COURSE GUIDE

PAD 317
CIVIL SOCIETY ORGANISATION

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INTRODUCTION

Welcome to DES-415: International Organizations and Development (I)

This is a two-unit credit course and compulsory for students in Development Studies. This course has been structured into 14 distinct but related units of activities. The course guide gives you overview of the course and provides you with the relevant information and requirements for the course. Also, in this Course Guide, you will be intimated on what you need to know about the aims and objectives of the course, components of the course material, arrangement of the study units, assignments, and examinations.

COURSE AIMS

The purpose of this course is to introduce students to the main theoretical perspectives and conceptual debates on international organizations and development. Accordingly, the lectures involve series of debates and theories that constitute the foundation of international organizations operations in the world. Specific aim of the course includes:

- Introduce students to the functions of key international organizations including the WTO, IMF, World Bank, United Nations, and international regime on climate change, transnational corporations and Non-Governmental Organizations.
- Develop students' understanding of the key forces shaping the development of international organizations and the implications of the development of international organizations for policy-making processes at the national and sub-national levels.
- Introduce students to theoretical approaches to the development and implications of international organizations, including approaches such as public policy theory, new institutionalism, in addition to international organization development theories such as neo-liberal, institutionalism and the international governance approaches that affect the third world development.

COURSE OBJECTIVES

To achieve the aims of this course, there are overall objectives which the course is out to achieve though, there are set out objectives for each unit. The unit objectives are included at the beginning of a unit; you should read them before you start working through the unit.

You may want to refer to them during your study of the unit to check on your progress. You should always look at the unit objectives after

completing a unit. This is to assist the students in accomplishing the tasks entailed in this course. In this way, you can be sure you have done what was required of you by the unit. The objectives serve as study guides, such that student could know if he is able to grab the knowledge of each unit through the sets of objectives in each one.

At the end of the course period, the students are expected to:

- Get acquainted with key analytic debates in the field of international organizations and development
- Develop the ability to comprehend and manipulate complex analytical arguments in global discourses on international organizations and development
- Have an understanding on how to relate these debates and analytical arguments to development theory, policy and practice
- Develop the ability to evaluate the impact of development interventions (such as – SDGs, NGOs, international financial institutions, government intervention projects, and development blueprints, as well as international institutional reforms and theories of change) on international organizations' operations and development in countries of the world
- Get familiarised and be able to apply practical skills and techniques in International Organizations and development analysis which can lead to a career international multilateral and bilateral corporations and NGOs

WORKING THROUGH THE COURSE

To successfully complete this course, you are required to read the study units, referenced books and other materials on the course. Each unit contains self-assessment exercises called Student Assessment Exercises (SAE). At some points in the course, you will be required to submit assignments for assessment purposes. At the end of the course there is a final examination. This course should take about 15weeks to complete and some components of the course are outlined under the course material subsection.

COURSE MATERIAL

The course materials needed for this course are listed as follows:

1. Course guide
2. Study units
3. Relevant Textbooks including the ones listed under each unit
4. Assignment file
5. Tutorials
6. Presentation schedule

STUDY UNITS

There are four (5) modules and twenty one (21) units in whole for this course. They should `be studied carefully and diligently. The modules and units are listed as follows:

Module 1   International Organizations in Development: Meaning, Theories and Relevance

Unit-1   Defining International Organizations
Unit-2   Types and forms of IOs.
Unit-3   History and emergence of Global Governance.
Unit-4   Theories of IOs and Global Governance (Realism, Neoliberal Institutionalism, Classic Liberal Institutionalism, Critical Theory).

Module 2   Global Finance and World Economic Development

Unit 1   The World Bank
Unit 2   The International Monetary Fund (IMF)
Unit 3   World Trade Organization (WTO)
Unit 4   African Development Bank (ADB)

Module 3   Globalization, Third World Development and International Organizations

Unit1   Meaning of Globalization in Development
Unit 2   Globalization: Analysis from Development and Political Economy Perspectives
Unit 3   The Effects of Globalization on Third World Countries' Development

Module 4   International Organizations as non-State actors – The Civil Society in International System

Unit 1   Mary Kaldor's Four Versions of Civil Society Emergence as Non-State Actors in Development
Unit 2   Civil Society as Third Sector of Society in Development
Unit 3   Functions of Civil Society Organizations (NGOs) in Development
Unit 4   Civil Society Influence to Application Of Biotechnology

Module 5   Civil Society, its role and value

Unit 1   Civil Society, its role and value
Unit 2   The Concept of Civil Society and Its Significance on
                Development Practice
Unit 3   The Role of Civil Society Organizations (Csos) in the
                Nigerian Democratization Process
Unit4   Civil Society Organizations and Service Provision

Each study unit will take at least two hours, and it include the introduction, objective, main content, self-assessment exercise, conclusion, summary and reference. Other areas border on the Tutor-Marked Assessment (TMA) questions. Some of the self-assessment exercise will necessitate discussion, brainstorming and argument with some of your colleges. You are advised to do so in order to understand and get acquainted with historical economic event as well as notable periods.

There are also textbooks under the reference and other (on-line and off-line) resources for further reading. They are meant to give you additional information if only you can lay your hands on any of them. You are required to study the materials; practice the self-assessment exercise and tutor-marked assignment (TMA) questions for greater and in-depth understanding of the course. By doing so, the stated learning objectives of the course would have been achieved.

TEXTBOOK AND REFERENCES

In this course material there are some recommended textbooks and references that you can get for yourself or search out online for further reading.

PRESENTATION SCHEDULE

The presentation schedule included in your course materials gives you the important dates in the year for the completion of tutor-marking assignments and attending tutorials.

Remember, you are required to submit all your assignments by due date. You should be guided against falling behind in your work.

ASSESSMENT

There are two types of the assessment of the course. First are the tutor-marked assignments; second, there is a written examination. In attempting the assignments, you are expected to apply information, knowledge and techniques gathered during the course. The assignments must be submitted to your tutor for formal Assessment in accordance with the deadlines stated in the Presentation Schedule and the

Assignments File. The work you submit to your tutor for assessment will count for 30 % of your total course mark.

At the end of the course, you will need to sit for a final written examination of three hours' duration. This examination will also count for 70% of your total course mark.

TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENTS (TMAS)

There are four tutor-marked assignments in this course. You will submit all the assignments. You are encouraged to work all the questions thoroughly. The TMAs constitute 30% of the total score.

Assignment questions for the units in this course are contained in the Assignment File. You will be able to complete your assignments from the information and materials contained in your set books, reading and study units. However, it is desirable that you demonstrate that you have read and researched more widely than the required minimum. You should use other references to have a broad viewpoint of the subject and also to give you a deeper understanding of the subject.

When you have completed each assignment, send it, together with a TMA form, to your tutor. Make sure that each assignment reaches your tutor on or before the deadline given in the Presentation File. If for any reason, you cannot complete your work on time, contact your tutor before the assignment is due to discuss the possibility of an extension. Extensions will not be granted after the due date unless there are exceptional circumstances.

FINAL EXAMINATION AND GRADING

The final examination will be of three hours' duration and have a value of 70% of the total course grade. The examination will consist of questions which reflect the types of self-assessment practice exercises and tutor-marked problems you have previously encountered.

All areas of the course will be assessed.

Revise the entire course material using the time between finishing the last unit in the module and that of sitting for the final examination to. You might find it useful to review your self-assessment exercises, tutor-marked assignments and comments on them before the examination. The final examination covers information from all parts of the course.

HOW TO GET THE MOST FROM THIS COURSE

In distance learning the study units replace the university lecturer. This is one of the great advantages of distance learning; you can read and work through specially designed study materials at your own pace and at a time and place that suit you best. Think of it as reading the lecture

instead of listening to a lecturer. In the same way that a lecturer might set you some reading to do, the study units tell you when to read your books or other material, and when to embark on discussion with your colleagues. Just as a lecturer might give you an in class exercises, your study units provide exercises for you to do at appropriate points.

Each of the study units follows a common format. The first item is an introduction to the subject matter of the unit and how a particular unit is integrated with the other units and the course as a whole. Next is a set of learning objectives. These objectives let you know what you should be able to do by the time you have completed the unit. You should use these objectives to guide your study. When you have finished the unit, you must go back and check whether you have achieved the objectives. If you make a habit of doing this you will significantly improve your chances of passing the course and getting the best grade.

The main body of the unit guides you through the required reading from other sources. This will usually be either from your set books or from a readings section. Some units require you to undertake practical overview of historical events. You will be directed when you need to embark on discussion and guided through the tasks you must do. The purpose of the practical overview of some certain historical economic issues are in twofold. First, it will enhance your understanding of the material in the unit. Second, it will give you practical experience and skills to evaluate economic arguments, and understand the roles of history in guiding current economic policies and debates outside your studies. In any event, most of the critical thinking skills you will develop during studying are applicable in normal working practice, so it is important that you encounter them during your studies.

Self-assessments are interspersed throughout the units, and answers are given at the ends of the units. Working through these tests will help you to achieve the objectives of the unit and prepare you for the assignments and the examination. You should do each self-assessment exercises as you come to it in the study unit. Also, ensure to master some major historical dates and events during the course of studying the material. The following is a practical strategy for working through the course. If you run into any trouble, consult your tutor.

Remember that your tutor's job is to help you. When you need help, don't hesitate to call and ask your tutor to provide it.

1.   Read this Course Guide thoroughly.
2.   Organize a study schedule. Refer to the `Course overview' for more details. Note the time you are expected to spend on each unit and how the assignments relate to the units. Important information, e.g. details of your tutorials, and the date of the first day of the semester is available from study centre. You need to

gather together all this information in one place, such as your dairy or a wall calendar. Whatever method you choose to use, you should decide on and write in your own dates for working breach unit.

3.   Once you have created your own study schedule, do everything you can to stick to it. The major reason that students fail is that they get behind with their course work. If you get into difficulties with your schedule, please let your tutor know before it is too late for help.

4.   Turn to Unit 1 and read the introduction and the objectives for the unit.

5.   Assemble the study materials. Information about what you need for a unit is given in the `Overview' at the beginning of each unit. You will also need both the study unit you are working on and one of your set books on your desk at the same time.

6.   Work through the unit. The content of the unit itself has been arranged to provide a sequence for you to follow. As you work through the unit you will be instructed to read sections from your set books or other articles. Use the unit to guide your reading.

7.   Up-to-date course information will be continuously delivered to you at the study centre.

8.   Work before the relevant due date (about 4 weeks before due dates), get the

9.   Keep in mind that you will learn a lot by doing the assignments carefully. They have been designed to help you meet the objectives of the course and, therefore, will help you pass the exam. Submit all assignments no later than the due date. Review the objectives for each study unit to confirm that you have achieved them. If you feel unsure about any of the objectives, review the study material or consult your tutor.

10.   When you are confident that you have achieved a unit's objectives, you can then start on the next unit. Proceed unit by unit through the course and try to pace your study so that you keep yourself on schedule.

11.   When you have submitted an assignment to your tutor for marking do not wait for it return `before starting on the next units. Keep to your schedule. When the assignment is returned, pay particular attention to your tutor's comments, both on the tutor-marked assignment form and also written on the assignment. Consult your tutor as soon as possible if you have any questions or problems.

12.   After completing the last unit, review the course and prepare yourself for the final examination. Check that you have achieved the unit objectives (listed at the beginning of each unit) and the course objectives (listed in this Course Guide).

SUMMARY

This course guide gives you an overview of your expectations in this course – International Organizations and Development. The course International Organizations and Development explores the meaning and forms of international organizations, issues of authority, power and legitimacy of International organizations; how states and non-state actors (particularly NGOs and the state institutions, international/global economic structures) have shaped the nature and scope of international relations and the effects that participation in international institutions has upon policy-making, styles of governance and institutional configuration at the national and sub-national levels. The course also examines the role of hegemonic powers, in particular the impact of the United States over the post-war and post-Cold War eras and the implications upon international organizations operations in developing world.

The modules examines relevant case studies and trending global development issues such as :- the SDGs, gender and development, environmental governance; globalization issues and patterns, global economic structures and the governance of international trade; the IMF, World Bank and the governance of finance and development; the United Nations and security governance and assess the implications of the growth of international organizations (NGOs) and their roles as non-state national and international actors

MODULE 1   INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS IN DEVELOPMENT: MEANING, THEORIES, AND RELEVANCE

Unit 1   Defining International Organizations
Unit 2   Types and Forms of International Organizations
Unit 3   History and Emergence of Global Governance.
Unit 4   Theories of International Organizations and
              Global Governance

Unit1   Defining International Organizations

1.1   Introduction
1.2   Learning Outcomes
1.3   Main Content
       1.3.1   Definition of International Organizations.
       1.3.2   Characteristics of International Organizations.
1.4   Criteria for Categorizing International Organizations.
1.5   Summary
1.6   References/ Further Readings
1.7   Possible to self-assessment exercise (s) within the content

1.1   Introduction

In this unit, we will describe, define, and give a brief background about the emergence and purpose of international organizations. Indeed, there are different kinds of definitions and descriptions of the international organization some conflict with others depending on the perspective the definer is looking at it from. However, there is a point of convergence, where all seem to agree on what characteristics makeup or define international organizations.

1.2   Learning Outcomes

By the end of this unit, you will be able to:

• Understand and describe an International Organization from other organizations.
• Understand the basic characteristics of an International Organization.
• Correctly define and describe International Organizations.

1.3   International Organizations

Imagine stepping off a plane into a foreign country. As you disembark you switch on your phone to check the messages that may have come through while you were in transit. You follow the sign that directs you to the airport's exit, clear immigration, and then pick up your luggage at the designated carousel. You then head straight for the 'nothing to declare' green lane to exit the airport. Those routine actions would have already brought you into contact with the work of at least four different international organizations. The aircraft that you arrived in would have been one of the many planes under the International Air Transport Association (IATA) and regulated by standards set by the International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO); that you were able to use your phone to check messages would have been courtesy of the work of the International Telecommunication Union (ITU); and your customs clearance would have been facilitated by the Kyoto Convention set by the World Customs Organization (WCO) to simplify the customs process.

These are just some of how international organizations form an integral part of our everyday lives. Whether these organizations are working to build houses for the impoverished like UN-Habitat does or working to ensure a standard of health for everyone like the World Health Organization (WHO) does, there is no running away from international organizations. Today, it is increasingly difficult to imagine an international system in which the only voices that matter is those of states.

1.3.1 Definition of International Organizations.

The term "international organizations" refers to a wide variety of formal structures with both common elements as well as specific peculiarities, which call for clarification. As noted by Brechin and Ness (2013), scholars of international organizations "seem to typically focus on intergovernmental organizations, and at times, seem to use the term interchangeably. This can be confusing". In the same vein, Dijkzeul and Beigbeder (2003) claim that "sometimes the term international organizations are used to include (i) multinational corporations, (ii)bilateral organizations, (iii)multilateral organizations, and (iv) international non-organizations (INGOs)." "Other times, only UN organizations are covered by this term." Most commonly, the term international organizations are used to refer to "all forms of non-state actors working at international or global levels" (Brechin and Ness 2013). According to this, intergovernmental organizations (IGOs) can be

considered a subset of the international organizations' category together with international nongovernmental organizations (INGOs).

International organizations (IOs) can be defined in a variety of ways, given the considerable differences in their (i) status: (for-profit, not-for-profit, etc.), (ii) structures, (iii) objectives, (iv)functions, (v)financing, (vi)working languages and membership rules (Colas, 1993; Diez de Velasco Vallejo, 1999; and Smuts, 1995). However, they are all intergovernmental entities, established through a constitutional instrument (such as a treaty or agreement) that provides each of them with its decision-making powers that are distinct from those of its member states, as well as jurisdiction, permanent structures, and the means of attaining a common goal and specific objectives on an international scale. Several definitions exist which describes international organizations; however, we will stick to the four definitions or description of IOs as listed below which are most appropriate and encompassing, they are:

According to the United Nations, international organizations are entities established by formal political agreements between their members that have the status of international treaties; their existence is recognized by law in their member countries; they are not treated as resident institutional.

According to the OECD definition, international organizations are entities established by formal political agreements between their members that have the status of international treaties; their existence is recognized by law in their member countries; they are not treated as resident institutional units of the countries in which they are located.
According to Webster's dictionary: An international organization can be described as - an international alliance involving many different countries Synonyms: global organization, international organization, world organization

According to Beth Simmons, an international organization (also known as an international institution or intergovernmental organization) is a stable set of norms and rules meant to govern the behaviour of states and other actors in the international system. Organizations may be established by a treaty or by an instrument governed by international law and possessing its legal personality, such as the United Nations, the World Health Organization.

1.3.2 Characteristics of International Organizations.

The following are the characteristics of international organizations. This refers to what they have in common:

Characteristics of International Organizations (IOs):

1.   They are "Intergovernmental entities".
2.   Established through a "constitutional instrument or treaty".
3.   They are "non-state actors".
4.   Achieving "cooperation in a certain area" based on their mandate.

1.4   Criteria for Categorizing International Organizations.

There are several criteria for categorizing and classifying international organizations.

However, we will focus on seven of these parameters, namely: (i) status (ii)structures, (iii) objectives, (iv) functions or focus, (v) financing, (vi) working language, (v) membership rule, (vi) constitutional influence. The table below further explained these criteria:

Criteria based on:	Parameters that distinguish them
1. Status	For-Profit or Not-for-Profit. / Public or Private
2. Structures	Either Global or Regional
3. Objectives	Health/ Peace Mission/ Economic development etc
4.Functions or focus	Peacekeeping/International Justice / Economic development
5. Financing	By Member state or Host Country or by regional agreement
6. Working Language	English/ French/ Prologues/ German/ Spanish etc
7. Membership rules	Technical capacity/ Political alignment/ Regional area
8.Constitutional Instrument	Treaty or Agreement

Adapted from United Nations (UNEG, 2015)

 1.5   Summary

In this unit, we have been able to describe and define international organizations based on different criteria or parameters, going back to the airport analogy used at the start of this unit, we may not always be aware of how international organizations affect even the most mundane things in our lives. But our lives would be materially different without them.
In UNIT-2, we will explore in detail the role of international organizations. Some of their roles are helping to set the international agenda, mediating political bargaining, providing a place for political

initiatives, and acting as catalysts for coalition- formation. They facilitate cooperation and coordination among member nations, amongst others.

1.6   References/ Further Reading/Web Resources

Brechin, Steven R., and Gayl D. Ness (2013): "Looking back at the gap: international organizations as organizations twenty-five years later." Journal of International Organizations Studies 4, no. 1 14–39.

Colas, B. (1993). Organization's internationals à vocation universal: les notices, Paris, La Documentation française.

Dijkzeul, Dennis (1997). "United Nations development co-operation as a form of international public service management." International journal of public sector management 10, no. 3: 165–189.

Karns, M. P. and K. A. Mingst (2010). International Organizations: The Politics and Processes of Global Governance, Boulder, Lynne Rienner Publishers.

Mitrany, D. (1943). A Working Peace System, London, Oxford University Press.

Ness, Gayl D., and Steven R. Brechin(1988). "Bridging the Gap: International Organizations as Organizations." International Organization 42.2: 245–273.

1.7   **Possible to self-assessment exercise (s) within the content**

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Discuss what understand about International Organization

Answer

The term "international organizations" refers to a wide variety of formal structures with both common elements as well as specific peculiarities, which call for clarification. As noted by Brechin and Ness (2013), scholars of international organizations "seem to typically focus on intergovernmental organizations, and at times, seem to use the term interchangeably. This can be confusing". In the same vein, Dijkzeul and Beigbeder (2003) claim that "sometimes the term international organizations are used to include (i) multinational corporations, (ii)bilateral organizations, (iii)multilateral organizations, and (iv) international non-organizations (INGOs)." "Other times, only UN organizations are covered by this term." Most commonly, the term international organizations are used to refer to "all forms of non-state actors working at international or global levels" (Brechin and Ness 2013). According to this, intergovernmental organizations (IGOs) can be considered a subset of the international organizations' category together with international nongovernmental organizations (INGOs).

International organizations (IOs) can be defined in a variety of ways, given the considerable differences in their (i) status: (for-profit, not-for-profit, etc.), (ii) structures, (iii) objectives, (iv)functions, (v)financing, (vi)working languages and membership rules (Colas, 1993; Diez de Velasco Vallejo, 1999; and Smuts, 1995). However, they are all intergovernmental entities, established through a constitutional instrument (such as a treaty or agreement) that provides each of them with its decision-making powers that are distinct from those of its member states, as well as jurisdiction, permanent structures, and the means of attaining a common goal and specific objectives on an international scale. Several definitions exist which describes international organizations; however, we will stick to the four definitions or description of IOs as listed below which are most appropriate and encompassing, they are:

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law in their member countries; they are not treated as resident institutional.

According to the OECD definition, international organizations are entities established by formal political agreements between their members that have the status of international treaties; their existence is recognized by law in their member countries; they are not treated as resident institutional units of the countries in which they are located.
According to Webster's dictionary: An international organization can be described as - an international alliance involving many different countries Synonyms: global organization, international organization, world organization

According to Beth Simmons, an international organization (also known as an international institution or intergovernmental organization) is a stable set of norms and rules meant to govern the behaviour of states and other actors in the international system. Organizations may be established by a treaty or by an instrument governed by international law and possessing its legal personality, such as the United Nations, the World Health Organization.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

What are features of international organisation?
Answer

The following are the characteristics of international organizations. This refers to what they have in common:

 Characteristics of International Organizations (IOs):

5.   They are "Intergovernmental entities".
6.   Established through a "constitutional instrument or treaty".
7.   They are "non-state actors".
8.   Achieving "cooperation in a certain area" based on their mandate.

Unit 2   Types and Forms of International Organizations

Unit structure

2.1   Introduction
2.2   Learning Outcome
2.3   Main Content
         2.3.1   A brief History about International Organizations.
         2.3.2   Function/Purpose of International Organizations.
2.4   Types of International Organizations.
         2.4.1   Forms/Classification of International Organizations
                    (Based on Geographical location & Purpose)
2.5   Summary
2.6   References/ Further Reading/Web Resources
2.7   Possible answer to self-assessment exercise (s) within the content

2.1   Introduction

In this unit, we will continue to build on what we learned in Unit-1. Indeed, we live in a world of laws. While sovereign states are the principal legal actors, international organizations are increasingly important in helping us govern our world.

Today's international system is made up of a coalition of different voices and interests. In addition to states, there are also non-governmental organizations, multinational corporations, and hybrid organizations which are a mix of all the different categories.

2.2   Learning Outcome

By the end of this unit, you will be able to:

• Understand and describe the Purpose of International organizations from other organizations.
• Understand the type of International Organizations there are.
• Understand the Forms of International Organization there are.

2.3   Main Content

An international organization is a process, by which states establish and develop formal, continuing institutional structures for the conduct of

certain aspects of their relationships with each other. It represents a reaction to the extreme decentralization of the traditional system of international relations and an effort by statesmen to adapt the mechanics of that system to the requirements posed by the constantly increasing complexity of the interdependence of states. International organizations may be regarded as manifestations of the organizing process on the international level

2.3.1 A brief History about International Organizations.

International Organizations are unions of states (or their agencies); non-governmental Organizations, ethnic communities, and private individuals from various states. These unions aim at achieving common objectives in various spheres (political, economic, social, cultural, and scientific) and represent the primary form of international cooperation.

International organizations emerged in the second half of the nineteenth century when economic and socio-political relations crossed the borders of nations giving rise to an objective demand for cooperation and coordination of interstate efforts to solve new   transnational tasks. The first mass international nongovernmental organizations were the Red Cross (1863), founded by Swiss Henry Dunant, and the First International (1864), an international fellowship of workers founded in London by K. Marx and F. Engels. The first international intergovernmental organization was the Universal Postal Union, founded in 1874 to provide organization and functioning of the international postal service (since 1878, the World Postal Union). World wars and especially the second one gave a new impulse to the building of international organizations to prevent new wars and to create an effective system of international security. Thus, in 1919 the League of Nations was founded (officially disbanded in 1946); it was an international organization that proclaimed the development of cooperation among nations and the promotion of peace and security as its central goals. In 1945 the United Nations Charter was adopted. The United Nations Organization was created to strengthen security and peace and to develop cooperation among nations. In the second half of the twentieth-century globalization and the growing interdependence of nations have led to the emergence of an increasing number of international organizations, an extension of their functions and agenda, and their growing influence and visibility in the international arena.

2.3.2 Function/Purpose of International Organizations.

International organizations serve many diverse functions and roles, and this can be different based on the sphere of influence or technical

expertise they bring to the table. In general terms, international organizations have ten broad roles, which are:

(i)   Helping to set the international agenda i.e., MDGs/SDGs e.g. (United Nations).

(ii)   (Mediating political bargaining e.g. (United Nations General Assembly).

(iii)   Providing a place for political initiatives and acting as catalysts for the coalition- formation e.g. (United Nations General Assembly).

(iv)   They facilitate cooperation and coordination among member nations e.g. (United Nations General Assembly).

(v)   Collecting weather information and monitoring trends e.g. (World Meteorological organizations).

(vi)   Delivering services and emergency aid. e.g. (United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs).

(vii)   Providing forums for bargaining and settling disputes e.g. (European Union).

(viii) Brokering peace in war turn countries e.g. (United Nations Peacekeeping mission).

(ix)   Enforcing human rights and access to justice e.g. (International Court of Justice).

(x)   Oversees the stability of the world's monetary system and reduces poverty e.g. (International Monitory Fund/ World Bank)

2.4   Types of International Organizations.

There are three basic types of international organizations: governmental and non-governmental. It is usual to distinguish between three main types of "international organization", namely: (i) inter-governmental organizations, (ii) international non-governmental organizations, and (iii) multinational enterprises

2.4.1 Forms/Classification of International Organizations (Based on Geographical location & Purpose)

Despite the attempt to use standard definitions to categorize international organizations, their universe is considerably heterogeneous due to their relevant differences in size, geographical scope, tasks, and functions, as shown below:

Classification based on "Geographical range"

➢   **Global**

1.   United Nations (UN). 2. International Labour Organization (ILO),

3.   Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO).
➢   **Regional 1.** Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN), 2. European Union (EU), 3. Africa Union (AU).
➢   **Sub-regional**
        East African Community, West Nordic Council Arab, Maghreb Union

Classification based on **"Purpose"**

➢   Multi-purpose
➢   United Nation,
➢   European Union
➢   Single purpose
➢   Nuclear Energy Agency,
➢   international Organization for Migration (OIM)

Our focus in this unit, is more on International Organizations, specifically, the "public international organizations" They are those international organizations (Bauer 2007) who fulfill the following:

(i)   Based on a formal instrument of agreement between the governments of nation-states.
(ii)   Including three or more nation-states as parties to the agreement.
(iii)   Having intergovernmental or supranational character.
(iv)   Possessing a permanent secretariat performing ongoing tasks. A more detailed form of classification can be seen below:

2.5   Summary

Despite the different parameters used in classifying or describing international, we identified three basic types of IOs: (i) inter-governmental organizations, (ii) international Non-governmental organizations and (iii) multinational enterprises. We also established that IOs can be classified based on geographic location and purpose. We explored in detail the roles, classifications, and purpose of international organizations.

As we wrap up, it is important to summarize the major features of international organizations: e.g. (i) they are in permanent cooperation with the states, based on their association. (ii) they are established following international law and based on international treaties, achieving cooperation in specific, (iii) International organizations are typically organized by their membership, geographic location, and their purpose.

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2.7   Possible answer to self-assessment exercise (s) within the content

Self-Assessment Exercise 1

List the three types of IOs with corresponding examples.

Answer

International Organizations are unions of states (or their agencies); non-governmental Organizations, ethnic communities, and private individuals from various states. These unions aim at achieving common objectives in various spheres (political, economic, social, cultural, and scientific) and represent the primary form of international cooperation. International organizations emerged in the second half of the nineteenth century when economic and socio-political relations crossed the borders of nations giving rise to an objective demand for cooperation and coordination of interstate efforts to solve new transnational tasks. The first mass international nongovernmental organizations were the Red Cross (1863), founded by Swiss Henry Dunant, and the First International (1864), an international fellowship of workers founded in London by K. Marx and F. Engels. The first international intergovernmental organization was the Universal Postal Union, founded in 1874 to provide organization and functioning of the international postal service (since 1878, the World Postal Union). World wars and especially the second one gave a new impulse to the building of international organizations to prevent new wars and to create an effective system of international security. Thus, in 1919 the League of Nations was founded (officially disbanded in 1946); it was an international organization that proclaimed the development of cooperation among nations and the promotion of peace and security as its central goals. In 1945 the United Nations Charter was adopted. The United Nations Organization was created to strengthen security and peace and to develop cooperation among nations. In the second half of the twentieth-century globalization and the growing interdependence of nations have led to the emergence of an increasing number of international organizations, an extension of their functions and agenda, and their growing influence and visibility in the international arena.

Self-Assessment Exercise 2
List four Functions or Purposes of IOs.

Answer

International organizations serve many diverse functions and roles, and this can be different based on the sphere of influence or technical expertise they bring to the table. In general terms, international organizations have ten broad roles, which are:

1.   Helping to set the international agenda i.e., MDGs/SDGs e.g. (United Nations).
2.   (Mediating political bargaining e.g. (United Nations General Assembly).
3.   Providing a place for political initiatives and acting as catalysts for the coalition- formation e.g. (United Nations General Assembly).
4.   They facilitate cooperation and coordination among member nations e.g. (United Nations General Assembly).

Unit 3   History and Emergence of Global Governance

Unit structure

3.1   Introduction

In this unit, we will dig deep into the history of Global governance and attempt to describe and define what Global governance means. We will also explore the different types and forms that Global governance takes. In a quick introduction- Global governance examines the effects of globalization on the idea of the sovereign state. Both realists and liberals present international relations as an anarchical system in which states interact by trade, war, and diplomacy, without any effective world government regulating their actions.

3.2   Learning Outcome

At the end of this unit, you will be able to:

- Understand and describe the history and evolution of Global Governance.
- Define and describe the purpose and reason for Global Governance.
- Understand the Types and Forms of Global Governance.
- Understand the Characteristics of Global Governance.

3.3   Main Content

Mankind is facing a range of severe risks and challenges that call for effective global action.

Some of which are (i) politically motivated violence, (ii) weapons of mass destruction, (iii) Climate change, and other large-scale (IV) environmental damage pose a threat to all people in all countries on earth and exceed the capacity of any state to act effectively to protect its citizens. To manage these challenges, we need institutions that allow us to take and implement collective decisions on a global level, in a way that takes the interests of all into account.

3.3.1 Description and definition of Global Governance.

The term world governance is broadly used to designate all regulations intended for the organization and centralization of human societies on a global scale. The Forum for a new World Governance defines world governance simply as "collective management of the planet". Traditionally, Government has been associated with "governing," or with political authority, institutions, and, ultimately, control. Governance denotes a process through which institutions coordinate and control independent social relations, and that can enforce their decisions. However, authors like James Rosenau used "governance" to denote the regulation of interdependent relations in the absence of an overarching political authority, such as in the international system.

Thakur and Van Langenhove (2006) defined global governance as "The complex of formal and informal institutions, mechanisms, relationships, and processes between and among states, markets, citizens, and organizations—both intergovernmental and nongovernmental—through which collective interests are articulated, rights and obligations are established, and differences are mediated" (2006, p. 233). Rittberger (2002) presents a shorter definition stating that global governance "is the output of a non-hierarchical network of international and transnational institutions: not only IGOs and international regimes but also transnational regimes are regulating actors' behaviour" (2002,).

According to Kenneth et al, Global governance is a purposeful order that emerges from institutions, processes, norms, formal agreements, and informal mechanisms that regulate action for a common good. Global governance encompasses activity at the international, transnational, and regional levels, and refers to activities in the public and private sectors that transcend national boundaries. In this conception of global governance, cooperative action is based on rights and rules that are

enforced through a combination of financial and moral incentives. Interestingly and concisely, Boston University defined global governance simply as "the management of global processes in the absence of global government."

