

# EDUCATION *for* Development

A TEACHER'S RESOURCE FOR GLOBAL LEARNING



SUSAN FOUNTAIN



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Hodder & Stoughton

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# *What is Education for Development?*

## *Introduction*

The complex challenges of the 21st century can only be met by people who are willing to be active global citizens. Education for Development is an approach to learning which aims to build global citizenship. UNICEF defines Education for Development as a process which:

‘... promotes the development, in children and young people, of attitudes and values such as global solidarity, peace, tolerance, social justice and environmental awareness, and which equips them with the knowledge and skills which will empower them to promote these values and bring about change in their own lives and in their communities, both locally and globally.’

UNICEF, 1992

Education for Development has its origins in two movements, which began in the industrialised and developing countries respectively. In the 1970s, non-governmental organisations and aid agencies involved in development issues began producing teaching materials which encouraged awareness and advocacy among young people in industrialised countries. This area of study became known as Development Education.



During the same period, many community educators in developing countries began to look at strategies for local organising that could help people address problems such as poverty, ill health, and illiteracy. This movement encouraged the development of skills that empower individuals and groups to create change.

These two initiatives formed the roots of Education for Development. It has grown further in the 1980s and 1990s for three main reasons.

## **IDEAS ABOUT WHAT CONSTITUTES ‘DEVELOPMENT’ ARE CHANGING**

‘Development in the 1990s should be judged by human indicators, not economic variables.’

*James Grant, 1990 UNICEF Annual Report*

Economic growth has, in the past, frequently been given priority over such concerns as health, education, and environmental quality. It is increasingly clear that short-term sacrifices in these areas undercut the long-term human potential of a country, an outcome which is neither sustainable or morally acceptable.

## THE NATURE OF GLOBAL ISSUES IS CHANGING

Global issues are increasingly complex, having social, economic, political, cultural, technological, and ecological dimensions that must be understood before solutions to contemporary problems can be found. Global issues are universal – no part of the world is free from environmental concerns, issues of justice, or conflict. The possibilities for making progress on these issues at the level of only one country or region are limited.

## EDUCATIONAL VALUES ARE CHANGING

‘... the education of the child shall be directed to ... the development of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms ... the development of respect for ... civilizations different from his or her own ... the preparation of the child for responsible life in a free society, in the spirit of understanding, peace, tolerance, equality of sexes, and friendship among all peoples ... the development of respect for the natural environment.’

Article 29, *The Convention on the Rights of the Child*, 1989

Curricula which are primarily nation-centred, focusing on a country’s own (often military) history and economy, and emphasising the contributions of a few dominant cultures, will leave children ill-equipped to take an active role in an interdependent world. And schooling which encourages only a competitive, me-first mentality in both content and learning processes fails to prepare children for the cooperative efforts needed to address global issues. Education can play an active part in not only the transmission of knowledge, but the promotion of the attitudes and values of global citizenship.

Education for Development prepares students for a rapidly changing, interdependent world by addressing **five global concepts**, and by using a particular **learning process**.

### *Five global concepts*

There are five global concepts that are basic to Education for Development, and that are equally relevant to learners in both industrialised and developing countries. These concepts are not new subject areas, but can be thought of as lenses through which information can be examined.



## INTERDEPENDENCE

No matter where we live, we are all linked to other parts of the planet. In our increasingly global society, places, events, issues and people are connected in a complex and delicately balanced web of relationships. An understanding of interdependence allows students to perceive the systemic nature of the world we live in.

## IMAGES AND PERCEPTIONS

Images refer to *what* we see – the ideas about other people and places that are conveyed through photographs, television, films, and printed and spoken words. Perceptions refer to *how* we interpret those images. All too often, young people's perceptions of persons who are 'different' – in terms of country of origin, race, gender, age, or physical ability – are based on stereotypes and prejudice. Learning about images and perceptions helps young people to become more aware of and sensitive to the effects of bias.

## SOCIAL JUSTICE

Social justice refers to the widely-held notions of fairness and human rights that can either be denied or promoted, on individual, local, national, and global levels. It is only in the presence of justice that individuals can develop to their full potential, and that the conditions for lasting peace can exist. An understanding of these issues will enable young people to work for greater justice in their own countries and abroad.

