

Issue 2, Spring 2016

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# Latitude 51°

The magazine of Sutton Grammar Geography





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A 500:1 scale model of  
how Shanghai is planned  
to look by 2020





It is my pleasure to bring to you the second issue of the Sutton Grammar Geography Department's magazine, Latitude 51. Our theme this issue is Development. This encompasses such a wide range of topics, as you can see by the variation in the articles: they range from the impacts of international aid, why some countries have not developed, how gender and religion influence development, all the way to looking at the craze of volunteer tourism.

Development is a difficult topic to define. In Geography, it is a change in the standard of living and quality of life of a country's human inhabitants, or in other words a process of change that affects people's lives. The world is a constantly changing place, and so looking at development will always throw up new insights into the world around us and its people. While definitely rooted in geography, development crosses over with a number of subjects, perhaps most obviously economics and history. This area of geography can quickly become bogged down in jargon and acronyms, not helped by debate around these by geographers. The two main classifications for countries' development were MEDCs and LEDCs, More or Less Economically Developed Countries. This was rightly thought to be too simplistic, and so other acronyms have developed. Newly Industrialised Countries (NICs) refer to the emerging economies of countries such as South Korea, Singapore, Malaysia and Indonesia. RICs (Recently Industrialised Countries) have some crossover with NICs, but are generally more recent, with both India

and China being included in this group. All sorts of acronyms are bounded about for groups of developing countries: BRICS (Brazil, Russia, India, China and South Africa); MINT (Mexico, Indonesia, Nigeria, and Turkey) and the Next 11 (N-11) (Bangladesh, Egypt, Indonesia, Iran, Mexico, Nigeria, Pakistan, the Philippines, Turkey, South Korea and Vietnam). TNCs are Transnational Corporations, which simply means a large company that stretches across multiple countries, for example Shell or Nike.

It has been an honour to see this publication come into being. The number of articles we had to choose from was much greater than the number we could print, so keep an eye out for the digital publication of some of these at a later date. The articles written by lower school and especially Year 7 were at such a high level, it is very pleasing to be able to include them in the magazine, and I would like to encourage anyone who thought about writing, but didn't, to definitely do it next time! I hope you enjoy reading all of the articles as much as I have, and it really does showcase the talent for Geography at Sutton Grammar, in the budding journalists we clearly have. I would like to thank my editors and producers for their sterling work, and of course to the staff, especially Miss Bartlett, for all the effort she has put in. While you read this magazine, I would urge you to consider the issues raised, as the fate of the development of the world really is in our hands, as citizens of one of the richest countries in the world, as you will find out.

## Spring 2016 Issue 2

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The Sidu River Bridge is 1,222m long and 464m high, making it the highest bridge in the world





# What Is Development?

Tom Clapp 9BR



Development indicators are a means of measuring the prosperity of a country which generally falls into two different categories: human development and economic development. Geographers assess these two different classifications to gain a rounded view of a country's affluence. It is similar to how you might judge which new videogames console you want to buy: what is the price, does it have good graphics, is there a large selection of games and are they varied enough? For the console to be good, each factor has to justify itself with the other competitors; what's the point of having a console with amazing graphics but on which hardly any games are available. This is one of the fundamental aspects of comparing development between countries, and one of the biggest issues: what are the different measurements of development?

Most people would agree if one was to say that the three most important factors of development are political stability, economic growth, as the well as the general happiness of the population. However, issues arise when you go into the details of an area of development, such as healthcare; what do you base your measurement on? Do you rate it on availability to all citizens, or the number of complex procedures undertaken? Would you rate a healthcare system on the life expectancy of a person, or even the number of fatalities in hospitals: the list is endless, and many countries would argue for one particular point, because it would complement their system the best. And even if you have sorted out a way of taking in all the different indicators, how important is one factor compared to another?

To make this easier, geographers and economists have come up with two different categories: Economic Indicators and Human Indicators, and the Human Development Index (HDI) incorporates both of these categories (Britain is ranked 27th on this scale). In the economic section, we find that the most commonly used indicator is GNP (Gross National Product) per capita. This is a measure of the total of how much a country

produces, as both goods and services, and then divides it by the population of the country, to see how much each person should in theory have. This is an issue though as many LEDCs do not have accurate ways of recording all purchases, so their GNP is automatically going to be smaller than in reality. This is why it is important to incorporate other indicators. It is also important to consider the distribution of wealth. While certain oil rich countries may have high GDP/Capita values, this wealth tends to be concentrated in the hands of a few, with most living in poverty. On the social side, indicators include birth and death rates, life expectancy, infant mortality, gender equality and the availability of education.

There is of course much debate about the choice of indicators, as to which indicators are the most revealing in the modern world. One problem with the system is who decides which indicators are most important. For example, the U.K. at the moment would probably rank public healthcare as a priority with the NHS, but America would not prioritise its private system. Another problem occurs if you look at development in terms of healthcare, Cuba would appear very developed, even though it's small economy is struggling. This is why we have to look at all of development, not just one small aspect of it. This problem is combatted by the use of the HDI which attempts to integrate all the important indicators of development.

To conclude, it is very difficult to fully understand a country's development, because there is not a scale which can really understand all of the different variations in each country which would place it higher up on one category or another. I am not saying, however, that we should not have a scale, as they provide goals for countries to achieve, but I think that the system can never be fully optimised even if you constantly tweak it. A whole range of indicators should be looked at instead, to build a more comprehensive picture of a country's development.



# Millennium Development Goals

Shayaan Shawani 8R



In the year 2000, when the world was celebrating a new century and millennium, 189 world leaders representing their countries gather under grandiose circumstances to try and establish goals for a better world. Gathered around the United Nations table, these countries put forward eight goals which they felt were necessary in helping the world achieve its priorities to establish safety, security and a world in which everybody was provided for. As such, the birth of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) was heralded as the beginning of a new start for the world to bring about change for the better.

Fast forward fifteen years, in September 2015, these same world leaders, plus a few additional ones (193 in total) once again convened at the United Nations in New York. Their aim? To assess their success and to seek future promises and guarantees for people and the environment worldwide. This time round the focus was to build upon the original Millennium Development Goals and bring the development discussion into a new era. As such the Sustainable Development Goals were brought into effect to be achieved by 2030. Seventeen goals in total, that's nine more than the original set, covering a wide range of issues from absolute poverty, the achievement of food security, empowerment of all women and to combat climate change. Each is certainly aspirational and by no means an easy task to achieve.

What is perhaps more interesting is whether these decisions have taken into account the success of their predecessors. Did the world achieve the Millennium Development Goals? Discussed below are a select few of the original eight goals to try and highlight the achievements seen, and to establish whether the new Sustainable Development Goals are in fact achievable

themselves.

## MDG 1: Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger

Poverty is defined by the United Nations as living on less than \$1 a day. A goal which underpins many of the other goals, it was deemed vital that eradication of poverty was given priority. The world's extremely poor are distributed unevenly across regions and countries. The overwhelming majority of people living below the poverty line reside in just two regions – Southern Asia and sub-Saharan Africa – accounting for about 80 percent of the global total of extremely poor people. In 2011 60% of those living in extreme poverty lived in just five countries: India, Nigeria, China, Bangladesh and the Democratic Republic of Congo.

Its success:

In 1990 the extreme poverty rate in developing countries was reported as being 47%. In 2015 it had dropped to 14%. This means that 14% of the world's population lives on less than \$1 a day in comparison to almost half of the world's population in 1990. In 1999 the number of people estimated to be living in poverty was 1.75 billion people. In 2015, it had reduced to 836 million. The UN's Millennium Development Goals Report suggests that the majority of this progress occurred after the year 2000, indicating that this change has occurred as a direct result of the MDGs implementation.

Has the MDG been met?

Despite these positive figures there is still poverty worldwide. Millions of people living in developing regions still don't have access to basic services like clean water and food security. There are still over 800 million



people who suffer from extreme hunger and 880 million people are still reported to live in inadequate living conditions.

As such the goal itself has not been met fully. The United Nations are very aware that greater efforts are needed to eradicate extreme poverty for all people everywhere. Eradicating poverty is still very much at the core of the post-2015 development agenda.

#### MDG 2: Achieve universal primary education

“Education is the most powerful weapon which you can use to change the world.” - Nelson Mandela.  
Every child deserves the right to have education, but there are many children in the world that do not have access to it. Investment in education is considered to be a smart thing to do. Education provides people with the skills they need to help themselves out of poverty. It improves health and promotes democracy and greater equality, as well as being an opportunity for nations to grow economically. Education is seen by many as the panacea for development across the world.

Its success:

The number of children not in school in the year 2000 was around 100 million. This is estimated to have reduced to around 57 million by 2015. In developing parts of the world the primary school net enrolment rate has increased from 83% to 91% with the youth literacy rate improving most notably for 15 to 24 year olds.