3.3.2 History and Evolution of Global Governance

Today's form of global governance that has engulfed the entire world in this age of globalization has not been achieved overnight. Its roots can be traced back to ancient civilizations. The concept of global governance today can be distinguished from its differences with world government. The idea of this distinction came very recently, previously the concept of global governance was viewed as inseparable from the concept of world government. This idea of world government has emerged from the thoughts of pacifists. They thought that end of the war would bring together sovereign nations to form this world government. Stoic philosophers Zeno and Cynic philosopher Diogenes of the ancient Greek city-state Polis propagated this idea. The famous statement of Diogenes "I am the citizen of the world" is particularly noteworthy in this regard. In the 14th century eminent philosopher Dante Alighieri, in his revered book „The Monarchia' stated that the establishment of world government was necessary for world peace. Quoting him "World government must be understood in the sense that it governs mankind based on what all have in common and that by a common law it leads all toward peace." French litterateur Emerie Cruce said in his renowned work 'Le Nouveau Cynee' (1623) that a council would be formed with representatives from all countries of the world. All States shall abide by the terms of this council and the role of the council shall be to resolve disputes between States.

This council will have its police force and will be used as needed. German idealist Immanuel Kant did not support the idea of world government for two reasons –(a) unrealistic and (b) risky. But in his book 'ZumEwigen Frieden' (1765), a cooperative should be formed with independent States based on common law. He added that the creation of an environment of uninterrupted peace requires a well-organized world order in which every State abide by international law and does not interfere in the internal affairs of others. In his "An Essay towards the Present and Future of Europe" (1693) William Penn spoke of building a cooperative in Europe with European countries to maintain peace.

3.4 Modern forms of Global Governance

The first attempt to set up global governance in an institutional form in modern times was the establishment of the League of Nations, by US President Woodrow Wilson (1920). This was the first real

intergovernmental organization of that time, although the idea of such an organization has been found in the theories of various philosophers. Formed after the end of the First World War, the first and foremost goal of this organization was to establish world peace. Crucial steps were also taken here to improve the status of workers around the world, to treat the citizens of the colonized underdeveloped States, prevention of arms Trade, drug, and human trafficking, promote the release of prisoners of war, global health, just treatment of minorities in Europe, etc. After the collapse of the League of Nations, the United Nations was inaugurated at the 'San Francisco conference' held in the United States in 1945 with 50 States. Like its predecessors the League of Nations, it was also an intergovernmental organization. Due to its direct experience of the horrors of World War II, the main objective of this organization was to stop this world peace and national security.

Along with it, important programs such as protection of human rights, distribution of humanitarian aid, promotion of sustainable development, and protection of international law were adopted. While global governance is felt in every aspect of life, it is that it has the greatest impact on the economic sphere. To bring the world economic structure under one umbrella, 44countriesmet in August 1944 at the Bretton woods conference. This led to the creation of the International Monetary Fund, which came into effect in March 1947. The main goal of this organization was to remove restrictions on foreign exchange and to encourage international cooperation in the field of the monetary system. International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD), popularly known as the World Bank, was launched in June 1946. It was established as a regulatory organ of the international economy. The main responsibility of the World Bank was to provide loans for countries in need of reconstruction and development. „The General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade' (GATT) was introduced in 1948 and its name changed to World Trade Organization (WTO) in 1995. It was an agreement aimed at establishing a multilateral policy on financial matters between the Member States that would promote non-discriminatory, reciprocal mutual respect. Outside of the economic sphere, United Nations has taken steps to establish good governance in various areas of global affairs. World Health Organization (WHO) is one such organization that was founded on April 7, 1948. Its main function is to promote the development of human health issues around the world. Today, which has 6 semi-autonomous regional offices and 150 field offices worldwide, this makes it easy to get an idea of the expansion and vastness of this organization.

3.5   Summary

Global governance originated long ago in ancient Greece, in the city States. But in practical terms, the establishment of the League of Nations is the first step in this regard. Subsequently, the practicality of global governance has been enhanced by the extensive activities of the United Nations. Efforts have been made to prevent war and wartime situations, passed convention against genocide, initiatives taken for the protection of global commons (high oceans, atmosphere, outer space, and the Antarctic) in environmental matters. These are undoubtedly commendable initiatives for the establishment of global governance. Regional organizations like European Union, SAARC ASEAN, G20, African Union, ECOWAS, and BRICS have also played a pivotal role in promoting global governance in their respective regions.

In summary, Governance encompasses the system by which an organization is controlled and operates and the mechanisms by which it, and its people, are held to account. Ethics, risk management, compliance, and administration are all elements of governance. Most importantly, Global governance is concerned with issues that have become too complex for a single state or country to address alone

3.6   References/ Further Reading/Web Resource

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3.7   Possible answer to self-assessment exercise (s) within the Content

Self-Assessment Exercise 1

Define and describe the term Global Governance

Answer

The term world governance is broadly used to designate all regulations intended for the organization and centralization of human societies on a global scale. The Forum for a new World Governance defines world governance simply as "collective management of the planet". Traditionally, Government has been associated with "governing," or with political authority, institutions, and, ultimately, control. Governance denotes a process through which institutions coordinate and control independent social relations, and that can enforce their decisions. However, authors like James Rosenau used "governance" to denote the regulation of interdependent relations in the absence of an overarching political authority, such as in the international system.

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According to Kenneth et al, Global governance is a purposeful order that emerges from institutions, processes, norms, formal agreements, and informal mechanisms that regulate action for a common good. Global governance encompasses activity at the international, transnational, and regional levels, and refers to activities in the public and private sectors that transcend national boundaries. In this conception of global governance, cooperative action is based on rights and rules that are enforced through a combination of financial and moral incentives. Interestingly and concisely, Boston University defined global governance simply as "the management of global processes in the absence of global government."

Self-Assessment Exercise 2

List and describe 3 Characteristics of Global Governance

Answer

The first attempt to set up global governance in an institutional form in modern times was the establishment of the League of Nations, by US President Woodrow Wilson (1920). This was the first real intergovernmental organization of that time, although the idea of such an organization has been found in the theories of various philosophers. Formed after the end of the First World War, the first and foremost goal of this organization was to establish world peace. Crucial steps were also taken here to improve the status of workers around the world, to treat the citizens of the colonized underdeveloped States, prevention of arms Trade, drug, and human trafficking, promote the release of prisoners of war, global health, just treatment of minorities in Europe, etc. After the collapse of the League of Nations, the United Nations was inaugurated at the 'San Francisco conference' held in the United States in 1945 with 50 States. Like its predecessors the League of Nations, it was also an intergovernmental organization. Due to its direct experience of the horrors of World War II, the main objective of this organization was to stop this world peace and national security.

Along with it, important programs such as protection of human rights, distribution of humanitarian aid, promotion of sustainable development, and protection of international law were adopted. While global governance is felt in every aspect of life, it is that it has the greatest impact on the economic sphere. To bring the world economic structure under one umbrella, 44countriesmet in August 1944 at the Bretton woods conference. This led to the creation of the International Monetary Fund, which came into effect in March 1947. The main goal of this organization was to remove restrictions on foreign exchange and to encourage international cooperation in the field of the monetary system. International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD), popularly known as the World Bank, was launched in June 1946. It was established as a regulatory organ of the international economy. The main responsibility of the World Bank was to provide loans for countries in need of reconstruction and development. „The General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade' (GATT) was introduced in 1948 and its name changed to World Trade Organization (WTO) in 1995. It was an agreement aimed at establishing a multilateral policy on financial matters between the Member States that would promote non-discriminatory, reciprocal mutual respect. Outside of the economic sphere, United Nations has taken steps to establish good governance in various areas of global affairs. World Health Organization (WHO) is

one such organization that was founded on April 7, 1948. Its main function is to promote the development of human health issues around the world. Today, which has 6 semi-autonomous regional offices and 150 field offices worldwide, this makes it easy to get an idea of the expansion and vastness of this organization.

Unit 4   Theories of International Organizations and Global Governance

Unit structure

4.1   Introduction

In this unit, we will further look at the four major theories of IOs. As regards the role of International organizations in maintaining peace and security, there have been divergent views. Some argue that international organizations are the representation of state self-interests and cannot satisfy what is expected from them. Others argue in favor of the positive role of international organizations in promoting cooperation as well as peace and security. There are contending theories in this regard. In this unit, however, Constructivism, Realism, liberalism, and Maxim's institutionalism have been discussed about the role of organizations in maintaining peace and security.

4.2   Learning Outcome

By the end of this unit, you will be able to:

- List the four main theories of IOs.
- Understand and describe the four main theories of IOs.
- Understand the focus of IOs theories concerning their settings and purpose.
- Understand assumptions of the theories of IOs.

4.3   Main Content

There are different theories as to the role of international organizations in maintaining peace and security. Accordingly, constructivists argue that international organizations induce states to cooperate internationally even though their power and utility-maximizing interest are not achieved. Liberals also believe that international organizations are vital to making the world peaceful and cooperative. Realists, on the other hand, argue that international organizations are how states achieve their self-interest, thus, contributing nothing to peace and security.

4.3.1 What is Realist or Realism Theory of IOs

Realism's view of the International Organization is Realism considers the International Organization as an institution that has various rules that must be met, as an international standard. It, consider the International Organization as a forum that forces member countries to follow and comply with existing rules. The unit of analysis of Realism consists of two, namely the State and also the perspective of non-State. Realism views the State as the key to the International Organization so that all the paths of the International Organization included in the shutter of international relations are the decisions of the State.

While non-state is considered merely an additional factor that has nothing to do with the course of politics in the International Organization. It was also stated that the International Organization was a barrier to state politics in a country. For example, from the standpoint of Realism about the International Organization, the genocide in Sudan and the massacre also occurred in 2019. In 2004, genocide succeeded in curbing the citizens of Sudan, but in 2019 when Omar Al Bashir decided the same way was sentenced by ICJ (International Criminal and Justice) conducted by the International Organization namely the United Nations because of human rights violations listed in the UDHR (Universal Declaration of Human Rights). It can be seen here that this standard of humanity must be followed and obeyed by Sudan as a member of the United Nations.

4.3.2 What is Liberalist or Liberalism Theory of IOs

Liberal theories make some assumptions about the interstate system, human nature, and domestic society. The liberal institutionalists focus on human nature, while the commercial pacifists emphasize domestic society, and finally the liberal internationalists concentrate on the interstate system.

Liberalists accept that states are important, but they also believe that there are other important actors such as intergovernmental organizations (IGOs), transnational actors as well as multinational corporations (MNCs). Liberalists believe that such actors can have substantial influence in areas such as agenda settings. However, we tend to see the neoliberalists accepting realists' arguments that states are major unitary rational actors in world politics where anarchy is a major shaping force for state preferences and actions.

According to Strange (1982), Viotti, and Kauppi (1993), Liberalists, concentrate on domestic politics, interdependence, decision-making, transnationalism as well as regimes.

Liberalists' assumptions concentrate more on cooperation than on conflict. Why? This is because Liberalists tend to differentiate between democratic regimes and non-democratic regimes, and therefore, the state of war for many of the liberalists only exists outside the separate peace that exists among democracies. Liberals believe that international institutions play a key role in cooperation among states. With the correct international institutions and increasing interdependence (including economic and cultural exchanges) states could reduce conflict.

4.4   What is Constructivism Theory of IOs.

Constructivist, unlike other approaches, focuses less on economics when it comes to international institutions. They focus on the framing of rules and norms. For example, in international law, when a state wants to conduct a statement or action, it must abide by the rules regardless of the state's character.

Moreover, constructivists underline those international institutions can influence and perhaps change states' identities and interests because of the interactions they have under the rules. Finnemore and Sikkink had put it clear that "international institutions (understood primarily as organizations) contribute to norm 'cascades' by 'pressuring targeted actors to adopt new policies and laws and to ratify treaties and by monitoring compliance with international standard". Thus, IO plays the role in the complexity of social interactions, where national self-interests can be a result of social interactions and is influenced by their values. Due to the value differences that each country has, there are several norms set out on the table.

In this case, the domestic behaviour of a country tends to reflect its behaviour in the international sphere. As to conclude, the view from constructivists approach in international institutions is through social

meanings where the interest can affect norms and so institutions can affect state's behaviour.

4.4.1 What is Marxism Theory of IOs.

Marxist perspective is distinguished by its attention to modes of production (the way goods and services are produced) and economic forces that shape international life. It emphasizes economic and political inequality in international relations and inequality that leads to superiors-subordinate relationships. Such relationships result in both violent and non-violent international conflict. For Marxists, capitalism is defined as the middle class while the worker class is defined as the low class. These two classes have a very big gap in their life. Capitalism is a way of producing goods that are based on four aspects which are private property, profit motive, wages labour, and markets. Capitalists seek to maximize profits in a competitive global market.

Such competition creates the winners and losers and divides the position and behaviour of actors in international relations. The capitalist accumulations process and the exigencies of the market affect the individuals and society in ways that aren't always positive. Marxists focus on economic class as the major unit of analysis. Actors in IR are divided by their role in the production of goods and services worldwide. Capitalism spawns to primary and of course unequally classes, the proletarian which is the labour, and the bourgeoisie the owner of the production. The class analysis also includes economic states classes. Core states (advanced industrialized countries) provide capital and finance, periphery states (developing countries) provide cheap raw materials and unskilled labour, and semi-periphery states (newly industrialized countries) provide offshore sourcing and less expensive skilled labour.

The economic relationship between all these classes states resulting from the unequal benefits and costs for each state. Marxists revealed that economic factors are the most important for understanding domestic and international politics. Based on Marxism views, international organizations are determined by the existing economic rules contemporary IGO's reflect, legitimize, and promote global capitalism. International financial institutions, such as the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund (IMF) are the mechanisms of capitalist domination. They pry open markets, forcing privatization and supporting foreign investment.

Marxism entangles societies in a dangerous web of dependency that causes underdevelopment and a gross misdistribution of wealth within and between societies.

International organizations and law further the interest of capitalists, particularly regarding capital that is transnational rather than national. Capitalism expands under the guise of promoting global economic and social welfare.

Transnationally, a hegemonic class universalizes itself through private global fore (Trilateral Commission, Rotary Club, Bilderberg Group, think tanks), cultivating the development of a worldwide common society a transnational notable alliance.

 4.5   Summary

As regards the role of international organizations in maintaining peace and security, there have been divergent theories. Constructivists argue that through international organizations states adopt international norms of appropriate state behaviour to inform their policies and domestic structures. International norms push states to cooperate internationally even though states' power, as well as utility-maximizing interest, is not achieved. Liberals also believe in collective security and argue that states can devote themselves to the preservation of joint interests through international organizations. International organizations are vital to making the world peaceful and cooperative. Realists, on the other hand, argue that international organizations cannot independently function, rather, it is state interests, which determine the decision of whether states cooperate or compete.

Theories of International organizations allow us to understand and try to make sense of the world around us through various lenses, each of which represents a different theoretical perspective. As a way of reminder, international organization and their theories are the learning of how nation-states interact with one another within an international system.

There are four major international relations approaches Realism, Liberalism, Constructivism, and Marxism.

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4.7   Possible answer to self-assessment exercise (s) within the content

Self-assessment exercise 1

List four types of theories of IOs.
Answer

They are:
1.   Realist or Realism Theory of IOs
2.   Liberalist or Liberalism Theory of IOs
3.   Constructivism Theory of IOs
4.   Marxism Theory of IOs

Self-assessment exercise 2
Define and describe any two theories of IOs.

Answer
Realist or Realism Theory of IOs

Realism's view of the International Organization is Realism considers the International Organization as an institution that has various rules that must be met, as an international standard. It, consider the International Organization as a forum that forces member countries to follow and comply with existing rules. The unit of analysis of Realism consists of two, namely the State and also the perspective of non-State. Realism views the State as the key to the International Organization so that all the paths of the International Organization included in the shutter of international relations are the decisions of the State.

While non-state is considered merely an additional factor that has nothing to do with the course of politics in the International Organization. It was also stated that the International Organization was a barrier to state politics in a country. For example, from the standpoint of Realism about the International Organization, the genocide in Sudan and the massacre also occurred in 2019. In 2004, genocide succeeded in curbing the citizens of Sudan, but in 2019 when Omar Al Bashir decided the same way was sentenced by ICJ (International Criminal and Justice) conducted by the International Organization namely the United Nations because of human rights violations listed in the UDHR (Universal Declaration of Human Rights). It can be seen here that this standard of humanity must be followed and obeyed by Sudan as a member of the United Nations.

Liberalist or Liberalism Theory of IOs
Liberal theories make some assumptions about the interstate system, human nature, and domestic society. The liberal institutionalists focus on human nature, while the commercial pacifists emphasize domestic society, and finally the liberal internationalists concentrate on the interstate system.

Liberalists accept that states are important, but they also believe that there are other important actors such as intergovernmental organizations (IGOs), transnational actors as well as multinational corporations (MNCs). Liberalists believe that such actors can have substantial influence in areas such as agenda settings. However, we tend to see the neoliberalists accepting realists' arguments that states are major unitary rational actors in world politics where anarchy is a major shaping force for state preferences and actions.

According to Strange (1982), Viotti, and Kauppi (1993), Liberalists, concentrate on domestic politics, interdependence, decision-making, transnationalism as well as regimes.

Liberalists' assumptions concentrate more on cooperation than on conflict. Why? This is because Liberalists tend to differentiate between democratic regimes and non-democratic regimes, and therefore, the state of war for many of the liberalists only exists outside the separate peace that exists among democracies. Liberals believe that international institutions play a key role in cooperation among states. With the correct international institutions and increasing interdependence (including economic and cultural exchanges) states could reduce conflict.

**MODULE 2   GLOBAL FINANCE AND WORLD
                    ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT**

Unit1   The World Bank
Unit2   The International Monetary Fund
Unit 3   the world Trade Organization
Unit-4   African Development Bank (ADB)

Unit1   The World Bank

Unit structure

1.1.   Introduction
1.2   Learning Outcome
1.3   Main Content
        1.3.1   Background about the evolution of the World Bank.
        1.3.2   Ownership and Institutions that make-up the World Bank:
        1.3.3   Objectives and Functions of the World Bank.
1.4   Functions of the World Bank.
1.5   Lending Criteria of the World Bank.
1.6   Summary
1.7   References/ Further Reading/Web Resource
1.8   Possible answer to self-assessment exercise

1.1.   Introduction

In this unit, we will describe the purpose and functions of the World Bank. We will step back into history a look at how the World Bank evolved. The World Bank is an international organization dedicated to providing financing, advice, and research to developing nations to aid their economic advancement. The bank predominantly acts as an organization that attempts to fight poverty by offering developmental assistance to middle- and low-income countries.

1.2   Learning Outcome

By the end of this unit, you will be able to:

- Understand the purpose and objectives of the World Bank.
- Understand the history and emergence of the World bank.
- To describe the ownership and Institutions that make-up the World Bank
- Understand the functions of the World Bank.
- Understand the Criteria guiding World Bank's lending.

 1.3   The World Bank

The World Bank was created at the 1944 Bretton Woods Conference, along with the International Monetary Fund (IMF). The president of the World Bank is traditionally an American. The World Bank and the IMF are both based in Washington, D.C., and work closely with each other. Although many countries were represented at the Bretton Woods Conference, the United States and the United Kingdom were the most powerful in attendance and dominated the negotiations. (Goldman,2005). The intention behind the founding of the World Bank was to provide temporary loans to low-income countries that could not obtain loans commercially. The Bank may also make loans and demand policy reforms from recipients (Clemens, 2016).

World Bank was established to ensure the reconstruction of the European state immediately after the devastating effects of the Second World War. Its current membership is over 150 member nations. The Articles of Agreement were formally accepted by a majority of the participants on December 27, 1945. Only countries that are members of the International Monetary Fund (IMF) can be considered for membership in the World Bank. Based on each country's relative economic strength, subscriptions by member countries to the capital stock of the World Bank are related to each member's quota in the IMF. In its early years, the Bank made a slow start for two reasons: it was underfunded, and there were leadership struggles between the US Executive Director and the president of the organization. When the Marshall Plan went into effect in 1947, many European countries began receiving aid from other sources. Faced with this competition, the World Bank shifted its focus to non-European countries. Until 1968, its loans were earmarked for the construction of infrastructure works, such as seaports, highway systems, and power plants,that would generate enough income to enable a borrower country to repay the loan (Rotberg, 1994).

The first country to receive a World Bank loan was France. The Bank's president at the time, John McCloy, chose France over two other applicants, Poland and Chile. The loan was for US$250 million, half the amount requested and came with strict conditions (Bird,1992).

What is the World Bank (Definition) The World Bank is an international organization dedicated to providing financing, advice, and research to developing nations to aid their economic advancement. The bank predominantly acts as an organization that attempts to fight poverty by offering developmental assistance to middle- and low-income countries.

World Bank Group is the world's most prominent development bank, with a stated mandate and mission to reduce world poverty.

1.3.1 Background about the evolution of the World Bank.

World Bank is owned and directed by its member countries. Each country subscribes to shares in an amount based on its relative economic strength. Each has 250 votes plus one vote for each share of stock it holds. The World Bank Group is one of the world's largest sources of funding and knowledge for developing countries. Its five institutions share a commitment to reducing poverty, increasing shared prosperity, and promoting sustainable development. The five institutions under the WorldBank are:

1.   The International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD).
2.   The International Development Association (IDA)
3.   The International Finance Corporation (IFC)
4.   The Multilateral Investment Guarantee Agency (MIGA).
5.   The International Centre for Settlement of Investment Disputes (ICSID

1.3.2 Ownership and Institutions that make-up the World Bank:

World Bank is owned and directed by its member countries. Each country subscribes to shares in an amount based on its relative economic strength. Each has 250 votes plus one vote for each share of stock it holds. The World Bank Group is one of the world's largest sources of funding and knowledge for developing countries. Its five institutions share a commitment to reducing poverty, increasing shared prosperity, and promoting sustainable development. The five institutions under the World Bank are:

1.   The International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD).
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4.   The Multilateral Investment Guarantee Agency (MIGA).
5.   The International Centre for Settlement of Investment Disputes (ICSID)

1.3.3 Objectives and Functions of the World Bank.

This includes providing long-term capital to its member nations for economic development and reconstruction.

1.   Thus, it helps in inducing long-term capital for improving the balance of payments and thereby balancing international trade.
2.   Also, it helps by providing guarantees against loads granted to large and small units and other projects for the member nations.
3.   So, it ensures that the development projects are implemented. Thus, it brings a sense of transparency for a nation from wartime to a peaceful economy.
4.   Also, it promotes capital investment for member nations by providing a guarantee for capital investment and loans.
5.   So, if the capital investment is not available then it provides the guarantee and then I BRD provides loans for promotional activities on specific conditions.

Closely linked to the objectives is the function of the World Bank

1.4   Functions of the World Bank.

The World Bank is internationally recognized and supported to provide technical and financial assistance to many developing countries in the world. Also, it aids their advancement, in an economy with the primary goal of reducing poverty. World Bank has the largest knowledge of developing countries. Also, they are the largest source when it comes to funding. The following are more specific functions of the World Bank

1.   It helps the war-devasted countries by granting them loans for reconstruction.
2.   Thus, they provide extensive experience and the financial resources of the bank help the poor countries increase their economic growth, reducing poverty and a better standard of living.
3.   Also, it helps underdeveloped countries by granting development loans.
4.   So, it also provides loans to various governments for irrigation, agriculture, water supply, health, education, etc.
5.   It promotes foreign investments to other organizations by guaranteeing the loans.
6.   Also, the World Bank provides economic, monetary, and technical advice to the member countries for any of their projects.
7.   Thus, it encourages the development of of-industries in underdeveloped countries by introducing various economic reforms

1.5   Lending Criteria of the World Bank.

The Bank lends out strictly only on economic consideration, not on the political character of a member country. Therefore, it does not lend in

support of military or political objectives: Its loan could be used to purchase goods and services from member countries. World Bank criteria for borrowing are a replica of IMF conditionalities which include:

1.   Trade liberalization
2.   Debt servicing
3.   Establishment of a foreign exchange market to determine the current value of the recipient's currency.
4.   Privatization of government parastatals and corporations.
5.   Rationalization of tariffs and excise duties
6.   Removal of subsidies.

1.6   Summary

In this unit, we have been able to describe the purpose and function of the World Bank amongst others. Its mission is to end extreme poverty, by reducing the share of the global population that lives in extreme poverty to 3percent and it seeks to promote shared prosperity, by increasing the income of the poorest 40 percent of the people in every country.

Despite the many functions of the WorldBank, the primary function of the bank is to provide financing, advice, and research to developing nations to aid their economic advancement. The bank predominantly acts as an organization that attempts to fight poverty by offering developmental assistance to middle- and low-income countries.

1.7   References/ Further Reading/Web Resource

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 1.8   Possible answer to self-assessment exercise (s) within the content

Self-Assessment exercise 1

Define and describe the World Bank

Answer

The World Bank was created at the 1944 Bretton Woods Conference, along with the International Monetary Fund (IMF). The president of the World Bank is traditionally an American. The World Bank and the IMF are both based in Washington, D.C., and work closely with each other. Although many countries were represented at the Bretton Woods Conference, the United States and the United Kingdom were the most powerful in attendance and dominated the negotiations. (Goldman,2005). The intention behind the founding of the World Bank was to provide temporary loans to low-income countries that could not obtain loans commercially. The Bank may also make loans and demand policy reforms from recipients (Clemens, 2016).

World Bank was established to ensure the reconstruction of the European state immediately after the devastating effects of the Second World War. Its current membership is over 150 member nations. The Articles of Agreement were formally accepted by a majority of the participants on December 27, 1945. Only countries that are members of the International Monetary Fund (IMF) can be considered for membership in the World Bank. Based on each country's relative economic strength, subscriptions by member countries to the capital stock of the World Bank are related to each member's quota in the IMF. In its early years, the Bank made a slow start for two reasons: it was underfunded, and there were leadership struggles between the US Executive Director and the president of the organization. When the Marshall Plan went into effect in 1947, many European countries began receiving aid from other sources. Faced with this competition, the World Bank shifted its focus to non-European countries. Until 1968, its loans were earmarked for the construction of infrastructure works, such as seaports, highway systems, and power plants,that would generate enough income to enable a borrower country to repay the loan (Rotberg, 1994).

The first country to receive a World Bank loan was France. The Bank's president at the time, John McCloy, chose France over two other

applicants, Poland and Chile. The loan was for US$250 million, half the amount requested and came with strict conditions (Bird,1992).

What is the World Bank (Definition) The World Bank is an international organization dedicated to providing financing, advice, and research to developing nations to aid their economic advancement. The bank predominantly acts as an organization that attempts to fight poverty by offering developmental assistance to middle- and low-income countries. World Bank Group is the world's most prominent development bank, with a stated mandate and mission to reduce world poverty.

Self-assessment exercise 2

List three institutions that make up the World Bank.

Answer

World Bank is owned and directed by its member countries. Each country subscribes to shares in an amount based on its relative economic strength. Each has 250 votes plus one vote for each share of stock it holds. The World Bank Group is one of the world's largest sources of funding and knowledge for developing countries. Its five institutions share a commitment to reducing poverty, increasing shared prosperity, and promoting sustainable development. The five institutions under the World Bank are:

1.   The International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD).
2.   The International Development Association (IDA)
3.   The International Finance Corporation (IFC)
4.   The Multilateral Investment Guarantee Agency (MIGA).
5.   The International Centre for Settlement of Investment Disputes (ICSID)

Unit 2   The International Monetary Fund

Unit structure

2.1   Introduction

In this unit, we will describe the purpose and functions of the International Monetary Fund. This is very similar to the of the World Bank as these institutions were created at almost the same time. We will also investigate the history of how the IMF was created, how it lends to member states, amongst others

2.2   Learning Outcome

At the end of this unit, you will be able to:

• Understand the purpose of the International Monetary Fund.
• Understand the history and emergence of the International Monetary Fund.
• Understand the functions of the International Monetary Fund.

2.3   The International Monetary Fund

2.3.1 History and Emergence of the International Monetary Fund

The IMF was created in 1945 as part of the Bretton Woods Agreement, which attempted to encourage international financial cooperation by introducing a system of convertible currencies at fixed exchange rates.

The dollar was redeemable for gold at $35 per ounce at the time. (FRH,2020). The IMF oversaw the system: for example, a country was free to readjust its exchange rate by up to 10% in either direction, but larger changes required the IMF's permission (IMF,2020).

The IMF also acted as a gatekeeper: Countries were not eligible for membership in the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD)—a World Bank forerunner that the Bretton Woods agreement created to fund the reconstruction of Europe after World War II—unless they were members of the IMF (FRH,2020). Since the Bretton Woods system collapsed in the 1970s, the IMF has promoted the system of floating exchange rates, meaning that market forces determine the value of currencies relative to one another. This system continues to be in place today (IMF,2020).

What is the International Monetary Fund (Definition) International Monetary Fund (IMF): An intergovernmental organization (IGO) that coordinates international currency exchange, the balance of international payments, and national accounts. Along with the World Bank, it is a pillar of the international financial system. Similarly, IMF can be described as an international organization that promotes global economic growth and financial stability, encourages international trade, and reduces poverty. Quotas of member countries are a key determinant of the voting power in IMF decisions. Votes comprise one vote per 100,000 special drawing right (SDRs) of quota plus basic votes. SDRs are an international type of monetary reserve currency created by the IMF as a supplement to the existing money reserves of member countries (World Bank,2020).

2.3.2 Purpose of the International Monetary Fund.

The International Monetary Fund (IMF) is based in Washington, D.C. The organization is currently composed of 189 member countries, each of which has representation on the IMF's executive board in proportion to its financial importance. Quotas are a key determinant of the voting power in IMF decisions (IMF, 2020).

The IMF's mission is "to foster global monetary cooperation, secure financial stability, facilitate international trade, promote high employment and sustainable economic growth, and reduce poverty around the world (World Bank, 2020).

2.3.3 Functions of the International Monetary Fund.

The IMF's main methods for achieving these goals are monitoring capacity building and lending. The primary function of the IMF is to

make loans to countries that are experiencing economic distress to prevent or mitigate financial crises. The following are more specific functions of the International Monetary Fund:

Surveillance

The IMF collects massive amounts of data on national economies, international trade, and the global economy in aggregate. The organization also provides regularly updated economic forecasts at the national and international levels. These forecasts, published in the World Economic Outlook, are accompanied by lengthy discussions on the effect of fiscal, monetary, and trade policies on growth prospects and financial stability.

Capacity Building

The IMF provides technical assistance, training, and policy advice to member countries through its capacity-building programs. These programs include training in data collection and analysis, which feed into the IMF's project of monitoring national and global economies.

Lending

The IMF makes loans to countries that are experiencing economic distress to prevent or mitigate financial crises. Members contribute the funds for this lending to a pool based on a quota system. In 2019, loan resources in the amount of SDR 11.4 billion (SDR 0.4 billion above target) were secured to support the IMF's concessional lending activities into the next decade (IMF, 2020).

Structural adjustment p rograms

IMF funds are often conditional on recipients making reforms to increase their growth potential and financial stability. Structural adjustment programs, as these conditional loans are known, have attracted criticism for exacerbating poverty and reproducing the colonialist structures

2.4   Lending criteria of the International Monetary Fund.

World Bank criteria for borrowing are a replica of IMF conditionalities which include:

- Trade liberalization
- Debt servicing

- Establishment of a foreign exchange market to determine the current value of the recipient's currency.
- Privatization of government parastatals and corporations.
- Rationalization of tariffs and excise duties
- Removal of subsidies.

