Unit V 21: International development goals

1. Summary

International organizations and the UN have established a number of economic development goals, including the so-called Millennium Development Goals. In many developing societies, large informal economic sectors exist or are developing. Their integration into the formal economy is an important goal of a country's economic development. For the engagement in development cooperation in general, the OECD has formulated detailed principles.

2. Development and development goals

As in any other society, the goal of the national economy in developing countries is to satisfy the basic needs of the people. Thus, poor countries basically face the same issues as mature societies - but with the essential difference that poor countries have to solve problems and difficulties in a few years, for which Europe and North America had two hundred years at their disposal.

For this reason, the global community is justified in directing additional resources to poor countries, thereby enabling disadvantaged countries to catch up economically with rich societies. Organizations such as the UN have recognized this, and their own institutions have been established for this purpose, such as UNCTAD, WHO, the World Food Program, UNICEF and UNESCO.

Although many initiatives and programs suffered setbacks, it was never fundamentally disputed that rich countries have a responsibility to poor countries.

One such initiative was the **Millennium Development Goals of 2000 - 2015**.

The UN had identified the following areas as the focus of the Millennium Development Goals:

- Income Poverty,
- hunger,
- universal access to schooling,
- gender equality,
- reduction of maternal mortality,
- reduction of child mortality,
- control of AIDS, tuberculosis and malaria,
- universal access to family planning and contraception,
- safe drinking water and sanitation (see Haas et al. 2010:82).

The following goals should have been achieved by 2015:

1. **Combat extreme poverty and hunger.**
   - Between 1990 and 2015, halve the proportion of people who have less than the equivalent of one U.S. dollar per day to live on.
   - Between 1990 and 2015, halve the proportion of people who suffer hunger.
   - Achieve full employment in decent work for all, including women and youth.
2. **Primary education for all**
   - By 2015, ensure that children around the world, girls and boys alike, can complete a full course of primary schooling.
3. **Gender equality / empowerment of women.**
   - Eliminate the gender gap in primary and secondary education, preferably by 2005 and at all levels of education no later than 2015.
4. **Reduction of child mortality**
   - Between 1990 and 2015, reduce under-five child mortality by two-thirds (from 10.6 percent to 3.5 percent).
5. **Improving maternal health care.**
   - Between 1990 and 2015, reduce maternal mortality rates by three-quarters.
   - Achieve universal access to reproductive health by 2015.
6. **Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other major diseases.**
   - By 2015, halt the spread of HIV/AIDS and reverse the trend.

- By 2010, achieve global access to health care for all HIV/AIDS-infected people who need it.
- By 2015, halt and reverse the spread of malaria and other major diseases.

7. **Environmental sustainability**
   - Incorporate the principles of sustainable development into national policies and programs and curb the destruction of environmental resources.
   - Reduce the loss of biodiversity, achieve significant curbing of the rate of loss by 2010.
   - By 2015, halve the proportion of people without sustainable access to safe drinking water (from 65 percent to 32 percent).
   - By 2020, bring about a significant improvement in the living conditions of at least 100 million slum dwellers.
8. **Build a global partnership for development.**
   - Continue to make progress in developing an open, rules-based, predictable and non-discriminatory trading and financial system. This includes a commitment to good governance, development and poverty reduction - both nationally and internationally.
   - Addressing the special needs of Least Developed Countries Least Developed Countries. This includes the reduction of trade barriers, debt relief and cancellation, special financial assistance to countries actively seeking to reduce poverty.
   - Address the special needs of landlocked and small island developing countries.
   - Comprehensive efforts at the national and international levels to solve the debt problems of developing countries.
   - In collaboration with developing countries, develop and implement strategies to create decent and meaningful jobs for young people.
   - In collaboration with pharmaceutical companies, ensure access to essential medicines at affordable prices in developing countries.
   - In collaboration with the private sector, ensure that the benefits of new technologies, especially information and communication technologies, can be enjoyed by developing countries.

As everyone knows, by 2015 these development goals had **not even been rudimentarily achieved** - on the contrary, in some areas the situation even worsened.