Has the MDG been met?

There are still estimated to be 57 million children who should be in primary school but are not. Many children who may well have started school are forced to drop out of school because of demands made by the family to work, the omnipresent societal norms which dictate that culture and tradition are still more important than educating the young and, for many, the lack of free schooling once they have reached a certain age. Over 226 million children cannot attend secondary school because of the fees needed to pay for their schooling. The United Nations has pledged to renew its focus on education, drawing on lessons learnt from the MDGs, with acknowledgment that strategies used will need to be tailored to the needs of specific groups of children, particularly girls, children belonging to minorities and those living in conflict situations.

#### MDG 3: Promote gender equality and empower women

The promotion of gender equality has been an ongoing battle. Despite significant improvements in rights for women the reality remains that women have fewer opportunities to benefit from economic development than men. There are clear reasons for trying to promote gender equality. For example, women who are given knowledge and agency are more likely to be able to secure water, food and a better life for their children and communities. In order to achieve many of the other MDGs gender equality and empowerment was an important place to begin.

Its success:

Since 1995 there are more women in parliaments in 90% of countries. In South Asia the primary school enrolment ratio has increased for girls. It has increased so much that the ratio shows that for 100 boys there 103 girls enrolling in primary school education. Excluding agricultural work, women now make up 41% of workers up from 35% in 1990. Taking into account education, the previous MDG highlighted that women and girl's enrolment rate within education had increased also.

Has the MDG been met?

Globally women earn 24% less than men. As a result of their gender, data suggests that women are more likely to be poor or live in extreme poverty than men. Despite significant progress, men still make up three quarters of the labour market with women lagging behind. Despite 103 girls enrolling in primary education for every 100 boys, this does not highlight the issue of dropout rates and the discontinuation of their education and studies due to other circumstances. Although the average number of women in parliaments has nearly doubled between 1991 and 2015, still only one in five members are women.

Did the world achieve the Millennium Development Goals? Looking at the statistics we must conclude that the goals themselves have not been met. However, we cannot discount the progress made and the successes already seen by formally focusing the world's attention on these particular aims - the goals were very ambitious when they were set, and good progress has been made. There has been success and people have seen improvements in the safety, security and possibilities within their lives. For this reason the MDGs must be given credit for the improvements that have occurred. With the introduction of the Sustainable Development Goals and the renewed focus on them, with finer detail underpinning each one, there is hope that the new is simply updating the old with the view to achieving further success by 2030.





# International Aid

James Hudson 12GR

The world's old imperial powers, such as England and France, began to progress through the stages of the demographic transition model (DTM) upon entering stage two in the 18th century, thereby developing as a result of industrialisation.

Contrastingly, at present, industrialisation is not the only cause for development. International aid has played a huge role in advancements of less economically developed countries (LEDCs) through the DTM. Despite this, whilst this aid does produce some quick improvements in a country, it is debatable whether aid is truly beneficial. Though useful in leading to progression through the DTM, how does aid impact on a country's development?

Initially, international aid rapidly helps LEDCs to reduce death rates because aid projects (that help to provide clean water, sanitation and medication e.g. WaterAid) lead to an increase in the standard of living. Basic facilities are crucial in this, as they become available in LEDCs, due to the expertise gained from the technologically advanced western world.

Yet, the introduction of vaccination programmes into a country, by delivering western doctors, nurses and drugs, is what makes the most significant improvement to healthcare. This is because vaccines help to protect the most vulnerable section of the population - infants under the age of one. Thus, the infant mortality rates decline, allowing a larger proportion of births to be successful, i.e. the baby will grow up and join the workforce. According to UNICEF's 2012 statistics, in southern and eastern Africa, only 1.3 million of the 14.1 million children below the age of one were not vaccinated for diseases such as tuberculosis, which have almost been completely eradicated in the western world. The introduction of this cheap (one dose of a measles vaccine can cost 10 cents) and relatively simple technology - in combination with using qualified professionals to train the host country's own medical staff - results in plummeting death rates in addition to the transfer of expertise to the native population, permitting them to continue medical developments.

Yet, whilst this does help to rapidly improve some areas of society, it has not been as a result of industrialisation and, therefore, it does not possess the infrastructure and quality of equipment to appropriately tackle more complex procedures, like transplants and cancer treatments. Hence, the country's population will increase, without the resources to sustain it and the limited healthcare facilities that the country has will be stretched even further.







Aid from donor countries or organisations can certainly be economically advantageous. For example, an area of beauty could soon develop as a tourist destination, providing a constant flow of revenue, which could then be reinvested to further improve tourist facilities. In tandem with this, the transport system would be vastly enhanced and medical facilities advanced to help attract wealthy westerners. There could also be steps towards reducing crime and corruption, making the destination safer and more desirable. These changes, along with others, develop the infrastructure of the country for potential tourists, but importantly also for the native population, giving them better welfare and perhaps stimulating positive social change.

Moreover, with tourism being a labour intensive industry, it can provide many jobs; in Kenya (2015) 543,500 jobs were directly linked to tourism, increasing local wealth and the desire for a higher standard of living because the people are richer. Not only that but locals are also given funds that can be reinvested into their country's services, which leads to the multiplier effect.

Nevertheless, this can make a country over-reliant on single industry, which in Kenya's case is tourism, and with aid often supplied on a loan basis, this can increase dependency on donors is increased because they cannot satisfy the donor's demands in return for the initial investment, if the focus is all on one industry. Also, aid alone cannot cause industrialisation to occur. Without this, it is difficult to create the large numbers of jobs required over a prolonged period of time, which are vital for raising employment levels and boosting the economy. Aid can also cause 'Dutch Disease' (see the article on African Development), causing problems for the developing country.

In the previous paragraphs, two of the most obvious examples of where international aid can benefit development have been discussed and in both cases, aid still has a positive impact. Still, despite these advantages, there are also problems, of which corruption plays a big part in counteracting the advantages of international aid.

This ultimately means that all aid provided is less effective on a large scale, as it may be siphoned off by corrupt officials and governments; in 2010, 48.5% of the population across sub-Saharan Africa were living in extreme poverty, despite all of the aid and support that the people receive from MEDCs across the world.

Furthermore, through donors giving aid, LEDCs automatically become dependent on that body. The supply of aid is often used by the donor to pressure the receiver both politically and economically, ultimately weakening the recipients. The host country can lose out on valuable natural resources too, as the donor may extract them for cheap prices if the host lacks the modern technology to do so itself. A future foundation of income is therefore removed from the country, and sources of energy (fossil fuels) are also taken. Moreover, countries can lose control as they become more and more dependent as unobtainable better living standards prompt poorer countries to request more aid, perhaps pushing them into vicious spirals of debt and dependency.

In conclusion, there definitely are short-term advantages from international aid and, in some areas, development is fuelled by external aid. In spite of this, it seems it may be better to allow development to happen naturally, through industrialisation, thus progression through the DTM will follow.

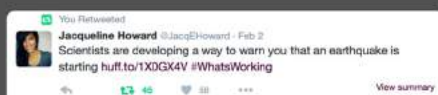
Industrialisation certainly propelled the old imperial powers (now MEDCs) forward effectively and this seems to be the only method of introducing all the economic, social and political changes at the correct rate in conjunction with each other. If countries develop through industrialisation, they should, theoretically, never be dependent on another body, as the workforce will slowly increase in size, live longer and learn new skills which only serve to develop the country further. By doing it themselves, they can avoid exploitation and slowly eradicate corruption as part of the many social alterations that will occur. Aid is not necessary as countries have developed themselves through industrialisation before; this still seems to be the best process to follow.



# Best of @SGSgeography on Twitter

<https://twitter.com/SGSgeography>

These are just a selection of interesting tweets from our Twitter feed in the past few weeks. [Follow](#) us for the latest geographical news and department information. To see the following posts, go to Twitter and scroll down to the date shown below.





# Modern Africa

Zac Rooprai 7P and Callum Jack 13P

Africa has long dominated discussions on development, and perhaps this is deserved. It is certainly true that a very high proportion of the world's poorest people live in Africa: whereas other areas of the world have developed, growth in Africa has, generally, been painfully slow to watch. The people of Africa are not somehow inept, or worse than anywhere else, (in fact these problems can be seen outside of Africa, but many African countries are good examples of these types of economies), but for various reason their countries have simply not developed. In this article, we shall be examining why this is the case. In other words, we shall be presenting some of the factors that have inhibited the economic growth of the continent, leaving some of the world's poorest countries in danger of being separated from the rest of the world by a gulf of increasing poverty.