2.5   Summary

In this unit, we have been able to describe the purpose and function of the IMF as an international financial institution, headquartered in Washington, D.C., consisting of 190 countries. Working to foster global monetary cooperation, secure financial stability, facilitate international trade, promote high employment and sustainable economic growth, and reduce poverty around the world.

Despite the many functions of the International Monetary Fund which is quite similar to that of the WorldBank, the primary purpose is to advise countries on how to maintain stable exchange rates in a world of floating rates and provide emergency lending when capital is fleeing the country so quickly and in such large quantities that it threatens financial and social stability.

2.6   References/ Further Reading/Web Resource

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 2.7   Possible answer to self-assessment exercise (s) within the content

Define and describe the International Monetary Fund

Self-assessment exercise

Answer

The IMF was created in 1945 as part of the Bretton Woods Agreement, which attempted to encourage international financial cooperation by introducing a system of convertible currencies at fixed exchange rates. The dollar was redeemable for gold at $35 per ounce at the time. (FRH,2020). The IMF oversaw the system: for example, a country was free to readjust its exchange rate by up to 10% in either direction, but larger changes required the IMF's permission (IMF, 2020).

The IMF also acted as a gatekeeper: Countries were not eligible for membership in the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD)—a World Bank forerunner that the Bretton Woods agreement created to fund the reconstruction of Europe after World War II—unless they were members of the IMF (FRH,2020). Since the Bretton Woods system collapsed in the 1970s, the IMF has promoted the system of floating exchange rates, meaning that market forces determine the value of currencies relative to one another. This system continues to be in place today (IMF,2020).

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Self-assessment exercise 2

List three functions of the International Monetary Fund.

Answer

The IMF's main methods for achieving these goals are monitoring capacity building and lending. The primary function of the IMF is to make loans to countries that are experiencing economic distress to prevent or mitigate financial crises. The following are more specific functions of the International Monetary Fund:

Surveillance

The IMF collects massive amounts of data on national economies, international trade, and the global economy in aggregate. The organization also provides regularly updated economic forecasts at the national and international levels. These forecasts, published in the World Economic Outlook, are accompanied by lengthy discussions on the effect of fiscal, monetary, and trade policies on growth prospects and financial stability.

Capacity Building

The IMF provides technical assistance, training, and policy advice to member countries through its capacity-building programs. These programs include training in data collection and analysis, which feed into the IMF's project of monitoring national and global economies.

Lending

The IMF makes loans to countries that are experiencing economic distress to prevent or mitigate financial crises. Members contribute the funds for this lending to a pool based on a quota system. In 2019, loan resources in the amount of SDR 11.4 billion (SDR 0.4 billion above target) were secured to support the IMF's concessional lending activities into the next decade (IMF, 2020).

Unit3   The World Trade Organization

Unit structure

3.1   Introduction
3.2   Learning Outcome
3.3   Main Content
        3.3.1   History and Emergence of the World Trade Organization.
        3.3.2   Purpose of the World Trade Organization.
3.4   Functions of the World Trade Organization.
        3.4.1   Principles of International Trading System.
3.5   Summary
3.6   References/ Further Readings
3.7   Possible answer to self-assessment exercise (s) within the content

 3.1   Introduction

In this unit, we will describe the purpose and functions of the World Trade Organization (WTO). WTO has a very distinct function from the WorldBank, and the International Monetary Fund thought they are similar oversight and were created about the same time.

We will also investigate the history of how the WTO was created, how it serves the member states, amongst others.

3.2   Learning Outcome

By the end of this unit, you will be able to:

•   Understand the purpose of the World Trade Organization.
•   Understand the history and emergence of the World Trade Organizations.
•   Understand the functions of the World Trade Organization.
•   Understand the Principles Guiding International Trade.

3.3   Main Content

3.3.1 History and Emergence of the World Trade Organization.

The WTO precursor General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) was established by a multilateral treaty of 23 countries in 1947 after World War II in the wake of other new multilateral institutions dedicated to international economic cooperation—such as the World Bank (founded 1944) and the International Monetary Fund (founded 1944 or 1945). A comparable international institution for trade, named the International Trade Organization never started as the U.S. and other signatories did not ratify the establishment treaty (Fergusson, 2007).

The WTO is an intergovernmental organization that regulates and facilitates international trade between nations (Oatley, 2019). Governments use the organization to establish, revise, and enforce the rules that govern international trade (Oatley, 2019). It officially commenced operations on 1 January 1995, according to the 1994 Marrakesh Agreement, thus replacing the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) that had been established in 1948. The WTO is the world's largest international economic organization, with 164 member states representing over 98% of global trade and global GDP (Malanczuk,1999).

What is the World Trade Organization (Definition) The World Trade Organization (WTO) is "the only global international organization dealing with the rules of trade between nations." (Malanczuk,1999). The WTO's efforts centre on developing trade agreements between nations to encourage cross-border commerce. This includes setting up the agreements, interpreting the agreements, and facilitating dispute settlement (Tomz, 2007).

It was founded in 1995, the WTO traces its roots back to Bretton Woods where the General Agreement on Trade and Tariffs (GATT) was crafted to encourage and support trade between nations. Following up on GATT, the 1986-1994 Uruguay Roundtable trade negotiations resulted in the formal creation of the WTO (Malanczuk,1999). The WTO headquarters is located in Geneva, Switzerland. Like the IMF and the World Bank, the WTO is funded by its members.

3.3.2 Purpose of the World Trade Organization.

The WTO facilitates trade in goods, services, and intellectual property among participating countries by providing a framework for negotiating

trade agreements, which usually aim to reduce or eliminate tariffs, quotas, and other restrictions; these agreements are signed by representatives of member governments and ratified by their legislatures (Tomz, 2007). The WTO also administers independent dispute resolution for enforcing participants' adherence to trade agreements and resolving trade-related disputes. The organization prohibits discrimination between trading partners but provides exceptions for environmental protection, national security, and other important goals (Fergusson, 2007).

3.4   Functions of the World Trade Organization.

The WTO has specific and distinct functions. The primary function of the WTO is to ensure that trade flows as smoothly, predictably, and freely as possible. WTO has helped to create a strong and prosperous trading system contributing to unprecedented growth. The following are more specific functions of the World Trade Organization

Multilateral Trade Agreements

The WTO facilitates the implementation, administration, and operation of the Multilateral Trade Agreements, and provides the framework for the implementation, administration, and operation of the multilateral Trade Agreements.

Settlement of Disputes

The WTO administers the Understanding on Rules and Procedures Governing the Settlement of Disputes, especially international trade disputes and sundries.

Forum for negotiations

The WTO provides the forum for negotiations among its members concerning their multilateral trade relations in matters dealt with under the Agreement.

Trade Policy Review Mechanism

The WTO administers the Trade Policy Review Mechanism.

3.4.1 Principles of International Trading System.

The WTO establishes a framework for trade policies, but it does not define or specify outcomes. Five principles are of particular importance in understanding how international

Trade should be conducted, they are:

1.   Non-discrimination.
2.   Reciprocity.
3.   Binding and enforceable commitments.
4.   Transparency.
5.   Safety values

3.5   Summary

It is important to mention as we conclude that Ngozi Okonjo-Iweala of Nigeria is the organization's seventh Director-General, she took office on 1 March 2021. Dr. Okonjo Iweala becomes the first woman and the first African to be chosen as Director-General. Her term, renewable, will expire on 31 August 2025.

In this unit, we have been able to describe the purpose and function of the WTO, including the principles guiding international trade. As a way of reminder, WTO is the only international organization dealing with the global rules of trade between nations as an international financial institution.

3.6   References/ Further Reading/web Resources

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3.7   Possible answer to self-assessment exercise (s) within the content

Self-assessment exercise 1

Define and describe the World Trade Organization

Answer

The WTO precursor General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) was established by a multilateral treaty of 23 countries in 1947 after World War II in the wake of other new multilateral institutions dedicated to international economic cooperation—such as the World Bank (founded 1944) and the International Monetary Fund (founded 1944 or 1945). A comparable international institution for trade, named the International Trade Organization never started as the U.S. and other signatories did not ratify the establishment treaty (Fergusson, 2007).

The WTO is an intergovernmental organization that regulates and facilitates international trade between nations (Oatley, 2019). Governments use the organization to establish, revise, and enforce the rules that govern international trade (Oatley, 2019). It officially commenced operations on 1 January 1995, according to the 1994 Marrakesh Agreement, thus replacing the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) that had been established in 1948. The WTO is the world's largest international economic organization, with 164 member states representing over 98% of global trade and global GDP (Malanczuk,1999).

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Self-assessment exercise 2

List and describe three functions of the World Trade Organization.

Answer

The WTO has specific and distinct functions. The primary function of the WTO is to ensure that trade flows as smoothly, predictably, and freely as possible. WTO has helped to create a strong and prosperous trading system contributing to unprecedented growth. The following are more specific functions of the World Trade Organization

Multilateral Trade Agreements

The WTO facilitates the implementation, administration, and operation of the Multilateral Trade Agreements, and provides the framework for the implementation, administration, and operation of the multilateral Trade Agreements.

Settlement of Disputes

The WTO administers the Understanding on Rules and Procedures Governing the Settlement of Disputes, especially international trade disputes and sundries.

Forum for negotiations

The WTO provides the forum for negotiations among its members concerning their multilateral trade relations in matters dealt with under the Agreement.

Trade Policy Review Mechanism

The WTO administers the Trade Policy Review Mechanism.

Unit4   African Development Bank (ADB)

Unit structure

4.1   Introduction
4.2   Learning Outcome
4.3   History and Emergence of the African Development Bank.
        4.3.1   Purpose of the Africa Development Bank.
        4.3.2 Functions of the Africa Development Bank.
4.4   Membership of the African Development Bank.
4.5   Summary
4.6   References/ Further Readings
4.7   Possible answer to self-assessment exercise (s) within the content

4.1   Introduction

In this unit, we will describe the purpose and functions of the Africa Development Bank (ADB). ADB is a multilateral development finance institution, unlike the World Bank et al, which are international; however, it does have some similar roles. We will explore in detail the history, purpose, and functions of the ADB, amongst others.

4.2   Learning Outcome

At the end of this unit, you will be able to:

- Understand the purpose of the African Development Bank. ☐ Understand the history and emergence of the African Development Bank.
- Understand the functions of the African Development Bank.
- Understand the Principles Guiding International Trade.

4.3   History and Emergence of the African Development Bank.

Following the end of the colonial period in Africa, a growing desire for more unity within the continent led to the establishment of two draft charters, one for the establishment of the Organization of African Unity (established in 1963, later replaced by the African Union), and for a regional development bank.

A draft accord was submitted to top African officials than to the Conference of Finance Ministers on the Establishment of an African Development Bank. This conference was convened by the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (UNECA) in Khartoum, Sudan, from 31 July to 4 August. It was here that the agreement establishing the African Development Bank (AfDB) was co-signed by twenty-three African governments on 4 August 1963. The agreement came into force on 10 September 1964 (United Nations, 1963).

Although, originally, only African countries were able to join the bank, since 1982 it has allowed the entry of non-African countries as well. Since its founding, AfDB has financed 2,885 operations, for a total of $47.5 billion. In 2003, it received an AAA rating from the major financial rating agencies and had a capital of $32.043 billion (ADB, 2005).

What is the African Development Bank (Definition) The African Development Bank Group (AfDB or ADB) or Banque Africaine de Développement (BAD) is a multilateral development finance institution headquartered in Abidjan, Ivory Coast, since September 2014. The AfDB is a financial provider to African governments and private companies investing in the regional member countries (RMC).

The AfDB was founded in 1964 by the Organisation of African Unity, which is the predecessor of the African Union. The AfDB comprises three entities: The African Development Bank, the African Development Fund, and the Nigeria Trust Fund (Kenton, 2020).

4.3.1 Purpose of the Africa Development Bank.

The AfDB's mission is to fight poverty and improve living conditions on the continent through promoting the investment of public and private capital in projects and programs that are likely to contribute to the economic and social development of the region (ADB, 2005).

4.4 Functions of the Africa Development Bank.

The primary function of AfDB is making loans and equity investments for the socio economic advancement of the RMC. Second, the bank provides technical assistance for development projects and programs. Third, it promotes the investment of public and private capital for development. Fourth, the bank assists in organizing the development policies of RMCs.

The AfDB is also required to give special attention to national and multinational projects which are needed to promote regional integration

(Mutiu, 2019). The following are more specific functions of the African Development Bank:

Function Description of the Functions ADB

1. **Capacity building.**
    Institutional capacity building through the assistance of policy/strategy formulation and implementation
2. **Human Capital Development**
    Human capital development to create an environment for the operation of national AIDS strategies through training and technical assistance support
3. **HIV/AIDS multi-sectoral response**
    HIV/AIDS multi-sectoral responses with emphasis on prevention and control interventions that include IEC (Information, Education, and Communication), STI (sexually transmitted infections) control, VCT (voluntary counselling and testing), infrastructure support for the establishment of laboratories, and blood transfusion facilities, and provision of equipment and supplies, including antiretroviral drugs
4. **Advocacy**
    Advocacy through participation in international and regional forums to raise political commitment and leadership towards a collaborative effort in the fight against the pandemic among RMCs and development partners.
5. **Partnership**
    Partnership development with a view of forging new alliances and revitalizing existing collaboration to cover critical development concerns such as HIV/AIDS and to bringing partnership activities within the framework of the bank's vision.
    (Adapted from ADB mission website)

4.4.1 Membership of the African Development Bank.

The Bank Group has 80 member countries, comprising 54 regional member countries (RMC) and 26 non-regional member countries (NRMC). The non-regional member countries are primarily from Europe, America, and Asia. Initially, only independent African countries could become members of the Bank.

4.5   Summary

It is important to mention as we conclude with the information that Dr. Akinwunmi a Nigerian is the 8th elected President of the African Development Bank Group, having taken the oath of office on September 1, 2015. He chairs the Boards of both the African Development Bank and the African Development Fund. Dr. Adesina served as Nigeria's Minister of Agriculture and Rural Development from 2011 to 2015 (Nafissatou, 2020).   In this unit, we have been able to describe the purpose and function of the ADB including the principles guiding international trade. As a way of reminder, the overarching objective of ADB is to spur sustainable economic development and social progress in its regional member countries, thus contributing to poverty reduction. The Banks achieves its objective by mobilizing and allocating resources for investment in regional member countries and providing policy advice and technical assistance to support development efforts.

4.6   References/ Further Reading/Web Resource

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          Group". African Development Group. Retrieved October 4, 2020.

4.7 Possible answer to self-assessment exercise (s) within the content

Self-assessment exercise 1

Define and describe the African Development Bank

Answer

The African Development Bank Group (AfDB or ADB) or Banque Africaine de Développement (BAD) is a multilateral development finance institution headquartered in Abidjan, Ivory Coast, since September 2014. The AfDB is a financial provider to African governments and private companies investing in the regional member countries (RMC).

The AfDB was founded in 1964 by the Organisation of African Unity, which is the predecessor of the African Union. The AfDB comprises three entities: The African Development Bank, the African Development Fund, and the Nigeria Trust Fund (Kenton, 2020).

Self-Assessment Exercise 2

List and describe three functions of African Development Bank

Answer

The primary function of AfDB is making loans and equity investments for the socio economic advancement of the RMC. Second, the bank provides technical assistance for development projects and programs. Third, it promotes the investment of public and private capital for development. Fourth, the bank assists in organizing the development policies of RMCs.
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The AfDB is also required to give special attention to national and multinational projects which are needed to promote regional integration (Mutiu, 2019). The following are more specific functions of the African Development Bank:

1.   Capacity building.

Institutional capacity building through the assistance of policy/strategy formulation and implementation

2.   Human Capital Development

Human capital development to create an environment for the operation of national AIDS strategies through training and technical assistance support

3.   HIV/AIDS multi-sectoral response

HIV/AIDS multi-sectoral responses with emphasis on prevention and control interventions that include IEC (Information, Education, and Communication), STI (sexually transmitted infections) control, VCT (voluntary counselling and testing), infrastructure support for the establishment of laboratories, and blood transfusion facilities, and provision of equipment and supplies, including antiretroviral drugs

4.   Advocacy

Advocacy through participation in international and regional forums to raise political commitment and leadership towards a collaborative effort in the fight against the pandemic among RMCs and development partners.

5.   Partnership

Partnership development with a view of forging new alliances and revitalizing existing collaboration to cover critical development concerns such as HIV/AIDS and to bringing partnership activities within the framework of the bank's vision. (Adapted from ADB mission website)

MODULE 3   GLOBALIZATION, THIRD WORLD DEVELOPMENT AND INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

Unit 1   Meaning of Globalization in Development
Unit 2   Globalization– Analysis from Development and Political Economy Perspectives
Unit 3   The Effects Of Globalization On Third World Countries' Development

Unit 1   Meaning of Globalization in Development

1.1   Introduction
1.2   Learning Outcomes
1.3.   Main Content
           1.3.1   Globalization- Meaning and Definitions
           1.3.2   The meaning and definitions of globalization
           1.3.3   Scholarly definition of Globalization
           1.3.4   Forces of Globalization
1.4   The Emergence of Globalization in development
1.5   Summary
1.6   References/Further Reading/Web Resources
1.7   Possible answer to self-assessment exercise (s) within the content

 1.1   Introduction

This unit introduces you to the background knowledge of globalization, meaning of globalization, the emergence and trends of globalization and the impact globalization has on international communities especially the third world nations. The unit discusses how globalization structures the relationships in the international affairs and controls all connections and interrelationship in trade, telecommunication, market, governance and sustainability of nations in the world. The unit is expected to give you an understanding of the grounded meaning on the concepts of globalization in development, establish a link between globalization and international development, and teach you how and why the topic of globalization is rationally relevant in discussing international development issues.

 1.2   Learning Outcomes

By the end of this unit, you should be able to:

•   Define the meaning of globalization and development

- Understand the specific theories of globalization and development
- Explain the hegemonic primacy of globalization on international governance affairs, trade, economic, cultural and development trends
- Critique the importance and challenges of globalization on development

1.3. Globalization in Development

1.3.1 Globalization- Meaning and Definitions

Despite the common usage or express usage of the term globalization, the meaning of globalization still remains so elusive and has defied any common meaning among scholars. Indeed, to say the least, the concept has received quite a number of definitions that have almost taken away the main content. It has been the subject of most development debate and contests among scholars which indicate that there are at least some general schools of thought on the issue. A provisional examination of those using the term would suggest such a claim to be preliminary. The substance of its definition appears just as vague, rarely reaching beyond a laundry-list of subjects. In fact, there is not only disagreement on the definition of globalization; there is also no clear consensus on whether the term 'globalization' is employed as a historical epoch, a process, a theory, or as a new paradigm. But we are obliged to have a consensual meaning since this is a course and students must have a contextual understanding of a concept. What then is globalization, one would ask? We may get a grasp of the meaning of this age long contestable concept by looking at some of the scholarly contributions and then come down to a simpler contextual meaning, which we can abide with in this course.

1.3.2 Scholarly definition of Globalization

Scholte (1995) states that "Globalization stands out for quite a large public spread across the world as one of the defining terms of the late twentieth century social consciousness that drastically changed world affairs including trade relations, governments, communication, technology and culture " To this scholar, globalization is mostly attributed to a political movement that swept through the world in the later twentieth century and in a big way has changed the world system, including world relations, trade, social relations, fashion, media, technology and the art of communication.

Rosenau (1996) recognized the complexity of the term, and didn't want to accept the ontology that globalization has a universal or humanistic

tendency, he rather stated that "Globalization is not the same as globalism, which points to aspirations for an end state of affairs wherein values are shared by or pertinent to all the world's six billion people, their environment, their roles as citizens, consumers or producers with an interest in collective action designed to solve common problems. Nor is it universalism—values which embrace all humanity, hypothetically or actually." For him, globalization is basically a political and capitalistic orientated ideology that engender a peculiar global world hegemonic order that strengthen global inequality and dependency or interdependency which may favor or disfavor the much smaller nations. McGrew (1990) defined it as: "Multiplicity of linkages and interconnections that transcend the nation states (and by implication the societies) which make up the modern world system. It defines a process through which events, decisions and activities in one part of the world can come to have a significant consequence for individuals and communities in quite distant parts of the globe." This definition descended much lower to include the impact of globalization systems on communities and individuals in the world countries, showing the relative consequences of the over zealousness of globalization and modernization on the human species. It shows that globalization, modernization, and also massive industrialization and technology enveloping the much-advanced countries, are the same.

Cerny (1997) from a political economy perspective noted that "globalization redefines the relationship between territoriality and authority, shifting authority from the level of the state to supranational and subnational units, perhaps offering more to grasp onto in operational terms but precious little in causal terms" He further defined it "as a set of economic and political structures and processes deriving from the changing character of the goods and assets that comprise the base of the international political economy—in particular, the increasing structural differentiation of those goods and assets."

In many other writings, the assumption is that through globalization processes more nations are depending on worldwide conditions in terms of communication, the international financial system, and trade. Therefore, the world scenario is more integrated in international economic transactions (Scholte, 1995). This perspective is the standing point of theories of development such as dependency theory. Effects and influences from these globalization processes can be viewed from two major perspectives: (a) countries´ external level -or systemic approach-; and (b) domestic or internal conditions within nations -sub-systemic approach. In this last-mentioned case, the units of analysis will be those corresponding to national variables of economic growth, or social indicators.

1.3.3 Forces of Globalization

Globalization tendencies have been determined by many factors. The concept is underpinned by the dichotomy of time and space and how the change occurring from its processes affect modern world today (Green, 1997). Money, international communication and trade, intercultural relations, environmental issues, and global security and democracy are socioeconomic, political and cultural aspects globalization theory deals with (Held, 2004 a).

Economic Forces

Economic factors are often listed first and as Green (1999, p.56) argues "economic globalization theory is the safest ground in the definition of globalization". Trade and exchange of goods and services between the nations promote 'interconnected global economy. However, it is a mistake to assume that only economic issues, though extremely important, determine the nature of globalization. Another factor is technology.

Technology as a force of globalization

Technological development has made transnational connection easily accessible. The transmission of the first message by electric telegraph in the nineteenth century by Samuel Morse gave start to a new world history. Open and easy communication between nations has created grounds for 'cultural homogenization' developing 'a single global society' (Waks, 2006, p.413). This interconnectedness has caused re-norming and re-shaping political agendas of states across the world as they have to respond to 'global politics' (Held, 2004)

Political forces

The contemporary global events of globalization are said to have further decreased states' sovereignty within their boundaries as they are surrounded by the pressure from multi-national corporations and international capital organizations (Deacon, 2007), joining to international organizations and also effects social welfare policies of governments.

Because states accept to waive its rights to speak on internal economic affairs. Those states which are dominated by financial sectors start to accept the pressures on decreasing the social welfare expenditures (Deacon, 2007). In the past and present, global political events always carry local and regional characters affecting sovereignty of state and leading to massive inequality in global governance. This has affected

growth of many underdeveloped countries and leading to massive exploitation by advanced nations of the third world countries.

As national governments become more open to the world international community organizations (e.g., UN, WHO, etc.) and world trade institutions (e.g., IMF, WTO etc.), the external factors are gaining more power in shaping the state's social policy. Since globalization is found on the principle of higher profit, the level of vulnerability a nation's welfare policies faces depends upon the state's protection against adverse effects of globalization. Formerly welfare policies were formed by taking the domestic situations into account, but in the "modern" era, it is planned in such a way that it will interfere with growth and sovereignty of the smaller states (Shah, 2008).

Hence, from the above debates, globalization can be said to be underpinned by political, economic, technological factors.

1.4   The Emergence of Globalization in development

There are different views about the emergence of globalization, what is sure is that globalization is a historical process and did not come as a sudden event in the world history.

The first account of the emergence of globalization suggests that globalization began in the midst of 1970s briefly overlapping the end of the cold war. This version suggests that globalization began with two phenomena simultaneously. The first was the introduction of the détente between United states and Soviet Union, the second resulting from the breakdown of the social contract philosophy movement in Britain and throughout the industrial countries. The social contract ideology was replaced with a more compounded value which linked among other things social welfarism and dominant mass production system. This new ideology disowned fiscal policy as a useful instrument of policy; and, ultimately, it reasserts the importance of individualism, liberal spirit and reorganization of the social welfare system including initiatives to support the poorer nations and activate needed development in the third world, while recognizing the enforcement of international institutions that will manage and sustain this agenda and restrict any opposition that may change the existing statusquo.

Globalization is not only regarded as a result of the cold war aftermaths, but also derived from the expansion of technology and market economy. This claim suggests that globalization is an outcome of advanced technological expansion and capitalist progress in the west especially as harnessed by the US (Goldschmitt, 2008). In this second account, globalization emerged with the advancement of communication

technologies and the increase in economic productivity (capitalism) which necessitate states' expansion of their market territory. The decline in protective social policies, the increase in the incentives for foreign trade and the convergence of free market economy, are all in line with these "perceived" global necessities. This version suggests that increase in the vulnerability to external fluctuations by poorer countries, shrinkage in the stability of domestic economies, decline in domestic policy autonomy, and restructuring of governance were all accompanied by globalization.

The rise of globalization also overlaps with the acts of free trade of goods and finances and the international evolvement of neo liberal programs and agendas. In this new frame, states have become an agent which regulates the economic structure according to the wills of the owners of capital and international coordination mechanism. Developing countries or those which are at the lower end of the global hierarchy within the international "coordination" mechanisms suffered more. Developed countries attempt to mend incentives to increase their profits, in order to attract capital inflow into their markets. In such a competition, developing countries generally sacrifice their social responsibilities to meet global challenges. Formerly, states have been allowed to implement national social policies without preoccupation of the external impositions, but the rise of globalization turns this anterior equilibrium upside down.

1.5   Summary

In this unit we have understood what globalization means and its contents in development discourse. The unit explained the forces of globalization and how these forces combine to influence the effects (whether negative or positive) of globalization on the world countries.
We also saw in the unit the emergence of globalization which gives us further understanding about the contextual agendas of globalization, especially with regards to international organizations that utilize the hegemony of this ideology to consolidate their exploitative agenda in the third world, and how globalization have rendered the third world countries further vulnerable to exploitations by more advanced countries in the west.

Globalization is indeed a global force to reckon with in development. The knowledge of its contextual meaning as developed in this unit will help students to understand the global political issue surrounding it, as well as the economic, neo imperialist and capitalist agendas that drive it, and how these factors combine to show perhaps the negative effects of

globalizations especially with regards to the third world development. This unit was able to give a background perspective on the issues that filtrate the debates about globalization effects and its impact on third world countries in development discourse.

1.6   References/Further Reading/Web Resource

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1.7   Possible answer to self-assessment exercise (s) within the content

Self-assessment exercise 1

Define Globalization from one of the scholarly perspectives?

Answer

Scholte (1995) states that "Globalization stands out for quite a large public spread across the world as one of the defining terms of the late twentieth century social consciousness that drastically changed world affairs including trade relations, governments, communication, technology and culture " To this scholar, globalization is mostly attributed to a political movement that swept through the world in the later twentieth century and in a big way has changed the world system, including world relations, trade, social relations, fashion, media, technology and the art of communication.

Rosenau (1996) recognized the complexity of the term, and didn't want to accept the ontology that globalization has a universal or humanistic tendency, he rather stated that "Globalization is not the same as globalism, which points to aspirations for an end state of affairs wherein values are shared by or pertinent to all the world's six billion people, their environment, their roles as citizens, consumers or producers with an interest in collective action designed to solve common problems. Nor is it universalism—values which embrace all humanity, hypothetically or actually." For him, globalization is basically a political and capitalistic orientated ideology that engender a peculiar global world hegemonic order that strengthen global inequality and dependency or interdependency which may favor or disfavor the much smaller nations.
McGrew (1990) defined it as: "Multiplicity of linkages and interconnections that transcend the nation states (and by implication the societies) which make up the modern world system. It defines a process through which events, decisions and activities in one part of the world can come to have a significant consequence for individuals and communities in quite distant parts of the globe." This definition descended much lower to include the impact of globalization systems on communities and individuals in the world countries, showing the relative consequences of the over zealousness of globalization and modernization on the human species. It shows that globalization, modernization, and also massive industrialization and technology enveloping the much-advanced countries, are the same.

Cerny (1997) from a political economy perspective noted that "globalization redefines the relationship between territoriality and authority, shifting authority from the level of the state to supranational and subnational units, perhaps offering more to grasp onto in operational terms but precious little in causal terms" He further defined it "as a set of economic and political structures and processes deriving from the changing character of the goods and assets that comprise the base of the international political economy—in particular, the increasing structural differentiation of those goods and assets."

Self-assessment exercise 2

Explain the account of the emergence of globalization in development discourses

Answer

There are different views about the emergence of globalization, what is sure is that globalization is a historical process and did not come as a sudden event in the world history.

The first account of the emergence of globalization suggests that globalization began in the midst of 1970s briefly overlapping the end of the cold war. This version suggests that globalization began with two phenomena simultaneously. The first was the introduction of the détente between United states and Soviet Union, the second resulting from the breakdown of the social contract philosophy movement in Britain and throughout the industrial countries. The social contract ideology was replaced with a more compounded value which linked among other things social welfarism and dominant mass production system. This new ideology disowned fiscal policy as a useful instrument of policy; and, ultimately, it reasserts the importance of individualism, liberal spirit and reorganization of the social welfare system including initiatives to support the poorer nations and activate needed development in the third world, while recognizing the enforcement of international institutions that will manage and sustain this agenda and restrict any opposition that may change the existing statusquo.

Globalization is not only regarded as a result of the cold war aftermaths, but also derived from the expansion of technology and market economy. This claim suggests that globalization is an outcome of advanced technological expansion and capitalist progress in the west especially as harnessed by the US (Goldschmitt, 2008). In this second account, globalization emerged with the advancement of communication technologies and the increase in economic productivity (capitalism) which necessitate states' expansion of their market territory. The decline

in protective social policies, the increase in the incentives for foreign trade and the convergence of free market economy, are all in line with these "perceived" global necessities. This version suggests that increase in the vulnerability to external fluctuations by poorer countries, shrinkage in the stability of domestic economies, decline in domestic policy autonomy, and restructuring of governance were all accompanied by globalization.

The rise of globalization also overlaps with the acts of free trade of goods and finances and the international evolvement of neo liberal programs and agendas. In this new frame, states have become an agent which regulates the economic structure according to the wills of the owners of capital and international coordination mechanism. Developing countries or those which are at the lower end of the global hierarchy within the international "coordination" mechanisms suffered more. Developed countries attempt to mend incentives to increase their profits, in order to attract capital inflow into their markets. In such a competition, developing countries generally sacrifice their social responsibilities to meet global challenges. Formerly, states have been allowed to implement national social policies without preoccupation of the external impositions, but the rise of globalization turns this anterior equilibrium upside down.

Unit 2   Globalization– Analysis from Development and Political Economy Perspectives

Unit structure

2.1   Introduction
2.2   Learning Outcomes
2.3   Main Content
       2.3.1   Development and Political Economy Analysis of Globalization
       2.3.2   The Contexts of Globalization Theories
       2.3.3   Globalization Explained from Development Theories
2.4   Summary
2.5   References/Further Reading
2.6   Possible answer to self-assessment exercise (s) within the content

2.1   Introduction

This unit further highlights the contexts of globalization in development by looking at the various theories of globalization, the relationship between theories of globalization and development. The unit applies a development and political economy analytical viewpoint to shed light on the effects of globalization on global politics, government, economy, trade relations and its impact on developing and under developed economies.