Because the Millennium Development Goals expired at the end of 2015, new development goals were presented for discussion in January 2015 and adopted by the UN General Assembly in September 2015. An open working group of the UN General Assembly had drawn up the following Sustainable Development Goals:

The 17 Sustainable Development Goals at a glance	
Goal 1:	End poverty in all its forms and everywhere.
Goal 2:	End hunger, achieve food security and improved nutrition, and promote sustainable agriculture.
Goal 3:	Ensure healthy lives for all people at all ages and promote their well-being.
Goal 4:	Ensure inclusive, equitable, and quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all.
Goal 5:	Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls.
Goal 6:	Ensure availability and sustainable management of water and sanitation for all.
Goal 7:	Ensure access to affordable, reliable, sustainable and modern energy for all.
Goal 8:	Promote sustained, inclusive and sustainable economic growth, full and productive employment and decent work for all.
Goal 9:	Build resilient infrastructure, promote inclusive and sustainable industrialization, and foster innovation.
Goal 10:	Reduce inequality within and between countries.
Goal 11:	Make cities and human settlements inclusive, safe, resilient and sustainable.
Goal 12:	Ensure sustainable consumption and production patterns.
Goal 13:	Take urgent action to address climate change and its impacts.
Goal 14:	Conserve and sustainably use oceans, seas and marine resources for sustainable development.
Goal 15:	Protect, restore and promote sustainable use of terrestrial ecosystems, sustainably manage forests, combat desertification, halt and reverse land degradation, and end biodiversity loss.
Goal 16:	Promote peaceful and inclusive societies for sustainable development, provide access to justice for all and build effective, accountable and inclusive institutions at all levels.
Goal 17:	Strengthen means of implementation and breathe new life into the Global Partnership for Sustainable Development.
Source: Germanwatch 2017.	

Critics - such as Martin Lanz in Neue Zürcher Zeitung of 28.9.2015:20 - pointed out that the 17 goals formulated 169 individual, partly contradictory, partly (too) vague specifications.

Furthermore, they moved away from the verifiability or even measurability of the development goals. Bjorn Lomborg, founder and director of the Copenhagen Concensus Center, also described the new development goals as not very useful and highly problematic (cf. Lanz in Neue Zürcher Zeitung, 28.9.2015:20).

From a critical point of view, it was also pointed out that billions of dollars are being lost, especially in Africa, because nation states are "imploding", so to speak: "Eventually the 'vampire state' metastasizes into what Africans call a 'coconut republic' and implode when politically-excluded groups rise up in rebellion: Somalia (1993), Rwanda (1994), Burundi (1995), Zaire (1996), Sierra Leone (1998), Liberia (1999), Ivory Coast (2000), and Togo (2005). Only reform - intellectual, economic, political, and institutional - will save Africa, but the leadership is not interested" (Haas et al. 2010:94).

The same authors (cf. Haas et al. 2010:93) - based on Ayittey 2005:326 - estimated the monetary losses in Africa as a result of mismanagement, war and poverty to be as follows:

Cause	**Amount**
Corruption	148 billion $
Capital flight	20 billion $
Food imports	18 billion $
Expenditures for weapons and military	15 billion $
Damage caused by civil wars	15 billion $
Total	216 billion $

There is also the question of the extent to which development aid contributes to a country's (sustainable) economic development.

If one compares the economic development of poor countries with development aid, on the one hand there is a very low correlation between economic take-off and development aid (e.g. China, India, Sri Lanka but also Pakistan and Bangladesh. On the other hand, development aid is of little use, especially in countries shaken by war turmoil (Afghanistan). If high development aid were to make a recognizable contribution to economic development, these countries would have to be in the upper right quadrant. The question also arises whether socio-cultural aspects are not more important for economic development than development aid, as shown, for example, by the example of Bhutan, which has managed almost 600% growth with very little development aid (cf. Neue Zürcher Zeitung, 29.6.2013).

Although the UN recommends that the rich countries use 0.7% of the gross domestic product for (governmental) development aid, the effective development aid is partly higher - so in Sweden, Luxembourg, Norway, Denmark -, partly lower - so for example in the economic heavyweights USA, Japan, Germany, France as well as in the Netherlands, Switzerland or Finland (cf. Eisenring in Neue Zürcher Zeitung of 5.12.2015:34).