One of them is war. Some countries have fierce, seemingly never-ending civil wars, which use up the resources people need to sustain themselves. Consequently, many people die, even just due to a lack of food and water rather than through the war itself. In Britain however, there are few wars to use up our resources, meaning they are plentiful. The cost of civil war is staggering: study shows that it wipes around 2.3% from a country's annual growth. When you consider that the average civil war rages on for 7 long years, this leaves the country 15% poorer than it would have been. The cost is not limited to the war torn nation itself, it can bleed across to neighbours, and even further afield. The average cost to all parties is \$64 billion, which is just under half of the total global foreign aid spending in 2015. And that is for just 1 war. 75% of countries with the billion poorest people are currently or have recently been embroiled in civil war. This quickly adds up to a huge cost, not to mention a depressing and senseless loss of life. In addition, war precipitates war: the conditions that war creates (low growth and income) are the precisely the conditions that war needs to flourish.

Another factor is that some countries do not have plentiful natural resources, which foreign countries may have a great interest in buying, because certain resources can be very lucrative. Russia is crammed full of diamonds, but other countries are not as lucky. An abundance of natural resources can also present quite serious problems for a developing nation. Being rich in raw resources can significantly increase the risk of civil war breaking out, since the opposing factions can compete to hold the resources, and fairly easily finance their campaigns. This can be clearly seen in the case of 'Blood Diamonds', which were mined in conflict countries such as Angola, Côte d'Ivoire and Sierra Leone (which, to their credit, the diamond industry took steps

to curb), and more recently in the oil that is funding the war chest of Daesh. A second problem facing resource rich countries is what economists term 'Dutch Disease'. This is caused by a lack of investment in other industry which can be catastrophic in the event of a crash in the price of the resource, which can be quite volatile - consider the fluctuations in the price of oil. This can be accompanied by foreign investment strengthening the currency, which makes the country uncompetitive in other areas of the world market.

The third factor is that Africa is also a very big continent and a lot of it is landlocked which means there is not easy access to seaports or trade posts. This means that poor people who could have a lot to trade will not gain access due to their location. For example, Uganda could potentially develop, but is landlocked and is held back by its neighbours. In order for it to trade effectively, it needs to get its imports and exports to and from the coast. The river flows through the war torn and dangerous Democratic Republic of the Congo, and so is not practical, and the railways are non-existent. The only method is by poor quality road, making it both expensive and inefficient. It costs 4 times as much to transport goods from Mombasa in neighbouring Kenya to Kampala (Uganda's capital) as it does to transport them from China to Mombasa, which highlights why it is not currently practical to trade with Uganda. Kenya has no incentive to maintain the road, since it would not benefit from it, and so it just doesn't invest. And investment is exactly what is needed to allow Uganda to flourish and grow.

A fourth reason is that the climate in parts of Africa is too hot and dry and the land is not fertile enough. This means certain countries cannot provide foodstuffs to trade with other countries leading to major consequences like poverty, not to mention famine. The ineffective nature of agriculture in Africa can be changed however, given enough investment in new farming techniques and technology, and with global advances, the price of these should come down, as they are currently outpriced for the already stretched budgets of the poorest countries which perhaps need them most. There is an argument that this is an area where aid might be more effective: rather than simply giving African governments food or unearmarked money (there has been and still are major problems with corruption in some African countries - 99% of aid intended for health clinics in Chad was siphoned off by corrupt officials, leaving only 1% getting through, let alone spent effectively when it arrived), investing in schemes that allow the country to develop itself might be more beneficial. Think of the somewhat clichéd 'Give a man a fish...' argument.



In some African countries (not to say that this is a uniquely African problem) certain ethnic groups do not have the same rights as others. This is perhaps the most unfair of reasons, as rights should not be taken from a certain race due to, for example, their culture or colour. Consequently some races have much lower life expectancies than others. This problem is perhaps particularly prevalent in Africa because of the rather murky history of colonialism we, in the West, inflicted on nearly the whole continent. Vast swathes of Africa 'belonged' to one of the European Empires until the second half of the 20th century; indeed the only independent countries after the 1884 Berlin Conference, where the imperial powers formalised their territories, were Ethiopia and Liberia. Following the breakup of these empires, borders were drawn up, which did not reflect the diversity of ethnic groups or respect the historical feuds between them, penning rival tribes up together. This has contributed to the racial tensions which have caused instability in many countries, including, most infamously, in recent times, the genocide in Rwanda, which has, in turn, held back development. Neo-colonial empires have been created by Transnational

Corporations (TNCs), as well as by major powers such as the US and China, which have the potential to cause the same problems as their historical counterparts did, including such problems as resource stripping, and leaving the victim country with huge amounts of what is effectively unpayable debt.

Let us be clear, Africa is not a 'lost cause'. All of these problems can have solutions. We have seen countries break out of poverty before. For example, South Korea, now one of the bright stars of the emerging economies, was formerly on the same level as many Sub-Saharan African countries. This is not to say the the methods for solving the problems for the poorest countries today are the same; these countries face very different problems, but there definitely is hope. There is plenty of research out there by experts in the field pointing to potential ways out for the bottom countries, it is just that it has not been in the interest of the richest economies to allow the poorest out of poverty. This can change. With the right legislation and action, the world can become a more equal place. Whether we will make it so is a question we should all be asking ourselves and our governments.









# Gender & Development

Miss Bartlett

An overview of gender in the post 2015 agenda

The 25th September 2015 heralded a new era in world development discussions and forums. The United Nations (UN) and its member states quite literally threw out the old and brought in the new. On the back of the dissolution of the Millennium Development Goals (MDG's), seventeen time bound and aspirational targets were agreed upon to be achieved by 2030. The premise? To build upon the success of what the MDGs had been able to accomplish. When the world welcomed in the New Year at the beginning of 2015 many considered that there was still a long way to go before we could even consider that the original eight goals had been achieved. These new Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) each one time bound and aspirational, as before, have a greater emphasis on how they can be met and finer detail about how each issue could be tackled.

Gender still sits very much at the centre of the post 2015 development rhetoric. Sustainable Development Goal 5 hopes to 'Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls'. Why is gender so important for countries and places to 'develop'? Amartya Sen, economist and philosopher, highlighted the importance of women in development. He stated that 'Development is the process of expanding freedoms equally for all people'. Sen's theory is simple. Freedom is both the end goal and the principle of development. Women need to be free and equal for a place to be considered so.

Not least is that it is smart economics. Empowering women enhances economic efficiency which in turn feeds into other development outcomes (reduced infant mortality, increased productivity, improving literacy rates and skilled workers). A recent report from the United Nations (UN Women Survey Report 2015) argued that the empowerment and equality of women can lead to greater food security for a nation and have wider positive demographic implications. Women are important. The message is clear.

The 'push for parity' discussed on International Women's Day, 8th March 2016, at the UN sought to identify how the new SDG on gender could be achieved. At present the figures for equality and empowerment are, although much improved since the implementation of the MDGs, still evidence that we have a significant way to go.

Women trail men in the labour market by 27%, with the majority being employed in the informal sector. Women still earn 24% less than men on average worldwide despite significant progress within education and enrolment. Women are still unlikely to receive social benefits when working and yet are still expected to take on the roles associated with the home and family situation at the same time.

The difficulty in making a success of this world aim is overwhelming. Eradicating gender inequality and empowering women is not as simple as placing food and water in front of people lacking basic needs. It is not just about giving and donating money to help. It is certainly not solely about tackling health, disease and natural disasters. The issues underpinning equality and empowerment derive from factors beyond much of our control. Perceptions, culture, and traditions all install barriers to the path being sought here. Religion, race and ethnicity all determine how women interact within their communities and the preventive obstacles they encounter. If a culture dictates that women should not go to school, how can we ensure that primary school education is equal for all? Kenya declared free primary education for all in 2003. 75% of the students who enrol are male. The girls still drop out at secondary school because they can't pay the fees. If they can pay the fees, boys still take priority. Girls are still thought of as homemakers and as such when they marry there is no longer the need to stay in school. How do we ensure that this stops? Is it even possible?

Monitoring this progress is also going to be exceptionally hard. Figures from within countries are often distorted and fabricated to show progress to the world. It is anticipated that the concept of core-periphery will likely exacerbate the issue regarding gender empowerment. There will be individuals in urban areas that see that these changes are being enacted. In the rural periphery this will not be the case.

In the majority of countries less than 40% of women who experience violence seek help of any sort. Violence is predominantly committed by a partner, former partner or family member. Without the ability to see what is happening due to effective reporting and improving self-awareness of women and girls, tackling this issue is a hard task. Over 100 countries have passed laws on





domestic violence although when laws do exist they are not always compliant with international standards. Despite these difficulties the picture is not all negative. There are numerous examples where Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) are leading the way in achieving equality and empowerment albeit on a micro-scale. To highlight the importance of this specific goal The World Bank approved \$107 million for use in gender development projects in Burundi, The Democratic Republic of Congo and Rwanda. A further \$170 million was channelled through the Sahel Women's Empowerment and Demographics project to specifically target women and girls living in the peripheral countries of Saharan Africa.