## CONFLICT AND CONFLICT RESOLUTION

Conflict resolution is the exploration of the ways in which conflict and controversy may be handled. For many young people, conflict is synonymous with violence. But violence, is, in fact, only one of many possible responses to conflict. The skills of non-violent conflict resolution can be learned and applied constructively to disputes on a personal, intergroup, community, national or global scale.

## CHANGE AND THE FUTURE

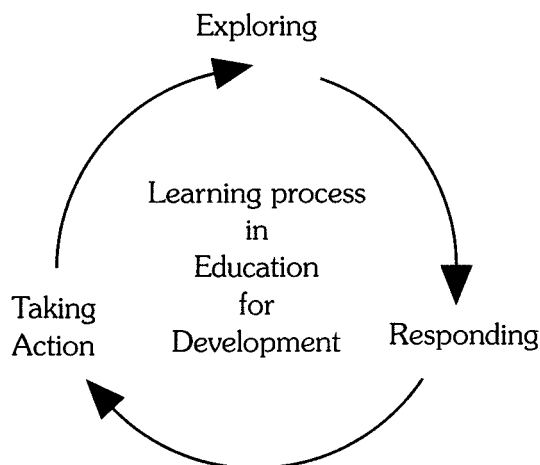
The world is changing as a result of actions that have been taken in the past. And it will continue to change in the future as a result of actions taken today. But this does not mean that the future is predetermined. Many different futures are possible. Young people can learn to examine the processes which bring about change and use them consciously to create a better future.

## *The learning process*

Education for Development involves more than organising knowledge around a set of global concepts. It is also a methodology, with learning processes that are distinct from those often used in the traditional subject areas of the curriculum.

### THE CYCLE OF LEARNING

The process of Education for Development can be thought of as a three-step cycle, consisting of an **exploration** phase, followed by a **responding** phase, and leading ultimately to an **action** phase (UNICEF, 1991). Each phase of this cycle is of equal importance to the learning process.



#### *The cycle of learning*

The exploration phase is primarily a cognitive one. Students collect, analyse, and synthesise information on a particular topic or issue. They develop the understanding and awareness that will form the basis for the responding phase.

During this second step, students develop a personal response to the material studied. They become familiar with a range of perspectives on an issue, and form their own perspective or point of view. They become aware of the human dimension of the topic. They develop empathy, as well as a sense of involvement and commitment.

The action phase then follows naturally. Learners explore practical actions that might address the issue in question. It is crucial that real opportunities for involvement are provided. This is not only a logical outcome of the learning process, but a significant means of reinforcing new knowledge, skills, and attitudes.

The activities in this manual cover each of the three phases of the learning cycle; the use of action projects in the third phase of the cycle is discussed in special detail in the final chapter of this manual.

## LEARNING STRATEGIES

In all parts of the three-step learning cycle of Education for Development, interdisciplinary learning, cooperative learning, and participatory and experiential methods are used.

### *Interdisciplinary learning*

Learning approaches that integrate a number of curriculum areas (English, mathematics, science, humanities, the arts) are highly effective at helping students grasp complex concepts and issues such as those described above (Jacobs, 1989). Interdisciplinary methods take a problem-centred approach that helps students see the contribution of the various subjects in addressing real global concerns. This is of special value at a time in which many students fail to see the relevance of the curriculum to the world outside the classroom.

### *Cooperatively-structured learning*

Cooperatively-structured learning promotes the attitudes needed for global citizenship. The consistent use of cooperative learning groups helps to break down barriers of prejudice, and to increase liking among children who differ in race, ethnicity, gender, and physical ability (Johnson and Johnson, 1983). And complex concepts (such as those basic to Education for Development) are more fully understood when cooperative, rather than competitive or individualistic learning methods are used (Johnson and Johnson, 1975).

### *Interactive, participatory, and experiential methods*

... Interactive and participatory communication offers the only means for any real possibility of accomplishing behavioural change.

*The Future Role of UNICEF External Relations, 1990*

These methods include group discussion, debates, role plays, and simulations. They are effective in bringing abstract concepts alive, and making apparently far-away issues seem less remote and more personal. They encourage the sharing of perspectives that brings about a holistic understanding of issues, and the appreciation of diversity.