2.2   Learning Outcomes

By the end of this unit, students will be able to:

- Describe the various theories of globalization and its relationship to development theories
- Understand how the theories of globalization and development explain the underdevelopment challenges facing the third world countries
- Identify and explain the impact of forces of globalization in terms of international politics, economy and cultural diffusions, technology and science and how these forces of globalization condition the development pace in the third world

2.3   Analysis from Development and Political Economy Perspectives

2.3.1 Development and Political Economy Analysis of Globalization Development stand point

From the previous unit we can say that globalization interprets current events in the international sphere in terms of development, economic conditions, social scenarios, and political and cultural influences. When we are considering globalization as a development issue, we can view it from three definite scenarios and increasing trends:

(a)   Worldwide active technological and communication system
(b)   High mobility of financial resources and trade and
(c)   Hegemonic political control of more powerful countries over less powerful countries.

Through the process of globalization, the assumption is that more nations are depending on worldwide conditions in terms of communication, the international financial systems and trade, and poor countries are increasingly relying on financial aids and supports from more advanced and developed countries, making them vulnerable to their control and dominance.

The Political economy stand point

In terms of how the effects of globalization have manifested in current worldwide economic trends, two main topics stand out in international political economy:

(a) The structures of the international economic system
(b) How these structures condition the international relations and politics

From these two perspectives of globalization, we understand that the structure of the global system and the roles that it plays within the international division of trade, economic growth, labour and politics are crucial in understanding a wide array of social, political and economic changes that have affected countries of the world, especially the countries in the third world. An understanding of these two perspectives highlights connections, roles, relationships and variables that are important in analyzing dimensions of relationships in the international community, global governance, development, economic growth and how global forces (inimical to globalization) condition them.

2.3.2   The Contexts of Globalization Theories

The Main assumptions of the theory of globalization can be summarized in three principal points. First, cultural and economic factors are the determining aspect of globalization in the globe. Second, under current global conditions, and when we are studying a particular system for instance, financial or trade sphere, that it is increasingly becoming difficult to use the context of a "nation" as a unit of analysis, since global communications and international ties are making this category less useful, turning the world to small global village, with hegemonically and unequally streamlined political governance and economic system that condition the lesser developed countries to continuously be exploited by the more privileged (under the globalization agenda) countries in the west. Third, with more standardization in technological advances, more and more social sectors will be able to connect themselves with other groups around the world, which implies faster and easier communications and economic transactions. This situation will bring about unequal share and access to resources among world nations, as the more advanced in technology gains more ground to control the means and sources of production, and the capital in-flow, both internally and externally.

2.3.3   Globalization Explained from Development Theories

The analysis of globalization cannot be complete without reference to development theories. Globalization is a very important variable in the statement of theories of development vis-à-vis world system theory, dependency and modernization theories. From a more comparative point of view, the theory of globalization coincides with some elements of the theory of modernization. One aspect is that both theories state that the main direction of development should be that which was undertaken by the United States and Europe.

These schools hold that the main patterns of communication and the tools to achieve better standards of living originated from the more developed countries, and that this conditions development as modernity and civility measured by the level of technological, scientific and ideological advancement.

The globalization and world-systems theories, and to some extent, the dependency approach, take into account the most recent economic changes in world structure and relations that have occurred leading to increasing dependency of third world countries on developed countries. The growing poverty in developing world, the enforcement of westernized democratic ideologies on third world countries, the channeling of more humanitarian aid (which are still billed to these

nations to pay back) to poor countries as so called succor to alleviate poverty and deprivations in these poor countries, all combined to create a continuous dependency of the third world on the more advanced countries of the world. The world system and dependency theory both refutes modernization theory for grounding modernity as condition for more privileges that have been channeled towards the advanced nations at the expense of the lesser developed countries (LDCs).

Moreover, the close linkage between globalization and modernity in principles and ideology have compelled the dependency and world system theorists to label globalization as the new world order that aggravate the challenges of over dependency and reliance of LDCs on the advanced nations, with its attending consequences of poverty, economic instability, lack and political devastations. Globalization with its accompanying forces (economic and trade system, cultural diffusion, technology, democratic agenda of neoliberal forces, and modernity) created more inequality and poverty gaps that nations of the third world continue to battle with

2.4   Summary

The unit was able to shed light on the contexts of globalization theory. It showed the link between development theory and globalization and the undelaying debate in these theories that lay emphasis on the impact of globalization on the development of world economies and nations. The political and development analysis of globalization theories was able to delineate 3 factors that consolidates globalization process which include – technology, economy and political hegemony of the advanced country as the main issues that pilot and propagate globalization ideology and its impact in the world.

It is not an over statement to say that globalization has caused drastic change in world sociocultural, political, economic and technological spheres. Globalization scholars argue that modern elements for development interpretation are the technological, political, cultural and economic links among nations. Among these, the most important factor is the increasing flexibility of technology to connect people around the world. Global communications systems are gaining an increasing importance every day. Though these processes have launched countries to more advancement in development - culturally, technologically, scientifically or even economically, creating more liberal freedom of association and human rights recognition, we can't afford to forget that the same globalization forces are increasingly dividing the world

countries along trade, labour and power inequities that is negatively affecting most of the third world economies.

2.5   References/Further Reading/Web Resource

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2.6   Possible answer to self-assessment exercise (s) within the content

Self-assessment exercise 1

What do you understand about the development analysis of globalization?

Answer

From the previous unit we can say that globalization interprets current events in the international sphere in terms of development, economic conditions, social scenarios, and political and cultural influences. When we are considering globalization as a development issue, we can view it from three definite scenarios and increasing trends:

(a)   Worldwide active technological and communication system
(b)   High mobility of financial resources and trade and
(c)   Hegemonic political control of more powerful countries over less powerful countries.

Through the process of globalization, the assumption is that more nations are depending on worldwide conditions in terms of communication, the international financial systems and trade, and poor countries are increasingly relying on financial aids and supports from more advanced and developed countries, making them vulnerable to their control and dominance.

The Political economy stands point

In terms of how the effects of globalization have manifested in current worldwide economic trends, two main topics stand out in international political economy:

(a)   The structures of the international economic system
(b)   How these structures condition the international relations and politics

From these two perspectives of globalization, we understand that the structure of the global system and the roles that it plays within the international division of trade, economic growth, labour and politics are crucial in understanding a wide array of social, political and economic changes that have affected countries of the world, especially the countries in the third world. An understanding of these two perspectives

highlights connections, roles, relationships and variables that are important in analyzing dimensions of relationships in the international community, global governance, development, economic growth and how global forces (inimical to globalization) condition them.

Self-assessment exercise 2

Explain the contexts of globalization theory

Answer

The Main assumptions of the theory of globalization can be summarized in three principal points. First, cultural and economic factors are the determining aspect of globalization in the globe. Second, under current global conditions, and when we are studying a particular system for instance, financial or trade sphere, that it is increasingly becoming difficult to use the context of a "nation" as a unit of analysis, since global communications and international ties are making this category less useful, turning the world to small global village, with hegemonically and unequally streamlined political governance and economic system that condition the lesser developed countries to continuously be exploited by the more privileged (under the globalization agenda) countries in the west. Third, with more standardization in technological advances, more and more social sectors will be able to connect themselves with other groups around the world, which implies faster and easier communications and economic transactions. This situation will bring about unequal share and access to resources among world nations, as the more advanced in technology gains more ground to control the means and sources of production, and the capital in-flow, both internally and externally.

Unit 3   The Effects Of Globalization On Third World Countries' Development

Unit structure

3.1   Introduction
3.2   Learning Outcome
3.3   Main Content
    3.3.1 Globalization, Economic and Trade Processes in the Third world
    3.3.2 Globalization and Technology in the Third world
    3.3.3 Globalization and Cultural Changes in the Third world
3.4   Summary
3.5   References/Further Reading
3.6   Possible answer to self-assessment exercise (s) within the content

3.1   Introduction

We have been looking at globalization and development in the third world in other units of module 3 and we have come to the understanding that globalization could be the cause of some development set back in most developing countries of the world, especially having reviewed the development situation in LDCs and scholarly views on the possible reasons for the development setbacks in the third world. Globalization as we have also seen could be regarded as neo-imperialism agenda for enhancing much dependency of lesser developed countries on the advanced countries as depicted in the dependency theory. In this unit, we will be looking at the effects of globalization on developing countries drawing theoretical stand points of the dependency theory. We will look at how globalization has affected the economic, development processes and cultural changes in the third world countries.

However, some advantages of globalization will be explored to show the rewards it may bring to the much-needed development in the third world.

3.2   Learning Outcome

At the end of this unit, students will be able to:

- Understand the effects of globalization on economic system in the third world

- Understand how the globalization ushered opportunities for education and health development in the third world countries
- Explore the cultural changes that have occurred in the third world as a result of globalization and 'Americanization' of the other parts of the world

3.3 Globalization on Third World Countries' Development

3.3.1 Globalization, Economic and Trade Processes in the Third world

Globalization describes how different world cultures, populations, and economies are interdependent on each other. It is a consequence of cross-border economic, development and governance structures. Technology, goods, investments, information, and services along with the labor market are the most popular components of globalization. The processes of globalization have established worldwide economic, political, development and cultural integration which has enabled social partnerships. However, globalization trends have not come without some disadvantages on the lesser developed nations. One of the disadvantages of globalization is the effects on economic and trade processes in the third world nations.

The pertinent question remains how the developing and less developed countries can ever meet up with these policies and standards to achieve desired economic growth and stability.

Other challenges of globalization on third world economies include:

Increasing Trade Tariff

Average tariff rates continue to be high in many developing countries, including some that have recently implemented trade reforms like India. Moreover, unfavorable trade policies continue to be an important aspect in globalization which impedes ability of lower income developing countries to meet up with paying debts and loans borrowed from international sourced banks. In practice, many developing countries competing for foreign investors offered longer tax holidays, costly subsidies, and various incentives for multinationals, thereby lodging into poverty and more dependence on advanced nations for supports and aids.

Global Market Competition and Price fluctuation

Globalization has led to fluctuation in price. Due to increase in competition, developed countries are forced to lower down their prices for their products; this is because other countries like China produce goods at a lower cost that makes goods to be cheaper than the ones produced in developed countries. So, in order for the developed countries to maintain their customers they are forced to reduce prices of their goods. This is a disadvantage to them because it reduces the ability to sustain social welfare in their countries.

Exploitation of Labour

Globalization is a capitalist orientated ideology; therefore, it possesses one of its known traits – exploitation of labour. Globalization has led to exploitation of labor in most developing countries. In most industries, to meet demands of goods and services as well as the market competition, safety standards and wellbeing of laborers are ignored to produce cheap goods. The recent experience in Latin America has been that many such open-handed multinationals moved their operations to, for example, China or South East Asia because of cost and market considerations (Piaseck and Wolnicki, 2004). This led to many workers losing their works because they chose to remain in their countries and increasing poverty for the people.

Expanded Foreign Trade and International Trade Policies by WTO

Globalization has created and expanded foreign trade in the world. Things that were only found in developed countries can now be found in other countries across the world. People can now get whatever they want and from any country. Through these developed countries can export their goods to other countries. Countries do business through international trade, whereby they import and export goods across the global. These countries which export goods get comparative advantages. Organizations have been established with a view to control and regulate the trade activities of the countries in the world so to have fair trade.
World trade organizations emerged as a powerful international organization capable effectively influencing individual governments to follow international trade rules, copyrights, policies on subsidies, taxes and tariffs. Nations cannot break rules without facing economic consequences (Piaseck and Wolnicki, 2004).

Most development scholars believe that the global economic and trade processes led by international economic organizations such as IMF, World bank, WTO have relative negative impacts on developing and less developed countries' economic growth due to the inequality and

imbalance emanating from global trade regulations and policies. Some countries like China who were able to achieve rapid economic growth in 1980s bypassed most of these trade regulations and succeeded. Rodrick (2001) noted that Argentina in 1998 opened up to trade and direct investment but did not achieve the same result as China and India. Rodrik explained that the reason for Argentina's failure was because harsh international trade and economic standards and policies did not allow lesser developed counties to flourish.

Hence, it could be said that China advancement in international trade was not any impact of globalization, it was because they were able to ignore the various standards posed by international investment organizations and achieved independent economic flourishing since 1980s.

The impact of Transnational Companies on LDCs Economies

Global commerce is increasingly dominated by transnational corporations which seek to maximize profits without regard for the development needs of individual countries or the local populations. Competition among developing countries to attract foreign investment leads to a "race to the bottom" leading to less developed countries forgoing welfare of their citizens to engage investment opportunities with these transnational companies, one of the anti-welfare effects being in lowering environmental standards for immediate gains. This further pushes these third world countries into poverty and lack.

3.3.2 Globalization and Technology in the Third world

Innovations in telecommunications, information technology, and computing have lowered communication costs and facilitated the cross-border flow of ideas, including technical knowledge as well as more fundamental concepts such as democracy and free markets (Stiglitz, 2003). The rapid growth and adoption of information technology, however, is not evenly distributed around the world—this gap between the information technology is often referred to as the "digital divide".

As a result, for less industrialized countries this means it is more difficult to advance their businesses without the technical system and knowledge in place such as the Internet, data tracking, and technical resources already existing in many industrialized countries. Widespread use of computers, faxes and mobile phones, introduction of the internet and ecommerce, and quicker and cheaper means of transportation created more burden on developing countries to pay higher trade tariffs in order to receive these opportunities.

3.3.3 Globalization and Cultural Changes in the Third world

Critics of globalization and global integration warn about globalization impact on cultural twist in nations, especially in developing countries. With the emergence of globalization and it growing trends most countries of the world have come to lost their cultural uniqueness and distinctiveness. Watkins (2002) asserted that cultural uniqueness is lost in favor of homogenization and a "universal culture" that draws heavily from American culture. Indeed, this goes to prove the agenda of globalization as reorientation for recolonizing the third world countries, however, this time with a careful twitch to the former colonial ideology of conquer and rule. The increasing cultural diffusions from the more advanced world to third world nations has defected the mores, norms and value that originally caused cohesion and consensus among the people. Globalization gradually bred individualism as a way of life thereby affecting the unique communal life and dependence that originally sustained traditional societies in the developing world. Today increasing moral decadence and lack of respect of norms and values has been effects of globalization and technology. New technology and digital systems introduce various opportunities to new crimes, moral and ethical decadence and lasciviousness among young people in the whole world, not just the third world.

 3.4   Summary

The unit was able to dissect the effects of globalization on the third world. The unit looked at three relevant areas at which globalization has led to economic setbacks, technological and digital division leading to inequality and cultural changes that has come to affect the ability of the third world to grow and develop independent of the advanced nations.
As we have seen, although the processes of globalization have established worldwide economic, political, development and cultural integration which has enabled social partnerships, it does not come without its challenges on the economies, sociopolitical and cultural life in lesser developed nations. We have seen how globalization have affected economic and trade processes in the third world nations leading to further economic stuntedness, more dependency, poverty and inequality. The question still remains on the possibility of less developed countries to meet up with desired economic growth and independence when faced with negatives trends of globalization such as technological divides, international trade and economic policy complexities as well as unfavorable structures in international politics.

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**3.6   Possible answer to self-assessment exercise (s)
within the content**

Self-assessment exercise 1

Explain the impact of transnational companies on Third world
economies

Answer

Global commerce is increasingly dominated by transnational
corporations which seek to maximize profits without regard for the
development needs of individual countries or the local populations.
Competition among developing countries to attract foreign investment
leads to a "race to the bottom" leading to less developed countries
forgoing welfare of their citizens to engage investment opportunities
with these transnational companies, one of the anti-welfare effects being
in lowering environmental standards for immediate gains. This further
pushes these third world countries into poverty and lack.

Self-assessment exercise 2

How did China attain economic development in the 1980s?

Answer

Globalization has created and expanded foreign trade in the world.
Things that were only found in developed countries can now be found in
other countries across the world. People can now get whatever they want
and from any country. Through these developed countries can export
their goods to other countries. Countries do business through
international trade, whereby they import and export goods across the
global. These countries which export goods get comparative advantages.
Organizations have been established with a view to control and regulate
the trade activities of the countries in the world so to have fair trade.

World trade organizations emerged as a powerful international
organization capable effectively influencing individual governments to
follow international trade rules, copyrights, policies on subsidies, taxes
and tariffs. Nations cannot break rules without facing economic
consequences (Piaseck and Wolnicki, 2004).

Most development scholars believe that the global economic and trade
processes led by international economic organizations such as IMF,

World bank, WTO have relative negative impacts on developing and less developed countries' economic growth due to the inequality and imbalance emanating from global trade regulations and policies. Some countries like China who were able to achieve rapid economic growth in 1980s bypassed most of these trade regulations and succeeded. Rodrick (2001) noted that Argentina in 1998 opened up to trade and direct investment but did not achieve the same result as China and India. Rodrik explained that the reason for Argentina's failure was because harsh international trade and economic standards and policies did not allow lesser developed counties to flourish.

Hence, it could be said that China advancement in international trade was not any impact of globalization, it was because they were able to ignore the various standards posed by international investment organizations and achieved independent economic flourishing since 1980s.

MODULE 4   INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS AS NON-STATE ACTORS – THE CIVIL SOCIETY IN INTERNATIONAL SYSTEM

Unit 1   Mary Kaldor's Four Versions Of Civil Society Emergence As Non-State Actors In Development

Unit structure

1.1   Introduction

Mary Kaldor is a well-known author in global civil society scholarship in the UK and US.

Her work on Global civil society has spiraled meaningful debates on the meaning of global civil society, its contexts and functions. In this unit we will be looking at her four versions of emergence of civil society in development discourse. This unit therefore traces the evolution of the idea of civil society and show that at a time in history, civil society meant a rule governed society where rules were based on some form of social contract among citizens.

Historically, civil society was always territorially tied and contrasted with international relations between states and the civilians. However, as

we shall see this notion began to change over time in history as the global dimension of civil society as a social contract began to receive great critiquing from scholars, and later was abandoned across borders with an establishment of a new sets of knowledge on global civil society and global partnerships involving states, upcoming actors in civil society (NGOs) and international multilateral organizations.

1.2 Learning Outcomes

By the end of this unit, student would be able to:

- Show understanding of the concept of civil society and its essence in society
- Have understanding of the emergence of civil society from four viewpoints in Kaldor's model
- Engage confidently on debates about comparative views on global civil society

1.3   Versions of Civil Society Emergence as Non-State Actors in Development

1.3.1 The concept of civil society

Over the years there have been debates and controversies amongst scholars on the conceptualization of Civil Society. Yet what is interesting about the term is that despite these controversies, ambiguities and difficulties in understanding its real context, it has gained widespread popularity especially in international and political discourses. This interest has given rise to the various literature that make efforts to explain its content and contexts – whether it connotes a certain social structure, mode of behavior or political ideology? Nonetheless, the definition of civil society as an arena of voluntary, un-coerced collective actions around shared interests, purposes and values has gradually found its place in many literatures on the topic.

Kaldor (2003) noted that various factors have encouraged the usage of the term civil society in the international community, such as concern for individual autonomy, self-organization, private space – which became important in Eastern Europe and elsewhere in the world, as a way of replacing unfavorable government; and the growing need for networking and creation of a global movement for democracy, economic development and social welfare.

To present a less ambiguous conceptualization of civil society, Kaldor (ibid) presented four versions which describe how civil society emerged as a conceptual issue in global development discourse.

1.3.2 The classical Version

According to Kaldor (2003) the origin of the concept of civil society can be traced back to the theories of early thinkers such as Thomas Hobbe and John Locke. For Hobbe and Locke, there was no distinction between state and the civil society. Civil Society was a type of state characterized by a social contrast – where the ruled and the ruler enter into a special agreement that is expected to stabilize the polity and society. The ruler was expected to provide the ruled with the needed social security and welfare, while the ruled were expected to show a sense of loyalty and reverence to the authority of the ruler. At this time, civil society was a state governed by prescribed law - the law checks and balances social relations and as such members of the society become subject to the rule of law. This ideology was what facilitated the social contrast entered by the members of the society and which enabled social order. However, this notion of civil society changed in the nineteenth century with the writings of Hegel, who for the first time distinguished civil society from the state.

Ehrenberg (1999) echoed the work of Hegel to explain the new emerging meaning of civil society. He observed how Hegel was able to streamline the difference between the state and civil society by indicating that whereas civil society aims to influence governmental policies to favour public interest; political society aims only to control government and power. From this angle, a new sector of society apart from the state and market emerged and became topical issue in international discussion on politics (governance), and economic development, and later in other aspects of development, in particular, environmental sustainability.

1.3.3 The Activist Version

According to Kaldor (2003:8) "the activist perspective is probably closest to the version of civil society that emerged from the opposition in central Europe in the 1970s and 1980s". It is sometimes referred to as post-Marxist or utopian version of civil society. The breakdown of the socialist states in the Soviet Union and Eastern Europe marked the uprising turmoil in the developing world and increased agitation for a more democratic government in this part of the world. Most developing countries hitherto were knee deep into authoritarian, militaristic and despotic leadership. This led to wide spread call for readjustment of

leadership styles in most of these countries and dethronement of authoritative leadership.

The surge of this political cataclysm inspired the instances for the emergence of civil society as anti-state force and became a vehicle for establishment of democratic rulership in these countries. Keane (2003:153) noted that "in the activism perspective, civil society is attached to the notion of civil liberties – of human rights embodied in formulae such as 'liberte, egalite or fraternite'. The activist perspective actively grew in 1990s with added agenda of expanding other development sectors such as education, health, human rights, environmental sustainability, corporate responsibility etc. A key content of this version of civil society emergence is the capacity of the civil society actors to mobilize crowd of supporters and participants in the campaign for democracy and development. This perspective equally highlights the birthing of social movement context of civil society.

1.3.4 The Neoliberal Version

The Neo-liberal version of Civil society grew in the late 1980s and early 1990s and came with the western agenda for global market reform and pluralistic scheme for activating civil society movements in the East and South, to foster campaigns for parliamentary democracy.

According to Kaldor (2003:9), "this version of civil society might be described as laissez faire politics, a kind of market in politics". Kaldor observed that in this context, "civil society consists of associational life – a non-profit and voluntary segment – what principally are now referred to as the "third-sector" – that not only bring under control state power, but also provide an alternative for many of the functions performed by the state" (ibid). This period saw the birthing of non-governmental organizations as alternative strategy for achieving much needed democratic and development success in the developing world.

Because of the non-existence of a global state, an army of NGOs (Non-governmental Organizations) perform the functions necessary to set a straight path for development and economic globalization in poor and deprived countries of the third world. The most important aspect of this version is that it is much associated with ideas about the 'third sector' or the 'non-profit sector' and further created a space where civil society and its organizations can operate outside state and market sectors. Thus, civil society became observed as a 'third sector' of the society and non-profit because it operates outside the market.

1.3.5 The Post-Modernist Version

This version of civil society conceptualization emerged to counteract the neo-liberal version on the ground of authenticity and genuineness of their social justice, humanitarian and economic development campaigns in the developing world. Most of the views propounded lay emphasis on the influence of globalization on the developing economies, which instituted hegemonic control of global market economy and institutions by the advanced nations. Following this perspective, an argument was raised by postmodernist civil society proponents, which is of immense importance in this discourse, that globalization reduced the ability of the nation state to make economic and political decisions without facing dictates from international institutions like the World Bank, IMF and UN, etc. The doctrine of neo-liberalism has everywhere reduced government ability to shape or protect their economies from the harsh forces of globalization. This has been noticed in the various deregulations that have restricted government from having political and economic autonomy over the last two decades. Thus, the rising dependence on armies of NGOs was an agenda to further exploit and diminish development of the third world economy. Aid flow was given with high interest rate from the World bank which they fund NGOs to carry out development projects in the developing world. The result is that where NGOs failed, these third world countries were still bound to pay back debts which further impoverish them.

1.4   Summary

The unit was able to critically evaluate four versions of emergence of civil society and highlighted important content in each of the perspectives. The classical view of civil society emergence showed how the notion of civil society evolved from the Hobbean and Locke's view of civil society as a functional role of the state to Hegelian version of the separation of civil society from the state, to show its distinctiveness. Other versions followed this distinct feature to depict the mounting of the civil society to the third sector and various actors that emerged with this notion. The unit went also to show how the post-modernist view related civil society as a neoliberal agenda and relationship to globalization, hence, giving us the more likely picture of the agenda of NGOization of developing country.

The four of the five versions of civil society conceptualization postulated by Kaldor (2003) are adopted in this review because they permeate scholarly perspectives on civil society.

The discussion in this unit has given us more grounds for engaging in debates on global society and its essence in development.

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1.6   Possible answer to self-assessment exercise within the content

Self-assessment exercise 1

What is the neoliberal agenda of creation of NGOs in the developing world?

Answer

The Neo-liberal version of Civil society grew in the late 1980s and early 1990s and came with the western agenda for global market reform and pluralistic scheme for activating civil society movements in the East and South, to foster campaigns for parliamentary democracy.

According to Kaldor (2003:9), "this version of civil society might be described as laissez faire politics, a kind of market in politics". Kaldor observed that in this context, "civil society consists of associational life – a non-profit and voluntary segment – what principally are now referred to as the "third-sector" – that not only bring under control state power, but also provide an alternative for many of the functions performed by the state" (ibid). This period saw the birthing of non-governmental organizations as alternative strategy for achieving much needed democratic and development success in the developing world.
Because of the non-existence of a global state, an army of NGOs (Non-governmental Organizations) perform the functions necessary to set a straight path for development and economic globalization in poor and deprived countries of the third world. The most important aspect of this version is that it is much associated with ideas about the 'third sector' or the 'non-profit sector' and further created a space where civil society and its organizations can operate outside state and market sectors. Thus, civil society became observed as a 'third sector' of the society and non-profit because it operates outside the market.

Self-assessment exercise 2

Explain the Neoliberal view of civil society, and critic it with the post-modernist view

Answer
This version of civil society conceptualization emerged to counteract the neo-liberal version on the ground of authenticity and genuineness of their social justice, humanitarian and economic development campaigns in the developing world. Most of the views propounded lay emphasis on

the influence of globalization on the developing economies, which instituted hegemonic control of global market economy and institutions by the advanced nations. Following this perspective, an argument was raised by postmodernist civil society proponents, which is of immense importance in this discourse, that globalization reduced the ability of the nation state to make economic and political decisions without facing dictates from international institutions like the World Bank, IMF and UN, etc. The doctrine of neo-liberalism has everywhere reduced government ability to shape or protect their economies from the harsh forces of globalization. This has been noticed in the various deregulations that have restricted government from having political and economic autonomy over the last two decades. Thus, the rising dependence on armies of NGOs was an agenda to further exploit and diminish development of the third world economy. Aid flow was given with high interest rate from the World bank which they fund NGOs to carry out development projects in the developing world. The result is that where NGOs failed, these third world countries were still bound to pay back debts which further impoverish them.

Unit 2   Civil Society as Third Sector of Society in Development

Unit structure

2.1   Introduction
2.2   Learning Outcomes
2.3   Main Content
         2.3.1   Clarifying the space for civil society operation as third
                    sector
         2.3.2   The two types of NGOs operating in the civil society as
                    development sector
         2.3.3   The Characteristics of Secular NGOs and Faith Based
                    Organizations (FBOs)
2.4   Summary
2.5   References/Further Reading
2.6   possible answers to self-assessment exercise (s) within the
         content

2.1   Introduction

This unit further provides understanding of the space that the civil
society occupy and operate as the third sector of the society. This unit
will broaden the scope of the subject of global civil society as a
development sector by introducing the student to the operational sector
of civil society and the types of development organizations that function
within the civil society as third sector of society. From this perspective
students will have better clarification of the separation of civil society
from the market and state sector and how this separation allows the civil
society organizations to be more functional in society.

2.2   Learning Outcomes

By the end of this unit, student would be able to:

• Demonstrate understanding of the meaning of civil society as
  third sector
• Understand the space civil society occupy as development sector
  by exploring the two types of development civil society
  organizations working in the grassroots
• Understand the importance of separating the civil society from
  other sectors of society

2.3   Civil Society as Third Sector of Society in Development

2.3.1 Clarifying the space for civil society operation as third sector

The conceptualization of civil society as a third sector of society existing independently of the state and the market has taken prominence in development discourse for decades now.

This conceptualization has been critical to the history of western political thoughts and has been central to the development of a combination of liberal parliamentary and socialist traditions. These traditions aim to define the space for which civil society could be studied as an entity distinct from the state and market, and which prescribes its relevance and functions. Hence the definition of civil society as an arena of voluntary, un-coerced collective actions around shared interests, purposes and values has gradually found its place in many literatures on the topic. To further develop this platform of definition, literature like Ottaway and Carothers (2008), Paffenholz and Spurk (2006) have gone ahead to describe its position in relation to other sectors of society and then group actors within these sectors.

Thus, civil society became envisaged as a sector on its own vis-à-vis the two other main sectors— the state and market. Although there is some degree of agreement amongst scholars on this basic approach, the ascription of actors is still contested.

To resolve this problem, Ottaway and Carothers (2008) used a different and more sophisticated segmentation, in drawing boundaries between the political sphere (state apparatus, political parties and parliamentarians), economic sphere (companies and markets) and private spheres. Hence, actors in these spheres or sectors can freely operate in various sectors without overlapping in their functions. From this perspective civil society is summarized by Paffenholz and Spurk (2006) as:

➢   A voluntary sector within institutional forms that are distinct from those of the state, family and market, though in practice, the boundaries for actors in the sectors are flexible and open
➢   A large and diverse set of voluntary organizations, often in competition with each other and oriented to specific interests and goals. It consists of non-state actors and associations that are not

purely driven by private or economic interests, are autonomously organized, and interact in the public sphere; and

➢ Independent from the state, but it is oriented toward and interacts closely with the state and the political sphere (ibid)

These features echo Ottaway (2008) model for identifying the sphere of civil society. She identified three possible ways of clarifying the space for which civil society could operate as a third sector within the development sector:

1. by distinguishing organizations that are truly voluntary from those that are not;
2. by determining whether all voluntary organizations between the family and the state deserve to be considered civil;
3. by determining whether there is a conceptual difference between civil society and political society. She argued that though civil society interacts with the other sectors, especially with the state, it does not replace the state and its political actors, but rather aims to improve their effectiveness and responsiveness to the people.

From these perspectives two specific organizations emerged in scholarship and development discourse that can easily fit this role civil society will play as a third sector in development. They include the secular and faith-based organizations.

2.3.2 The two types of NGOs operating in the civil society as development sector

Since the 1990s with the growing trust on the third sector as alternative to unstable and unreliable governance in developing countries, civil society organizations in form of non-governmental organizations have become prominent on the agenda of policy makers, activists and international donors. Many literatures have made reference to the relevance of NGOs as part of the third sector in facilitating the much-needed development in Africa and the rest of the developing world. These literatures view the civil society sector as an antithesis to the state, which portrays civil society as agents for democratic and developmental growth in less developed countries in the third world. Gradually, these local aid organizations became donors' development instruments and served as alternatives to the state in its function of delivering social services in developing countries. Moreover, in the present times the civil society sector has gradually shifted away from its initial focus on promoting political mobilization and accountable government, to the apolitical delivery of basic services. This shift resulted from perceived concern with the various social problems related to homelessness, poverty, poor literacy and educational standard, human rights violations,

gender inequality, environmental degradation and health depreciation affecting the people.

Hence, the direct provision of services to poor citizens became an important activity of civil society organizations- namely the Secular NGOs and Faith Based Organizations (FBOs), in form of self-help projects. In cases where the state is weak, these two organizations were prominent in providing social benefits such as economic empowerment in form of skills acquisition, cooperative and loan society, granting soft loans for agricultural purposes; and other development activities like providing shelter, clean water supply, health, and educational services to marginalized communities. These organizations mostly became the instrument of the international organizations such as the UN, World bank, USAID, UK DFID etc. for providing development aids and developing the poor countries in the third world. However, these aids do not come without their challenges. They further push these third world countries in more debts, dependence on the advanced nations and even more poverty.

Definition clarifications:

What is Secular NGO?