In absolute terms, the amount of Swiss development aid doubled between 2005 and 2015 to $3.5 billion, while Germany increased its official development assistance from $10 billion to $16 billion in the same period (see Eisenring in Neue Zürcher Zeitung, 5.12.2015:34).

From the perspective of Swiss development aid, Toni Stadler called in 2018 (in Neue Zürcher Zeitung of 22.6.2018:10) for a reorientation of development cooperation. Stadler - who had worked in development cooperation for decades - demanded, among other things:

- A clear rationale for development cooperation.
- Focus of humanitarian aid on maintenance of migrants and repatriation.
- Focus of bilateral aid on unstable neighborhood situations.
- Ending long-term projects and replacing them with projects with a clear exit strategy.
- More recruitment of technical specialists and economists instead of social science generalists.
- Rebuilding and shaking up multinational institutions.

This raises the question of why the sometimes considerable contributions to the development of poor countries do not have a corresponding effect on their economies. Development economist Axel Dreher explains this as follows: "Suppose a government has a good project and a bad one, such as a prestige building. The good project is now financed with development aid. The aid frees up money for the unnecessary prestige building, which is expensive to maintain. The good project comes off very well in the evaluation, but overall one sees no effect for the national economy, because the bad one is also realized, where the money seeps away" (Eisenring in Neue Zürcher Zeitung, 5.12.2015:34.

Consequently, not only the individual development projects, but also the overall economic development would have to be evaluated.

2.1 On the role of private companies in development cooperation

More recent development approaches assume the necessity of sustainable development in the three areas of economy, social affairs and environment (Egger in Die Volkswirtschaft 7/8-2011a:35). In this context, "the elements of a market economy - such as private property, private initiative, free price formation, in short: the restriction of the role of the state to setting optimal framework conditions - ... form the basis for dynamic economic development" (Egger in Die Volkswirtschaft 7/8-2011a:35). In addition, socio-political aspects such as "equal access opportunities, public safety nets, political participation and poverty reduction" are at least as important, as are a stable legal system and a state monopoly on the use of force. In addition - at the latest since the UNCED conference in Rio in 1992 - there are minimum ecological standards. Today, development is generally understood to be a controlled and steerable process that proceeds in the direction of building and expanding a democratic constitutional state with elements of civil society and a pluralistic market economy. Such a market economy order must - according to Egger in Die Volkswirtschaft 7/8-2011a:35 - be "limited by competition among economic actors and legislative measures in the social and environmental spheres." In this context, an efficient state sector forms "a necessary complement to the private sector."

Today, there is a broad consensus "that sustainable development does not consist of economic growth alone, but that no development process can be sustainable without economic growth" (Egger in Die Volkswirtschaft 7/8-2011a:36). Accordingly, market conditions should be changed in such a way that poor population groups have access to the market, i.e. can satisfy their needs through the market. This means that those who have so far been excluded from the market must have access to knowledge and education (labor market!), to finance and generally to the circulation of goods and money. No measures should be taken that force market players out of the market or allow barriers that make market access more difficult. However, this does not mean that there should be no more free services or public goods. For example, the position of Urs Egger (in Die Volkswirtschaft 7/8-2011a:36) and of Swisscontact is extremely problematic when they demand that no training courses may be offered free of charge. The point is not to monetize all services but only to reduce barriers and inequalities of opportunity as much as possible.

It is striking that economically underperforming countries are often characterized by poor or corrupt administrations.

2.2 Formal and informal economy

Hernando de Soto (1992), in his groundbreaking book "Market Economy from Below," showed the connection between development, informal and formal economies, using Peru as an example.

In 1982, 42.6% of housing in Lima consisted of informal settlements, 49.2% of formal neighborhoods, and the remainder of 8.2% was composed of poor dwellings somewhere in the no man's land in between (De Soto 1992:49). In other words, there were ten new informal dwellings for every ten formal ones in Lima. In June 1984, the average value of an informal dwelling was US$22,038, and the total value of all real estate in informal settlements was US$8319.8 million-that is, 69% of Peru's long-term foreign debt (De Soto 1992:49).

Studies found that studies "never [had] found the slightest evidence to confirm the widespread prejudice that life in the informal settlements could somehow be disorderly or anarchistic; on the contrary, over time we discovered a differentiated system of extralegal rules that, to some extent, established the relations among the informals, compensated for the absence of legal protection, and were increasingly capable of ensuring the stability and security of acquired rights" (De Soto 1992:50).