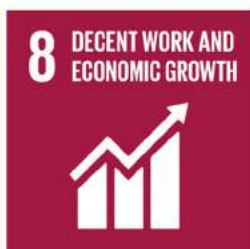
Where does this money go? Numerous projects are currently being implemented focusing on helping women to help themselves. Farm Africa is teaching women throughout Africa to manage their own savings and reinvest them in their own enterprises. AfriCare is targeting new and potential businesswomen in Chad to help train them in microfinancing and leadership. Cordaid in Latin America is seeking to empower women financially through similar projects. Kibera in Need, focusing solely on the Kibera slum in Nairobi, Kenya, has already distributed thousands of micro-finance loans to individuals and groups of women so that they can set up businesses of their own and provide for themselves and their children. The Gender and Development Network suggests that 'access to and control over income and assets can give women greater independence and choice; the ability to generate an independent income is intimately linked to women's ability to exercise voice and control over their lives.' (GAD - Turning Promises into Progress)

The Sahel Empowerment project has already seen success in improving reproductive health across the entire region by making education and medicines more affordable and accessible to all. The World Bank believes that strengthening women's roles as leaders, entrepreneurs, consumers and economic stakeholders will transform the continent.

Empowerment is not only about money. Social empowerment and women's rights are also on the table. The community driven Pudhu Vaazhu Program in Southern India has made life better for the women and their families. They were able to learn to read and write

and as a result help their children study, giving them a greater voice to help make their villages better.

These are just a few examples of how people worldwide have been striving to meet the commitment of achieving gender equality and empowerment. There is still a long journey ahead but the signs are positive and more and more people are seeing the value of 'Stepping up: 50:50 by 2030'. Of the 198 nations, 91 so far have promised to 'step up' for gender equality. The next fifteen years will determine how successful we are at working towards and, hopefully, meeting these goals. Why make gender a focus of the post 2015 development agenda? If you educate women, you educate a nation. Gender is integral to the potential for development.





James Quayle 7P

The United Kingdom and other more developed countries (MDCs) in the occident are usually seen as great nations and perfect role models for development to less developed countries (LDCs) of the world. Places such as Africa and Southern Asia look to the western world for inspiration in how to develop both socially and economically. Millions of people seek our shores in search of a better life and a place of belonging in an ever increasing world community. Yet are we really a role model in the context of world development? Should LDCs really follow our paradigm, particularly when it comes to the use of energy as a way of accelerating development?

In 2014 the United Kingdom released approximately 520.5 million tonnes of greenhouse gases into the atmosphere. Add to this the hundreds of millions of tonnes emitted by other big contributors, such as the USA, alongside newly emerging industrial powers, China being one example, you start to realise how the world, particularly the 'west', is not quite so 'great' when analysing carbon emissions.

Since the Industrial Revolution we have become reliant on fossil fuels. The world's development can be attributed to the Industrial Revolution. The increase in agricultural production, development of energy and mechanisation has perpetuated an ever increasing ability for humans to lead easy, rich and energy sapping lives. We have become reliant on fossil fuels in order to power our factories and heat our homes. Eighty percent of the world's energy is produced by the burning of fossil fuels. This burning has released a greenhouse terror that is changing the world beyond salvation through climate change.

The millions of tonnes of greenhouse gases which now constitute the atmospheric blanket surrounding the earth are having significant repercussions on the world's weather. The variation and intensity of weather all over the world with extreme weather events such as flooding, drought and tropical storms become more frequent and affecting areas beyond their natural spatial extent.

The Climate Change Summit held in Paris in December 2015, attended by around 200 countries, submitted proposals to reduce emissions in an attempt to halt the rise of global atmospheric temperatures. The aim was to limit the increase to 1.5 °Celsius, with the upper limit being decided as 2°Celsius. Many LDCs signed up to this agreement which is why it was given the 'landmark' status often bandied about in the media. Developing countries signed the agreement to reduce their carbon agreement which is why it was given the 'landmark' status often bandied about in the media. Developing countries signed the agreement to reduce their carbon emissions including countries which will rely on fossil

fuels as a way of developing their own peoples and economies. It is surely questionable how successful this final agreement will be with so much reliance on LDCs forgoing the use of industrialisation to stimulate their own developmental trajectory.

Many LDCs could rightly claim a sense of unfairness in being expected to reduce their emissions output when by and large the responsibility and fault of our current climatic predicament lies in the hands of MDCs. So despite our developed status, our increasing wealth, our power on the world stage, our country is by no means the perfect model.

One could even suggest that our roles should be reversed and that LDCs are themselves a model to us energy driven and industrialised countries. LDCs such as India and Kazakhstan have proven that the western model is not necessarily the key to development. Improvements in green technologies have enabled people to increase agricultural yields and drive people out of the poverty cycle.

India has shown that, failing to progress further by using up its entire coal and fossil fuel resources, turning to green technologies could be the answer. India's Cochin airport is the first in the world to use 100% solar power. The national government has set a target of increasing renewable energy generation by 40 gigawatts by 2022. Because most of India's power plants have yet to be built, India has options that many countries can only dream of when it comes to energy generation. What is most important to highlight is that they are seeking green and environmentally friendly alternatives in order to create Indian prosperity, not just following the 'western model' of fossil fuel usage.

Both Kazakhstan and Kyrgyzstan are investing in renewable energies to kick start development due to depletion of their domestic oil reserves. Dependence on oil will limit their ability to continue to improve their economy and so alternatives are already being implemented to bridge the gap. Having agreed to the United Nation's 'Green Bridge' proposal they have committed to harness their enormous potential for wind and solar power with the potential to generate 172 kWh and 4.2 GW respectively by 2020.

These are just a few examples to highlight how LDCs could be viewed as the forward thinking leaders of green technology implementation. It seems that LDCs are shunning the 'Western Footprint' and seem to be trumping us at it in doing so. To answer my original question of whether the western world is really a model for development, in terms of the use and development of energy it seems that we are perhaps not as great as we thought.





E.on's coal-fired  
Ratcliffe-on-Soar power station  
in Nottinghamshire





# The Dark Side Of Development

Joseph Hearn 11GR

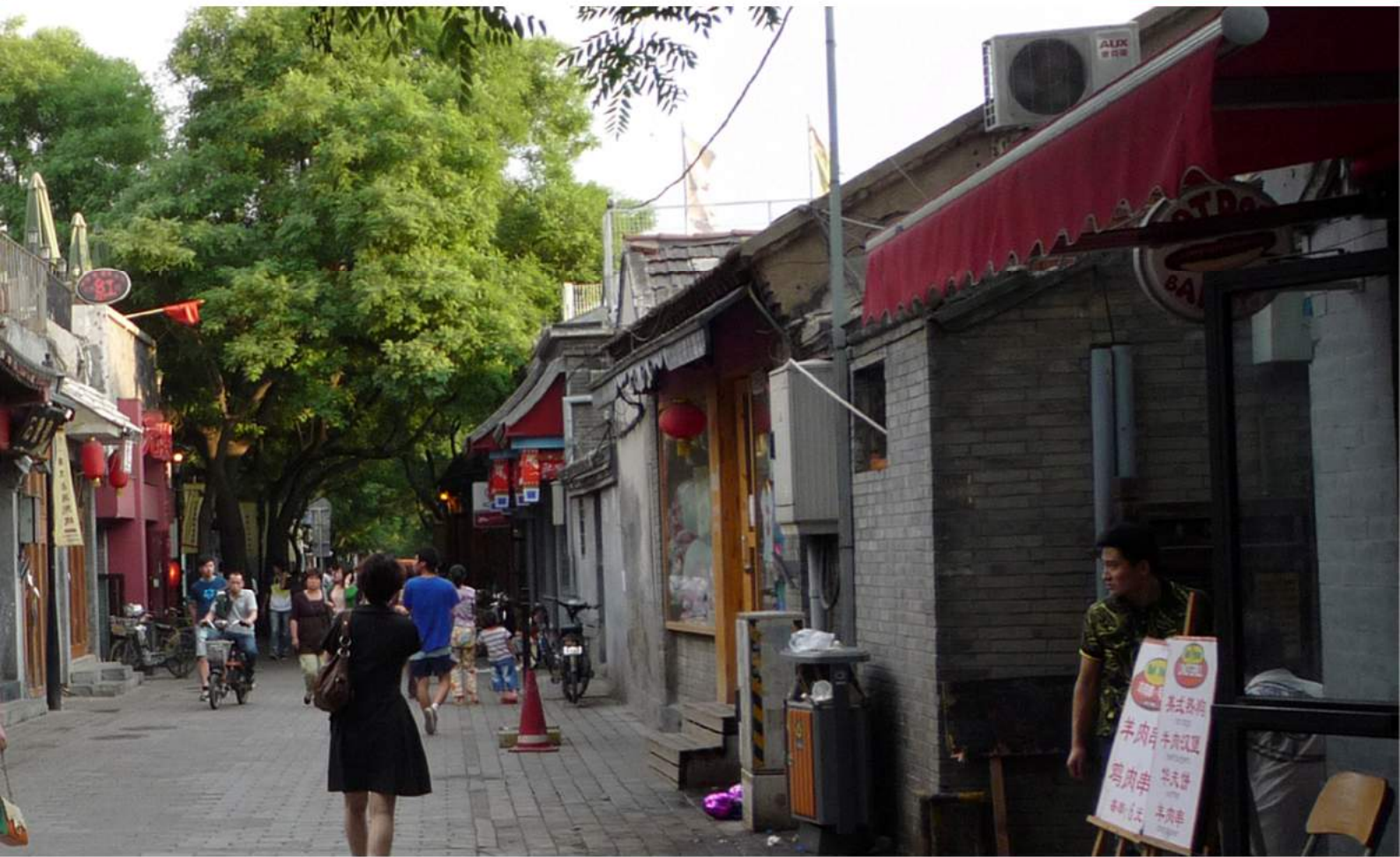
The Bird's Nest stadium is a mighty, steel symbol of the rapid economic growth which China has seen over the past two decades. Built for the 2008 Olympic Games, the arena was a place to overtly showcase the Middle Kingdom's sporting prowess, whilst also ostentatiously displaying to the world how a fusion of communist, capitalist and totalitarian ideals can be the best system of governance possible.