NGO can be defined as self-governing, private, not-for-profit organizations that are geared to improving the quality of life of disadvantaged people. From this definition one can therefore differentiate NGOs from other groups in the ''third sector'' such as trade unions, and professional associations etc. NGOs are grouped into two broad groups by the World Bank, these are: - the operational NGOs which are involved in service delivery and the advocacy NGOs which focus on social movements and transformation activities.

What is FBO?

A service delivery FBO is defined as a civil society organization of religious character or mandate engaged in various kinds of service delivery. In this view, it can be said that service delivery FBOs are faith inspired development organizations. The essence of defining a service delivery Faith Based Organization in this study is to differentiate organizations that seek to draw members from places of worship from those with development goals in place.

Clarke (2006) identified five different types of FBOs that operate in the service sector depending on their missions and representative status in the civil society sector. These include:

a. Faith Based Representative Organizations – these groups work as intermediates between believers and the state and other actors

b. Faith Based Development organizations – these groups mobilize necessary resources from internal and external sources in support of humanitarian development functions/services to the poor and underprivileged in the society.

c. Faith Based Socio-Political Organizations – these groups mobilize necessary resources and utilize faith in constructing space for political deliberations that would benefit members, thus mobilizing members to engage in political affairs. Clarke also identified that these group tend to pursue broader political issues and promote faith as a viable tool for encouraging democratic governance.

d. Faith Based Missionary Organizations – these groups involve in evangelization of faith and actively promote religiosity abroad. Their mission is to proselytize their faith, seeking to convert people to their religious sect or engaging with like groups to promote community development works.

e. Faith Based Illegal Organizations – or what may be termed "Terrorist Organizations" are still considered faith based but with a different ideological mission. These groups tend to pursue their goal through armed struggle or violent acts justified on ground of faith and belief system.

2.3.3 The Characteristics of Secular NGOs and Faith Based Organizations (FBOs)

FBOs and secular NGOs possess five characteristics that differentiates them from other groups in the third sector – these include being:

Formal

NGOs and FBOs operate as a formal organization in the sense that the administration is official and well organized with specific goal, objective, mission and vision to attain

Private

NGOs and FBOs are private organizations and not public institutions owned by government. It can be formed by individual or collective groups for a specific development purpose. It operates outside the scope of government; it is not political nor market orientated.

Non-profit

NGOs and FBOs must be non-profit to clarify its separation from the market sector, they are not profit orientated.

Self-governing

NGOs and FBOs are self-governing in the sense that they have organized administration carried out by members of the board and staff.

Voluntary in nature

NGOs and FBOs often utilize voluntary assistance which further depict its non-profit characteristics. Members often give voluntary assistance to achieve objectives and goal of the organisation.

 2.4   Summary

The unit was able to clarify the space for conceptualizing civil society as a third sector of society. The unit demonstrated the context at which civil society could operate in third sector which was found to be in the development sector. Hence, the operation of civil society as third sector is viewed from their roles or functions in development. From this angle of debate, two specific development organizations – secular NGOs and FBOs were identified as civil society organizations most prominent in the development role play of civil society. The unit highlighted the characteristics of these civil society or development organizations which would differentiate them from other organizations in the civil society such as Labour Unions, social movement groups, associations, community organizations etc. and clarified their development orientation.

Civil society as we have seen is definitely distinct from the market and state because of its pro-poor, non-profit and development orientations. The differentiation of civil society from state and market depicts its non-profit orientation, antithesis and its alternative role to the state where there is lack of adequate response to basic social service delivery. The next unit will expatiate this by discussing the functions of civil society. From this discussion we will further understand the agenda of civil society and its relevance in development.

2.5   References/Further Reading/Web Resource

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 2.6   Possible answers to self-assessment exercise (s) within the content

Self-assessment exercise 1

What are the characteristics of civil society organizations in development?

Answer

FBOs and secular NGOs possess five characteristics that differentiates them from other groups in the third sector – these include being:

Formal

NGOs and FBOs operate as a formal organization in the sense that the administration is official and well organized with specific goal, objective, mission and vision to attain

Private

NGOs and FBOs are private organizations and not public institutions owned by government. It can be formed by individual or collective groups for a specific development purpose. It operates outside the scope of government; it is not political nor market orientated.

Non-profit

NGOs and FBOs must be non-profit to clarify its separation from the market sector, they are not profit orientated.

Self-governing

NGOs and FBOs are self-governing in the sense that they have organized administration carried out by members of the board and staff.

Voluntary in nature

NGOs and FBOs often utilize voluntary assistance which further depict its non-profit characteristics. Members often give voluntary assistance to achieve objectives and goal of the organisation.

Self-assessment exercise 2

Define Faith Based Organization

Answer

A service delivery FBO is defined as a civil society organization of religious character or mandate engaged in various kinds of service delivery. In this view, it can be said that service delivery FBOs are faith inspired development organizations. The essence of defining a service delivery Faith Based Organization in this study is to differentiate organizations that seek to draw members from places of worship from those with development goals in place.

Clarke (2006) identified five different types of FBOs that operate in the service sector depending on their missions and representative status in the civil society sector. These include:

1.   Faith Based Representative Organizations – these groups work as intermediates between believers and the state and other actors
2.   Faith Based Development organizations – these groups mobilize necessary resources from internal and external sources in support of humanitarian development functions/services to the poor and underprivileged in the society.
3.   Faith Based Socio-Political Organizations – these groups mobilize necessary resources and utilize faith in constructing space for political deliberations that would benefit members, thus mobilizing members to engage in political affairs. Clarke also identified that these group tend to pursue broader political issues and promote faith as a viable tool for encouraging democratic governance.
4.   Faith Based Missionary Organizations – these groups involve in evangelization of faith and actively promote religiosity abroad. Their mission is to proselytize their faith, seeking to convert people to their religious sect or engaging with like groups to promote community development works.
5.   Faith Based Illegal Organizations – or what may be termed "Terrorist Organizations" are still considered faith based but with a different ideological mission. These groups tend to pursue their goal through armed struggle or violent acts justified on ground of faith and belief system.

Unit 3   Functions Of Civil Society Organizations (Ngos) In International Development

Unit structure

3.1   Introduction
3.2   Learning Outcomes
3.3   Main Content
      3.3.1   Civil Society in Development Discourse
      3.3.2   The functions of civil society organizations in Development Sector
3.4   Summary
3.5   References/Further Reading
3.6   possible answers to self-assessment exercise (s) within the content

3.1   Introduction

In this milieu, the central part of NGOs comprises a network of associations that institutionalizes problem solving discourses of public interest inside the framework of organized public spheres. These networks in the global sphere have the same structures that maintain their existence. While civil society as the third sector cannot be removed, it must function effectively to maintain its importance; therefore, it must set objectives and goals that facilitate their importance in the society. In this unit we will be looking at the functions of civil society in the development sector.

3.2   Learning Outcomes

By the end of this unit students will have

- good understanding of the development functions of civil society organizations -the secular and faith-based organizations and demonstrate capacity to properly join in the debate of civil society role as a development sector.

2.3 Functions of Civil Society Organizations (Ngos) in International Development

2.3.1 Civil Society in Development Discourse

Civil society organizations play a significant role in international development cooperation.

As a way of projecting social justice and extending human rights values, a number of countries in the west have come to assist the alleviation of development setbacks and poverty ravaging the developing countries in a bid to strive for political and socio-economic development. In most cases civil society organizations' support to these nations preceded, and superseded state aids. These civil society organizations could afford to achieve these impacts in the developing world because they are said to possess diverse competences, especially the capacity to reach the grassroots effortlessly. The 1990s saw most international organizations partnering with army of local NGOs (religious and secular civil society organizations) in dispensing charity and aid in developing countries, they provided humanitarian aids where government failed to effectively respond to the citizens.

The international organizations became major donors to these grassroots NGOs to support their activities and services in their countries. They allow placing donor-development assistance beneficiary relationship on new grounds. NGOs consistently partnered with the international organizations such as UN, USAID, COSAID, UK DFID, World bank, the EU development funds etc. These international organizations relied on the consulting and implementation capacity (grassroot participatory approaches) of these grassroots NGOs EU in development projects. As a result of these cooperation with the civil sector some good practices are developed, thus enriching international organizations and member states' agenda on development issues.

However, the price paid is over reliance on these international organization to meddle with the political and economic affairs of the dependent developing countries. Notwithstanding, the enhanced partnership between the international organizations and the grassroot NGOS enabled the NGOs in these countries to appropriately hold government accountable and enforce reciprocity, especially in ensuring democratic rule, practices and values in their countries. In the recent time such NGOs have come to be agents and principal actors in development cooperation with the purpose of assisting developing countries in building up civil society foundations

2.3.2 The functions of civil society organizations in Development Sector

In this section we will look at some functions of civil society organizations in development sector. They are as follows:

Protection
NGOs ensure that citizens are empowered with the rights and freedom to form associations to protect their interests without state interference. The state is expected to ensure the protection of these interests and the function of the civil society is to remind the state of this warrant and if needed pressurize it to do so. The essence of democracy is to create space for a plurality of civic and political associations, liberal institutions create laws that protect and allow broader range of associations to thrive. This is because the freedom of association is central component of individual freedom – it is valuable and pleasurable itself. This function reflects the challenges civil society organizations tend to experience in less democratized societies and depicts the relevance of democracy in achieving this function.

Where democracy is still in its early form, the prime contribution of civil society is to stand as a bulwark against any illegitimate authority. This function centers on the role of NGOs to check and balance the activities of the state. To ensure effective governance, civil society plays the role of activists to ensure that interests of the minorities are well represented.

Community Building and Integration

Civil society organizations are perceived as a medium for building communal life as a remedy to individualism. Thus, participation in these civil organizations is envisaged as way of bridging societal gaps and creates civil virtues and attachments that are expected to foster social cohesion and satisfy the human craving for communal and associational life. The pre-condition of this arrangement is that the structure of the organization is unsoiled of any racist, ethnic or traditional inclinations. Civil society organizations especially those in grassroots, is capable of helping people survive and maintain a semblance of normal life under very difficult condition.

Communication and Advocacy

NGOs ensure that the interests of the public are well represented to lawmakers and translated to law and policy. They can achieve this through media, lobbying, advocacy and direct contact with public officials; however, the essential component of representation is by providing forum for public opinions. The quality representation of the

people's interest broadens democracy in many ways. Furthermore, civil society organizations tend to bring to focus territorial marginalization that is often ignored in parliamentary decision making, hence playing the important role of enhancing equality in political representation.

Service Delivering

Providing social delivery has become a traditional role of civil society organizations both in the developed and developing countries. Direct provision of services to poor citizens became an important activity of civil society organizations in form of self-help projects. In cases where the state is weak, it becomes essential to provide basic social benefits such as economic empowerment in form of skills acquisition, cooperative and loan society, granting soft loans for agricultural purposes; and other development activities like providing shelter, clean water supply, health, and educational services to marginalized communities. Civil society organizations are not just providing services to people that the state has failed to reach, but they are now engaged in the mainstream development activities. Hence with this new profile civil society organizations have assumed a new form in studying and making input in development policies that could engender more responsiveness from the state. This has resulted to recent partnership with international organizations and government in provision of services to the poor especially in developing countries.

2.4   Summary

In this unit we have come to understand the import roles that civil society organizations play in development sector. These roles further clarify the development space that civil society occupies as the third sector. This unit equally highlighted the involvement of international organization in the development functions of local NGOs in the developing world, and further exposed the likelihood of the creation of these NGOs as imperialist agenda of further ensuring continued dependence of third world countries on the developed nations.

Since the 1990s with the growing trust on the third sector as alternative to unstable and unreliable governance in developing countries, civil society organizations in form of non-governmental organizations have become prominent on the agenda of policy makers, activists and international donors. Many literatures have made reference to the relevance of NGOs as part of the third sector in facilitating the much-needed development in Africa and the rest of the developing world. What we have seen in the unit is how these civil society organizations

activities in developing world portrays them as agents for democratic and developmental growth. They have become donors' development instruments and served as alternatives to the state in its function of delivering social services in developing countries.

However, a crucial question still remains unanswered, this revolve around whether the supports of these NGOs and international organizations through aid is actually working in addressing poverty and development setbacks in the third world, and could the civil society organizations be imperialist instruments that further diminish independence of third world nations?

2.5   References/Further Reading/Web Resource

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**2.6   Possible answers to self-assessment exercise (s)
        within the content**

Self-assessment exercise 1

Explain at least 2 functions of civil society organizations in development

Answer
In this section we will look at some functions of civil society organizations in development sector. They are as follows:

Protection

NGOs ensure that citizens are empowered with the rights and freedom to form associations to protect their interests without state interference. The state is expected to ensure the protection of these interests and the function of the civil society is to remind the state of this warrant and if needed pressurize it to do so. The essence of democracy is to create space for a plurality of civic and political associations, liberal institutions create laws that protect and allow broader range of associations to thrive. This is because the freedom of association is central component of individual freedom – it is valuable and pleasurable itself. This function reflects the challenges civil society organizations tend to experience in less democratized societies and depicts the relevance of democracy in achieving this function.

Where democracy is still in its early form, the prime contribution of civil society is to stand as a bulwark against any illegitimate authority. This function centers on the role of NGOs to check and balance the activities of the state. To ensure effective governance, civil society plays the role of activists to ensure that interests of the minorities are well represented.

Communication and Advocacy

NGOs ensure that the interests of the public are well represented to lawmakers and translated to law and policy. They can achieve this through media, lobbying, advocacy and direct contact with public officials; however, the essential component of representation is by providing forum for public opinions. The quality representation of the people's interest broadens democracy in many ways. Furthermore, civil society organizations tend to bring to focus territorial marginalization that is often ignored in parliamentary decision making, hence playing the important role of enhancing equality in political representation.

Self-assessment exercise

How the functions of civil society organizations could be viewed in development

Answer

Civil society organizations play a significant role in international development cooperation.

As a way of projecting social justice and extending human rights values, a number of countries in the west have come to assist the alleviation of development setbacks and poverty ravaging the developing countries in a bid to strive for political and socio-economic development. In most cases civil society organizations' support to these nations preceded, and superseded state aids. These civil society organizations could afford to achieve these impacts in the developing world because they are said to possess diverse competences, especially the capacity to reach the grassroots effortlessly. The 1990s saw most international organizations partnering with army of local NGOs (religious and secular civil society organizations) in dispensing charity and aid in developing countries, they provided humanitarian aids where government failed to effectively respond to the citizens.

The international organizations became major donors to these grassroots NGOs to support their activities and services in their countries. They allow placing donor-development assistance beneficiary relationship on new grounds. NGOs consistently partnered with the international organizations such as UN, USAID, COSAID, UK DFID, World bank, the EU development funds etc. These international organizations relied on the consulting and implementation capacity (grassroot participatory approaches) of these grassroots NGOs EU in development projects. As a result of these cooperation with the civil sector some good practices are developed, thus enriching international organizations and member states' agenda on development issues.

However, the price paid is over reliance on this international organization to meddle with the political and economic affairs of the dependent developing countries. Notwithstanding, the enhanced partnership between the international organizations and the grassroot NGOS enabled the NGOs in these countries to appropriately hold government accountable and enforce reciprocity, especially in ensuring democratic rule, practices and values in their countries. In the recent time such NGOs have come to be agents and principal actors in development cooperation with the purpose of assisting developing countries in building up civil society foundations.

Unit 4   Civil Society Influence To Application of Biotechnology

Unit structure

4.1   Introduction
4.2   Learning Outcomes
4.3   Main Content
          4.3.1 Civil society
          4.3.2 Biotechnology
          4.3.3 Advocacy
          4.3.4 Stakeholders
          4.3.5 Policy
          4.3.6 NGOs
4.4   CBOs
          4.4.1 Cooperative Societies
          4.4.2 Dynamics
4.5   Involvement and advocacy of agricultural issues etc.
4.6   Summary
4.7   References/further readings

4.1   Introduction

definition of terms-civil society; biotechnology; advocacy; stakeholder; policy; NGOs; CBOs; cooperative societies; associations; dynamics.

4.2   Learning Outcomes

By the end of the course, student should be able to:

- Evaluate the role of civil society advocacy in agricultural issues relating to application of biotechnology
- Describe the benefits and challenges arising from the involvement of civil groups in food policy issues and market players adherence to regulations governing GMOs
- Assess the impact of the civil society in enhancing farmers awareness of their right to information, legal protection, shared benefits accrued from use of biotechnology in food production
- Assess the role of governments in policy formulation on biotechnology

 4.3   Civil Society Influence to Application of Biotechnology

4.3.1 Civil society

Civil society is defined as an aggregate of institutions whose members are engaged primarily in a complex of non-state activities—economic and cultural production, voluntary associations, and household life—and who in this way preserve and transform their identity by exercising all sorts of pressures or controls upon state institutions'. -'Aggregate of non-governmental organizations and institutions that manifest interests and the will of citizens' - 'Individuals and organizations in the society which are independent of the government' 'The arena of unforced collective action around shared interests purposes and values'. Civil society includes the family and the private sphere, referred to as the "third sector" of society, distinct from government and business. -For most of Africa, in terms of this working definition, civil society would include trade unions; professional associations; church and para-church organizations; resident, student, business and other special interest associations; the media; and various types of nongovernmental organizations (NGOs). The concept of civil society originated with the writings of Hegel, Gramsci and Marx -In theory, its institutional forms are distinct from those of the state, family and market though in practice, the boundaries between state, civil society, family and market are often complex, blurred and negotiated. The civil society commonly embraces a diversity of spaces, actors and institutional forms, varying in degree of formality, autonomy and power, civil societies are often populated by organizations such as tax-exempt public charities, foundations, development non-government organizations, community and grassroots organizations, women organizations, faith based organizations, professional associations, trade unions, self-help groups, social movements, business associations, coalitions and advocacy groups

4.3.2 Biotechnology

The manipulation (as through genetic engineering) of living organisms or their components to produce useful usually commercial products (as pest resistant crops, new bacterial strains, or novel pharmaceuticals); also : any of various applications of biological science used in such manipulation -The exploitation of biological processes for industrial and other purposes, especially the genetic manipulation of microorganisms for the production of antibiotics, hormones, etc -Biotechnology is the use of biological processes, organisms, or systems to manufacture products intended to improve the quality of human life. The earliest biotechnologists were farmers who developed improved species of plants and animals by cross pollination or cross breeding. In recent

years, biotechnology has expanded in sophistication, scope, and applicability.

-The Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD) defines biotechnology as: "any technological application that uses biological systems, living organisms, or derivatives thereof, to make or modify products for specific use" (Secretariat of the Convention on Biological Diversity, 1992). This definition includes medical and industrial applications as well as many of the tools and techniques that are commonplace in agriculture and food production.

The Cartagena Protocol on Biosafety defines "modern biotechnology" more narrowly as the application of:

a.   In vitro nucleic acid techniques, including recombinant deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA) and direct injection of nucleic acid into cells or organelles, or
b.   Fusion of cells beyond the taxonomic family, that overcome natural physiological reproductive or recombination barriers and that are not techniques used in traditional breeding and selection. (Secretariat of the Convention on Biological Diversity, 2000)

The FAO Glossary of biotechnology defines biotechnology broadly as in the CBD and narrowly as "a range of different molecular technologies such as gene manipulation and gene transfer, DNA typing and cloning of plants and animals" (FAO, 2001a).

Recombinant DNA techniques, also known as genetic engineering or (more familiarly but less accurately) genetic modification, refer to the modification of an organism's genetic make-up using transgenesis, in which DNA from one organism or cell (the transgene) is transferred to another without sexual reproduction. Genetically modified organisms (GMOs) are modified by the application of transgenesis or recombinant DNA technology, in which a transgene is incorporated into the host genome or a gene in the host is modified to change its level of expression. The terms "GMO", "transgenic organism" and "genetically engineered organism (GEO)" are often used interchangeably although they are not -Modern agricultural biotechnology includes a range of tools that scientists employ to understand and manipulate the genetic make-up of organisms for use in.

4.3.3 Advocacy

Public support for or recommendation of a particular cause or policy - is a political process by an individual or group which aims to influence decisions within political, economic, and social systems and institutions. Advocacy can include many activities that a person or organization undertakes including media campaigns, public speaking, commissioning

and publishing research or conducting exit poll or the filing of an amicus brief. Lobbying (often by lobby groups) is a form of advocacy where a direct approach is made to legislators on an issue, which plays a significant role in modern politics. Research has started to address how advocacy groups in the U.S. and Canada are using social media to facilitate civic engagement and collective action.

4.3.4 Stakeholder

A person, group or organization that has interest or concern in an organization. Stakeholders can affect or be affected by the organization's actions, objectives and policies. Some examples of key stakeholders are creditors, directors, employees, government (and its agencies), owners (shareholders), suppliers, unions, and the community from which the business draws its resources.

4.3.5 Policy

A definite course of action adopted for the sake of expediency, facility, etc.: -A course of action adopted and pursued by a government, ruler, political party, etc. -Action or procedure conforming to or considered with reference to prudence or expediency -Prudence or wisdom in the management of affairs -Management or procedure based primarily on material interest -A definite course or method of action selected from among alternatives and in light of given conditions to guide and determine present and future decisions - A high-level overall plan embracing the general goals and acceptable procedures especially of a governmental body

4.3.6 NGOs

A non-governmental organization (NGO) is any non-profit, voluntary citizens' group, which is organized on a local, national or international level. Task-oriented and driven by people with a common interest, NGOs perform a variety of service and humanitarian functions, bring citizen concerns to Governments, advocate and monitor policies and encourage political participation through provision of information. Some are organized around specific issues, such as human rights, environment or health. They provide analysis and expertise; serve as early warning mechanisms and help monitor and implement international agreements. Their relationship with offices and agencies of the United Nations system differs depending on their goals, their venue and the mandate of a particular institution. -An NGO can also refer generally to an organization that operates independently from any government – though it may receive funding from a government but operates without oversight or representation from that government. An NGO's funds may be raised by the government, but it maintains a non-governmental position, with no need for government representation. They are also

known as civil society organizations. And NGOs perform many duties: Community health promotion and education (such as hygiene and waste disposal); Education and public safety; Managing emerging health crises (HIV/AIDS, Hepatitis B); Community social problems (juvenile crimes, run-aways, street children, prostitution); Environmental (sustainable water and energy resources); Economic (micro loans, skills training, financial education and consulting); Development (school and infrastructure construction); Disaster relief; Women's issues (women's and children's rights, counseling, literacy issues).

4.4   CBOs

Community based organizations (CBO's) are nonprofit groups that work at a local level to improve life for residents. The focus is to build equality across society in all streams - health care, environment, quality of education, access to technology, access to spaces and information for the disabled, to name but a few. The inference is that the communities represented by the CBO's are typically at a disadvantage. CBO's are typically, and almost necessarily, staffed by local members - community members who experience firsthand the needs within their neighborhoods. Besides being connected geographically, the only link between staff members and their interests is often the desire and willingness to help. Occupational skill sets and experience are greatly diverse. The tightrope upon which stability balances in this type of organization is being stretched taut, as the role of the CBO is extended to new lengths. Governments are increasingly delegating responsibility to CBO's and relying on them to gather local concerns, develop, plan, and help deliver solutions. CBO's are storehouses, gatekeepers, of local information obviously valuable for their own purposes, but this data is also useful to other organizations and government agencies. The role of CBO's is becoming knowledge management - to compile, sort, store and retrieve local data. Technology is increasingly becoming more important to this function, to manage daily business operations, but also to develop innovative solutions, given restrictive budgets, limited personnel available, and new demands for services and information. Technology is being used to bring in the voice of the community members, through public participation and input. Applications include mapping of community landmarks and services by locals, providing environmental baseline and change measurements, and identifying concerns common throughout the community.

4.4.1 Cooperative societies

A co-operative society is an autonomous association of persons united voluntarily to meet their common economic, social and cultural needs and aspirations through a jointly owned and democratically controlled enterprise. A co-operative society is another means for forming a legal

entity to conduct business besides forming a company. It pools together human resources in the spirit of self and mutual help with the object of providing services and support to members. An autonomous association of persons united voluntarily to meet their common economic, social and cultural needs and aspirations through a jointly owned and democratically controlled enterprise -A business venture which runs on cooperation of and the ownership by its customers who invest in the community it serves A group can be defined as several individuals who come together to accomplish a particular task or goal. Group dynamics refers to the attitudinal and behavioral characteristics of a group. Group dynamics concern how groups form, their structure and process, and how they function. Group dynamics are relevant in both formal and informal groups of all types. In an organizational setting, groups are a very common organizational entity and the study of groups and group dynamics is an important area of study in organizational behavior.

4.4.2 Dynamics

A branch of mechanics that deals with forces and their relation primarily to the motion but sometimes also to the equilibrium of bodies -A pattern or process of change, growth, or activity <population dynamics> - Pertaining to or characterized by energy or effective action; vigorously active or forceful; energetic -A basic or dynamic force, especially one that motivates, affects development or stability, etc.

4.5 Involvement and advocacy of agricultural issues; in application of biotechnology in food production etc.

The world multinationals have amassed huge tracts of land at the expense of the small scale farmers whose land has continued to dwindle in size as well as a reduction in water and genetic resources. The green revolution, the World Bank's structural adjustment programs have introduced differentiation and to some extent marginalization of the least privileged in the society.

The multinational companies continue to dominate in grain trade (3/4 of the trade) and the world commercial seed market (39%).

Small scale working movements have restored degraded soils, raised yields and preserved the environment using highly effective agro ecological management practices on hundreds and thousands of acres. This gives the participants important measure of autonomy in relation to industrial agri food system and has increased their environmental and environmental and economic resiliency, buffering than climate hazards and market volatility.

On the other hand despite the extreme land fragmentation, the small-scale farmers continue to provide significant amounts of food in the south, as high as 90% of all food production in African countries.

Civil groups and NGOs have played a major role in sensitizing the public on the benefits of adopting biotechnology that has been subjected to strict regulatory mechanisms. Civil society participation in international and European governance is often promoted as a remedy to its much-lamented democratic deficit. This claim needs refinement because civil society participation may serve two quite different purposes: it may either enhance the democratic accountability of intergovernmental organizations and regimes, or the epistemic quality of rules and decisions made within them.

4.6   Summary

Understanding the roles played by the different groups in the biotechnology enterprise; the partnerships between the government and the role players; advantages of the group dynamics in promoting healthy trade and benefit sharing from the sale of biotechnology products.

4.7   References/further reading/Web Resource

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 4.8 Possible answer to self-assessment exercise (s) within the content

Self-assessment exercise 1

What is the meaning of NGO?

Answer
A non-governmental organization (NGO) is any non-profit, voluntary citizens' group, which is organized on a local, national or international level. Task-oriented and driven by people with a common interest, NGOs perform a variety of service and humanitarian functions, bring citizen concerns to Governments, advocate and monitor policies and encourage political participation through provision of information. Some are organized around specific issues, such as human rights, environment or health. They provide analysis and expertise; serve as early warning mechanisms and help monitor and implement international agreements. Their relationship with offices and agencies of the United Nations system differs depending on their goals, their venue and the mandate of a particular institution.

Self-assessment exercise 2

What do you understand by CBO?

Answer
Community based organizations (CBO's) are nonprofit groups that work at a local level to improve life for residents. The focus is to build equality across society in all streams - health care, environment, quality of education, access to technology, access to spaces and information for the disabled, to name but a few.

**MODULE 5   CONCEPT OF CIVIL SOCIETY
                 ORGANIZATION**

Unit 1   Meaning of Civil Society
Unit 2   The Concept of Civil Society and Globalization and
              Development Strategies
Unit 3   The Role Of Civil Society Organizations (CSOS) In
              The Nigerian Democratization Process
Unit4   Civil Society Organizations and Service Provision

Unit 1   Meaning of Civil Society

Unit structure

1.1   Introduction
1.2   Learning Outcomes
1.3   Main content
       1.3.1   What is civil society?
       1.3.2   Civil society's role
       1.3.3   Value
1.4   Trends
1.5   Summary
1.6   References
1.7   Possible answer to self-assessment exercise (s) within the content

1.1   Introduction

Civil society has created positive social change in numerous places throughout the world. For example, Wateraid UK provided over 1.3 million people with safe drinking water in 2017/181, whilst in El Salvador, the government passed a law in 2017 banning environmentally and socially harmful metal mining practices following civil society action since 20042. However, questions about civil society's value, legitimacy and accountability are increasingly.

1.2   Learning Outcomes

Increasingly researchers and practitioners are focusing on the role and value of diaspora communities and their potential contribution to international development. In 2017, diaspora communities remitted over USD 466 billion to low and medium income countries (World Bank, 2018). Remittances fund both family members' needs and investments in co-development projects and entrepreneurship. The potential role and

value of diaspora communities in development is widely recognise, for example, in the UN's Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). Key issues in maximising the potential of the diaspora are reducing transaction costs associated with remittances and capacity building for diaspora civil society groups.

Academics, researchers and practitioners are concerned about "closing space" around civil society. Closing space refers to governments enacting regulatory, legislative or practical restrictions on civil society, including foreign funding for CSOs and limits on the rights of freedom of association, assembly and expression (see for example, Rutzen, 2015). Constraints on civil society began following the 9/11 terrorist attacks in America, with a second wave of restrictions following the Arab Spring (Rutzen, 2015). Both developing and developed countries are enacting restrictions (Rutzen, 2015). Practitioners and researchers are actively seeking ways to enhance civil society's resilience and sustainability (see for example, the US Center for Strategic and International Studies, who have launched a global consortium to identify specific remedies3). Other important trends in civil society include the changing funding climate, the role of technology and the role of faith groups.

There is a wealth of literature related to civil society, its roles, values and trends. This includes both academic and grey literature. Consequently, this report provides a brief overview of selected issues and a small number of examples. It highlights the trends closing spaces and the role of diaspora communities, but each of these could easily constitute its own separate report.

1.3   Civil Society, its role and value

1.31   What is civil society?

Civil society has been broadly defined as the "area outside the family, market and state" (WEF, 2013p. 8)7. For example, the EU defines civil society as "all forms of social action carried out by individuals or groups who are neither connected to, nor managed by, the State"8. The African Development Bank argues that civil society is the voluntary expression of the interests and aspirations of citizens organised and united by common interests, goals, values or traditions and mobilised into collective action (AfDB, 2012, p. 10). Civil society encompasses a spectrum of actors with a wide range of purposes, constituencies, structures, degrees of organisation, functions, size, resource levels, cultural contexts, ideologies, membership, geographical coverage, strategies and approaches (WEF, 2013, p. 8; AfDB, 2012,).

1.3.2 Civil society's role

Civil society roles include:

i.   'watchdog' holding governments and institutions to account (for example, some CSOs monitor human rights abuses and provide information to both domestic constituencies and international organisations/ other states (Kreienkamp, 2017) Advocate/representative raising awareness of issues, giving a voice to the marginalised and advocating for change (for example, Civic Council of Popular and Indigenous Organisations of Honduras campaigns on issues such as logging and dams which will affect indigenous peoples18)

ii.   Service provider (for example, Village Water Zambia provide water and sanitation in rural areas). As mentioned above, civil society is also a recognised partner in the development process and contributes to global governance processes. The Asian Development Bank outline five roles for civil society in advancing the sustainable development goals (SDGs):

iii.   Complement government poverty alleviation programmes with community-based tailored assistance using evidence-based, innovative and sustained solutions;

iv.   Localising the SDGs and monitoring progress;

v.   Promote citizen-centric, collaborative governance (as many CSOs in Asia's developing countries operate at grassroots level, so have active engagement with local actors and citizens) and co-production (whereby citizens produce or improve existing services without relying too much on public agencies);

vi.   Advocating for the poor, including lobbying government;

vii.   Empowering women for climate action (Nazal, 2018).