It was noted that the occupation of state and private lands has happened and is happening in two ways, namely "creeping" and as a "violent invasion."

"The creeping invasion takes place in a gradual process in already existing settlements. They are generally cottage villages that spring up near an estate, or camps of miners. The owner of the land has a special relationship with the squatters at the beginning; usually it is his own employees or at most tenants. At least initially, he has no interest in turning them away, quite the contrary. In addition, the invaders usually settle on a piece of land that has little or no value for the owner. Accordingly, the energy that the latter is willing to expend to enforce his claims to ownership is low. In the course of time, more and more people join the settlement who no longer have any relationship to the owner. Some move in with relatives, others buy a small plot of land nearby, still others lease a few square meters, and finally there are those who occupy a plot just like that. In this way, the land around the original settlement is overbuilt until, in time, the community of all the inhabitants have gained actual power over all the land.

Forcible invasion, on the other hand, is not preceded by any special relationship between owner and occupier. Precisely for this reason it must be surprising and violent. It is precisely for this reason that it can succeed only as a result of extensive and detailed planning" (De Soto 1992:51). As a rule, the violent invasion begins with the formation of a group of people, which usually has a common family or neighborhood-village background and wants to obtain housing. The occupation is planned in one or more secret meetings.

In Peru, this years-long settlement process led the government to pass Law No. 13517 in February 1961 to legalize existing settlements (De Soto 1992:73). This recognized all settlements that had existed up to that point and gave residents the right to formalize their property claims. Between 1961 and 1980, 16,000 title deeds were issued in Lima as a result of Law 13517, and later another 33,000 (De Soto 1992:78).

In other countries, too, there has been a rethinking of shantytowns in recent years. Especially in China, India, Indonesia and Brazil, many people - an estimated 10 million - have been able to significantly improve their housing situation (Brühwiller in Neue Zürcher

Zeitung, 9.4.2010). But in 2010 - when about half of the world's population already lived in cities - 828 million people still lived in slums.

In 2010, more than a quarter of the Brazilian population lived in favelas. Yet there were over 700 informal settlements in the greater Rio de Janeiro area alone. A good example of the changing attitude toward slums is the Rocinha favela in Rio de Janeiro, one of Brazil's largest poor settlements. In 2010, around 150,000 people lived here in a very confined space. In the past, there was neither electricity nor water in Rocinho. Thanks in particular to church initiatives and more than 60 non-governmental organizations active in the favela, there is now both. Even the police, who used to engage in brutal firefights with drug gangs, tried to regain control of the favelas in a peaceful way, acting as a kind of peace police and trying to win back the trust of the residents. The city also invested in urbanization projects: between 2008 and 2012, it planned to invest 5 billion francs to upgrade the slums. By 2012, the city wanted to provide 50,000 subsidized apartments. Land that had already been built over was legalized and recorded in the cadastre (Brühwiller in Neue Zürcher Zeitung, 9.4.2010).

However, not only in the residential sector, but also in commerce, there is often a kind of informal economy, in the form of flying merchants, stalls and marketplaces. According to a scientific census, in January 1985 there were 84,327 street vendors in the 29 main districts of Peru's capital; a year later there were 91,455 street vendors. Between 1976 and 1986, the average annual growth rate was 4.6%, while the number of street vendors increased by as much as 8.5% from 1985 to 1986 (De Soto 1992:83). "The survey further revealed that most of the vendors are located in the simple neighborhoods. We located 80% of all street vendors in the 15 lowest-income districts. Next, we found that for every 91,455 traders, there are only 79,020 stalls or routes. In other words, most vendors work on their own, but there are also forms of collaboration or even employment within an informal network of relationships. Finally, we mention as other results the fact that 90% of the traders belong, in terms of age, to the category of the economically active population, as well as the other fact that one should correctly speak of female traders: the share of women in street trading is 54%, more than half" (De Soto 1992:83).