In recent years, with the "democratic" Arab Spring dramatically failing, doubt has been cast on the concept of democracy being the "worst form of government, except for all those other forms that have been tried from time to time," as Churchill said. Perhaps China's utilitarianist arrangement is in fact the most effective form - it has lifted 500 million people out of poverty, built the world's fastest supercomputer and generates the most renewable energy in the world. However, the grass is not always greener on the other side of the Urals; China's astronomical rate of growth, including the construction of a successful space program, has left many citizens floundering in its wake. A case in point is the systematic destruction of Beijing's historic hutongs.

Hutongs are alleys formed by lines of siheyuan, traditional courtyard residences, and form many of the oldest neighbourhoods of Beijing and other Chinese cities.

580,000 people were displaced from the Ming dynasty (1368–1644) hutongs during the construction of the Olympic Park and its related infrastructure. 580,000 people – the population of Glasgow. The sheer, single-minded drive of the ruling Communist Party to portray China as a forward-looking nation, in fact, involved some rather backward-look policies. UNESCO claims that between 2003 and 2006, 20km<sup>2</sup> – a third – of Beijing's old city was destroyed. The Olympics was a catalyst for a programme that has continued to the present day. Little provision has been provided for those who have been moved out. The country's lax private housing laws and large state ownership mean that the government has been able to destroy people's homes with only pint-sized judicial oversight. Yes, the centuries-old alleyways have been replaced by apartment blocks, but often the displaced do not have an automatic right to move in. Whereas Britain's post-war slum clearance demolished old terraced houses and moved the inhabitants into newly built blocks, China's leaves the dispossessed to fend for themselves.





Much like European monarchies, the hutongs have been a constant in the face of acute change; even Mao's Great Leap Forward jumped over the settlements, leaving them scarred but intact. Perhaps the time is right for change; regeneration of London's historic docklands has turned a down at heel district into the financial capital of the world. But residential redevelopment must take into account the wishes of the original occupants. Otherwise disgruntled citizens will start to complain – hardly good news for the fine balance between repression and rising living standards that the Chinese political establishment promulgates. If the Communist Party of China (CPC) does not keep its social stethoscope firmly held on the beating heart of the city, as has been the case with the hutong redevelopment scheme, then soon a seemingly innocuous issue could develop into something more major: nobody wants a repeat of 1989's Tiananmen Square debacle. The social well-being of a city relies on a sense of pride and culture. Having a mix of historic and modern districts gives residents a distinct feeling of individuality and a nuanced vision for change.

The CPC headquarters are part of the issue: Chairman Mao wanted them next to Tiananmen Square instead of in a new development because the square is where the

People's Republic was founded in 1949. Like many of Mao's policies, the consequences of this plan were not considered. The headquarters now have nowhere to expand other than into the historic hutongs. A Beijing City Master Plan, passed in 2005, promised to protect sections of hutongs but has, in reality, failed. Therefore, the CPC must take action to avert this clear cultural and social destruction before it is too late. Hutong dwellers must be involved in local planning decisions, perhaps as part of small community feedback groups. They must also be provided with adequate financial or residential compensation that is decided by a neutral board of experts. Certain particularly historic sections must have strict legal protection from destruction, with party commissioners (akin to the UK's police and crime commissioners) zealously enforcing these measures. New developments have the potential to be very good for the hutong dwellers; they can provide jobs and a better standard of living. However, new blocks must be built well, with the support of local people and for local people. Without these measures and others, China's breakneck economic growth, rather than gratifying the people, could agitate them into protest. The spectre of 1989 still haunts the CPC; a repeat could spell doom for China's great communist balancing act.





# The Brandt Line

Edward Grindrod 12WO

The Brandt Line, also known as the North-South divide, is a geographical concept linked to global development patterns. It is commonly depicted as a line that runs across the globe which separates the affluent North from the poverty stricken South. The North mainly consists of the old First and Second World; including Europe, North America and Australasia, whilst the South is comprised of 'Third World' nations, that is to say those in Africa, Asia and South America. Wealth is the main difference between the North and the South. In economic terms, the North, with only one quarter of the world's population, controls four fifths of the income earned globally. 90% of the manufacturing industry is owned by, and located in, the North. Inversely, the South, with three quarters of the world's population, has access to only one fifth of the world's income.

However, there are many other indicators that are polar opposites on either side of the line. Education is one of the best indicators of development and the gap in educational resources between the Global North and Global South is striking. In Europe, 99% of children have a primary education and, today, it is compulsory in most European nations for teenagers to stay in education until

at least the age of 16. Comparatively, in East Asia and Latin America, about 90% of children get some education, which is still well above the global average of 82%. The global mean fluctuates around 80% due to rates of education in Africa and the Middle East. These regions average just below 70% which translates to close to one third of children in these poorer areas having never had access to basic primary education. This is a crucial part of the vicious circle of poverty, as without basic education children cannot become doctors, teachers or hold other professions necessary to help remove their nations from poverty and fund their own survival. Similarly, access to reliable health care varies massively on either side of the line. In the Global South, child mortality (the number of children under 5 years old to die per 1000 per year) is 72 whereas in the Global North, child mortality averages around 6. Moreover, access to clean water varies massively across the line - in Africa nearly half the population live in 'water scarcity' which means that it is very difficult for the government to provide enough water for crops, drinking and sanitation. The water supply in the UK, however, is extremely reliable in comparison. As proof, in Britain, we experience uproar when hosepipe bans are brought into effect, which has in the past been due to extremely dry summers and the resulting fears over reservoir levels. A consequence of both these problems is a chronic inability to produce enough food in the South.



The lack of water has an obvious effect on crop production as farmers must rely on rain to water their crops, as irrigation techniques are scarcely available, unlike in the North. This massively increases the chance of crop failure due to drought, which can devastate rural regions where large families depend on subsistence farming for all their food. The link from healthcare to food production in Africa mainly concerns the recent explosion of HIV/AIDS across the continent. In the countries worst-affected by the disease, for example Zimbabwe, it is thought that around 20% of the agricultural workforce have been lost to the disease. In 2002, the famine that followed a period of drought in the region was directly linked to the loss of labourers to HIV/AIDS and the financial implications placed on families that lost a member (such as funeral costs and healthcare). The famine also had a major impact on the population because those who were already HIV-positive quickly developed AIDS, meaning when the rain returned there were fewer adults to plant crops.

The huge gap in development, embodied by the statistics, has existed for hundreds of years but was first investigated and made public over 30 years ago. Willy Brandt first proposed the Brandt Line in the early 1980's; his observations resulted from a review into International Development Issues by the Independent Commission that he chaired. The report, formally named 'North-South: A Programme for Survival', is commonly known as the Brandt Report, which mainly focused on constructing a plan to provide social and economic equality globally and on reducing the development gap between the Global North and Global South. However, the Brandt Report was written when global population was 60% of what it is today. To give some perspective, China had only just introduced its 'One-Child Policy' and Aston Villa won the First Division! So, is the Brandt Line still a reliable and accurate model of global development patterns over thirty years after its conception?

