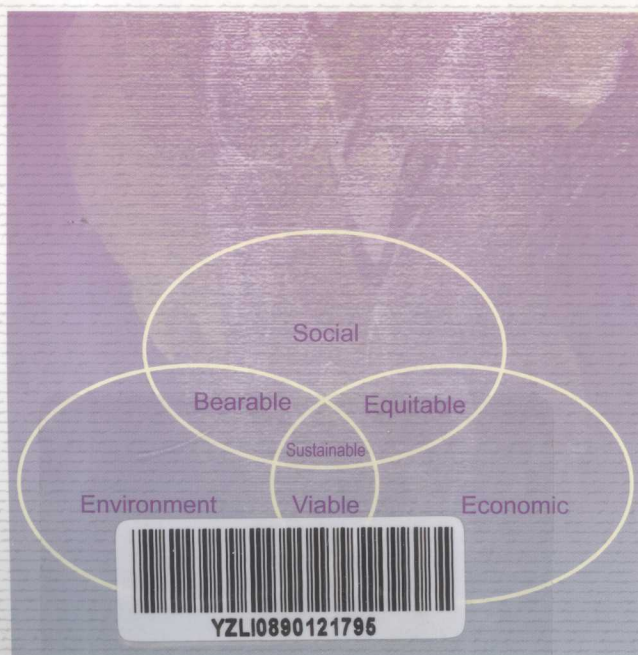


发展学专业系列教材

# ENGLISH FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES

## 发展学专业英语

Yang Fang Li Fan



YZLI0890121795



社会科学文献出版社  
SOCIAL SCIENCES ACADEMIC PRESS (CHINA)

发展学专业系列教材

# ENGLISH FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES

## 发展学专业英语

Yang Fang Li Fan



YZLI0890121795



社会科学文献出版社  
SOCIAL SCIENCES ACADEMIC PRESS (CHINA)

## 图书在版编目 ( CIP ) 数据

发展学专业英语 =English for Development Studies :  
英文 / 杨芳, 李凡编著. —北京: 社会科学文献出版社,  
2011.12

ISBN 978-7-5097-2848-2

I. ①发… II. ①杨… ②李… III. ①发展社会学 - 高等学校  
- 教材 - 英文 ②发展经济学 - 高等学校 - 教材 - 英文  
IV. ① C91 ② F061.3

中国版本图书馆 CIP 数据核字 (2011) 第 222328 号

Cataloging in Publication Data

English for Development Studies

By Yang Fang Li Fan

ISBN 978-7-5097-2848-2

Published by Social Sciences Academic Press (China)

Address: 13f/15f, A/B Tower of Hua Long Plaza, Bldg3, Jia No.29, Beisanhuan  
Zhonglu, Xicheng District, Beijing, P.R.China

Postcode:100029

© 2011 by Social Sciences Academic Press (China)

Editor: Zhang Xiaoli

Cover designer: 3A Design Studio

Printed in Beijing, China

Price: 59 RMB

All right reserved. No part of this book may be reproduced by any means  
without written permission from the publisher.



## Preface

Development studies is an interdisciplinary and multidisciplinary branch of social science which addresses issues of developing countries. The emergence of development studies as an academic discipline in the second half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century is in large part due to increasing concerns about economic prospect for the third world after decolonization. By the 1960s, an increasing number of development economists felt that economics alone can not fully address issues such as political effectiveness and educational provision. Development studies arose as a result of this, initially aiming to integrate ideas of politics and economics.

The teachers and students of Department of Development Studies, College of Humanities and Development, China Agricultural University have long been engaged in the teaching, research, and consulting service related with development studies. They have accumulated many precious experiences and knowledge in this field. The compilation of an English text book related with development studies has long been their expectation. This text book has covered the mostly common 10 aspects of development research, development theory and development practice. We hope this text book can help the students master not only the terms and concepts, but also the theories and research methods related with development studies. Through using English as a language tool, the students can observe and analyze problems appeared in this professional field.

The compilation of this text book was not an easy task, since so far the authors have not found any ready text book which could be used as reference. All the materials came from books, magazines, reports, readers, training manuals and internet.

The authors take this opportunity to express profound gratitude to Dr. Li Xiaoyun, the Dean of College of Humanities and Development, who has helped to solidify the framework of the book and the topics of most of the chapters.

Very sincere thanks are owed to Ms. Qi Gubo, Chairman of the Department of Development Studies, for her precious suggestions and abundant provision of literature materials.