Examples of civil society roles in 2018

Global civil society: Bangladesh's Ready Made Garment Industry

NGOs and trade unions in both Bangladesh and countries that consume clothes made in Bangladesh have been working together to improve working conditions, raise awareness and call for a fair minimum wage. For example, the Clean Clothes Campaign, a global alliance of NGOs and trade unions is currently running a campaign calling for fashion brand H&M (the biggest buyer of clothes from Bangladesh) to 'Turn Around' and honour its commitment that the 850,000 workers who make their clothes will be paid a living wage by the end of 201819. The Accord on Fire and Building Safety in Bangladesh was launched in 2013 after the collapse of the Rana Plaza building, which housed a number of garment factories20. The Accord is an independent, legally binding agreement between brands and trade unions, with four NGO

witnesses (the Clean Clothes Campaign, the International Labor Rights Forum, the Worker Rights Consortium and Maquila Solidarity Network). The NGOs and trade unions have been monitoring implementation, running campaigns to ensure brands follow through on their commitments, highlighting problems with implementation and campaigning (successfully) for compensation for the families of workers who lost their lives in the 2013 building collapse.

National civil society: Zambia

Civil society in Zambia occupies a number of roles. For example, Village Water Zambia, supported by funding from international NGOs including the Norwegian Church Aid Alliance, install boreholes in rural areas, provide hygiene and sanitation training in schools and villages, and install latrines in schools21. In addition to domestic NGOs, international NGOs such as Oxfam are active in Zambia. For example, Oxfam has been working to improve livelihoods in the Copper belt region, including launching a Land Rights Centre. Faith groups are integral members of civil society in Zambia, with groups providing a number of services including running schools. Faith-based organisations include the Young Women's Christian Association (YWCA), which runs drop-in centres around the country for women and children in crisis situations. Zambia has 288 rural chiefdoms: this system of traditional leadership includes village headmen/women, local chiefs, and prominent tribal chiefs (in the case of the Lozi people, this is their king, the Litunga). The system also varies by tribe. The government of Zambia, NGOs and international organisations recognise the role of traditional leadership in Zambian society. For example, in November 2017, over 30 spouses of traditional leaders from various chiefdoms participated in a dialogue meeting in Lusaka with the government, international organisations and donors on the subject of safeguarding adolescent girls at the community level24. Zambia's First Lady stated that as "custodians of customs and traditions, traditional leaders can be champions, initiators and agents of change towards eliminating child marriage, teenage pregnancy and gender-based violence".

Advocacy and delivering services

Many domestic African organisations working with gender and sexual minorities deliver critical services as well as engaging in advocacy (Mbote, 2016). These organisations often face a difficult or repressive climate and do not always receive support from other civil society organisations when faced with government moves to restrict them (Mbote, 2016). For example, the Kenyan High Court has ruled that the government cannot block the National Gay and Lesbian Human Rights Commission, but the group is still unregistered (Mbote, 2016). In Botswana, a similar organisation won a protracted case for registration:

the Catholic Church labelled the judgement a deliberate attempt to push dangerous agendas and ideologies that are un-African and un-Christian (Mbote, 2016).

Mbote (2016) argues that funding for organisations representing marginalised groups is critical to their success, because they are unlikely to raise resources from their membership (who may suffer from economic impoverishment) or even wealthier citizens in their own countries. However, there are few organisations that fund gender and sexual minorities specific issues globally, and for those that do, this funding represents a tiny portion of their budgets (Mbote, 2016).

Partnerships with the private sector

These include 'bottom of the pyramid' business models, creating new products and services to target unmet needs, and setting voluntary standards for a specific issue or industry sector (WEF, 2013, p. 9). Examples include:

• CARE in Bangladesh partnering with Danone communities to form a rural distribution system targeting marginalised people;
• Mercy Corps co-founded MiCRO with Haiti's largest microfinance institution Fonkoze, partnering with DFID and Swiss Re (WEF, 2013). Business leaders from major multinationals are actively contributing to global governance processes, for example, the World Business Council for Sustainable Development (WEF, 2013, p. 10). Some actors have expressed concern at the emergence of the private sector in the civil society space (see for example, CIVICUS, 2018).

1.3.3 Value

The value of civil society

Green (2017) argues that civil society is at a crossroads: it is buffeted on one side by questions about its relevance, legitimacy and accountability from governments and their beneficiaries, and on the other side it is having to adjust to a rapidly deteriorating operating environment (closing spaces is discussed in section 4 of this report). Questions about the value of civil society mean that CSOs are facing more pressure to demonstrate their value to and connection with local communities (Green, 2017). Increasing public distrust, combined with uncertainty about the relevance and legitimacy of CSO has called into question civil society effectiveness in bringing about real change (VanDyck, 2017). For example, recent safeguarding scandals, including the actions of Oxfam workers in Haiti, have raised questions about the role and value of NGOs, from both the UK public and internationally26.

Green's 2017 report on civil society at a crossroads highlights how many CSOs rely on donor support to enact the change they want, which has led to critiques of their grant-driven business model, including the failure of traditional CSOs to bring transformative change. However, traditional CSOs have achieved impressive on the ground results, including improvements in maternal and child health, access to education and holding governments and companies to account (Green, 2017). Critics allege that these successes are palliative rather than transformational for three reasons:

➢ Many traditional CSOs lack deep roots in the communities in which they work;
➢ Donors' insistence on quantifiable results has created a bias towards a limited set of projects and service delivery as opposed to a focus on transformation or systemic change;
➢ Organisations are accountable 'upward' to donors rather than 'downwards' to their beneficiaries, putting donor satisfaction above CSOs broader goals (Green, 2017).

VanDyck (2017) argues that CSOs are facing questions about their relevance, legitimacy and accountability from governments and beneficiaries because of a widening gap between the sector, governments and beneficiaries. Many traditional CSOs are dependent on short-term funding, which creates incentives to focus on achieving future funding rather than gaining community buy-in and ensuring the sustainability of projects (Green, 2017). Consequently, traditional CSOs have been accused of being illegitimate, out of touch, or in the sector for prestige or money (Green, 2017). For example, India's Prime Minister has accused environmental and community based organisations opposing large-scale investment projects of being foreign puppets, working against India's national interest (Green, 2017).

New and emerging forms of civic activism have disrupted traditional CSOs and may be better placed or able to meet the needs of their communities more efficiently and sustainably (Green, 2017). For example, social movements using social media may be able to bring together more people around a common cause than traditional advocacy organisations, which typically rely on known supporters (Green, 2017). Combined with the concerns outlined above, this has led some commentators to question the viability of the traditional grant driven CSO model (Green, 2017). However, Green (2017) argues that there are synergies between the two forms and the key is to build bridges between the two.

Debates about the role and value of civil society are likely to continue. However, it is important to remember the contribution that civil society makes to improving the lives of some of the world's poorest people and

advocating/campaigning for positive change around the world. For example, in 2017-2018, Wateraid UK reached over 1.3 million people in the developing world with clean water; volunteer movements in Kerala, India and the US saved lives during natural disasters in 2018; and social movements including Black Lives Matter focused attention on important social issues.

In terms of international development and the value of civil society, an interesting trend is the movement to #shiftthepower27. Launched in 2016 as a hashtag by the Global Fund for Community Foundations in the run-up to their conference in Johannesburg, #'shiftthepower aims to move development away from its current top-down, top-heavy system and towards peoplebased development. More research is needed into how this movement and grassroots, community-based organisations and new models of philanthropy including local giving circles are creating positive changes and new forms of civil society. Some of the issues raised by #shiftthepower are also relevant in the case of diaspora contributions to development, which are the focus of the following sub-section of this report.

The value of civil society: the case of the diaspora

A diaspora is a community of people living outside their country of origin, whilst maintaining active ties with it (MADE, 2016). In 2015, there were approximately 250 million people living outside their country of origin and diasporas remitted USD 431 billion (MADE, 2016). In 2017, remittance flows to low and medium income countries were USD 466 billion and globally were USD 613 billion (World Bank, 2018). Remittance flows are expected to increase in 2018 (World Bank, 2018).

Diaspora remittances are extremely important in sustaining local livelihoods and supporting national development, particularly in Africa (CFLP, 2015). Academics at Boston University argue that remitters and their families are at the forefront of forging a new kind of global community with transnational families and inter-personal networks that are creating new forms of social and economic interconnections (CFLP, 2015). Diaspora organisations and networks are important civil society actors for mobilising diaspora communities' economic, social and cultural resources (MADE, 201628).

Diasporas contribute to their communities of origin through both individual and collective remittances (CFLP, 2015). Individual remittances to family members are largely used for consumption, education and healthcare (CFLP, 2015). Some evidence suggests that approximately 80% of the total remittances to Africa are used for education (CFLP, 2015). Diaspora networks can also be sources of social remittances in the form of ideas, values and skills transferred to the migrant's community of origin (CFLP, 2015). Collective remittances

are invested or used for development projects administered through networks and organisations including 'hometown associations', ethnic associations, alumni associations, religious associations, welfare and refugee groups etc. (CFLP, 2015). For example, women's microfinance initiative Mwanzo Upya in eastern Democratic Republic of Congo is a diaspora co-development project established in 2012 and organised by US NGO Congolese Genocide Awareness Inc. (CFLP, 2015). Research on the impacts of collective remittances, including in fragile and post-conflict situations, is scarce (CFLP, 2015).

The World Bank estimated official migrant remittances to sub-Saharan Africa were USD 40 billion in 2015 (CFLP, 2015). Remittances have increased approximately six-fold since 2000 (CFLP, 2015). Informal remittances (sent outside the formal financial system) to Africa are estimated to be twice that of the official estimate (CFLP, 2015). Private remittances constitute the largest source of international financial flows to Africa and a stable source of foreign exchange for national development (CFLP, 2015). This is particularly important in light of diminishing aid flows from OECD countries to low-income countries in Africa (CFLP, 2015).

Transaction costs

Within the literature on the diaspora, one of the key issues is high transaction costs for remittances (see for example, MADE, 2016). In the first quarter of 2018, the global average cost of sending remittances was 7.1% of the amount sent (World Bank, 2018). Estimates of transaction costs are higher for Africa: for example, a 2015 report estimated transactions costs were 12.5% of the sum remitted (CFLP, 2015).

Factors contributing to high costs include de-risking measures by commercial banks and exclusive partnerships between national post office systems and a single money transfer operator (World Bank, 2018). These factors constrain the introduction of more efficient and cheaper technologies, including Internet and smartphone apps and block-chain, hinder the growth of formal remittances, restrict competition and increase prices (World Bank, 2018, v; CFLP, 2015).

Reducing transaction costs would increase remittances' value to the sender and the receiver (MADE, 2016). The World Bank estimates that up to USD 100 billion could be raised annually by developing countries through reducing remittance costs, reducing migrant recruitment costs, mobilising diaspora savings and philanthropic contributions from migrants (MADE, 2016). Reducing the costs of remittances is part of the international development agenda. For example, the G8 have set a target of reducing costs to 5% and the UN's Sustainable Development Goals have a target of 3% for costs by 2030 (CFLP, 2015). If the G8 target is

met, it would increase the amount recipients receive annually by USD 1. 8 billion (CFLP, 2015).

Development, co-development and collective remittances

The profile and contribution of diaspora communities to development are receiving increasing attention. For example, the UN's Sustainable Development Goals call for the development of ways to mobilise diaspora savings and collective remittances, whilst the African Union argues that novel mechanisms are needed for harnessing and investing remittances for national development (CFLP, 2015). MADE (2016) argue that policy efforts are necessary in receiving countries to integrate remittances into broader national development strategies and financial democracy initiatives (MADE, 2016).

Co-development projects are increasing (MADE, 2016). However, diaspora organisations, including diaspora-led NGOs face a number of problems, including a lack of funding and challenges working in partnership with 'traditional' NGOs. Diaspora-led NGOs are often on the margins of the sector and one of the challenges is finding ways for diaspora groups and international NGOs to collaborate. Examples of collaboration include Progressio working with Somaliland Focus UK to organise election observations in Somaliland since 200534. Vark (2013) suggests that due to the size of diaspora remittances to developing countries, collaboration between diaspora organisations and NGOs could significantly improve aid effectiveness. Collective remittances, which are invested or used for entrepreneurship, can contribute positively to national development (MADE, 2016, p. 11). It is estimated that the African diaspora saves USD 53 billion annually, the majority of which is currently invested outside of Africa, instruments including diaspora bonds and other innovative financing mechanisms could mobilise these funds for development in Africa (MADE, 2016). A study of the Caribbean diaspora found that 40% had invested in a start-up of a company, with 57% of these companies being in the Caribbean (MADE, 2016).

A lack of skills, amongst other things, is responsible for the gap between potential diaspora investors and actual investors (MADE, 2016, p. 12). For example, a World Bank report on Sierra Leone found that between 45% and 63% of the diaspora surveyed were interested in investment, compared to 1% to 6% who had actually invested in bonds, equity, social impact and microenterprises (MADE, 2016). AFFORD UK, through its business support centre in Sierra Leone, ABC, supports fast-growth small and medium sized enterprises that have the potential to create jobs locally (MADE, 2016). National initiatives include the government of the Philippines BaLinkBayan online portal for diaspora engagement and the PinoyWise Filipino scheme, which supports the

Filipino diaspora to start enterprises in the Philippines, save or invest (MADE, 2016).

Maximising diaspora investment requires strong public-private partnerships, adequate access to finance and capital, business training and skills development, as well as regulatory and policy interventions on national and transnational levels (MADE, 2016). Research with the African diaspora in New England, USA, argues that institutional frameworks that enable a productive use of remittances are crucial, including organisational capacity building, access to financial services, development of business skills and relevant technical support (CFLP, 2015). Diaspora members also highlighted the lack of opportunities to connect the relevant organisations and networks on the sending and receiving sides (CFLP, 2015).

1.4   Trends Closing Spaces

Governments in numerous countries are restricting the space for civil society, particularly in the areas of advancing human rights or democratic principles (WEF, 2013, p. 7). Closing civil society spaces is not just taking place in southern countries, but in countries such as Russia, Hungary and Israel (Kreienkamp, 2017, p. 7). Poppe & Wolff (2017) argue that debates about civil society and closing spaces are part of a wider trend, 'the backlash against democracy promotion' and contestation of the contemporary world order36. They also highlight how there can be a conflict between the promotion of human rights and democracy (which is the normative basis for many CSOs receiving support from global north governments and international organisations) and state claims to sovereignty, self-determination and non-interference (Poppe & Wolff, 2017). For example, in 2018, Uganda's President Museveni blamed civil society, foreign interference and the media for political protests37.

CIVICUS' (2018, p. 4) State of Civil Society found that 109 out of 195 countries have closed, repressed or obstructed civic space38. Open civic space is characterised by freedom of association, peaceful assembly and freedom of expression: civil society depends on these three key rights39. CIVICUS (2018, p. 4) estimate that only 4% of the world's population live in civic space that can be classified as open; 14% in narrowed civic space; 37% in obstructed civic space; 17% in repressed civic space; and, 28% in closed civic space. In 2017, laws regulating the right to protest came into force or were proposed in Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Germany, Iraq, Norway, Paraguay, Russia and Tanzania; whilst, laws regulating free speech came into force or were proposed in Cote D'Ivoire, Fiji, Kazakhstan, Saudi Arabia, Thailand, Tunisia, Uruguay and Venezuela (CIVICUS, 2018, p. 8). Maina Kiai, the former UN Special Rapporteur on the Rights to Freedom of Peaceful Assembly and of Association, has

argued that, in many places around the world, civic space is no longer shrinking but 'already gone' (Kreienkamp, 2017, p. 2).

CIVICUS (2018, p. 12) have linked closing civil society spaces to the rise of populism, repressive governments asserting national sovereignty and the rise of socially conservative forces. Additional drivers include the 'war on terror' following 9/11 (Kreienkamp, 2017, p. 2). Civil society has been operating in an environment of 'continuous decline' in global political and civil liberties for the 'past decade' and deteriorating media freedom around the world (Kreienkamp, 2017). The International Centre for Not-for-Profit Law argues that 64 restrictive new laws and regulations were adopted by governments worldwide in 2015-16 leaving global civic space severely narrowed (Kreienkamp, 2017, p. 3).

UCL (University College London) have developed a new cross-country database documenting restrictive laws and practices in 177 countries from 2000 to 2014, as part of a new project to identify when, why and how states seek to silence civil society (Kreienkamp, 2017, p. 3). This project suggests that restrictions against CSOs are pervasive and widespread, with certain regions at particular risk (Kreienkamp, 2017, p. 3). Findings include: States who commit severe human rights abuses have a strong incentive to silence civil society, especially if they have signed human rights treaties; ☐ Hybrid regimes (neither consolidated democracies or full autocracies) are more likely to impose restrictions; ☐ There is also some evidence that states are more likely to restrict CSOs when faced with domestic security threats e.g. terrorism (Kreienkamp, 2017, p. 6).

States deploy a range of formal and informal strategies to undermine the credibility, financial stability and legal protection of CSOs (Kreienkamp, 2017):

➢ Legislation regulating foreign funding including requirements for CSOs to report on foreign funding;
➢ De-legitimisation campaigns that result in reputational costs, additional bureaucratic and administrative hurdles (e.g. requirement to file all planned activities in advance with the government), the risks of fines and other sanctions in case of non-compliance with new reporting targets, difficulties to access and engage with target groups, authorities and alternative national funders, and psychological pressures for the individuals involved;
➢ Governments creating 'loyal voices' by establishing government –organised nongovernmental organisations (GONGOs), for example, the Myanmar Women's Affairs Federation and Sudan's Human Rights Organisation40.

VanDyck (2017) argues that the establishment of GONGOs to infiltrate and gather information on the human rights community is an example of

the growing adversarial relationship between governments and human rights organisations (p. 2). In response, a significant number of human rights, humanitarian, training and grassroots organisations have become reluctant to engage and collaborate with governments (VanDyck, 2017).

Increased surveillance

Both the media and academics have expressed concerns about authorities' increasing surveillance of civil society, particularly journalists and human rights campaigners. For example, the Citizen Lab at the University of Toronto argue that Pegasus spyware has been used to target civil society by spying on people through their mobile phones, including in Mexico41. Ahmed & Perlroth (2017) have labelled Mexico one of the most hostile environments for journalists.

Since 2011, at least three Mexican federal agencies have purchased Pegasus spyware, which infiltrates smartphones to monitor calls, texts, emails, contacts and calendars, as well as being able to use the microphone and camera for surveillance (Ahmed & Perlroth, 2017). It is alleged that these agencies have illegally used Pegasus software to target human rights lawyers, journalists and anti-corruption activists (Ahmed & Perlroth, 2017). The Mexican government denies that it is behind the hacking of civil society actors' phones and the nature of the Pegasus software means that it is hard to determine exactly who is behind the specific hacking attempts (Ahmed & Perlroth, 2017). Experts at Toronto University's Citizen Lab believe it was the Mexican government as Pegasus software can only be used by the agency that purchased it (Ahmed & Perlroth, 2017).

Increased violence

More than 1,000 human rights defenders were killed, harassed, detained or subjected to smear campaigns in 2016: more than 75% of those killed were in Latin America (Kreienkamp, 2017). The rise in killings of environmental activists in Latin America has been linked to the expansion of extractive industries, the influx of associated multinational corporations and criminal enterprises, and a prevailing culture of effective state-sanctioned impunity (Kreienkamp, 2017). In 2016, Honduran environmental and indigenous rights campaigner, Berta Caceres who was campaigning against the construction of the Agua Zarca hydroelectric dam, was murdered42. In the following two years, according to Amnesty International, those campaigning for justice for Caceres have been threatened. Eight people have been arrested in connection with the murder, some of whom have links to the company building the dam and others to the military.

Media restrictions

Governments are controlling the free flow of information in order to control, monitor or silence civil society (Kreienkamp, 2017, p. 8). This includes journalists and media outlets being pressured into self-censorship (e.g. by the risk of costly lawsuits or personal risk), government increasing control of digital technologies and social media problems (e.g. by spreading fake news), and shutting down the internet when facing intense resistance (Kreienkamp, 2017, p. 8). Reporters without Borders (2017) argue that media freedom globally is more under threat now than ever before, with a worsening situation in nearly two-thirds of the 180 countries it includes in its World Press Freedom Index43. In 2017, Cameroon introduced a three-month internet block in its Anglophone regions; whilst Iran and Togo shut down the internet during mass protests (CIVICUS, 2018, p. 11). Viet Nam, jailed at least 25 online activists in 2017 (CIVICUS, 2018).

Restrictions on funding

Targeting foreign funding is one of the most effective and commonly used strategies to curb civil society, often justified on the grounds of increasing transparency (Kreienkamp, 2017):

➢ In India, at least 30 CSOs, including Greenpeace India have been refused a government license to receive foreign funding in 2016 because their activities were not deemed to be in the national interest;

➢ In Ethiopia, severe restrictions on foreign funding, introduced in 2009 resulted in 25% of local groups closing within three years.

Governments and policy-makers normally invoke the need to protect national security and sovereignty when adopting restrictions on foreign funding for domestic CSOs (Kreienkamp, 2017). For example, when introducing a 2004 bill to ban foreign funding for CSOs Zimbabwe's President Mugabe stated: "We cannot allow them to be conduits or instruments of foreign interference in our national affairs" (quoted in Kreienkamp, 2017). Academic research has suggested that governments are more likely to restrict foreign or foreign-supported CSOs when they are undergoing domestic political competition or challenges (Kreienkamp, 2017).

Many governments, including Russia, Hungary and Israel are regulating or cutting their funding for civil society, this includes making funding dependent on governmental approval, implementing a cap, prohibiting funding by certain donors or for certain kinds of activities, making it mandatory to channel donor funding through government backs, or banning foreign funding altogether (Kreienkamp, 2017).

Legal and regulatory measures used by governments to curtail international financing include:

➢ Requiring prior government approval for the receipt of international funding
➢ Enacting 'foreign agent' legislation to stigmatise internationally funded CSOs
➢ Caps on the amount of foreign funding a CSO can receive
➢ Requirement for foreign funding to be routed through government controlled entities
➢ Restricting activities that can be undertaken with foreign funding
➢ Prohibiting CSOs from receiving funding from specific donors
➢ Constraining international funding through the overly broad application of anti–money laundering and counterterrorism measures
➢ Taxing the receipt of international funding
➢ Imposing onerous reporting requirements on the receipt of international funding
➢ Using defamation, treason, and other laws to bring criminal charges against recipients of international funding (Rutzen, 2015).

Strategies for resisting closing spaces

In Botswana and Kenya, LGBT rights groups have successfully challenged government refusals to allow them to register (Kreienkamp, 2017). In 2014, UN Special Rapporteur, Maina Kiai launched a project to support strategic litigation in domestic and regional courts for cases related to the right of freedom of peaceful assembly and of association (Kreienkamp, 2017). However, this like other strategies to resist closing spaces, has some limitations: litigation is costly, the likelihood of success is dependent on the independence of the judiciary, and if successful, states can refuse to follow court orders (Kreienkamp, 2017).

Other strategies include:

• Network support (allows CSOs to engage in collective advocacy action);
• Diversifying funding;
• Forming links with international business;
• Third-party states voicing concern over civil society restrictions and exerting pressure on governments;
• Development of early warning mechanisms, including a suggested EU 'Shrinking Space Early Warning' mechanism that would allow Member States to respond to new restrictive legislation before it is passed (Kreienkamp, 2017, p. 11).

CIVICUS (2018) argue that 'the fightback is on': there are signs that citizens are organising and mobilising in new and creative ways to defend civic freedoms (p. 4). They cite El Salvador and the Dominican Republic as examples. In El Salvador, following years of civil society advocacy, the government passed a law banning environmental and socially harmful gold-mining practises (CIVICUS, 2018, p. 16). In the Dominican Republic, the Green March Movement brought people from all sections of society together to protest corruption (CIVICUS, 2018, p. 16)45.

Changing funding sources

International civil society leaders argue there has been a decline in funding available for advocacy, rights-based activities and causes that challenge the status quo (WEF, 2013). As part of the restrictions on civil society, some governments have taken steps to limit access to national and foreign funding (WEF, 2013). The WEF (2013) also argue that restrictions on civil society's space has implications for the willingness of the private sector in some countries to engage in social responsibility programmes due to worries about these being seen as a threat to the state.

Funding sources are changing for both domestic civil society organisations in developing countries and northern NGOs who operate in southern contexts. Traditional funding streams are shrinking along with modifications to donor criteria including diversification of funding sources, requirements for private sector partners and stringent requirements to demonstrate impact (WEF, 2013). New funding sources include market philanthropists, social entrepreneurs, social investment products and crowd-sourcing (WEF, 2013). Geopolitical and economic shifts including the expansion of Chinese foreign direct investment in Africa and the changing focus of donor countries from aid to trade with key emerging market economies are also shifting the axis of development (WEF, 2013). In the interviews for the WEF's 2013 Report into the future of civil society, civil society leaders identified competition for resources and visibility as a key barrier to effectiveness. For civil society based in the global south, dwindling donor funding and shifting priorities driven by foreign policy considerations pose a threat to their sustainability (VanDyck, 2017). VanDyck (2017) argues that in light of this, civil society in the global south needs to shift its focus and strengthen its ability to mobilise resources from domestic constituencies and reduce excessive dependency on foreign donors. Currently, the relationship between donors and civil society is ad hoc, short-term and on a project basis, consequently civil society groups can be seen as implementers of donors' development or foreign policy agendas and donors do not feel an obligation to support them to become robust or sustainable beyond project timelines (VanDyck, 2017).

Technology

Civil society groups are becoming more technologically literate, using social media platforms and new tools such as podcasts for awareness raising and fundraising and technological tools to improve the efficacy of their work (Jezard, 2018). For example, WWF (the Worldwide Fund for Nature) use aerial drone technology, animal tracking devices and infrared cameras in their work combatting illegal poaching of endangered species (Jezard, 2018). UNICEF's U-Report bot is a free SMS social monitoring tool: in 2015, working with government ministers in Liberia, it helped to uncover a scandal in which teachers were exploiting children by awarding grades and pass marks in return for sex (Jezard, 2018). In under 24 hours, 13,000 people had responded, counselling services identified and a support helpline established (Jezard, 2018).

Faith groups

The WEF (2013) argue that there is increasing interest in and prominence of faith and religious culture in public life, accompanied by a growing interest in the role of faith groups. Factors driving this interest are appreciation of the dynamism and the growth of faith in many parts of the world; the resources inherent within faith communities, e.g. human and social capital; governments extending new forms of participatory governance to include faith communities; and, the growing presence of religions online (WEF, 2013). Faith groups play a number of roles in development including that of service provider: in some African countries, the faiths provide 70% of health services (WEF, 2013). Faith groups also play an interesting role in the promotion of human rights: for example, in some cases arguing for protections for LGBTI people and in others adopting an anti-LGBTI people stance46. The role of faith groups is extremely interesting and merits more attention than is possible in this report

 1.5 Summary

Civil society is widely understood as the space outside the family, market and state (WEF, 2013). What constitutes civil society has developed and grown since the term first became popular in the 1980s and it now signifies a wide range of organised and organic groups including nongovernmental organisations (NGOs), trade unions, social movements, grassroots organisations, online networks and communities, and faith groups (VanDyck, 2017; WEF, 2013). Civil society organisations (CSOs), groups and networks vary by size, structure and platform ranging from international non-governmental organisations (e.g. Oxfam) and mass social movements (e.g. the Arab Spring) to

small, local organisations (e.g. Coalition of Jakarta Residents Opposing Water Privatisation).

1.6   References/further Reading/web Resource

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 **1.7   Possible answer to self-assessment exercise (s)
within the content**

Self-assessment exercise 1

What is civil society?

Answer

Civil society has been broadly defined as the "area outside the family, market and state" (WEF, 2013). For example, the EU defines civil society as "all forms of social action carried out by individuals or groups who are neither connected to, nor managed by, the State"8. The African Development Bank argues that civil society is the voluntary expression of the interests and aspirations of citizens organised and united by common interests, goals, values or traditions and mobilised into collective action (AfDB, 2012). Civil society encompasses a spectrum of actors with a wide range of purposes, constituencies, and structures, degrees of organisation, functions, size, resource levels, cultural contexts, ideologies, membership, geographical coverage, strategies and approaches (WEF, 2013, p. 8; AfDB, 2012,).

Self-assessment exercise 2

Give examples of civil society roles

Answer

Examples of civil society roles are:

Global civil society: Bangladesh's Ready Made Garment Industry

NGOs and trade unions in both Bangladesh and countries that consume clothes made in Bangladesh have been working together to improve working conditions, raise awareness and call for a fair minimum wage. For example, the Clean Clothes Campaign, a global alliance of NGOs and trade unions is currently running a campaign calling for fashion brand H&M (the biggest buyer of clothes from Bangladesh) to 'Turn Around' and honour its commitment that the 850,000 workers who make their clothes will be paid a living wage by the end of 201819. The Accord on Fire and Building Safety in Bangladesh was launched in 2013 after the collapse of the Rana Plaza building, which housed a number of garment factories20. The Accord is an independent, legally binding agreement between brands and trade unions, with four NGO witnesses (the Clean Clothes Campaign, the International Labor Rights

Forum, the Worker Rights Consortium and Maquila Solidarity Network). The NGOs and trade unions have been monitoring implementation, running campaigns to ensure brands follow through on their commitments, highlighting problems with implementation and campaigning (successfully) for compensation for the families of workers who lost their lives in the 2013 building collapse.

National civil society: Zambia

Civil society in Zambia occupies a number of roles. For example, Village Water Zambia, supported by funding from international NGOs including the Norwegian Church Aid Alliance, install boreholes in rural areas, provide hygiene and sanitation training in schools and villages, and install latrines in schools21. In addition to domestic NGOs, international NGOs such as Oxfam are active in Zambia. For example, Oxfam has been working to improve livelihoods in the Copper belt region, including launching a Land Rights Centre. Faith groups are integral members of civil society in Zambia, with groups providing a number of services including running schools. Faith-based organisations include the Young Women's Christian Association (YWCA), which runs drop-in centres around the country for women and children in crisis situations. Zambia has 288 rural chiefdoms: this system of traditional leadership includes village headmen/women, local chiefs, and prominent tribal chiefs (in the case of the Lozi people, this is their king, the Litunga). The system also varies by tribe. The government of Zambia, NGOs and international organisations recognise the role of traditional leadership in Zambian society. For example, in November 2017, over 30 spouses of traditional leaders from various chiefdoms participated in a dialogue meeting in Lusaka with the government, international organisations and donors on the subject of safeguarding adolescent girls at the community level24. Zambia's First Lady stated that as "custodians of customs and traditions, traditional leaders can be champions, initiators and agents of change towards eliminating child marriage, teenage pregnancy and gender-based violence".

Advocacy and delivering services

Many domestic African organisations working with gender and sexual minorities deliver critical services as well as engaging in advocacy (Mbote, 2016). These organisations often face a difficult or repressive climate and do not always receive support from other civil society organisations when faced with government moves to restrict them (Mbote, 2016). For example, the Kenyan High Court has ruled that the government cannot block the National Gay and Lesbian Human Rights Commission, but the group is still unregistered (Mbote, 2016). In Botswana, a similar organisation won a protracted case for registration: the Catholic Church labelled the judgement a deliberate attempt to push

dangerous agendas and ideologies that are un-African and un-Christian (Mbote, 2016).

Mbote (2016) argues that funding for organisations representing marginalised groups is critical to their success, because they are unlikely to raise resources from their membership (who may suffer from economic impoverishment) or even wealthier citizens in their own countries. However, there are few organisations that fund gender and sexual minorities specific issues globally, and for those that do, this funding represents a tiny portion of their budgets (Mbote, 2016).