If we consider today's patterns of global wealth and development, they are certainly different to those that Brandt observed 36 years ago. NICs (Newly Industrialised Countries) are countries that do not yet show all the signs of a developed nation but for a variety of reasons have recently outpaced their developing counterparts. NICs include Brazil, China, India and Malaysia which have all developed massively since Brandt's report. The income in many of these countries has massively increased in recent decades and public services, such as healthcare and education, have improved immensely. The economies of these countries have changed greatly too, with business moving away from mainly primary sector, fishing and farming, to tertiary sector economies with more emphasis on banking and a variety of other similar services. Therefore, these countries that lie in the Global South now show many characteristics of those in the Global North, which contradicts Brandt's model.

These NICs are blurring the line proposed by Brandt; they are doing what he proposed in his report and developing across the gap as he hoped countries would, but does this make his model invalid? It is possible to conclude that the model is slightly out of date and that drawing the line today would bring about a couple of changes but the concept of such a divide is still prevalent. There is also a very clear South-North divide in England, an East-West divide in London, an East-West divide in China's population and even the noticeable division between Eastern and Western Europe. Development gaps exist across the globe and they are a problem that we, as humans, need to address. For years now scientists have said that we have enough food, water, energy and resources to maintain a population of at least 7 billion, yet a thirst for luxury means that the Global North is unwilling to support the Global South as it desperately struggles to develop. We need to change perspectives across the globe if we want to solve the problems embodied in the North-South divide and this will certainly take time, but with commitment is possible. I believe that 36 years ago Willy Brandt uncovered a deep rooted problem that is global equality. In his report, he proposed methods to reduce the chasm in global development; however, we have failed to take his advice and now, with 7 billion on the planet, (many of those being born in the Global South), we face an increasingly difficult challenge. The sooner we address the North-South divide the easier it will be and I hope that the men and women at the forefront of our nations and organisations will challenge the problem we face in the very near future.





# Geo Grad

Mark Bailey



In Geo Grad, we look at what our former students have been working on in their courses at university and what they are going on to do as a graduate of Geography in their lives afterwards. This week it's 2010 leaver Mark Bailey. Mark Bailey studied Geography at Durham University for 3 years. Following this he was hired on to the Marks and Spencer Logistics & Supply Chain Graduate Scheme.

I was excited to be approached by Mr Pletts to write something for the magazine, as believe it or not, this serves as quite nice relief to the daily grind of London commuting, which is an appropriate link, as I wanted to write about London – and its homeowners in specific – under the context of development. As somebody who has taken the respectably daft decision recently to withdraw a mortgage, I find myself drawn with peculiar intrigue to articles regarding the housing crisis in London. It's nearly as if I'm under the illusion that my owning a plot of land just about large enough for my girlfriend, me and a £8 Ikea table (the value is undeniable) to all happily co-inhabit affords me some form of expertise in the subject. It doesn't – however, even though it's a way off for most of you yet, I imagine a few might already be pondering the possibility of home-ownership in the future. By mid-2015, soaring house prices (amongst other factors) had tabloids reporting that as little as 43% of people aged 20 - 45 were thinking of saving for a deposit on a home. Having been through the experience myself – and not all will be as fortunate as I was - I definitely don't miss the experience.

I'm no expert on the so-called housing crisis, despite the seemingly daily occurrences of over-excited Evening Standard articles I read describing the doomed fate of "Generation Rent". Indeed, the Standard itself seems to believe that its free circulation allows it the right to scream the most sensational of headlines, backed-up a few pages later with evidence they've found down the back of the sofa – but one story did catch my eye earlier this year, which was a possible solution to the crisis - build on London's green belt. Whether I was genuinely interested in this, or simply excited to see a headline including (what I would class as) a Geography word remains open to debate. Either way, it got me thinking about my own priorities, and the price of development very close to our homes.

The most controversial aspect of the proposed solution – and it has hit many headlines in the last year or so, thanks in part to various studies by right-wing think-tank the Adam Smith Institute – is to build on London's green belt. A green belt is an area of land surrounding urban conurbations that Local Authorities have been able to protect from development since 1947, effectively to prevent urban sprawl. In London's case, this is called the 'Metropolitan Green Belt', covering an area of over 5,000 km<sup>2</sup>. The SGS Sports Ground at Northey Avenue constitutes part of one of only two green belt areas in the Borough of Sutton; known as the 'Cuddington Area' (the other is the 'Woodcote Area' south of Carshalton Beeches, home to Oaks Park). It's not just a London-centric proposal - there are 14 separate areas of green belt around England, covering 13% of the land.



The housing crises itself has something of a Holy Grail figure associated to it, namely 50,000 new homes per year – the amount it is claimed London will need to develop to solve the shortage. Initially, the arguments for loosening the current restrictions on developing London's green belt land to achieve this are quite appealing. One of the aforementioned Adam Smith studies claims that 1 million homes can be built on just 3.7% of green belt land. Other reporters weigh-in that failure to develop in the green belt will push development further out, resulting in equally valued (but not quite as protected) land being developed, and longer commutes as a result. The same report somewhat flippantly identifies one section of green belt land as 'home to 3 horses' – maybe not all the arguments are quite so well-developed. However, claims that some green belt land is actually not all that appealing may carry more substance, existing (as green belt land often does) purely to provide areas of rural relief between urban development.



The reports also raise the valid question of 'if not green belt, then where?'. Any self-respecting Geographer should be screaming 'Brownfield!' at this point, but this solution is fast-depleting. Numerous brownfield sites are already earmarked for development, and consequently, only a maximum of 5% of London's brownfield sites could be developed for housing. Meanwhile, other reports note that Brownfield sites can often be ecologically or biologically more valuable than greenfield, or green belt, sites – the latter of which can be 'nasty, scrubby pieces of land'. Even the famous charity Shelter has openly called for further discussion on the possibility of developing protected land in the light of the housing shortage.

Other reports are less scathing of the ability of Brownfield sites to help alleviate the issue. Although various figures are quoted, there is agreement amongst experts that up to one million homes could be built on brownfield sites (although this seems poorly explained), and that London Councils have already identified vacant and derelict sites to build 150,000 – which would cover three years of that vital 50,000 per year growth. The latter figure appears more reasonable, as the chair of the London Assembly Planning Committee agrees that current brownfield sites could house just short of 400,000 new homes, but a further 400,000 could be created by developing under-used or substandard semi-detached housing.

However, the role of the green belt itself has come under scrutiny. There is a possibility that those with under-developed understanding of the role of the land simply see it as protected for biological or ecological value – not so. The belt was actually conceived as a planning policy designation, to prevent urban sprawl. In other words, its very purpose is to stop development, not so much to preserve the land. As a result, often green belt land can be derelict, or used for means that are barely of widespread natural or visual interest – such as golf courses. Some reports are undoubtedly right to point out that many residents who live close to green belt land probably very rarely utilise or enjoy it. Furthermore, there is an argument that maintaining green belt land drives housing prices up by effectively limiting the ability of developers to provide supply that matches the demand – although doubters correctly state that the house price boom is, in reality, the result of numerous (predominantly economic) factors.



The role of the green belt is not an argument to relentlessly develop it, though. The prevention of urban sprawl was deliberately designed not only to protect some green space surrounding our densest population centres, but also to encourage the regeneration of urban spaces that already exist – and there are various areas in London that would benefit from this focus. Of course, the regeneration of areas (as we've seen recently in Brixton, for example) can also be a hot potato, but ultimately – when managed correctly – essential to the continued progress of London. Regeneration of current urbanised areas is also much more likely to provide the form of affordable housing that first-time buyers so desperately require for a leg-up onto the London property ladder. Meanwhile, it is contentious whether developing on the green belt, with its comparably 'natural' and spacious surroundings, is more likely to appeal to high-end developers, hence failing to address the housing issues in the Capital.

One issue that underpins the entire debate about development on London's green belt is the myths surrounding it. The Campaign to Protect Rural England – CPRE – outlines 10 of these well in an article. Some of the ones that particularly caught my eye were the fact that appropriate development is actually allowed on the green belt, and in the 2014/15 financial year, 12,000 residential units had planning approved on green belt land (a doubling on the previous year's figures). Another interesting argument points out that providing land of ecological value may not be the primary purpose of the green belt, but in preventing urban sprawl, it does also provide countryside for an estimated 30 million people to enjoy – and in the age of spiralling climatic change, the value of this land is easily underestimated. Finally, to address a claim from earlier in this article – that building on a small proportion of green belt land could provide x many homes. Even the smallest development could erode the purpose of green belt land, to the position where London satellite towns such as Watford, maybe even those closer to home (Epsom, Leatherhead) lose their individual identity, and become part of the same monotonous urban sprawl.