The authors want to express their thanks to Mr. Ye Jingzhong, Ms. Wang Yihuan, Ms. Wang Libin, Mr. Zhou Shengkun, Mr. Mattijs Terlunen, Ms. Liu Yanli, and Mr. Liu Lin for their precious comments and suggestions on both the content and the language.

Finally the authors are grateful for the help from Ge Huiqin.

The authors of the book  
August, 2009

## Table of Contents



|   |      |
|---|------|
| Preface   | /1   |
| Foreword  | /1   |
| Chapter 1 Understanding Development                   | /10  |
| Chapter 2 Project and Management                      | /24  |
| Chapter 3 Participatory Project Process               | /55  |
| Chapter 4 Participatory Development Planning          | /74  |
| Chapter 5 Guideline for Writing a Proposal            | /115 |
| Chapter 6 Participatory Monitoring and Evaluation     | /130 |
| Chapter 7 Participatory Rural Appraisal               | /158 |
| Chapter 8 Participatory Geographic Information System | /186 |
| Chapter 9 Training for Development                    | /213 |
| Chapter 10 Capacity Building                          | /253 |
| Annex   | /276 |
| Key Terms   | /277 |
| Questions for Discussion                              | /284 |
| Reference   | /287 |



## Foreword

Development studies is an interdisciplinary and multidisciplinary branch of social science which addresses issues of developing countries. It has historically placed a particular focus on issues related to social and economic development, and its relevance may therefore extend to communities and regions outside of the developing world.

Development studies is offered as a specialized Master degree in a number of universities, and, less commonly, as an undergraduate degree. It has grown in popularity as a subject of study since the early 1990s, and has been most widely taught and researched in the third world. In China, this course has been taught in different colleges of different universities, for example, College of Agricultural Economics, College of Humanities, and College of Agronomy. In China Agricultural University, this course has been taught in College of Humanities and Development. It has also been taught in countries with a colonial history, such as UK, where development studies originated. As a subject, it is mainly composed of three parts: development theory, development research and development practice.

Students of development studies often choose careers in international organizations such as the United Nations or the World Bank, NGOs, development consultancy firms, and research institutes.

Development studies is a broad field united primarily by the thematic concentration. It encompasses and involves a variety of disciplines, including development economics, development anthropology, development geography, development management, development sociology, politics, international relations, gender studies, demographic studies, migration studies and ecology.

Although scholars from developing countries have made important contributions to this study, the mainstreaming thought of development studies comes from western academic world, that is, what kind of route western academicians think the developing countries should follow. There are many international journals related with development studies, such as *Economic Development*, *Cultural Change*, *Journal of Development Studies*, *Development and Change*, *Development Policy Review*, *European Journal of Development Research*, *Research in Rural Sociology and Development*, *Population and Development Review*, *Journal of Peasant Studies*, *Journal of Human Development*, and *IDS*<sup>①</sup> *Bulletin*. These journals have converged various kinds of development thoughts and have signified development studies as a relatively independent discipline.

## 1. History

The emergence of development studies as an academic discipline in the second half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century is in large part due to increasing concerns about economic prospect for the third world after decolonization. In the immediate post-war period, development economics, a branch of economics, arose out of previous studies. By the 1960s, an increasing number of development economists felt that economics alone could not fully address issues such as political effectiveness and educational provision. Development studies arose as a result of this, initially aiming to integrate ideas of politics and economics. Since then, it has become increasingly an interdisciplinary and multidisciplinary subject, encompassing a variety of social scientific fields.

The era of modern development is commonly deemed to have commenced with the inauguration speech of Harry S. Truman in 1949. In Point Four of his speech, with reference to Latin America and other poor nations, he said that “for the first time in history, humanity possessed the knowledge and skill to relieve the suffering of these people”. But development studies has since then also taken an interest in lessons of past development experiences of Western countries.

---

① Institute of Development Studies, based in University of Sussex, UK.



## Foreword

---

More recently, the emergence of human security theory—a new, people-orientated approach to understanding and addressing global security threats—has led to a growing recognition of a relationship between security and development. Human security argues that inequalities and insecurity in one state or region have consequences for global security and that it is thus in the interest of all states to address underlying development issues. This relationship with studies of human security is but one example of the interdisciplinary nature of development studies.