Partnerships with the private sector

These include 'bottom of the pyramid' business models, creating new products and services to target unmet needs, and setting voluntary standards for a specific issue or industry sector (WEF, 2013, p. 9). Examples include: ☐ CARE in Bangladesh partnering with Danone communities to form a rural distribution system targeting marginalised people; ☐ Mercy Corps co-founded MiCRO with Haiti's largest microfinance institution Fonkoze, partnering with DFID and Swiss Re (WEF, 2013). Business leaders from major multinationals are actively contributing to global governance processes, for example, the World Business Council for Sustainable Development (WEF, 2013, p. 10). Some actors have expressed concern at the emergence of the private sector in the civil society space (see for example, CIVICUS, 2018).

Unit 2   The Concept of Civil Society and Globalization and Development Strategies

Unit Structure

 2.1   Introduction

The concept of civil society has become increasingly important and gained much greater acknowledgment in development studies in recent years. The unequal distribution of wealth in the face of economic development has made development policy thinkers realize that economic growth is insufficient by itself. Now, many scholars and practitioners consider development to be as much an institutional and organizational phenomenon as it is an economic one (Roberts, 2005). Development in a broader context regards the creation of civil society to be as significant as economic improvement. This essay argues that the concept of civil society is a vital part of human development in particular and of development generally. Building civil society touches all other human development issues such as democratic governance, the organization of social capital, eradication of poverty and the role of culture in development. I agree with Edwards that the concept of civil society does offer both a touchstone for social movements and practical framework for organizing resistance and alternative solutions to social, economic and political problems (Edwards, 2004). I would also argue that the concept of civil society is significantly enhanced through the globalization process, along with democracy, human rights, good governance and other development-related issues. To achieve the objective(s), I will start by reviewing the contemporary debates about civil society and its definition. Secondly, I will highlight some important issues about civil society and its significance to development issues. Finally, I will explain why non-government organizations (NGOs) play a significant role in strengthening civil society.

2.2 Learning Outcomes

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- explain the concept of civil society
- discuss the civil society, globalization and development strategies
- explain the civil society and democracy
- evaluate the role of ngo's as form of civil society

2.3 The Concept of Civil Society and Its Significance on Development Practice

2.3.1 The Concept of Civil Society

Having set these broader parameters, this essay will now engage in current intellectual debates around the concept of civil society. The definition of civil society for most scholars, social activists and development practitioners is a 'collection of diverse interest groups and social organizations that is strong enough to provide some autonomy and protection to individuals from authoritarian and hegemonic tendencies of states.' Broadly, civil society underscores the importance of markets and liberal states to independent social life (Krieger, 2001). While Hegel (Blackburn, 2005) simply stated that civil society is 'forms of social association intermediate between the family and the states', such definitions lack detail and specificity. Nonetheless, they do emphasize that researchers do not have a general consensus of the theory and construct of civil society. For example, the sociologist Adam Seligman expresses strong doubts on the concept of civil society and finds that the concept adds little more to the methodological toolbox than do concepts of liberal citizenship or democracy. He also points out the problem of definition: 'in this contemporary 'revival' of the idea of civil society, the concept has come to mean different things to different people ....the resulting picture is one the great ambiguity and not a little confusion...' Seligman concludes that the concept of civil society cannot provide an adequate solution to the contemporary impasse: 'Whether the concept of civil society itself as either an analytic idea or a normative ideal brings us farther [sic] towards (sic) resolution is...open to serious question' (Bernard and Helmich, 1998). Not surprisingly, it is not easy for a public policy maker to give a clear working definition of civil society. For instance, the Libreville Declaration includes the private sector as one of the actors in civil society. However, this definition brings confusion to the distinction between market and civil society.

Government, of course, does not find any problem in encouraging the development of the private sector, a sentiment that is not necessarily shared by empowering non-state actors such NGOs and the mass media (Bernard and Helmich, 1998). In contrasting an operationalisable approach to civil society, however, it makes sense to narrow the definition so that it embraces primary non-governmental organizations (NGO's) emphasizing public rather than private goals, or more specifically, voluntary groups concerned inter alia with influencing state policy (Hulme and Edwards 1997)

2.3.2 Civil Society, Globalization and Development Strategies

The growing recognition of civil society cannot exist without the process of globalization. On a functional level, globalization has increased the interconnection of the world and its people. Norms and values are shared globally and regarded as common ground. Ideas and concepts coming from the Western world, in particular, are spread widely by the rapid development of communication technologies, including the high regard placed on the concept of civil society as a means and an ends to human development. Martin Albrow (Solomon and Scuderi, 2002) argues that globalization has turned communities into a 'single world society, global society'. However, the openness required by globalization does not necessary guarantee growth and more equitable income distribution. Indeed, some regard globalization as actually promoting inequality within and between countries (Solomon and Scuderi, 2002). The failure of globalization to bring the theory of 'trickle-down effect' into reality, and the fact that poverty and inequality remain entrenched worldwide, have brought acknowledgement that globalization has failed to bring development for all. The argument of 'trickle-down effect' which implies that through the current form of globalization, wealth, technology transfer, knowledge sharing and economies of scale will be shared and enjoyed by all is actually working in reverse in most developing nations.   The consequences of globalization have become a key concern of development scholars and practitioners. An increasing number of people in poverty, particularly in the third world, have led to conservative, growth-centered development theory and policies being questioned in search of better development strategies. In light of this the concept of civil society, in which emphasis is placed on people's participation, has been incorporated in development strategies and this will be discussed briefly.   Conservative growth strategies highlight capital investment as the source of economic growth. People's participation is only accounted in their economic functions as laborers and consumers. To address the need for growth with equity, some development strategies try to incorporate people's participation but do so only in a limited way. They deliver public services, with no involvement in planning or controlling. In response,

recent development strategies, favored by most NGOs, advocate people-centered development. Korten in his recent work underlines the need for a shift from growth-oriented to people-centered development strategies. This shift implies giving first priority to the fulfillment of the basic needs of the poor which, in turn, requires that the rich in the world reduce their consumption to a sustainable level (Korten 1990, in Martinussen, 1997). In people-centered development, participation takes different meaning in policy agendas. Its objective is to reverse the tendency towards concentrating power in impersonal and unaccountable institutions, returning it to people and communities and ensuring its equitable distribution (Bauzon, 1992). Theories of people's participation envisage that people can, and should, play a role in development planning and implementation, but again, there is a tendency to reduce individual citizens to actors with only marginal influence and subordinate role (Martinussen, 1997). Hence, the essential part of the policy agenda of people-centered development is that people have constant access to decision-making power (UNDP, 1993). It encourages people to participate effectively through forms of civil society. Theories of people-centered (managed) development do not claim that people have, so far, played more prominent roles in aggregate societal development than described in mainstream theories. However, they claim, on the one hand, that people have effectively managed their own development at the micro-level to a significantly higher degree than is recognized in mainstream thinking, and on the other, that people ought to play much more prominent roles at the macro level, because that is the only way genuine progress and improvement can be attained (Martinussen, 1997). The problem now, perhaps, is finding how to replicate people-centered types of development effort from local communities to higher levels of social organization. People-centered development also places human development as integral part of its theoretical framework. Human development stresses the need to invest in human capabilities and then ensure that these capabilities are used for the benefit of all (UNDP, 1993). Greater participation plays a vital role here, as it helps to maximize the use of human capabilities and is thus a means of increasing levels of social and economic development (UNDP, 1993). Greater participation also means enabling people to gain for themselves access to a much broader range of opportunities (UNDP, 1993). As participation is a key factor in people-centered development

2.4   Civil Society and Democracy

Civil society is also a significant determinant of the overall character of democratic transitions and post-democratization polities. (Kamrava, 2000). Transition to a viable democracy can be greatly facilitated by the prior existence of civil society (Kamrava, 2000). Friedman in his book elaborated his normative theory on inclusive democracy using the more

extensive theory of civil society. His main interest was to identify conditions that excluded poor people from decision-making and prevented them from getting a fair share of society's resources. The strategy Friedman proposed centered around empowerment of the poor and devolution of powers to local authorities which should, at the same time, be made accountable to the majority of their citizens – that is the poor people in their areas of jurisdiction (Friedman, 1992 in Martinussen, 1997). Democracy basically demands strong institutions of civil society (such as a free press) and diversity of NGOs (such as the environmental groups and corporate watchdog groups that have had such an impact in many countries in recent years. (UNDP 1993). However, democracy can merely be an empty ritual of periodic elections unless people participate, in an aware and empowered fashion, in all the institutions of civil society. Elections are necessary, but are certainly not a sufficient condition for democracy. Political participation is not just the casting of votes. Even where citizens can elect their leaders in regular, free and fair elections, they seldom have achieved political participation. If people in developing countries are to influence development, the trends towards democracy will have to widen and deepen (UNDP, 1993). Hence, the process of democratization can be significantly assisted by the presence of civil society. However, civil society may not always usher in a democratic transition; the state may put up an effective fight and hang on to the reins of power. A viable democracy requires civil society, but civil society in itself does not necessarily mean democratization. Kamrava (Kamrava, 2002) argues that to have democratic consequences, civil society organizations must embark on democratizing themselves and the larger social and political environment within which they operate.

Furthermore, it needs to be recognized that the transition towards democratically elected governments does not, in itself; guarantee a society with greater political participation, and other aspects of political culture must be considered (Bernard and Helmich, 1998). In most new democracies, not only the state but also the civil society is weak (Przeworski, 1995). As a result, civil society has been rediscovered as a necessary precondition of democratic society (Bernard and Helmich, 1998). Presently, civil society is increasingly recognized as being vital to the successful realization of development. Countries, in response, are increasingly encouraging the development of the institutions of civil society, including: a fair judiciary, a responsive executive, a free press and a tradition of transparency, accountability and fair play (UNDP 1993). Here, a strong civil society supports democracy by deepening policy accountability to its citizens. In a negative sense the state must be kept from abuse and venality, but in positive sense, in accountability the state must be responsive to the needs and want of its people (Hulme and Edwards, 1997). However, too much interest group influence on the

state, which emerges in the name of civil society, might lead to the immobilism and a hardening of democratic arteries or 'gridlock' rather to a rich a vibrant democratic polity (Hulme and Edwards, 1997). So far, focus on civil society also reflects a growing awareness of the importance of local institutions in supporting and undertaking development. Development agencies, such as the UNDP and World Bank, concerned with objectives such as poverty reduction and good governance, often consider it crucial to strengthen local institutions that are able to work independently to ensure that government policies and programs are effective. Such institutions, out of direct government control and committed to a range of often diverse (and sometimes contradictory) objectives to increase the well-being of one or more groups in society, have become loosely associated with the term "civil society" (Bernard and Helmich, 1998). As forms of civil society, NGO's are playing significant role in strengthening the institutions of civil society.

2.4.1 The role of NGO's as form of civil society

Miltin (Bernard and Helmich, 1998), in her article, gives examples of civil society as diverse forms of institution, including: non-governmental organizations, non-profit making associations, informal organizations addressing issues of public interest and self-help groups. Furthermore, she gives definition of NGO's as professional, non-profit, non-membership intermediary organizations which are independent of the state and which undertake a range of activities in order to further development objectives (Bernard and Helmich, 1998). According to a UNDP report in 1993, NGO's can be defined as voluntary organizations that work with and very often on behalf of others. NGO's have often been singled out by both local and international development workers as having the ability to play an important intermediary role in the effort to empower the people and gain their participation in development (UNDP, 1993). In recent years, NGO's have become a conduit for resources, influence and ideas flowing from people to government, and government to people. (MacPherson and Wong, 1998). Moreover, NGO's have a special role to play with respect to civil society organization and the state, because they are willing to be advocates for all civil society and because they frequently act as interlocutors among civil society organizations and between these organizations and the state. They seek to bring different parties together and re-align the relationships among them in order to achieve the NGO's objectives for development. In many countries, NGO's have struggled to make the state more accountable and more inclusive of different social groups (Bernard and Helmich, 1998). However, strong criticism from NGO's may result in the state perceiving NGO's as a threat to its legitimacy. It may also lead to unhealthy competition between the state and NGO's to

gain people's trust, especially at the local community level. Perhaps what should be realized here is that NGO's can help improve the functioning of government and vice versa, and NGO's generally work better under strong legitimate governments rather than weak ones. In contrast with official development approaches which emphasize infrastructural development, commercial benefit, and creation of industrial development opportunities for exporters, the NGO vision of development generally embraces a commitment to both the social and economic welfare of people (Jones and Wunder, 1995 in MacPherson and Wong, 1998). It is claimed by NGO's that this approach embodies a strong sense of politically and economically based democracy which is grounded in grassroots participation – participation with and by the people. As well as aiming to improve the quality of life for impoverished communities, NGO's claim they seek to redress social injustices by strengthening the capacity of people in developing countries to facilitate structural changes to allow their communities and indigenous organizations to focus on their needs and priorities(UN, 1992 in MacPherson and Wong, 1998). Some NGO's are at the forefront of the democratization process   that has transformed several countries in Asia, and it is well recognized that NGO's have enabled people to be empowered through their engagement with communities. Educational and organizational activities undertaken by many NGO's have the effect of empowering local communities, sectoral alliances, and marginalized group of society. NGO's often are the symbols of promoting people's participation. Genuine grassroots activity by NGO's has been a means of empowering people and elevating their economic status. (MacPherson and Wong, 1998) However, even if NGO's are seen to promote democracy, NGO's often sideline existing democratic institution and create group of their own design. In India, the tendency to belittle the work of political parties by pointing out that politicians are corrupt, combined with the Gandian ideal of 'going to the villagers' to build a true and direct democracy, makes it convenient for NGO's to circumvent the elected bodies (Lindberg and Sverrisson, 1997). Therefore, there should be awareness that NGO's activities might create disharmony among already existing institutions. A second important role of NGOs centers on the need to develop partnerships with government in the developing process, i.e. as intermediary organizations between people and government, and between people's organizations and government agencies. NGO's are often able to bridge differences between these entities and provide communication linkages. They have also been able to provide constructive critiques of government plans for community development, and because NGO's have often been close to the community and part of the community, they have been able to instigate changes to those plans (MacPherson and Wong, 1998). Addressing fundamental inequalities of power and resources by speaking out in favour of particular groups, organizing to defend the

interest of poor people, and lobbying government for policy change, has always been central to NGO mission. Many of largest and most respected international NGO's today (such as Save the Children and Oxfam) were born and raised in opposition to government policy and vested interests at the time. However, these roles are in question if NGO's continue becoming more and more dependent on government support. Increasing reliance on government contract is already hindering the campaigning work of the larger NGO's in the USA and UK. A context in which NGO's compete with each other for official support seems unlikely to foster the collaborative relationships on which successful policy alliances are built (Convey, 1995 in Hulme and Edwards, 1997) In addition, the concern of poverty and the need to minimize it, and ideally to eliminate it entirely, is no longer an isolated local problem, but with the growth of nationalism and capitalism, it has become part of broader social problem for the state. Initially, NGO's attempted to promote 'bottom up' development efforts that improved the ability of local organizations to solve national problems and, in this way, proposed more radical reforms than those put forward by governments. (MacPherson and Wong, 1998). Interestingly, part of the attraction of the civil society project for NGOs lies in the clear role it delineates for them as international nonstate actors. International civil society is becoming the arena for social activism in a system that is seen as increasingly interconnected or "global," a system in which the state's capacity to regulate or effect change has diminished. In the NGOs' view, globalization means that states can no longer be the chief focus for transformative social reform projects; NGOs themselves are the principal vehicles for global change (Grugel, 2000).

2.5   Summary

To sum up, the concept of civil society deserves very serious attention. Even there is no consensus of about what civil society is, it certain from the discussion above that civil society will generally be benefit to social capital, sustainable democracy, and eradication of poverty and at the end a key success to long term sustainable development. The debate surrounding the role of civil society and NGO's should not be focus on its role vis a vis state, but how the NGO's could be more effective in complementing the state role rather than replacing or challenging it in the development arena.

The increasing role of civil society in development has challenged the very idea of mainstream development in which state as central actor and infrastructure development is the primary focus. The people-centred development encouraged by civil society and NGO's has contributed to

bring the development back to the people, but in doing so, NGO's may be perceived as the challenger of the state rather than the complimentary partner of the state.

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2.7   Possible answer to self-assessment exercise (s) within the content

Self-assessment exercise 1

Define the Concept of Civil Society

Answer

Having set these broader parameters, this essay will now engage in current intellectual debates around the concept of civil society. The definition of civil society for most scholars, social activists and development practitioners is a 'collection of diverse interest groups and social organizations that is strong enough to provide some autonomy and protection to individuals from authoritarian and hegemonic tendencies of states.' Broadly, civil society underscores the importance of markets and liberal states to independent social life (Krieger, 2001). While Hegel (Blackburn, 2005) simply stated that civil society is 'forms of social association intermediate between the family and the states', such definitions lack detail and specificity. Nonetheless, they do emphasize that researchers do not have a general consensus of the theory and construct of civil society. For example, the sociologist Adam Seligman expresses strong doubts on the concept of civil society and finds that the concept adds little more to the methodological toolbox than do concepts of liberal citizenship or democracy. He also points out the problem of definition: 'in this contemporary 'revival' of the idea of civil society, the concept has come to mean different things to different people ....the resulting picture is one the great ambiguity and not a little confusion...' Seligman concludes that the concept of civil society cannot provide an adequate solution to the contemporary impasse: 'Whether the concept of civil society itself as either an analytic idea or a normative ideal brings us farther [sic] towards (sic) resolution is...open to serious question' (Bernard and Helmich, 1998). Not surprisingly, it is not easy for a public policy maker to give a clear working definition of civil society. For instance, the Libreville Declaration includes the private sector as one of the actors in civil society. However, this definition brings confusion to the distinction between market and civil society. Government, of course, does not find any problem in encouraging the development of the private sector, a sentiment that is not necessarily shared by empowering non-state actors such NGOs and the mass media (Bernard and Helmich, 1998). In contrasting an operationalisable approach to civil society, however, it makes sense to narrow the definition so that it embraces primary non-governmental organizations (NGO's) emphasizing public rather than private goals, or more

specifically, voluntary groups concerned inter alia with influencing state policy (Hulme and Edwards 1997)

Self-assessment exercise 2

Significance of Civil Society on Development Practice

Answer

Civil society is also a significant determinant of the overall character of democratic transitions and post-democratization polities. (Kamrava, 2000). Transition to a viable democracy can be greatly facilitated by the prior existence of civil society (Kamrava, 2000). Friedman in his book elaborated his normative theory on inclusive democracy using the more extensive theory of civil society. His main interest was to identify conditions that excluded poor people from decision-making and prevented them from getting a fair share of society's resources. The strategy Friedman proposed centered around empowerment of the poor and devolution of powers to local authorities which should, at the same time, be made accountable to the majority of their citizens – that is the poor people in their areas of jurisdiction (Friedman, 1992 in Martinussen, 1997). Democracy basically demands strong institutions of civil society (such as a free press) and diversity of NGOs (such as the environmental groups and corporate watchdog groups that have had such an impact in many countries in recent years. (UNDP 1993). However, democracy can merely be an empty ritual of periodic elections unless people participate, in an aware and empowered fashion, in all the institutions of civil society. Elections are necessary, but are certainly not a sufficient condition for democracy. Political participation is not just the casting of votes. Even where citizens can elect their leaders in regular, free and fair elections, they seldom have achieved political participation. If people in developing countries are to influence development, the trends towards democracy will have to widen and deepen (UNDP, 1993). Hence, the process of democratization can be significantly assisted by the presence of civil society. However, civil society may not always usher in a democratic transition; the state may put up an effective fight and hang on to the reins of power. A viable democracy requires civil society, but civil society in itself does not necessarily mean democratization. Kamrava (Kamrava, 2002) argues that to have democratic consequences, civil society organizations must embark on democratizing themselves and the larger social and political environment within which they operate.

Furthermore, it needs to be recognized that the transition towards democratically elected governments does not, in itself; guarantee a society with greater political participation, and other aspects of political

culture must be considered (Bernard and Helmich, 1998). In most new democracies, not only the state but also the civil society is weak (Przeworski, 1995). As a result, civil society has been rediscovered as a necessary precondition of democratic society (Bernard and Helmich, 1998). Presently, civil society is increasingly recognized as being vital to the successful realization of development. Countries, in response, are increasingly encouraging the development of the institutions of civil society, including: a fair judiciary, a responsive executive, a free press and a tradition of transparency, accountability and fair play (UNDP 1993). Here, a strong civil society supports democracy by deepening policy accountability to its citizens. In a negative sense the state must be kept from abuse and venality, but in positive sense, in accountability the state must be responsive to the needs and want of its people (Hulme and Edwards, 1997). However, too much interest group influence on the state, which emerges in the name of civil society, might lead to the immobilism and a hardening of democratic arteries or 'gridlock' rather to a rich a vibrant democratic polity (Hulme and Edwards, 1997). So far, focus on civil society also reflects a growing awareness of the importance of local institutions in supporting and undertaking development. Development agencies, such as the UNDP and World Bank, concerned with objectives such as poverty reduction and good governance, often consider it crucial to strengthen local institutions that are able to work independently to ensure that government policies and programs are effective. Such institutions, out of direct government control and committed to a range of often diverse (and sometimes contradictory) objectives to increase the well-being of one or more groups in society, have become loosely associated with the term "civil society" (Bernard and Helmich, 1998). As forms of civil society, NGO's are playing significant role in strengthening the institutions of civil society.

Unit 3   The Role Of Civil Society Organizations (CSOS) In The Nigerian Democratization Process

Unit structure

3.1   Introduction
3.2   Learning Outcomes
3.3   Main Content
        3.3.1   Civil Society Organizations
        3.3.2   Democracy and Democratization
        3.3.3   Civil Society Organizations and Democratization Process in Nigeria
3.4   Civil Society Organizations under the Military in Nigeria
        3.4.1   The Role of Civil Society Organizations in the democratization process in Nigeria
        3.4.2   Contribution of Civil Society Organizations to the sustenance of democracy in Nigeria
        3.4.3   Challenges of Civil Society Organizations in the Democratic Process in Nigeria
3.5   Summary
3.6   References/Further reading/web Resource
3.7   Possible answer to self0assessment exercise (s) within the content

3.1   Introduction

Africa's nascent" civil societies are usually portrayed as the prime movers in the democratisation process in the 1990s. However, with the establishment of democratic governments in Africa, especially in Nigeria, it seems the expectations about the role and capacity of these civil society organizations to promote governance reform and foster democratic deepening has been under estimated. Against the growing pessimism about the capacity of these organisations to fulfil their democratic potentials, this paper explores the role of civil society organisations (CSOs) in the Nigerian democratization process. Civil society has been defined not only as the engine of the transition to democracy in Nigeria and elsewhere, but also as equally crucial to the vitality of democracy. According toChazan (1996:282) the nurturing of civil society is widely perceived as the most effective means of controlling repeated abuses of state power, holding rulers accountable to their citizens and establishing the foundations for durable democratic government. Proposing that "a vibrant civil society is probably more essential for consolidating and maintaining democracy than for initiating it", Diamond (1994) defines the role of civil society as that of "containing the power of democratic governments, checking their

potential for abuse and violation of the law, and subjecting them to public scrutiny". He believes that civil society organizations supplement political parties as schools for leadership training and fostering the development of democratic culture. Citizens learn political advocacy and contestation from participating in such organizations. As avenues for interest aggregation and representation, Diamond posits that they serve to mitigate political conflicts. The theory of social capital also underscores the importance of civil society to the democratisation process. Coming from a plethora of Military interregnum, democratization process in Nigeria have been challenging, especially for CSOs to make vital contributions. According to Gbodi (2001:3) the role and contributions of civil society to democratization process in Nigeria is in different phases and so could not be generalized. He said their role from 1985 to 1999 centred on the campaign for immediate disengagement of the military from the political space and the restoration of democracy in the country. Civil society (under the military) was successful in accomplishing the above objective, however, the role changed to that of deepening democratic practices from 1999 and because the Nigerian civil society is yet to change its campaign strategy from militant to a pro-active method, it is presently experiencing difficulties in its interaction with „democratic governments". He further argued that the above challenge has impacted negatively on the role and contributions of the sector to the „second phase" of democratization process in the country.

3.2   Learning Outcomes

By the end of the course, students should be able to:

- understand the role of CSOs in the democratization process in Nigeria
- analyze the role of CSOs in the Nigerian democratization process
- discuss the contribution of CSOs in the democratization process in Nigeria.
- identify the challenges CSOs faced in trying to make their contributions to democracy.

3.3   Role of Civil Society Organizations (Csos) in the Nigerian Democratization Process

3.3.1 Civil Society Organizations

The issue of defining what constitutes Civil Society Organizations (CSOs) is a problematic one. Halloway(2001) sees the term CSO as a positive descriptive term and defines it as "citizens, associating neither for power nor for profit, are the third sector of society, complementing government and business, and they are the people who constitute civil society organizations". CSOs can encompass grass-roots organizations, citizen"s movements, trade unions, cooperatives, and NGOs, and other ways in which citizens associate for non-politically partisan and non-profit motives. They are not necessarily formal or registered. Halloway looks at the political economy of the modern society in three basic sectors-state, business and a third sector defined by citizen self-organization. The state"s distinctive competence is legitimate use of coercion. The business sector"s competence is market exchange and the third sector"s competence is private choice for the public good. Citizens mobilize through values they share with other citizens and through shared commitment to action with other citizens. Holloway further states that it is taken as given that CSOs can do things which neither of the other national development actors-the government and the corporate sector-can do on their own. Van Rooy (1998) defines CSOs as "the population of groups formed for collective purposes primarily outside of the state and market place". It is also defined as "the sum total of those organizations and networks which lie outside the formal state apparatus" (Source Book, 2000). Something very common with the above definitions is the emphasis on the fact that civil society operates outside the state, and this means that civil society must be independent. For McNicoll (1995), Civil society is "the totality of self-initiating and self-regulating organizations, peacefully pursuing a common interest, advocating a common cause, or expressing a common passion; respecting the right of others to do the same; and maintaining their relative autonomy vis-a-vis the state, the family, the temple, and the market." According to Diamond (1994:5), Civil society is the: The realm of organized social life that is voluntary, self-generating, self-supporting, autonomous from the state and bound by the legal order or set of shared rules … It involves citizens acting collectively in a public sphere to express their interests, passions, and ideas, exchange information, achieve mutual goals, make demands on the state, and hold state officials accountable. It is an intermediary entity, standing between the private sphere and the state. Diamond like the scholars earlier mentioned also focus on the autonomous and voluntary nature of CSOs.

Deducing from this, a civil society can simply be defined as stake holding, nongovernmental agencies, institutions and groups within a state, having the ability to influence certain decision, policies and activities of either government or other groups within the state. Civil society is also defined by White (1994) as an intermediate associational realm between state and a family, populated by organizations separate from the state, enjoys autonomy in relation to the state and is formed voluntarily by members of the society to protect or extend their interests or values. For Layton (2004), civil society is "social organizations occupying the space between the household and the state that enable the people to coordinate their management of resources and activities." In similar vein, Bayart (1986) sees the civil society as a political space between the household and the state. He went further to state that, "it encompasses NGOs, advocacy organizations, business associations, chamber of commerce, informal community groups, cultural societies, religions, sports clubs, labour unions, students organizations, youth organizations, community based organizations, social movements, traditional leadership, women organizations, professional associations e.g physicians and lawyers associations, and the media. This definition is all encompassing and it agrees with that of Diamond above, as they both concluded that the civil society is an intermediary entity, standing between the private sphere and the state. This means that the CSOs have the ability to influence certain decision, policies and activities of either government or other groups within the state.

3.1.2 Democracy and Democratization

The term democracy literally signifies "the rule of the people". Abraham Lincoln"s definition of Democracy is close to its literal meaning. It reads, "Democracy is the government of the people, by the people and for the people" Guaba, (2005). The simplicity of this definition does not do justice to the extremely controversial notion of the concept. Guaba provides an array of interpretation of democracy beginning with the elitist version typified by Mannheim (1998), who argued that the people cannot directly participate in government, but they can make their aspirations felt at certain intervals; and this is sufficient for democracy. The pluralist version finds expression in Dahl"s interpretation who insists that the policy making process, however centralized it may appear in form, is in reality, a highly decentralized process of bargaining among relatively autonomous groups. Democracy therefore, can at best be said to be relative. For Agi (2000) writing on the concept of Democracy, firstly made a distinction between direct and representative democracy. In a direct democracy, all citizens participate directly in the laws and take turns in carrying them out. This form of Democracy was practiced in ancient Greece and in decentralized pre-colonial Africa societies. It gave way to representative democracy due to size in

population and territory. In Representative democracy, the people do not generally make the laws or administer them but choose those who will do it. This latter type characterizes the modern type of Democracy. Like the concept of Democracy, the definition of democratization has consistently been subject to analytical scrutiny by social scientists. In his definition, Conteh-Morgan (1998) posits that democratization is an increase in political equality and a decrease in coercive rule; although, he fail to say how. To him, democratization is above all a matter of power. He contends that it is power relations that most importantly determine whether democratization can emerge, be stabilized and then maintain itself in the face of adverse economic conditions. Instead of calling it power relations, Manor (2004) argued that, the success of any democratization process to a large extent depends on government commitment. Ifeanacho and Nwagwu (2009), argues that democratization does not simply connote change of government. It goes beyond the dethronement of authoritarian regime and organization of political parties and elections. To them, democratization is more appropriately viewed as the institutionalization of democratic principles as part of everyday culture in a society.

3.1.3 Civil Society Organizations and Democratization Process in Nigeria

i.   **Evolution of Civil Society and Democracy in Nigeria:** Civil society in Nigeria as in other third world nations differs sharply in terms of its evolution from that of the Western world. This has tended to shape its actions, objectives or goals. While in the western society, civil society grew out of necessities, that is to say, they grew out of the expansion of state which was occasioned by the complexities of governmental role in everyday affairs; third world civil society came about as a result of dissatisfaction with state policies. In fact, most scholars and political commentators have tended to trace the evolution and subsequent proliferation of civil society groups to the high-handedness witnessed by the masses during military dictatorship in Nigeria as in other third world nations (Ikubaje, 2011). Civil society actors in Nigeria have been in the vanguard of the democratic struggle, especially immediately after Independence in 1960. Prior to independence, civil society actors emanating from political change and ending colonial rule, were already in place; however tenuous in Nigeria. Many of the early civil society groups in the pre-independence era re-emerged in the 1990s as democratic activists. In fact, some of the most strident pro-democracy activists against continued military rule prior to the election of President Obasanjo in 1999, including Anthony Enahoro of the National Democratic Coalition (NADECO),

comprised the 1950s pro-independence nationalists (Aborisade and Mundt, 2002). Thus, the contemporary, prodemocracy movement in Nigeria has its root in the early pre-independence days. First among these various groups was a trans-national organization known as the National Congress of British West Africa (NCBWA) led by some intellectuals under the leadership of a Ghanaian Lawyer, CaseleyHayford. It main objective was uniting the four British West African CountriesGambia, Sierra Leone, the Gold Coast now Ghana and Nigeria in their demand for selfdetermination. Some scholars believed that despite the colonialist opposite reaction to the demands of this groups, they were successful in their bid, because in 1922, the establishment of a new legislature with the elective principle was made by the Governor Sir Hugh Clifford in Nigeria; a major request of the group. In short, it may not be wrong for one to conclude that the pre-colonial civil society came into existence mainly to fight off what they perceived to be an unprecedented oppression of the black race and more specifically against the Nigerian masses by the colonial masters. As independence loomed in the horizon of the Nigeria state, a barrage of religious, peasant, communal, student, women and labour groups permeated the Nigerian civil space. The explosion of civil society activity was further galvanized because of the repressive post-independence military rulers, as well as the feeling of non-reprisal from the colonial regime and other regional events that stirred citizens into democratic action. Some of Nigeria"s most prominent civil society organizations like the Nigerian Union of Teachers, the Nigerian Bar Association, the Nigerian Society of Engineers, the Nigerian Medical Association and the Pharmaceutical Society of Nigeria were all founded before independence, and were patterned after similar European civil society actors (Aborisade and Mundt, 2002). After independence, new professional associations became deeply entrenched in the country, with CSOs such as the Nigerian Union of Journalists and the Academic Staff Union of Universities (Aborisade and Mundt, 2002). However, trade union CSOs like the Nigerian Labour Congress and the Nigerian Bar Association became the most active of pro-democracy CSOs. Membership in a professional association was largely a status symbol and admission into a class oriented brotherhood (Lucas, 1994).