To conclude, the subject of development on London's green belt leaves me with something of an internal debate. The Geographer in me believes that this protected land, no matter what its primary objective, does serve an important purpose in providing open land at the boundaries of our urban centres & encouraging developers to make the most of brownfield sites. However, the realist in me understands (and has recently engaged closely with) the lack of affordable housing in the city, and wonders how young people will realistically get the change to own property in the upcoming decades. The housing crisis needs an answer, but the arguments out there leave me dubious that green belt development is the solution.



# Voluntourism

William Frost 11GR

The growing world of volunteer tourism, or 'voluntourism', has sprouted from the good-will and generosity of wealthy westerners who, instead of sending money through a charity, prefer a more direct form of helping those in need. Now worth over £120 billion, the voluntourism industry is constructed around people flying out to Less Economically Developed countries to offer their help in person, often through building homes and community centres, or working within the established education and health systems.

On the surface this can only seem like a good idea: more cultural knowledge is spread, help is given directly and most importantly the poorer people's lives are improved. However, as voluntourism has grown in popularity, some negative points have entered the fray. Companies have picked up on the idea of voluntourism and can use it for their own gain. While either advertising the trip as a method to add to young people's CVs or even a new experience to show off, some organisations have waded out of the non-profit end of the pool and turned the previously purely charitable trips into commercial ventures. Alongside being immoral and possibly misleading, the commercialisation of such trips can take away from the actual good they do in the country. Allegations have been made against some companies that they do not send the right people to the right places, (for example sending people with no experience of medicine to try and help in a hospital) can slow down the work of the local staff. Possibly the largest problem that voluntourism creates is through volunteers being uninformed, naive or simply having a lack of foresight. After regular trips to Ghana,

one volunteer group found that the medicine that they had been bringing had discouraged the locals to sign up for health insurance, as the Ghanaians came to rely upon regular free medicine from Westerners. Although this might seem as if the locals were benefiting, in reality they became more susceptible to illness in the time between visits and therefore more people were suffering from diseases that could have been treated. Since realising this problem volunteers have changed their ways and now encourage people to get health insurance, and support the existing health system rather than rely on western help directly. This way a more sustainable health system is created that can reach out to more people and boost the economy too, since jobs are created.

Similarly, in Indonesia western volunteers created organisations to educate orphans, which in turn meant that some poverty-stricken families sent their children to live in orphanages as the family could not afford education. This then only creates more problems for the family and the orphanages who soon become overrun. Better long-term solutions in this situation include creating a general education system, training teachers and building school facilities, to create a sustainable future.

Overall, voluntourism clearly has good intentions but can result, both innocently and maliciously, in negative outcomes for the people who are in need. The real key for voluntourists is to take a trip with a reliable charity and do work that suits their skillset. Most importantly however, is to work on a project that is sustainable and will bring long term benefits and development to the area, rather than addressing a problem in the short term that will spawn more problems in the long term.













# Westernisation of India

Sahil Mukherjee 9BR

India has changed. It has developed. When you think of India, what is the first thing that pops into your head? 'Chicken curry', 'Bollywood', 'Shah Rukh Khan' and other stereotypical preconceptions. However, I am writing to tell you that India has, in fact, changed. Though you may ask, in what way? India is becoming more like you, more westernised.

Last time I went to India, I must admit that I did watch a Bollywood film and I did eat chicken curry. Nonetheless, I also went to Domino's, I participated in a bit of karaoke, watched 'The Karate Kid' with some relatives and I wore not a Kurta (the traditional outfit for a male Indian), but jeans and a t-shirt.

Are the true roots and culture of India being ruined by the Westernisation of India? Even though the elder generation still wear saris, dhoti and kurtas, the children of my home country wear jeans, caps, shorts and t-shirts. In India, the festivals like Holi, Diwali and Durga Puja are all seeming to lose purpose, while the youthful population of India are celebrating more of the traditionally western holidays: Halloween, Christmas and even Valentine's Day. The Indian variety of food astonishes me and I admit that I enjoy eating this assortment, nevertheless India has introduced many of the more western foods, like pizzas, burgers and milkshakes as well as introducing their food chains such as McDonald's, Pizza Hut etc. The westernised fast food restaurants make the traditional Indian delicacies fade away.

There are several different languages in India: Hindi, Bangla and even Telugu, yet these mother-tongue languages are seeming to vanish as more and more people are learning to speak English. Like we learn French, Spanish or German as our secondary languages, Indian children are learning English. Even the music in India is changing. We used to have classical old-fashioned music, which was quite good and very unique. However, as India has developed, the people have changed their music and now there is more rap, dub-step and other westernised genres of music. Westernisation in India has changed millions of lives, India's food, music, clothing, festivals and movies. Most of these changes are good, except that the younger generation are not being taught the culture of their elders and not shown their roots. The respect and care for elders from younger Indians is fading and the inequality between the young westernised Indians and elderly Indians, who stay true to their culture, is growing.

India has started to develop and in doing so has become more westernised. Westernisation is making India improve as a whole. The Western influence has modernised India improving the economic growth, making it more developed. When the British took over, they built many schools and this has improved the education of India. Due to the Westernisation, the health of the public has indefinitely improved. Every time I go to India, there are cleaner streets and a cleaner environment. We have made our food and movie style (Bollywood) well known all around the world. America, especially, is aware of Bollywood which grew and took inspiration from Hollywood. This newly gained global popularity has also increased tourism in India as well, significantly improving the economy.

The tourism industry made a total of \$113.2 billion in India (2013), directly providing more than 22 million jobs in that year, thus improving the economy, by providing jobs and in turn more money. In India, the second largest tourism market in Asia after China, there were 6.85 million international tourist arrivals, which is nearly a three-fold increase from the 2.65 million in 2000. The majority of India's customers are from the United States, followed by the United Kingdom. In 2013, visitors in India spent a staggering \$18.4 billion. In 2013, Mumbai was the second cheapest city in the world for travellers staying in luxurious five-star hotels, with an average daily rate of \$177.

The common factor between all the improvements in India's development are the younger generation of India. More than 60 percent of India's population, or 700 million people, are under the age of 30; they are bringing the change that is improving both economic stability and social development in India.

So Westernisation has brought both good and bad impacts upon India. It has provided many positives. The economic advantages are clear to see, the number of people living in poverty on \$1.90 or less a day has fallen from around 35% in 1990, to single 10% in 2015. There is the healthcare system, which is rapidly developing to treat more complex problems, reducing deaths and increasing the population. As well as that, India has improved their education, educating the younger generations giving them the opportunities for better futures. However, there are some negatives, our culture and roots are being forgotten, the destruction of my nation's principles and rules as we forget our background and history and the slow drifting apart of the younger and older generations. So you tell me. Is the Westernisation of India a good or bad thing?



# Religion & Development

William Haslam 13M

Often confined to the conversational “no-go-zone” of first dates and dinner parties, discussing religion can sometimes feel like a minefield of political-correctness of which only the most diplomatically adept will attempt to navigate. Yet, this appears to be a malady predominantly for the Global North where rampant secularisation is threatening the popularity of religion. Taking a broader view, is it possible to attribute a decline in religious affiliation to the processes of development? Looking purely at the statistics, the marked increase from 3% to 45% of the British population who are atheists seems a strong indicator of religion’s ostensible incompatibility with the developed world. And this pattern continues in many other highly developed European countries: Sweden, Norway, Denmark and France - which has the highest atheism rates in Europe. Meanwhile, religion is booming in Africa and South America. So what has caused this religious inversion of the Brandt line? And what can this tell us about the relationship between religion and the processes of development.

## The Father, the Son and the Big Mac

There is no hiding the fact that religion in the UK is in precipitous decline, with the most pronounced decrease in religious affiliation among young adults. Reasons for this decline are varied: perhaps the advent of two World Wars over the past century has irrevocably tinged the optimism of Christian values, or rather the slow transition from theocracy to democracy (aided by the rise of Marxist ideas) is to blame for this apparent secularisation of the West. Others may cite the intoxicating power of globalisation and the associated rise of TNCs meaning that the average Westerner is more likely to worship the “golden arches” rather than at the arches of a cathedral. The mass-proliferation of information, aided considerably by the invention of the Internet in 1970s, has contributed to mass education and the spread of secular ideas (ranging from the works of Dawkins or simply exposure to secular organisations like the BBC). The internet has also disrupted conventional local social networks, which goes some way to explain why with each generation religious uptake is falling. The journalist Damian Thomas summarises this decline as a matter of choice which the Internet age has facilitated: “the mainstream churches can’t cope with this explosion of choice [between religion and atheism]”. A developed nation is, almost by definition, one that has embraced globalisation and the associated liberal ideologies such as an acceptance of abortion and gay-marriage: viewpoints which can be incongruent with those taught by religion. Often religions are slow (or reluctant) to accommodate such shifts in social attitudes (consider the Catholic church’s view on gay-marriage), causing alienation,



perhaps even animosity, towards a religious group and fuels their decline. By assessing the reasons for the decline in religious uptake solely in the UK it seems clear that the development processes, in particular those borne from globalisation, have been instrumental in achieving secularisation. With high levels of development comes economic prosperity, increased education, a tendency for liberal social attitudes and a considerable reliance on globalisation: factors which surely promote a clear decline in religious popularity with increased development.