## 2. Development Aid

Development aid or development cooperation (also development assistance, technical assistance, international aid, overseas aid or foreign aid) is the aid given by governmental and economic agencies to support the economic, social and political development of developing countries. Since the 1990s, the idea of partnership and the corresponding term development cooperation have replaced the traditional situation in which the relationship was dominated by the wealth and specialized knowledge of one side. Development aid may come from developed or developing country governments as well as from international organizations such as the World Bank. It is distinguished from humanitarian aid as being aimed at alleviating poverty in the long term, rather than alleviating suffering in the short term. (By contrast, foreign aid includes both development aid and humanitarian aid. Some governments include military assistance in the notion of “foreign aid”, although many NGOs tend to disapprove of this.)

The nations of the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), made up of the developed nations of the world, have committed to providing a certain level of development assistance to underdeveloped countries. This is called Official Development Assistance (ODA), and is given by governments on certain concessional terms, usually as simple donations. It is given by governments through individual countries' international aid agencies (bilateral aid), through multilateral institutions such as the World Bank, or through development charities such as Oxfam. The proportion is currently about 70% bilateral and 30% multilateral.

## 2.1 Background

The offer to give development aid has to be understood in the context of the Cold War. The speech in which Harry Truman announced the foundation of NATO is also a founding document of development policy. "In addition, we will provide military advice and equipment to free nations which will cooperate with us in the maintenance of peace and security. Fourth, we must embark on a bold new program for making the benefits of our scientific advances and industrial progress available for the improvement and growth of underdeveloped areas. More than half the people of the world are living in conditions approaching misery. Their food is inadequate. They are victims of disease. Their economic life is primitive and stagnant. Their poverty is a handicap and a threat both to them and to more prosperous areas."

Development aid was aimed at offering technical solutions to social problems without altering basic social structures. The United States was often fiercely opposed to even moderate changes in social structures, for example the land reform in Guatemala in the early 1950s.

## 2.2 Quantity

The EU (comprising 27 member states) is the world's biggest donor of development aid. The EU spent 48.6 billions in development aid in 2008. The European Union, with more than 12 billions, is the world's third largest donor.

Over the last 20 years, annual official development assistance (ODA) has been between US \$ 50bn and US \$ 60bn but has reached over US \$ 100bn in 2005. The United States is the world's largest contributor of ODA in absolute terms ( \$ 15.7 billion, 2003 ), but the smallest among developed countries as a percentage of its GDP (0.14% in 2003). The UN target for development aid is 0.7% of GDP; currently only five countries (with Norway in the lead with 0.92%) have achieved this.

Saudi Arabia's ODA volume is second only to the USA. As percentage of GDP, Arab states of the Persian Gulf are the most generous, with Kuwait contributing 8.2% of its gross national product (GNP) and Saudi Arabia 4% in 2002.

Private contributions also make a significant, albeit harder to track, contribution to development aid. Private donations in the US are estimated to be at least \$ 34 billion a year, broken down as such:

- \* International giving by US foundations: \$ 1.5 billion per year
- \* Charitable giving by US businesses: \$ 2.8 billion annually
- \* American NGOs: \$ 6.6 billion in grants, goods and volunteers
- \* Religious overseas ministries: \$ 3.4 billion, including health care, literacy training, relief and development
- \* US college scholarships to foreign students: \$ 1.3 billion
- \* Personal remittances from the US to developing countries: \$ 18 billion in 2000

The last figure, remittances, blurs many definitions of aid, for example, money sent home by foreign workers is counted in this sum. The exact result and effect of remittance money is of some debate. However, even if it is factored out, private donations still match ODA in the US. In many cases, privately donated money is spent much more effectively than ODA, which must go through various governmental layers before reaching the targets. However, in other cases private sums disappear completely without any trace of their existence. Unfortunately, private aid figures are not tracked as well as ODA in many countries, so it is difficult to make across-the-board comparisons between various nations.

In the United States, popular estimates of spending on aid are often highly inflated. Surveys show that people typically think about 20% of the federal budget is spent on aid; the real number a little less than 1%. Though this percentage is accurate for planned dedicated monetary aid by the US government, it doesn't include the previously stated \$ 34 billion from private donors, which would increase the US donation percentage to over 4.4%. It also does not include the billions of dollars in US cost of unplanned aid operations such as the 2004 Indian Ocean earthquake which involved tens of thousands of US personnel and the use of billions of dollars of US equipment and supplies.