Transportation also developed informally to a considerable extent: Colectivos or shared cabs emerged on the one hand, and minibuses on the other, only a small proportion of which had official recognition. Colectivos transport up to 12 passengers, often along a fixed route. The chauffeurs drive around the neighborhood, pick up passengers, and when the car is full, the ride begins. More important for transportation are the minibuses, which usually pick up between 16 and 80 passengers. These transport companies usually lack both a state concession and the necessary insurance, e.g. for liability. The informal transport sector is also regulated by extralegal norms, which include property rights as well as organization.
Informelle oder nicht legale Unternehmen bestehen auch im Bereich des Handwerks, kleineren industriellen Betrieben und Läden.

But what are the reasons for the informality of a significant part of the economy in many developing countries? On the one hand, the cumbersome state bureaucracy and, on the other hand, the high costs.

In contrast to the widespread view of informal economic activity, which is usually seen as competing with formal economic activity and seemingly able to generate a higher rate of return than the formal sector of the economy as a result of a lack of respect for the law and a lack of taxes, De Soto (1992:174) believes that the informal economy continually transfers resources to formal institutions and to the state through at least three channels: Through indirect taxes, through inflation, and through interest rate differentials. Indeed, when acquiring their trade goods, informal businesses pay indirect taxes (input taxes) to the seller, unless the seller himself resells black-purchased goods. But this is often not possible, especially for gasoline. And according to De Soto (1992:174), 91% of public transport by buses and colectivos in the 1990s was provided by informal entrepreneurs. Hernando de Soto (1992:175) calculated a net transfer from the informal to the formal sector of the economy and to the state in the amount of 9.5% of the gross domestic product.

While the formal sector pays dues and taxes, it also receives a quid pro quo in the form of permits, additional infrastructure use, and insurance benefits.

However, the informal sector also incurs costs, particularly as a result of the threat of fines and the lack of legal protection. Because the informal sector uses only cash to pay debts and make purchases, and because those working in the informal sector of the economy have a great fear of inflation, most informal workers shy away from accumulating capital in monetary form. They immediately invest their savings in real assets.

Interestingly, Hernando de Soto (1992:294-302) formulates three main strategies to better the informal sector:

- simplification;
- decentralization; and
- deregulation.

Simplification, in the sense of de-bureaucratization, is intended to enable informal workers to successively formalize themselves. In particular, ex ante requirements - that is, conditions imposed in advance - are to be transformed into ex post requirements, which can be fulfilled subsequently so as not to fail due to procedural preliminaries but to be verified on the basis of results (De Soto 1992:295). This also reduces the costs of informal agents.

De-centralization is supposed to allow citizens and provincial governments to engage in - limited - competition with the central state and the capital: "Where decision-making authority is actually decentralized to local or regional parliaments, which can be easily monitored by the public, there it is concretely possible for citizens to compare the respective performances of their local governments with the others, without any excuses related to historical, geographical, etc. differences" (De Soto 1992:297).

By de-regulation, De Soto (1992:298) understands less a sprawling neo-liberalism than the "separation of economic activity from politics. The state thus escapes the stranglehold of redistributive coalitions, while entrepreneurs are protected from politicians - much as the church was once separated from the state" (De Soto 1992:298). According to De Soto (1992:299), such de-regulation could look like this: "In practice, deregulation is composed of four points: a) Abolition of the state's regulatory control over the economy in favor of control exercised through the courts. b) Complete opening of the market as well as facilitating laws to all citizens. c) Increasing the share of freely available resources of the State, so that it can carry out those tasks that exceed the assets of individuals. Finally, d) the transfer of those tasks to informal organizations that are better able to carry them out than the state" (De Soto 1992:299). According to De Soto, this cannot be done without radical reform and an expansion of the powers of the judicial apparatus.

We can thus summarize: Informal sectors and informal employment should be formalized as soon as possible so that they can enjoy all the benefits of formal security - such as legal security, property guarantee, social insurance, etc. - on the one hand, and ensure their long-term survival on the other. But what about undeclared work? Undeclared work is work that takes place outside the legal tax and social security system and that evades state and legal requirements, such as social security protection for the benefit of employees. Most economists agree that undeclared work is harmful and must be punished: On the one hand, undeclared work puts employees at a disadvantage and deprives them of social security. On the other hand, legal companies are unfairly competed against because companies with undeclared work can pass on their lower costs - lower or no social security contributions or taxes - to their customers as a price advantage. And black market entrepreneurs can respond much more quickly to emerging customer needs.