However, there is one glaring anomaly to this conclusion: China. This international behemoth has witnessed a boom in its Christian population, and is predicted to be the largest Christian population in the world by 2030. Yet, while China has undergone rapid economic growth it has reversed the religion-development trend witnessed in other Western nations. Ed Stourton tentatively suggests that this unexpected increase is because Christianity is “filling the vacuum left by the collapse of faith in communism”. But this seems a vacuous reason to explain such a large religious boom across Asia. Perhaps the sheer size of China means that it is yet to reach a unified stage of development across its land area - the slick Eastern cities may project an aura of Western-esque development but it is the poor agricultural areas in the west that explains why China’s GDP per capita is seven times smaller than that in the UK. If true, we would expect a decline in religious affiliation once a unified level of development is reached.





The fabric of European history is heavily laced with religion so it is perhaps no surprise that religion and development are so entwined. The, often brutal, Crusades of the 11th Century saw Christian Europeans forcibly evangelise the people of Eastern Europe, paving the way for colonial outposts to be established and the establishment of international trade links. Unknowingly, these devout evangelists were catalysing an early form of globalisation. Similarly, eight centuries later, religious motives were once again being exported by Western Europe: this time to undeveloped Africa during the "Scramble for Africa". Indeed, the sociologist Max Weber cites religion as an unintended driver of development in arguing that "the protestant work ethic" was an important force behind "the unplanned and uncoordinated emergence of modern capitalism". Weber goes on to define this "spirit of capitalism" as one of hard work and progress which echoes many Christian teachings. If this viewpoint can be accepted, it seems likely that work ethics imbued by religion can aid the process of economic development, especially when low-skilled manual labour dominates a country's economy.

#### Development and Deity

Whilst there is a prevailing tone of skepticism amidst the development-religion discourse, an article from *The Economist* notices that religious groups can accelerate development in the developing world by providing social stability upon which aid can be effectively provided. Specifically, the World Bank has actively sought to build up a relationship with religious groups in developing

countries as they were best placed to educate people, administer resources and keep an eye on corruption at a local level. The article describes these religious groups as "organised distribution systems in otherwise chaotic places", and has seen numerous successes such as the evangelical group fighting malaria in Mozambique. Critics would point out that cohesion between secular organisations and religious groups is both rare and sometimes contentious - especially if religious teachings conflict directly with medical advice, such as the use of contraception. Conversely, it could also be argued that religious networks are being exploited by development agencies to do the undesirable "on the ground" work. However, aside from specific conflict in values between religious and secular groups, surely they share the common aim of development: to help the poor attain a better life. Taking advantage of religious networks is cost effective for aid agencies, freeing up money to be spent elsewhere, and the only byproduct being a side order of religious evangelising. Surely this is a satisfactory trade off to make.

#### Change your spots

The concept of "development" is certainly a rather multifaceted and nebulous one (the variety of articles in this magazine is surely testament to this fact). While it can be loosely defined in terms of social, political and economic progress, the complex interplay between each set of factors makes any attempt to trace a cause-and-effect relationship with religion largely redundant. As such, the most convincing conclusion arises if we consider the decline in religious affiliation as a product of the processes that constitute development - namely an increase in levels of education and the tendency for capitalist societies to supersede traditional religions with liberal values. Perhaps the central tenet of religion, arguably to provide a moral code for living, is becoming outdated now that people have unprecedented access to information online and capitalist societies come equipped with the trappings of Christian values without the hassle of attending church every week. Obviously, this is taking the viewpoint to the extreme and, as is evident in China, the picture for religion is not entirely bleak. Uptake of Christianity (which this article has inadvertently dwelled on) may be declining, but religious diversity is increasing thanks to global migration patterns. In some cases, religions are adapting to keep up with a changing world and shunning outdated practices. For example, "charismatic Christianity" is a form of Pentecostalism that is thriving across Latin America, Africa and the Philippines and, according to *The Economist*, is beginning to infiltrate the secular Global North. This acceptance of change is encouraging. As change and progression are surely central components of development, it is therefore up to religions to embrace the inevitable change in social attitudes and behaviours or risk being confined to the ageing tomes on which they are founded.



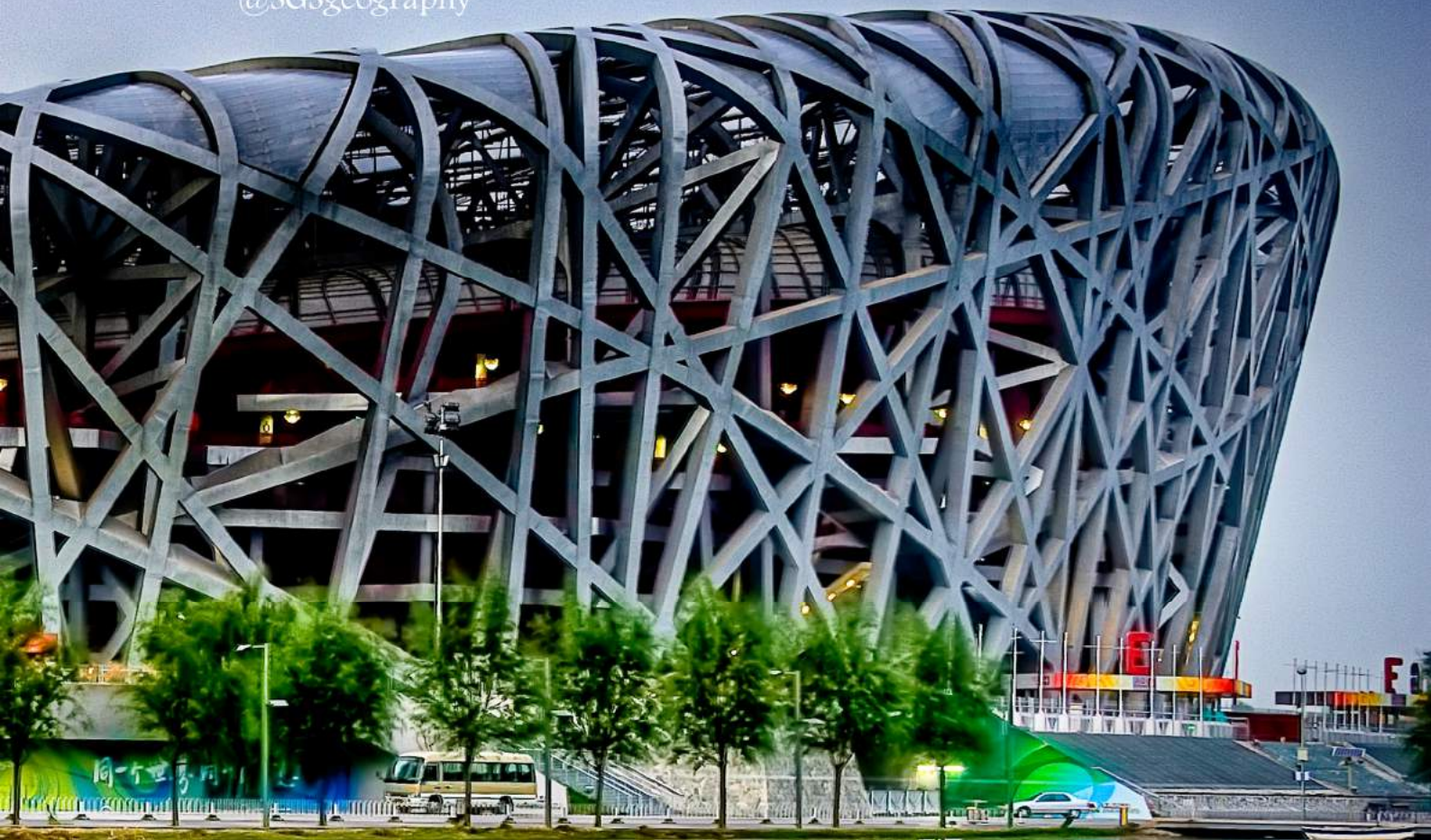
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