### 2.3 Quality

Development aid is often provided by means of supporting local development

aid projects. In these projects, it sometimes occurs that no strict code of conduct is in force. In some projects, the development aid workers do not respect the local code of conduct, for example, the local dress code as well as social interaction. In developing countries, these matters are regarded highly important and not respecting it may cause severe offense, and thus significant problems and delay of these projects.

## 2.4 Effectiveness

Aid effectiveness is the degree to which development aid works, and is a subject of significant disagreement. Dissident economists such as Peter Bauer and Milton Friedman argued in the 1960s that aid is ineffective. Many econometric studies in recent years have supported the view that development aid has no effect on the speed with which countries develop. Negative side effects of aid can include an unbalanced appreciation of the recipient's currency (known as Dutch Disease), increasing corruption, and adverse political effects such as postponement of necessary economic and democratic reforms.

There is also much debate about which form development aid should take in order to be effective. It has been argued that much government-to-government aid was ineffective because it was merely a way to support strategically important leaders. A good example of this is the former dictator of Zaire, Mobutu Sese Seko, who lost support from the West after the Cold War had ended. Mobutu, at the time of his death, had a sufficient personal fortune (particularly in Swiss banks) to pay off the entire external debt of Zaire.

Besides some instances that only the president (and/or his close entourage) receives the money resulting from development aid, the money obtained is often badly spent as well. For example, in Chad, the Chad Export Project, an oil production project supported by the World Bank, was set up. The earnings of this project (6.5 million dollars per year and rising) were used to obtain arms. The government defended this purchase by stating that "development was not possible without safety". However, the military of Chad is notorious for severe misconduct against the population (abuse, rape, claiming of supplies and cars) and did not even defend the population in distress (e.g. in

## Foreword

---

the Darfur conflict). In 2008, the World Bank retreated from the project that thus increased environmental pollution and human suffering.

Another criticism has been that Western countries often project their own needs and solutions onto other societies and cultures. In response, western help in some cases has become more “endogenous”, which means that needs as well as solutions are being devised in accordance with local cultures.

It has also been argued that help based on direct donation creates dependency and corruption, and has an adverse effect on local production. As a result, a shift has taken place towards aid based on activation of local assets and stimulation measures such as microcredit.

Aid has also been ineffective for young recipient countries in which ethnic tensions are strong: sometimes ethnic conflicts have prevented efficient delivery of aid.

In some cases, western surpluses that resulted from faulty agricultural or other policies have been dumped into poor countries, thus wiping out local production and increasing dependency.

In several instances, loans that were considered irretrievable (for instance because funds had been embezzled by a dictator who already died or disappeared), have been written off by donor countries, who subsequently booked this as development aid.

In many cases, Western governments placed orders with Western companies as a form of subsidizing them, and later shipped these goods to poor countries which often had no use for them. These projects are sometimes called “white elephants”.

A common criticism in recent years is that rich countries have put so many conditions on aid that it has reduced its effectiveness. In the example of tied aid, donor countries often require the recipient to purchase goods and services from the donor, even if these are cheaper elsewhere. Other conditions include opening up the country to foreign investment, even if it might not be ready to do so.

All of these problems have made that a very large part of the money spent on development aid is simply wasted uselessly. According to Gerbert van der

Aa, for the Netherlands, only 33% of the development aid is successful, another 33% fails and of the remaining 33% the effect is unclear. This means that for example for the Netherlands, 1.33 to 2.66 billion is lost as it spends 4 billion in total of development aid (or 0.8% of GNP).

An excerpt from Dr. Thomas Dichter's recently published book *Despite Good Intentions: Why Development Assistance to the Third World Has Failed* reads: "This industry has become one in which the benefits of what is spent are increasingly in inverse proportion to the amount spent—a case of more gets you less. As donors are attracted on the basis of appeals emphasizing 'product', results, and accountability... the tendency to engage in project-based, direct-action development becomes inevitable. Because funding for development is increasingly finite, this situation is very much a zero-sum game. What gets lost in the shuffle is the far more challenging long-term process of development."