An underground economy with black market labor exists not only in developing countries, but also in highly industrialized countries. For example, even in Switzerland - one of the countries with the smallest shadow economy - 6.5% of the gross domestic product, i.e. around 30 billion Swiss francs, was generated in the form of undeclared work - in the countries of southern Europe, this figure was as high as between 17 and 22% of the gross domestic product.

But there are also economists who deny that undeclared work is harmful. For example, Friedrich Schneider, an economist who teaches in Linz, Austria - quoted from Hannich 2002:127 - believes that undeclared work does not harm the economy because more than two-thirds of the money earned is immediately spent again on durable goods. This stimulates the economy and strengthens the business cycle. Of course, undeclared work can make an important economic contribution, as can the informal sector of the economy, but in the long term, the legalization of undeclared work and the informal sector is undoubtedly necessary: Only in this way can fair competition take place on the market - from which all customers ultimately benefit - and only in this way can entrepreneurs be prevented from shifting their risk onto their employees.

2.3 The problem of corruption

According to Aerni (in Neue Zürcher Zeitung, 26.5.2011), the often less than transparent allocation of state development aid could be improved if the state were to transfer part of its development cooperation funds directly to young people on the ground as conditional transfer payments, provided they come forward with personal initiatives and fulfill certain conditions. In doing so, the recipients of such funds - whether in the form of cash or in the form of vouchers - could purchase services and skills from the aid organizations, Aerni believes (in Neue Zürcher Zeitung, 26.5.2011). Although the idea is plausible, the proposal seems somewhat unrealistic to me - at least for a number of developing countries. This is shown, for example, by the experience of a small aid organization active in Pakistan, LivingEducation (www.livingeducation.org). In societies whose economy, politics and judiciary function only with corruption under payment of bribes, it cannot be expected that young people of all ages will not succumb to this temptation. If, for example, a completely corrupt police force confiscates second-hand vehicles purchased by the aid organization on flimsy grounds and is only willing to release them again on payment of a substantial bribe, or if judges are only willing to dismiss unfounded charges in the case of obviously false accusations against human rights bodies on payment of substantial bribes, then the state is corrupt to the core. I hardly think that Aerni's proposal to provide direct assistance to young Pakistanis would work-especially since there is a practice in Pakistan of charging far too high wages for low-skilled work-when offered by a foreign aid organization. Nevertheless, one would have to think about the extent to which ethical criteria should be more strongly incorporated into development cooperation - especially in the case of principal-agent problems or in the case of widespread corruption.

In many countries, the problem of corruption is one of the greatest obstacles to successful development. Corruption often blocks the development of efficient administration, especially when administrators give lucrative jobs to their relatives and friends - and receive tangible or intangible (prestige among relatives, power, etc.) in return. This is not a matter of peanuts: According to estimates by the World Bank, more than 1,000 billion US dollars are paid in bribes worldwide every year (cf. Neuhaus in Eine Welt, June 2014a:7).