## TYPICAL EDUCATION FOR DEVELOPMENT STRATEGIES

There are a number of types of strategies that are frequently used in Education for Development work. Some of these are described below.

### *Small group work*

Small groups encourage participation by all students, the exchange of perspectives, and cooperative teamwork. When beginning small group work, assigning clear roles may be helpful. For a group of four, suggested roles might be:

*Resource person* – responsible for seeing that everyone in the group has the materials needed to carry out the group task.

*Recorder* – writes down any notes, discussion, or statements of position that result from the group's work.

*Facilitator* – makes sure that everyone in the group gets a turn to speak, keeps the group focused on the task or questions, and keeps track of time.

*Spokesperson* – responsible for reporting back to the class.

Regardless of role, each person in the group contributes to the discussion. With groups smaller than four, two of the roles can be combined. The teacher should ensure that over time, each student has the chance to try out different roles.

*The jigsaw puzzle format* is another type of small group work that builds cooperation. In groups of four, each student is assigned a number from one to four. All the number ones in the class then meet together to research and become experts on a given aspect of the topic being studied; all the number twos meet separately to research a different aspect, and so on. When their research is complete, they return to their original groups, and are responsible for teaching the rest of the group about their area of expertise.

### *Discussion techniques*

Group discussion requires students to clarify and articulate their points of view, as well as to listen to other perspectives. Helpful strategies for large groups include:

*Magic microphone* The group sits in a circle. An old microphone from a tape recorder (or a similarly-shaped object) is passed around the circle. Only the person holding the microphone is allowed to speak; the others are to listen to and look at the speaker. When the speaker is finished, the microphone is passed to the next person in the circle. This is effective with younger students, or groups that have difficulty in listening.

*Concentric circles* The class divides into two equal groups. The first group stands in a circle facing out. The second group stands in a circle facing in, so that everyone is facing a partner. The class is asked a question, which the students discuss in pairs. After a few minutes, the outer circle rotates to the left, so that each student is facing someone new. The process is then repeated, with either the same question or a new one.

## PROMOTING A POSITIVE CLASSROOM CLIMATE: GUIDELINES FOR GROUP DISCUSSIONS

- Only one person at a time talks, and the others look at and listen to the speaker.
- Refrain from making judgmental comments to the speaker, and from any form of ridicule.
- Talk from your own perspective and experience, rather than trying to generalise about others'.
- Remember that there may be more than one 'right' answer.
- Agree to maintain confidentiality when talking about sensitive issues.
- Everyone has the right to be silent and not take part in discussion on a particular issue, if they so wish.

*Continuum* A line is made across the classroom floor with chalk or tape. One end of the line represents strong agreement with a position, the other end represents strong disagreement, and gradations of opinion are represented by points in between. A statement on a controversial issue is read aloud. Students are asked to stand at a point on the line that represents their position. The teacher then breaks the line into two segments with equal numbers of students. The two halves of the line are matched up with each other so that students at the extreme ends are facing someone with a more moderate position. The students are asked to share their points of view with each other. They may then choose to regroup along the line.

### *Brainstorming*

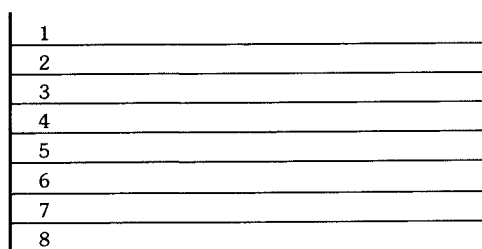
Brainstorming is the first step in problem-solving. It stimulates creative thinking and generates a number of alternatives. When brainstorming, students are asked to think of as many possible ideas or solutions as they can. It is essential that *all* thoughts are recorded, and that no judgements are made at this stage as to how practical they might be.

Once an exhaustive list has been made, students review the options and discard any which seem unworkable, ultimately deciding upon one or two possible best solutions.

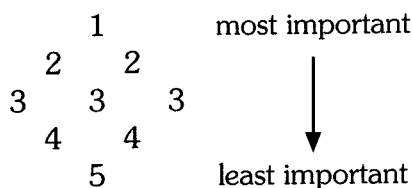
## *Ranking*

Ranking is a way of stimulating deeper discussion of an issue, and clarifying priorities.

