They offer energy for other industries, the energy they produce is environmentally “clean” and the construction of such large structures generates instant employment in construction and its associated industries.

Mozambique, one of the poorest countries in the world, attempted to use dam building as a path out of poverty through the construction of the Cahora Bassa Dam. This is a good example of bilateral aid, as although Mozambique now has full ownership of the dam, initially Portugal had an 82% stake and Mozambique only 18%. Mozambique also had to contract much of the work to private companies, diminishing their share of profits further. As can be seen in the table, Mozambique desperately needs a boost to its development, with low HDI, high infant mortality and low life expectancy.

The dam blocks the 4th largest artificial lake in Africa, and is one of 3 major dams along the mighty Zambezi River which passes through Congo, Angola, Zimbabwe and finally Mozambique. It has created a lake



that is 292km long, up to 32km wide and a maximum of 157m deep.

### History:

The dam was started in the 1960s by the then ruling Portuguese colonial government, in agreement with South Africa that a High Voltage Direct Current (HVDC) Transmission System would be put into place to move some of the power to South Africa. The lake began to fill in 1974 but unfortunately a long civil war (post-independence from Portugal) prevented use of the scheme. It was the transmission lines and towers that were damage limiting use of the electricity that Cahora Bassa could produce. Finally, in 1995 renewal work began and by 1997 the dam was back in full operation but not at full capacity.

### Pros and cons:

The dam provides an important power import facility to the South African grid. It transmits 1920 MW of power from the Cahora Bassa generating station on the Zambezi River in northern Mozambique. One megawatt can power a thousand US homes on average, so the dam is very good at producing electricity. However, only 1% of homes in RURAL Mozambique have a direct electricity supply, so locals have not benefitted from the energy produced by the dam. This is because most of the power is sold to South Africa, which boosts the national economy but does not benefit citizens at a local level. This is unfortunate, as the dam has enough potential to meet most of Mozambique's power needs.



The dam could produce more energy, but its potential is limited by other dams upstream that keep river flows very low. At other economic levels, whilst the local shrimp industry has been destroyed a Kapenta fishery industry has developed, harvesting 10,000 tonnes in 2003. The potential for the dam to reduce flooding has also been a disappointment, with floods downstream of the dam in 1978. Mozambique has also had floods on other rivers in 2000 and in January 2013 (which killed 36 and displaced 70,000 people). These floods are an environmental limit to development, which the dams such as Cahora Bassa were hoped to reduce.

### Smaller scale aid, Sustainability and Sustainable Development:

This is one of the big concepts or ideas in Geography at the moment and links to the Environmental and Physical nature of the subject. Sustainable means an action that can be kept going for ever, something that can continue to be done without it having damaging consequences that might limit that activity in the future. This is best considered through examples. At present the human race extracts huge amount of crude oil, which is a store of carbon from the ground. We process that crude oil so that we can extract petrol and other chemicals for plastics etc. When we do so the crude oil is gone forever, and on human time scales will not be replaced. This is an UNSustainable activity, because the resource being used in

NON-RENEWABLE and our use of that material has damaging consequences - Carbon Dioxide into the atmosphere and waste products such as plastic into landfill sites. Already we are living well beyond the ability of the planet to cope. You may have seen many news stories about how we are extracting too much freshwater, we have put incredible pressure on the Earth's soils, we use the ecosystem and in many cases abuse it (e.g. Tropical rainforest destruction), we have depleted fish stocks, we pollute the planet (e.g. Exxon Valdez, Carbon Dioxide emissions causing global warming), we ruin the countryside, we have extracted too much coal, oil, gas minerals etc. This does not happen evenly across the globe, some people are living more sustainable lives than others. You can calculate your ecological footprint, to see how much land area you need to sustain your lifestyle. Some of the internet calculators will even tell you how many Planet Earth's we would need if everyone lived like you!

We can make the use of crude oil MORE sustainable by recycling plastics or by driving Hybrid cars this reducing the amount of petrol used, but this is still unsustainable in the long run. To be totally sustainable we would have to not use cars that run on petrol and find alternatives to using plastics - paper bags for your fruit and vegetables for example. We could also try to use more renewable energy sources, such as wind, solar and Hydro-electric power. The Cahora Bassa dam can therefore be seen as sustainable in many respects, despite the environmental problems it caused.