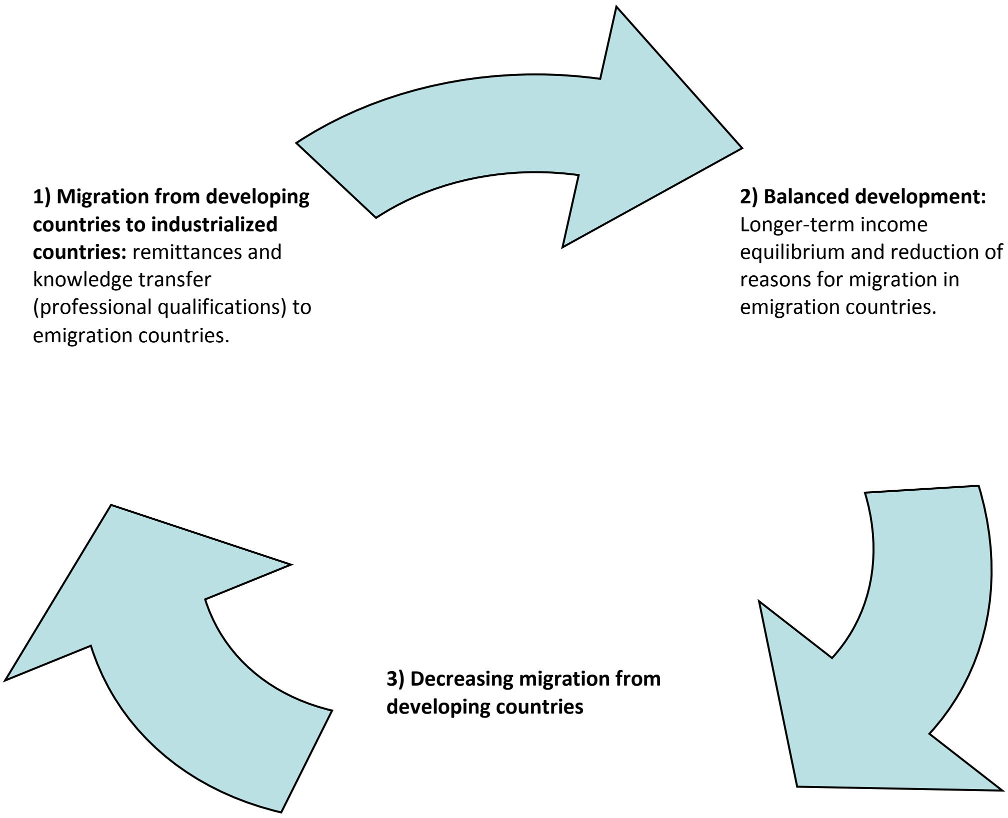
In recent decades, however, quite a lot has happened in the fight against corruption. In the 1980s, after the World Bank gave its employee and lawyer Peter Eigen - then World Bank representative in Kenya - anti-corruption guidelines to exclude corrupt entrepreneurs from projects, he founded the non-governmental organization Transparency International in 1993 with similarly minded people (cf. Neuhaus in Eine Welt, June 2014a:8). In 1997, the OECD adopted the Convention on Combating Bribery, which by 2014 had been signed by states - including Switzerland. This led individual countries to tighten their anti-corruption laws. Since 2005, the UN Convention against Corruption (UNCAC) has been in force, providing for the first time a global instrument for fighting corruption. The UNCAC contains provisions on preventing, combating, prosecuting and punishing corrupt practices and on recovering seized funds from corruption transactions (asset recovery). If all 140 countries that have ratified the UN Convention (as of 2014) were to implement it efficiently, corrupt practices would be effectively curbed. However, a number of things are still missing to achieve this, such as regulations and control systems on corruption in public administrations (cf. Neuhaus in Eine Welt, June 2014a:9).

On the part of entrepreneurs, "compliance", i.e. the "proactive, lawful and also ethical actions of a company" (Frank 2011:64) is repeatedly seen as the surest means in the fight against corruption. In this context, Frank (2011:64) refers to the criminal law provisions of the USA, for example. But the real problem is not obvious violations of criminal law - which of course do exist - but the gray areas.