3.4   Civil Society Organizations under the Military in Nigeria

By the early 1990s in Nigeria, many new civil society organizations were established for the specific purpose of defending the rights of citizens and extending the frontiers of political rights and freedoms

throughout the country (Bangura and Beckman, 1992). During this period also, Nigeria experienced not only an exponential growth in the area of human rights and social activism, but also a growth in the area of personal freedoms. These emerged to coordinate the struggle for civil liberties (Aborisade and Mundt, 2002). The establishment of the Campaign for Democracy (CD) became the quintessential prodemocracy civil society organization. The CD is an „umbrella‟ organization that advocates processes and procedures, human rights, and addresses social ill throughout Nigeria. Some of the "constituent bodies" under the umbrella include the National Association of Democratic Lawyers (NADL), the National Association of Nigerian Students (NANS), Women in Nigeria (WIN) and the Nigerian Union of Journalists (NUJ). The authoritarian regime of General Mohammadu Buhari provided the grounds for the various groups and associations to forge a common front in confronting the excesses of that regime. In the particular case of Decree No.2 of 1984, which stipulated detention of people without trial, and the application of that decree to the arrest, trial and sentencing of NdukaIrabor and Tunde Thompson (Journalists with the Guardian Newspaper), the refusal of the state to listen to plea for leniency by various groups, watered the seed of resistance by civil society groups in Nigeria.This accentuated the quest for self-preservation in an increasingly harsh political climate and crisisridden economy as well as the realization by this enlightened corps of Nigerian professionals to establish cross-associational alliance to retain social relevance. When General Ibrahim Babangida came on stage as a successor to General Buhari, he appeared as if he had respect for human rights. He released political prisoners imprisoned by his predecessor and gave a commitment, to return the country to civilian rule. However, the notorious Decree 2 was not abrogated. Rather it was strengthened to permit the detention of persons for renewable periods of six months at a time. The economic crisis of the 1980s continued unabated and General Babangida subjected the issue of IMF loan to a national debate as whether or not Nigeria should accept the loan from the International Monetary Fund. As Olukoshi (1998) observes, the IMF debate provided an occasion for associational life to blossom. Various groups, including professionals, students, market women, religious organizations, trade unions, roadside mechanics, associations and a host of others took advantage of the opportunity which it offered to air their views and canvass support for their opinions on the question of IMF participation in Nigeria‟s economic reconstruction efforts. The state made spirited effort to weaken the opposition made up largely of these civil associations through co-optations, threats and intimidation because of their resistance to the market reform, which had successfully decimated the middle class and caused massive misery in the land (Olukoshi, 1998). Consequently, the structural adjustment programme of General Ibrahim Babangida served by default to hasten, reinforce and intensify

the radicalization of professional associations, which began during the Buhari regime. The annulment of June 12 presidential elections of 1993 further ignited a fire of opposition against the military rule of General Babangida. Labour, students, and other professional associations mobilized against the criminal act, and despite the use of force by the state including killing of protesters on the streets of Lagos, General Babangida was forced to step aside in August 1993. The pressure from this group of people on his successor, Chief Ernest Shonekan made it impossible for the Interim National Government to last more than 83 days in office. General Sani Abacha took over government at the heat of the agitation for the revalidation of June 12 presidential election believed to have been won by the late businessman, late Chief M.K.O Abiola. However, as General Abacha reneged and clung tenaciously to power, the civil society organizations went to the trenches again. This time, with the formation of National Democratic Coalition (NADECO), this incorporates different prodemocracy organizations, with operational bases in Europe and the United States of America.(Aborisade and Mundt, 2002).

Despite of the massive use of the state apparatus of coercion including state killings, false allegation of coup plots and compulsory exile for many of the leading figures, the civil society organizations maintained a sustained pressure on the discredited, suppressive, and blood thirsty regime until the sudden death of General Sani Abacha on June 8, 1998. It is no doubt in response to that pressure that his successor, General Abdusalami Abubakar planned a transition programme to civil rule that produced Chief Olusegun Obasanjo as the second Executive President of Nigeria on May 29,1999.

3.4.1 The Role of Civil Society Organizations in the democratization process in Nigeria

The civil society groups have largely been affected by the nature and politics of Nigeria since independence. According to (Civil Society Index, 2007), after the civil war of 1967-1970, the role of the civil society groups majorly shifted to preserving national unity, national reconciliation, rehabilitation and reconstruction. With increase in oil revenue, emphasis shifted to the development of infrastructures and provision of social services. From early 1979 up to the end of the military era, the role of the civil society groups adapt to modern challenges of managing an ailing economy through Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP), Rationalization, Nationalization and of with the return of democracy; Privatization, Poverty alleviation, empowerment etc.

Also, before the advent of the fourth republic, CSOs played vital role in the enthronement and consolidation of democracy in Nigeria. Many of the groups like Campaign for Democracy, NADECO, Committee for the Defense of Human Rights (CDHR) and Civil Liberty Organization were instrumental in the restoration of civil rule in Nigeria. It would be recalled that between 1993 and 1999, in collaboration with the Nigeria Labour Congress, which is another civil society organization, these groups fought the Nigerian military to a standstill. They mobilized students and workers for civil disobedience, strikes and protest marches across the country. (CIVICUS Civil Society Index, 2007).From the foregoing, it can be deduced that the role of civil society in the democratization process in Nigeria include:

1.   Opposing authoritarian and undemocratic principles and values
2.   Establishing human rights legal standards and advancing the application of human rights norms through high test cases.
3.   Promoting legal and judicial reform through legislative advocacy
4.   Providing legal assistance to disadvantaged persons, communities and groups
5.   Supporting the government through constitutional litigation.
6.   Advancing the application of international legal instruments on human rights in Nigerian law.
7.   Working with government and their institutions to promote laws, policies and practices that address the rights of poor and excluded communities.
8.   Voters" education on electoral principles and guidelines.
9.   Training of election observers and monitors, election tribunal monitoring and electoral reform advocacy.
10.   Peace building and Conflict mitigation, promoting access to justice, public interest litigation, budget tracking, constituency outreaches as well as research and documentation in thematic areas of democracy and governance
11.   The promotion and the defense of the constitution and rule of law.

3.4.2 Contribution of Civil Society Organizations to the sustenance of democracy in Nigeria

Based on the established role of CSOs in the democratization process in Nigeria mentioned above, the research came up with the following as the immense contribution of CSOs to the democratic sustenance in Nigeria.

Protest against the third term agenda: Ex-President Olusegun Obasanjo's administration (1999-2007) attempted to insert an elongation clause in the constitution to ensure his continuous stay in office. This

issue is however controversial due to the fact that the President did not make any categorical statement on his willingness or otherwise to go for another term, but actions and utterances of his aides without rebuff from him indicated his willingness to have an extension (Saliu and Muhammad, 2007). Largely, antagonists of the third term bid cuts across different facets of the Nigerian society but prominent were the CSOs. Their protest was championed by the National Civil Society Coalition against Third Term (NACATT). Bamidele Aturu, the Steering Committee Chairman of NACATT, challenged President Obasanjo that the "third term agenda is immoral, corrupt, divisive, insulting, an evidence of failure, capable of creating a political uncertainty and, of course, it is unconstitutional…" (Vanguard, January 05, 2006). Other civil society organizations that participated in this protest are; Peoples Problems and Solutions (PPS) organization, Catholic Bishops' Conference of Nigeria and individuals like Prof. Wole Soyinka, former Governor and factional chairman of the Alliance for Democracy (AD), Chief BisiAkande, Prof. RopoSekoni, Dr Joseph Oladokun, Solomon Olufelo and AdeolaOdusanya among other (The PUNCH, March 12, 2006). All these and many more protests from the civil society groups paved way for the senate arm of the National Assembly on Wednesday May 16, 2006 to threw out, in its entirety, a bill seeking 116 amendments/alterations of the 1999 Constitution of Nigeria which sought a three-term maximum of 4 years each for the President and the Governors as opposed to a twoterm of 4 years each prescribed by the Constitution (see http://www.socialistworld.net/doc/2335).

Doctrine of necessity clause: CSOs also rose to the occasion to demand for the recognition of the then Vice President Good-luck Jonathan as the Acting President when Late President Umaru Musa Yar„adua was indisposed and was away to Saudi Arabia on medical treatment between November 2009 and March 2010. Civil rights organizations such as the Save Nigeria Group and Enough is Enough Group actually seized the initiative, mobilised and marched on the National Assembly to demand for a resolution that will give due recognition to vice president as acting president. This led to the adoption of the now popular „Doctrine of Necessity" by the National Assembly on February 9, 2010 (Ojo, 2011). The Senate based its resolution to declare Jonathan as the Acting President on the Doctrine of Necessity. According to the Senate President, David Mark, "a rigid and inflexible interpretation will not only stifle the spirit and intendment of the Constitution, but will also affront the doctrine of necessity. The doctrine of necessity requires that we do what is necessary when faced with a situation that was not contemplated by the Constitution. And that is precisely what we have done today. In doing so, we have as well maintained the sanctity of our Constitution as the ultimate law of the land" (Oyesina, 2010). It is uncontested that the history of Nigerian democracy with regard to the

doctrine of neccesity cannot be completed without recourse to the input of the CSOs.

Electoral reform: One of the unforgettable efforts of the CSOs in the consolidation of Nigeria„s democracy was the unflinching support they gave to the Justice Uwais Electoral Reform Committee (ERC) inaugurated on August 28, 2007 by late President Yar„Adua. CSOs submitted tones of memoranda to the ERC offering suggestions on how Nigeria can break the chain of her electoral debacle. Indeed, significant number of the 22 member ERC was drawn from the civil society groups. They helped in analyzing the challenges of Nigeria„s previous elections as well as charted the way forward. During the constitutional and electoral reform public hearings, CSOs were there in good numbers to present memoranda. This led to a better legal framework for elections that Nigeria currently has (Ojo, 2011).

Election Monitoring: The contributions of CSOs in electioneering activities cannot be overemphasized. They embarked on series of advocacy to mobilize the citizens and encourage them, to actively participate in the voter registration exercises that preceded the elections. Coming together under the umbrella- Domestic Election Observation Groups (the group which included the Transition Monitoring Group (TMG), Federation of Muslim Women Association of Nigeria (FOMWAN), Labour Monitoring Team (LMT), Women Environmental Programme (WEP), Muslim League for Accountability (MULAC), Centre for Democracy and Development (CDD); Civil Liberties Organisation (CLO), Alliance for Credible Elections, Citizens Forum for Constitutional Reform (CFCR) and the Electoral Reform Network, ERN); deployed approximately 50,000 trained election monitors throughout the country during the 2007 general election.(Akinboye & Oloruntoba, 2007). In addition, CSOs played a prominent role in ensuring the credibility of the widely acclaimed 2011 elections through vigorous voter education using both the traditional and social media for their campaigns. They also established the Nigeria Civil Society Election Situation Room; a broad platform of civil society groups in Nigeria that collaborated to provide a more effective response to electoral fraud and violence, the key threats to the country's electoral process. The Nigeria Civil Society Election Situation Room was to later evolve and become the Nigeria Civil Society Situation Room (the Situation Room). The word "Election" was dropped from its name to reflect a wider focus extending to other governance issues and concerns. The Situation Room, which was made up of over 60 civil society groups, was hosted by the Policy and Legal Advocacy Centre (PLAC) during the 2015 general elections, a central command centre was established to coordinate the plans and activities of the Situation Room. Through its engagement with INEC, the Situation Room worked to

maintain public confidence in the ability of the Commission to deliver on credible elections. The group engaged in back channel advocacy, and interacted with local and international leaders to flag potential flash points for conflict. It also held several discussions and press statements with various stakeholders both from within and outside Nigeria. (Nigeria Civil Society Situation Room, 2015)

Freedom of Information Act: The passage of a Freedom of Information (FOI) Act is a victory for Nigerian democracy. A law that stipulated that all institutions spending public funds will have to be open about their operations and expenditure while citizens will have the right to access information about such activities. The F.O.I bill was first submitted to Nigeria's 4th National Assembly in 1999 when the country returned to democracy but did not make much progress. It returned to the legislative chambers in the 5th National Assembly in 2003 and was passed in the first quarter of 2007 by both chambers. However, President Olusegun Obasanjo vetoed it. It returned to both chambers of the 6th National Assembly in 2007 and was finally passed on 24 May 2011. (Sunday Trust, 5th June 2011) This success is chiefly attributed to the relentless efforts of the coalition of Nigerian civil society groups who have long worked and advocated for the passage of the F.O.I Bill under the leadership of the Right to Know Movement, Media Rights Agenda (MRA) and the Open Society Justice Initiative. The significance of the inclusive joint workings of the CSOs is captured in the words of Edetaen (2011) that "the signing of the F.O.I Bill into law is the clearest demonstration ever of the power of civil society working together to influence public policy and initiate reform in making government work for the people". (Sunday Trust, 5th June 2011).

3.4.3 Challenges of Civil Society Organizations in the Democratic Process in Nigeria Inadequate funding

It is no longer doubtful that civil society organisations in Nigeria have had considerable influence on democracy and electoral practises in Nigeria. However, certain issues militate against their effective operation in Nigeria. Boadi (1995) posited that one of the critical challenges of CSO in Nigeria is the issue of insufficient funds. Most civil society organisations rely on government funding for their various operations, which is not a healthy development as it breeds loyalty of civil society organisations to government. There is also the challenge of dwindling donor fund especially in the area of democracy and governance.

Government Patronage: Osaghae (1998), also opines that "the poor economic conditions of the Nigerian state has also led to the emergence of civil society that are state inclined because members of such groups

believe strongly that by showing loyalty to the incumbent government, material resources are assured". Most often, the Nigerian private media, under the umbrella of the Nigerian Union of Journalist (NUJ), rely heavily on government patronage (advertisement) for survival and their independence has been seriously compromised for this reason.

Lack of State Support and Partnership: The relationship between civil society organizations and the state is largely characterized by suspicion and tension. For the most part, state officials have viewed civil society organisation as competitors of power, influence, and legitimacy in the public sphere rather than as development partners.

Lack of unity: Divisions among the Nigerian civil society along the ethnic and regional lines have not helped its democratic advocacy. This has led to disunity and disagreement among the Nigerian CSO practitioners in term of decision-making and unity of purpose. The internal contradictions within the membership make it difficult to agree on common positions during the period of engagement with the state. Such inherent divisiveness weakens efficiency and makes the associations vulnerable to penetration by government agents.

3.5   Summary

This research explored and discussed the role of CSOs in the democratization process in Nigeria. It gathered through the publications reviewed that NGOs have indeed played important role in the areas of democracy development in Nigeria. The research noted that Nigeria has several civil society groups that tend to put both the government and their policies in check. They assist in achieving some of those objectives that would have seemed impossible for the government alone to achieve. Although they vary in composition, mission, vision, and core values - CSOs all have in common an ideology of promoting equity and justice in the polity and bringing about development in Nigeria"s nascent democracy. Considering the fact that these organizations contribute tremendously to the activities of government and can confidently influence government policies and programs positively to the benefit of the citizens, the promotion of their achievements cannot be over emphasized.

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3.7   Possible answer to self-assessment exercise (s) within the content

Self-assessment exercise 1

Identify and explain the Challenges of Civil Society Organizations in the Democratic Process in Nigeria

Answer

Challenges of Civil Society Organizations in the Democratic Process in Nigeria

Inadequate funding: It is no longer doubtful that civil society organisations in Nigeria have had considerable influence on democracy and electoral practises in Nigeria. However, certain issues militate against their effective operation in Nigeria. Boadi (1995) posited that one of the critical challenges of CSO in Nigeria is the issue of insufficient funds. Most civil society organisations rely on government funding for their various operations, which is not a healthy development as it breeds loyalty of civil society organisations to government. There is also the challenge of dwindling donor fund especially in the area of democracy and governance.

Government Patronage: Osaghae (1998), also opines that "the poor economic conditions of the Nigerian state has also led to the emergence of civil society that are state inclined because members of such groups believe strongly that by showing loyalty to the incumbent government, material resources are assured". Most often, the Nigerian private media, under the umbrella of the Nigerian Union of Journalist (NUJ), rely heavily on government patronage (advertisement) for survival and their independence has been seriously compromised for this reason.

Lack of State Support and Partnership: The relationship between civil society organizations and the state is largely characterized by suspicion and tension. For the most part, state officials have viewed civil society organisation as competitors of power, influence, and legitimacy in the public sphere rather than as development partners.

Lack of unity: Divisions among the Nigerian civil society along the ethnic and regional lines have not helped its democratic advocacy. This has led to disunity and disagreement among the Nigerian CSO practitioners in term of decision-making and unity of purpose. The internal contradictions within the membership make it difficult to agree

on common positions during the period of engagement with the state. Such inherent divisiveness weakens efficiency and makes the associations vulnerable to penetration by government agents.

Self-assessment exercise 2

What is the Role of Civil Society Organizations in the democratization process in Nigeria?

Answer

The civil society groups have largely been affected by the nature and politics of Nigeria since independence. According to (Civil Society Index, 2007), after the civil war of 1967-1970, the role of the civil society groups majorly shifted to preserving national unity, national reconciliation, rehabilitation and reconstruction. With increase in oil revenue, emphasis shifted to the development of infrastructures and provision of social services. From early 1979 up to the end of the military era, the role of the civil society groups adapt to modern challenges of managing an ailing economy through Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP), Rationalization, Nationalization and of with the return of democracy; Privatization, Poverty alleviation, empowerment etc.

Also, before the advent of the fourth republic, CSOs played vital role in the enthronement and consolidation of democracy in Nigeria. Many of the groups like Campaign for Democracy, NADECO, Committee for the Defense of Human Rights (CDHR) and Civil Liberty Organization were instrumental in the restoration of civil rule in Nigeria. It would be recalled that between 1993 and 1999, in collaboration with the Nigeria Labour Congress, which is another civil society organization, these groups fought the Nigerian military to a standstill. They mobilized students and workers for civil disobedience, strikes and protest marches across the country. (CIVICUS Civil Society Index, 2007).From the foregoing, it can be deduced that the role of civil society in the democratization process in Nigeria include:

1.   Opposing authoritarian and undemocratic principles and values
2.   Establishing human rights legal standards and advancing the application of human rights norms through high test cases.
3.   Promoting legal and judicial reform through legislative advocacy
4.   Providing legal assistance to disadvantaged persons, communities and groups
5.   Supporting the government through constitutional litigation.
6.   Advancing the application of international legal instruments on human rights in Nigerian law.

7.   Working with government and their institutions to promote laws, policies and practices that address the rights of poor and excluded communities.
8.   Voters" education on electoral principles and guidelines.
9.   Training of election observers and monitors, election tribunal monitoring and electoral reform advocacy.

Unit4   Civil Society Organizations and Service Provision

Unit structure

4.1   Introduction

The purpose of this course is to provide an overall analysis of the role of civil society organizations (CSOs) in service provision. While the focus is on developing countries, the paper draws on the debates and experiences from industrialized countries where appropriate. In both the developing and industrialized world the most critical issues relating to CSOs in service provision concern accountability, quality and access. However, there are fundamental differences.

In the industrialized world, the issue has been how to reform the welfare state by allowing a much greater role for the private and voluntary sectors. Universal social service programmes have been in place in most countries for many years, and reforms focus on how to improve both the efficiency and quality of the services provided. On the other hand, in large parts of the developing world there is often no welfare state to reform. In these contexts governments and CSOs have been struggling to provide minimum basic services to the majority of the population. This paper identifies and analyses the operational lessons that have emerged from the involvement of CSOs in service delivery in developing countries, and draws lessons for the future of the CSO sector in these countries. The discussion is set in the broader framework of global trends on the role of the state in service delivery.

The role of CSOs in service delivery has undergone dramatic change over the last decade, in both developing and industrialized countries. Two major global policy changes have been instrumental in bringing this about.

First, a key policy change by international donors in recent years has been an explicit focus on supporting civil society. This is part of a wider good government agenda that has emerged since the wave of democratization that has swept through Eastern Europe, the Former Soviet Union and many developing countries since the late 1980s. As is explained below, one of the consequences of this has been the opening-up of much greater political space for CSOs, and the last decade has seen a proliferation of CSOs as well as a massive increase in donor funding to these organizations in developing and transition countries.

Second, and related to the previous point, the 1980s and 1990s witnessed the emergence of what has been termed the New Public Management (NPM) as the dominant paradigm for public sector reform. While this was first introduced in industrialized countries notably the United Kingdom, United States and New Zealand on recent years it has increasingly been promoted by the World Bank and other donors in developing countries. A central tenet of NPM has been the contracting-out of public service provision to the private sector, and this was a key influence behind the promotion of structural adjustment programmes by the International Monetary Fund (IMF) in many developing countries in the late 1980s and early 1990s.

 4.2 Learning Outcomes

Civil society constitutes a vast array of associations, including trade unions, professional associations, religious groups, cultural and sports groups and traditional associations, many of which are informal organizations that are not registered. Nonetheless, despite the huge variety of different types of organizations that are found in the developing world, most of the funding from international sources for service provision is channelled through non-governmental organizations. The NGO sector in most developing countries is formally organized and often subject to certain government regulations, and has developed considerable capacity and experience in the delivery of development projects. For this reason, although it is important to keep the terms CSO and NGO analytically distinct, in practice the majority of CSOs involved in service provision are NGOs.

4.3 International NGO Training and Research Centre (INTRAC)

4.3.1 The Growth of Civil Society

Donor concern with strengthening civil society in the South is a recent phenomenon. It appears to have emerged from the new policy agenda on good governance that was increasingly promoted by official donors during the 1980s and the early 1990s. As a result of this agenda, Northern donors began to explicitly promote political reform through development co-operation. For some donors this meant advocating policies that limited state interference and reduced corruption in the public sector. There was a particular emphasis on aid recipient countries improving their records on democratic elections, human rights and the rule of law, to name some of the more common areas of reform. Although it would be misleading to assume that all official donors held the same policy, there was a convergence of opinion among them that long-term economic development could not take place without improved systems of government. The origins of this new agenda can be located in the collapse of communism in Europe and the former Soviet Union, when many countries embraced democratic change. Political liberalization in many parts of Africa and Latin America also reflected growing support for democratic governance. In the post-Cold War era, democracy has been unchallenged as the dominant political ideology. Furthermore, Western governments are no longer willing to overlook corruption and violation of human rights in countries that, during the Cold War, were important strategic allies (Robinson, 1994). The initial focus of the government agenda was on political and administrative reform. The former was primarily concerned with making the state more democratically accountable through multiparty elections, freedom of the press, respect for human rights and the rule of law. The latter included civil service reform, decentralization and anti-corruption measures. The intention of this was to improve the performance of government institutions. Initially this new agenda was concerned with imposing political conditionality in order to put pressure on authoritarian and corrupt regimes to reform; aid was to be made conditional on governments in the South respecting human rights, instituting multiparty elections and reforming state bureaucracy. However, in practice, the application of political conditionality had only limited success. In many cases donors failed to apply conditionality in a consistent and coordinated manner, and multiparty elections did not necessarily guarantee a change or improvement in government (Stokke, 1995). The recognition among donors that the transition toward democratically elected governments did not, in itself, guarantee a more democratic culture led to a more positive approach to the promotion of good

governance in the form of support for civil society. The motive given by donors for supporting civil society is essentially that a strong civil society will demand a more democratically accountable and transparent state, and lead to sustainable good governance. In addition, citizen participation is central to the idea of civil society. Thus, civil society brings together both the good governance agenda and the concern with participatory approaches to development that became widely accepted in development policy (if not in practice) during the 1980s. The task for donors has been to identify those types of organizations likely to play a key role in civil society and those forms of support that could be directed toward them in order to strengthen their capacity to participate in a vigorous and effective manner (Biekart, 1998; Robinson, 1996; Van Rooy, 1998).

4.3.2 The Scale of CSO Involvement in Service Provision

It could be argued that CSOs are now major players in bringing about social and economic change in many developing and transition countries. The CSO sector throughout the world is vast and highly differentiated, and it is almost impossible to summarize. CSOs cover a broad spectrum of organizations, from huge national NGOs such as Proshika or the Bangladesh Rural Advancement Committee (BRAC) in Bangladesh, which each employ thousands of people and have multimillion-dollar budgets, to small grassroots organizations. CSOs engage in an equally wide range of activities (Anheier and Salamon, 1998).

Providing social services has been a critical role that CSOs have traditionally played, both in industrialized and developing countries. However, the key change that has taken place in recent years is that CSOs are no longer just providing services to people that the state has failed to reach, but they are now far more in the mainstream of development activities. Both the scale and the profile of CSO activities have increased greatly in the past decade. Both governments and international donors have given them much more recognition at the national level than may have been the case in the past.

The relationships that exist between national governments and CSOs differ hugely, as does the balance between them in relation to who provides what kinds of services. In some countries, such as India and in much of Latin America, the state has retained its position as the main provider of social services. CSOs are the junior partners but have had an important role in advocating on behalf of local people for improved state services (Robinson and White, 1997).

4.3.3 Funding trends

It is difficult to obtain precise statistics on the actual scale of CSO involvement in service provision in the industrialized and developing worlds. None of the major international annual development reports or example, by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development/Development Assistance Committee (OECD/DAC), United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) or the World Bank contains this information. In terms of international aid transfers, there is also no available data on which comparisons can be made between levels of funding for CSO involvement in service delivery and levels of funding for government services.

However, it is possible to show some overall trends in the increase of funding of CSOs, and the statistics put together for a major study by the International NGO Training and Research Centre (INTRAC) on the funding of Southern CSOs by official aid agencies are presented here (INTRAC, 1998). Although these figures do not disaggregate between different CSO areas of expenditure, one of the main findings of the study was that most of the money was spent on service provision rather than on other CSO activities such as advocacy or promoting human rights. Precise data is still patchy, however. There are few, if any, agency or country statements on the level of support to CSOs, particularly in terms of support for their work in providing basic services. However, despite the lack of systematic data, the picture that emerges from the field is that CSOs have effectively consolidated their role in service provision and indeed, in all probability, this may have grown and in some countries now be larger than the state. While nationally state budgets may still show a greater volume of resources for the provision of basic services, many of these are concentrated in the larger cities. In many regions of the world where statistics are not collected, CSOs provide the basic services and the stat involvement is limited to providing the administrative framework in which they are delivered.

4.4   CSOs and Service Delivery: Lessons from Developing Countries

There is already a substantial body of literature from which to draw lessons on the operational experiences of CSOs in service delivery in developing countries. Of particular importance are a number of recent impact studies of the role of CSOs in development. The main findings of the studies, most of which focus on NGOs, up to 1996, are analysed in the OECD/DAC NGO Evaluation Synthesis Study (Riddell, 1997). Additional reviews of these recent CSO evaluations can be found in Fowler (1999) and Biekart (1998). CSO service delivery projects are the

dominant type of CSO activity included in this study. For example, the Danish NGO Impact Study is based on a review of 45 projects in Africa, Asia and Latin America, of which 20 were concerned with delivering social services, 10 with improving income or productive capacity, and 15 with institutional support to civil society (Oakley, 1999). Furthermore, an important study is Robinson and White (1997), which analyses the specific role of CSOs in service provision. This study is based on an extensive review of documentation of CSO service provision in the South. It argues that while CSOs play an important role, especially where state provision is weak and the private sector caters to the better off, there are a number of common deficiencies with the services provided by the CSO sector. These include: limited coverage; variable quality; amateurish approach; high staff turnover; lack of effective management systems; poor cost effectiveness; lack of co-ordination; and poor sustainability due to dependence on external assistance. The conclusions of these and other studies are mixed in regard to a number of criteria reaching the poorest, quality of services, efficiency and cost effectiveness, and sustainability.

4.5   Summary

Civil society organizations (CSOs) emerged in the 1990s as increasingly influential actors in national development. In one area in particular the provision of basic services CSOs have in many countries assumed a major responsibility. This study identifies and analyses the operational lessons concerning CSOs and service provision that have emerged to date. The analysis is based on a range of criteria: targeting the poor, quality of services provided efficiency and sustainability.

The study also examines a number of broader issues that can influence the performance of CSOs in service provision: the nature of the contracts that CSOs have with governments to provide services; government legislation affecting CSOs ability to provide services to the poor; and how CSOs can use their work in service provision to influence policy.

A key influence on CSO involvement in service provision is the relationship with government, and this is critically reviewed in the context of the notion of partnership. In this respect the study finds that CSOs need to ensure that they are able to maintain their own distinctive contribution to development and not merely become contracting agents of the state.

Finally, the study summarizes a number of critical issues that will continue to be at the core of CSO involvement in service provision: (i) performance, and the ability of CSOs to improve access, coverage, quality and efficiency in partnership with the state; (ii) the accountability of CSOs in terms of service provision, and the extent to which CSOs are more accountable to international donors than to the poor whom they are supposed to serve; (iii) the influence of current trends to decentralize government bodies, and how this affects CSOs; (iv) the dilemma between CSOs commitment to service provision and their ability to play a broader role in economic and social development; and (v) the potential for CSOs to broaden the focus of their work in service provision and integrate a more rights-based approach.

The study concludes with a number of key policy issues for governments and official agencies in relation to CSOs and service provision.

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4.6   References/further reading/web Resource

A NHEIER, H. AND L. S ALAMON

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B IEKART , K.

> The Politics of Civil Society Building: European Private Aid Agencies and Democratic Transitions in Central America, International Books/Transnational Institute, Utrecht, 1998.

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> NGOs and Decentralised Government in Africa, Occasional Paper 18, INTRAC, Oxford, 1998.

4.7   Possible answer to self-assessment exercise (s) within the content

Self-assessment exercise 1

As a student of CSO, how would you rate CSO involvement in service provision?

Answer

The Scale of CSO Involvement in Service Provision
It could be argued that CSOs are now major players in bringing about social and economic change in many developing and transition countries. The CSO sector throughout the world is vast and highly differentiated, and it is almost impossible to summarize. CSOs cover a broad spectrum of organizations, from huge national NGOs such as Proshika or the Bangladesh Rural Advancement Committee (BRAC) in Bangladesh, which each employ thousands of people and have multimillion-dollar budgets, to small grassroots organizations. CSOs engage in an equally wide range of activities (Anheier and Salamon, 1998).

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Self-assessment Exercise 2

How possible can you explain funding trends of CSOs

Answer

It is possible to show some overall trends in the increase of funding of CSOs, and the statistics put together for a major study by the International NGO Training and Research Centre (INTRAC) on the funding of Southern CSOs by official aid agencies are presented here (INTRAC, 1998). Although these figures do not disaggregate between different CSO areas of expenditure, one of the main findings of the study was that most of the money was spent on service provision rather than on other CSO activities such as advocacy or promoting human rights. Precise data is still patchy, however. There are few, if any, agency or country statements on the level of support to CSOs, particularly in terms of support for their work in providing basic services. However, despite the lack of systematic data, the picture that emerges from the field is that CSOs have effectively consolidated their role in service provision and indeed, in all probability, this may have grown and in some countries now be larger than the state. While nationally state budgets may still show a greater volume of resources for the provision of basic services, many of these are concentrated in the larger cities. In many regions of the world where statistics are not collected, CSOs provide the basic services and the stat involvement is limited to providing the administrative framework in which they are delivered.