It is thought by many people that LARGE-SCALE aid projects are unsustainable, and that smaller scale charity involvement and intermediate technology can have a more positive impact for people.

### Voluntary aid - CAFOD in Haiti:

Recall that the earthquake that hit Haiti in January 2010 killed nearly a quarter of a million and left more than a million homeless. CAFOD used public donations to help immediately. They provided tents, shelters and emergency supplies for thousands of people who had lost their homes. As people moved into camps, they built shower blocks and latrines and ensured that there were supplies of safe water. These helped in the immediate term but more needed doing to ensure that Haiti could recover its development in the longer term. According to the CAFOD website:

***"Today we are working with our Catholic partners to help rebuild homes and communities. Our current projects include:***

- *Building permanent, hurricane and earthquake-resistant homes, training local engineers to lead the construction process*
- *Helping people prepare for and manage future disasters, for example through education about hurricanes in schools or by training people in new farming techniques that reduce the risk of damage from landslide*
- *Preventing the spread of disease. We are supporting cholera treatment centres, providing safe water and sanitation, and running hygiene awareness training*
- *We have worked in Haiti since 1970. During that time, we have supported a wide range of development projects involving literacy, agriculture, women's organisations and legal aid - and we have responded to emergencies."*

### Intermediate Technology and Appropriate Technology:

Intermediate or appropriate technology is a move away from big aid projects. It aims to use simpler technologies that are right for the people, right for the environment and right for the donor. In most poor countries, high tech industries are too expensive to develop and inappropriate to the needs of local people. Appropriate/intermediate technology is usually;

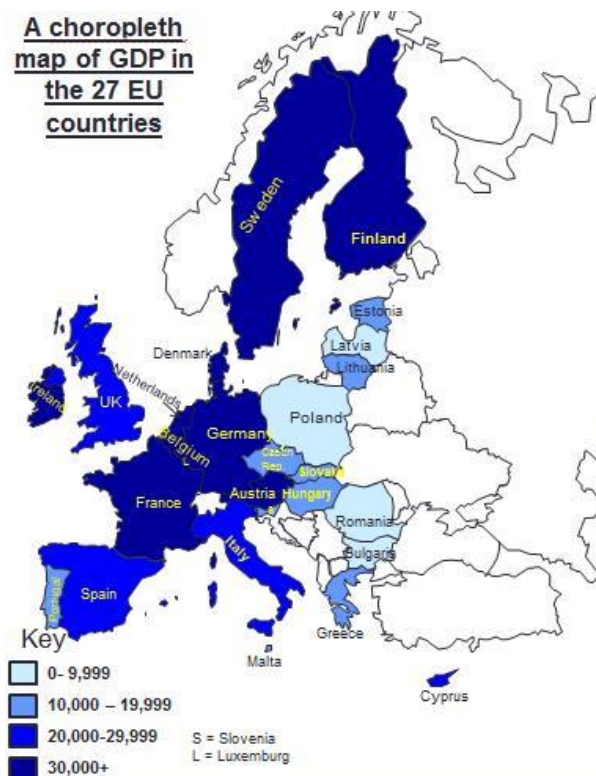
- Labour intensive - utilising and creating employment for local labour.
- Using sustainable technology and tools/knowledge of local people
- Uses newly developed technology that are low cost and local which local people can manage and control rather than IMPORTED techniques and technologies
- In harmony with the local environment.

## Conditions leading to different levels of development in two contrasting countries of the EU:

The European Union is a group of 27 countries that have common goals and close ties to one another. The EU started as a trading union Between France, Germany, Italy, Belgium, Luxemburg and the Netherlands with the added incentive of sustaining peace in Post-World War 2 Europe. Over tie the Union has grown, adding a common market of the European Economic Community (EEC) in 1957. The UK joined in 1973 and the EU has slowly expanded ever since. The EU has a significant impact upon the lives of EU citizens because;

- It has policies in place to control food production under the Common Agricultural Policy
- It can determine national law through the European Court of Justice
- It controls and allows free movement of EU citizens throughout member countries
- It promotes easier trade between EU countries so boosting economies
- It can bail out countries in financial trouble through the European Central Bank
- It makes big decisions in a democratic way through its elected MEPs at its parliaments in Brussels and Strasbourg
- It passes laws protecting people's rights and the environment
- It tries to even out differences in development between richer member states and poorer member states.