*Ladder ranking* Eight to ten statements (or pictures) on a topic are written on cards. In small groups, students work together to place the statements in a vertical column, in order of their importance (see diagram below). The most important statement is placed at the top of the ladder, the second most important statement just below it, and so on.



*Diamond ranking* Nine statements are written on cards. The group negotiates a diamond-shaped arrangement with the most important statement at the top. Two statements of equal but lesser importance are placed below the first. On the third level are three statements of moderate importance, followed by two statements of relatively little importance. On the bottom level (the lowest point of the diamond) is the statement which has the least importance for the topic under discussion.



## *Role play*

Role play exercises increase students' ability to take other perspectives, and develop problem-solving or conflict resolution skills. Individual scenes may be only a few minutes long. Teachers can use the following guidelines in organising a role play session:

*Set the scene* Describe the setting and characters clearly, but in a way that still allows for individual interpretation.

*Casting* In general, it is best to allow students to volunteer for the roles they wish to play.

*Preparation* Each actor should have a minute or two to think about the part. Avoid over-preparing; emphasise the informal nature of the role play.

*During the role play* Make a note of any actions that cause a change in the course of the scene, and why a solution was reached or not reached.

Students who are observing should watch for similar points. Instruct students not to make comments which would distract the actors.

*Coming to an end* Stop the action when a solution has been reached, if the action seems to be slowing down, or if the actors begin to have difficulty staying in their roles. Give the actors a chance to relax, move around, or break the mood in some way.

*Discussion* Allow the actors to express their feelings. Then encourage them to evaluate what took place: what feelings arose during the scene, the effect that various actions had, their level of satisfaction with the ending. Observers may also share their perceptions, or suggest other ways the situation could have been handled.

More advanced role play techniques include:

*Freeze* Call out 'Freeze!' during a moment of intense involvement in the role play. Then ask the actors to describe their emotions at that moment.

*Role reversal* Halt the action without warning in the middle of the role play. Ask the two actors to reverse roles, and continue the role play from that point.

*Alter-ego* Have an observer stand behind each of the actors. Halfway through the role play, halt the action. Ask the two observers to state what they think their respective actors are feeling and thinking, and why. This may help the actors clarify their own positions and consider alternatives.

### *Simulations*

Simulations can be thought of as extended role plays involving the whole class simultaneously. They deal with complex issues affecting various people or groups, which are played by individuals or small groups in the class. Simulations require students to be familiar with the background issues. This information is usually supplied on role cards. In some simulations, new elements are interjected during the course of the action, for example, a dramatic environmental change. Students must then adapt their responses accordingly.

A thorough debriefing must follow any simulation. Students should discuss their feelings, why they chose to take the actions that they did, any injustices they perceived, and how acceptable they found any resolution that was achieved. They must be helped to draw parallels between what they have experienced and actual situations in the world. Otherwise, they may view the experience as simply a game.

After a simulation, it may be desirable to change the pace with an activity that will re-unite the group, and help them to leave their roles behind.

### *Decision-making strategies*

These techniques build skills which are useful for future democratic participation.

*Direct voting* Direct voting is useful when making decisions of major importance on which the input of each student is desired. Each student votes on the choices, either by a simple show of hands or by secret ballot.

With younger students, it is helpful if voting is made concrete and visual. The different options are written along one side of a large grid. Students write their names on cards and paste them onto the grid next to their choice. The result is the majority decision shown in graph-like form.

*Priority voting* This works well when the students must reduce their choices from among a large number of possibilities. Students are allowed three votes each. They may cast one vote for each of three different possibilities, cast all three votes for one, or split their votes between two. The number of votes cast for each choice is then totalled to determine which are the top three priorities in the group.

*Representative democracy* The class elects a small number of persons who are given the responsibility to make certain decisions without consulting the class as a whole. This is a useful strategy when, for example, the class is running a complex project which requires a large number of decisions to be made frequently, as it greatly speeds the decision-making process.