The Massachusetts Institute of Technology's Abhijit Banerjee and Ruimin He have undertaken a rigorous study of a few independent evaluations of aid program's successes and failures. They suggest the following interventions are usually highly effective forms of aid in normal circumstances:

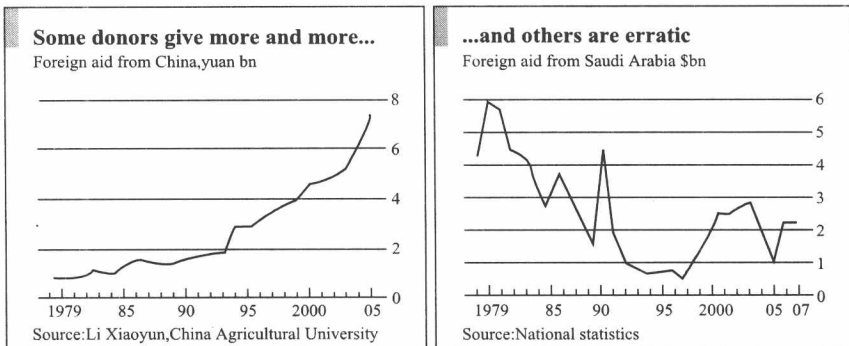
- ✱ subsidies given directly to families to be spent on children's education and health;
- ✱ education vouchers for school uniforms and textbooks;
- ✱ teaching selected illiterate adults to read and write;
- ✱ deworming drugs and vitamin/nutritional supplements;
- ✱ vaccination and HIV/AIDS prevention programs;
- ✱ indoor sprays against malaria, anti-mosquito bed netting;
- ✱ suitable fertilizers;
- ✱ clean water supplies.

## 2.5 Private aid

Development charities make up a vast web of non-governmental organizations, religious ministries, foundations, business donations and college scholarships devoted to development aid. Estimates vary, but private aid is at least as

## Foreword

large as ODA within the United States, at \$ 16 billion in 2003. World figures for private aid are not well tracked, so cross-country comparisons are not easily possible, though it does seem that per person, some other countries may give more, or have similar incentives that the US has for its citizens to encourage giving.



**Example: Comparison on Giving Development Aids**

# Chapter 1



## Understanding Development

### 1. The Progress of Development

Development has come a long way in the past six decades. As both an enterprise and a scholarly discipline, development became significant in the period immediately following the World War II. International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (which soon came to be known as the World Bank) was created for the task of rebuilding countries—and in Europe, a continent—that had been shattered by war.

In those days, development was considered largely synonymous with industrialization. It was, in short, about getting richer or more prosperous; and prosperity was measured in dollar figures. Industrialization and in particular, a country's capacity to manufacture finished goods, was seen as essential.

Asian and African countries came to independence from former colonial empires of Europe, and were eager for two reasons to speed up their development. One was to provide better livelihoods for their citizens. The second was to consolidate their independence, to convert the political equality into an economic equality that would earn them the respect and sense of self-dignity they felt had been denied them under colonialism. The scholarly literature of the time only reinforced this push: development was about using the state to spearhead the process of modernizing the society and raising its incomes.

Development thinking starts from the left-wing branches of social sciences, including not only socialists and communists but also modern liberals. They favor using the state as an agent of social transformation. They believe that the state could embody collective will more effectively than the market, which favored privileged interests. As a political force, the old right (from conserva-



tives to fascists) which favored state and held suspicion of the market, declined in the post-war period and the new right based on resurgent classical liberalism regarded the state as a potential tyrant and venerated the freedom and productive potential of the market.

However, by the early postwar period, development thought was really neither left nor right. In fact, in Latin America it was right-wing authoritarian regimes that began employing statist development strategies. Meanwhile, the horrors of the Depression and postwar political development had given Keynesian economics pride of place in both academic and policy circles in the first world. To the newly independent countries, this confidence in the state was further reinforced by the emergence of structuralist economics. Aware of the imperfections in the market and the world economy, and confident that the state could overcome them, development theorists proposed models that assigned the state a leading role in the economy. Many third-world governments eagerly adopted the models, for they seemed to promise a rapid journey into the industrial age.

However, as time went by, problems came to light. The industrial development consumed more resources than it generated. When the postwar boom came to an end in 1970s, the shortcomings of state-led development became plain.

The neoclassical theory claims that the main problem in the third world was the state itself, and that rapid development could only come about if the state was rolled back. At the same time, left-wing schools of thought—in particular, dependency theory—arose to claim that the market itself was the problem. By the late 1970s, first-world electorates and governments looked to the new ideas and turned to the new right. This initiated a long attack on the state and other institutions that were seen to be hindering the operation of the market. First-world donor agencies began pressuring third-world governments to make similar changes in their policies. Many third-world governments acceded reluctantly because the debt crisis had weakened their bargaining power with their creditors.

Less state, more market, this was the essential thrust of the strategy known as structural adjustment, which was soon applied in much of the third world. Structural adjustment yielded some positive gains in some of the more advanced