Despite high GDPs, HDI, life expectancies and Literacy rates at a global scale for all members of the EU, there are clear differences between the nations that make up this trading bloc. These differences can be clearly seen on the choropleth map above, and the GDPs of the member states are not equal by any means. Generally, those countries that joined most recently in the East of Europe have lower GDPs than longer standing members such as the UK, France and Germany. Recent problems in Portugal and Greece are highlighted by their GDPs, which are also significantly lower than other areas.



The general pattern is one of an ECONOMIC CORE of countries where businesses thrive, people have lots of opportunities and are relatively wealthy. This includes large parts of the UK, Germany, France, Austria and Italy. Outside of this area is the ECONOMIC PERIPHERY, those areas on the edge of the core that have fewer industries, lower standards of living and fewer opportunities for the people who live

there. These Continental patterns hide further patterns within countries, with the UK being a good example. The core area for the UK is London and the South East, whereas the North of Scotland and the NE of England Can be considered to be PERIPHERAL areas.

### **The attempts by the EU to reduce these different levels of development:**

The differences in development across the European Union can be considered to be UNSUSTAINABLE because they promote too much growth and possible environmental problems in the CORE, whilst resentment of the wealth of the core and out migration can happen from the periphery. The EU has tried to deal with these inequalities in a number of ways;

1. **The Common Agricultural Policy** - this was a system of subsidies or money paid to farmers, often the poorest people within the EU. The goals of the CAP were to;

- Guarantee and maintain agricultural employment and wages
- Guarantee food production
- Stabilise food prices

This system led to massive over production of goods and damaging impacts on the environment but did produce reliable food supplies. It has been criticised because it consumes a huge amount of the EU's budget without contributing much to the economy. It has been changed to promote more environmentally friendly farming and to reduce production to sustainable levels.

2. **The European Investment Bank** - This is the bank of the EU that provides finance and expertise for sustainable investment projects in Europe and beyond. It is owned by the EU Member States and tries to support EU policy objectives. It is the largest multilateral lender and borrower in the world. It has invested €9 billion into Innovation up to 2012 and promised an extra €60bn between 2013-2015 to promote sustainable growth and jobs to try and finish the economic crisis across the EU. They also invested in 200,000 Small and Medium Enterprises across the EU in 2012.

3. **Urban II Fund** - Cities play a major developmental role in the EU, and almost 80 % of the European Community's citizens today live in cities. Many of these cities succeed, but others are faced with social and economic problems. Various strategies have been tried to combat these problems and Urban II is one of these. It is paid for by the Commission and the Member States. For 2000-06, the Community's contribution to the initiative amounts to EUR 730 million, exclusively from the ERDF (European Regional Development Fund), for a total investment of EUR 1.6 billion, covering a population of some 2.2 million. To qualify areas must meet at least three of the following conditions:

- a low level of economic activity and a specific need for conversion due to local economic and social difficulties;
- a high level of long-term unemployment, poverty and exclusion;
- a low level of education, significant skills deficiencies and high drop-out-rates from school;
- a high number of immigrants, ethnic and minority groups, or refugees;
- a high level of criminality and delinquency;
- precarious demographic trends;
- a particularly degraded environment.

4. **Structural Funds** - The Structural Funds are a way for the European Union (EU) to narrow the gaps in development among regions and Member States. The structural funds are therefore very important for the EU in trying to help all countries have reasonably even social and economic opportunities. For the period 2007-2013, the budget allocated to regional policy amounts to around € 348 billion, comprising € 278 billion for the Structural Funds and € 70 billion for the Cohesion Fund. This represents 35% of the Community budget and is the second largest budget item.