*Consensus* Consensus decision-making is used when it is important that everyone's ideas are considered. It develops high levels of communication and negotiation, and promotes a sense of unity in the class. It is possible to arrive at consensus through discussion with the whole group. Alternatively, students may work in pairs to come to an agreement that is acceptable to both. Then two pairs can join to form a group of four, share their decisions, and come up with a new position that all four are satisfied with. The groups of four can then join to form groups of eight, repeat the process, and so on.



### *Reporting and presentations*

There are a number of ways for small groups to report on their work to the whole class.

*Plenary* A spokesperson from each small group describes its results to the class, and takes questions.

*Paired sharing* Each small group (or pair) joins with another group, and shares the results of its work. The combined group may attempt to arrive at a consensus which takes into account the viewpoints of both groups.

*Circus* A spokesperson from each small group is positioned somewhere in the room with the group's product – perhaps a group drawing, a brainstormed list or a flowchart. The rest of the class moves freely around the room, looking at the other groups' work and asking questions.

## *Using this book*

Education for Development is an approach to learning, not a new subject to be squeezed into an already overcrowded curriculum. It is an approach that embraces many previously existing educational initiatives, such as peace, development, human rights and environmental education.

The concepts and learning strategies of Education for Development can be incorporated into more traditional subject matter. This is perhaps easiest to do in the humanities. For example, the curriculum for a certain age level may call for teaching about the geography, history and exports of Latin America. Teachers might use this as an opportunity to introduce issues of conflict and conflict resolution in the region, Latin America's interdependence with other parts of the world, or common media images of Latin American peoples.

But Education for Development can be infused into other subjects areas as well. Work on interdependence that explores relationships in the ecosystem can be used in a biology lesson. Examining the way visual images are cropped to create differing impressions can be done in the context of an art period. A mathematics class can become a lesson in social justice when statistics on the availability of health care in different countries are used. Role playing different solutions to a conflict depicted in literature can be done in an English class. Exploring global issues through a variety of disciplines can give students a fuller understanding of their significance.

Throughout this manual, learners are referred to as students. But this is not meant to suggest that the activities are only suitable for school use. Many of the learning strategies are effective in youth groups as well.

Similarly, the use of the word 'teacher' is not intended to exclude youth group leaders, who may also be in a position to introduce young people to Education for Development.

## THE ACTIVITIES

The next five chapters contain activities organised around the five global concepts. Each activity is laid out under the following headings:

### *Objectives*

This describes the knowledge, skills, and/or attitudes which students are expected to develop during the course of the activity.

### *Age level*

Activities are designed for three age levels:

- Level I: 7–11 years;
- Level II: 12–15 years;
- Level III: 16–18 years.

However, these age levels are suggested as *guidelines* only. Older students who have little familiarity with a particular concept may benefit from beginning with activities one or even two levels below their chronological age. Younger students who show a strong grasp of the particular concept may be able to progress to activities from the older age levels. The judgement of the teacher or youth group leader should be the ultimate guide, and adaptations can be made in order to suit the needs of each group.

### *Materials*

This section lists all supplies necessary for the activity. Some activities include worksheets for use by students. These may be freely photocopied.

### *Procedure*

In this section, the actual process of the activity is described as a series of steps. Most activities can be done in a single class period (approximately 45 minutes). When an activity involves many steps that would be best done over several consecutive days, this is noted in the text. In the case of the simulations, a double period is generally necessary.

### *Variations*

This is a description of possible ways to adapt the activity to the age level, abilities, or interests of the group.

### *Follow-up*

Ideally, the activities in the manual should be used not as isolated experiences but as a way of stimulating further study and research, or as an opportunity for taking meaningful action in the students's own environment. This section suggests options for extending students' learning beyond the activity.

### *In the curriculum*

This indicates the types of academic skills which are developed during the course of the activity. Many of these skills are applicable to other subject areas as well. This section also suggests subject areas in which it would be appropriate to incorporate the activity.

**Education for Development: A Teacher's Resource for Global Learning** is not intended to be a comprehensive or prescriptive curriculum. It is a resource book, and need not be read from beginning to end in order to be of use. Some teachers may wish to concentrate on activities from only one chapter, building them into a clearly defined unit of study. Others may pick and choose activities from various chapters which are relevant to their ongoing classroom work in different subject areas. Teachers should feel free to combine activities in new ways, and to adapt them to changing circumstances and different cultural contexts.