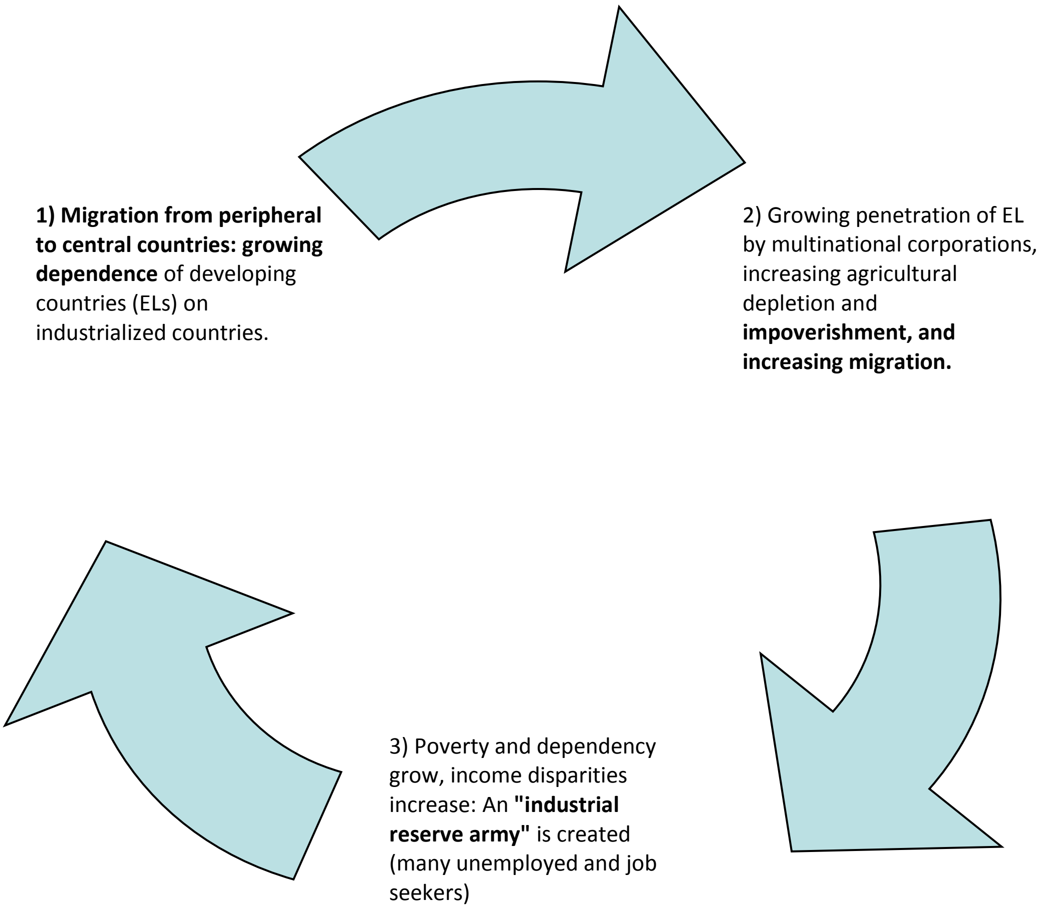
2.4 Development and Migration

Especially since the great wave of refugees to Europe in 2015, the call for development aid to address the root causes of migration has become louder again.

There are very different theories and sometimes diametrically opposed views on the connection between development, underdevelopment and migration. Some - the optimists - see a positive connection between migration and development:

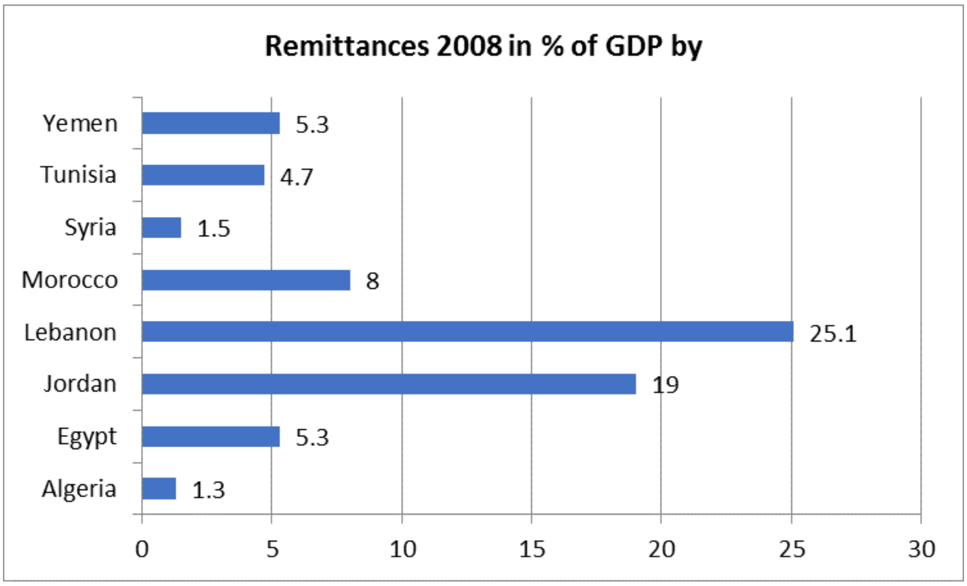


This optimistic view of the 1970s and 1980s - cf. Rahman / Yong 2015:7 - is contrasted by a rather critical view in which migration and development are seen more as a vicious circle (cf. Rahman / Yong 2015:8):



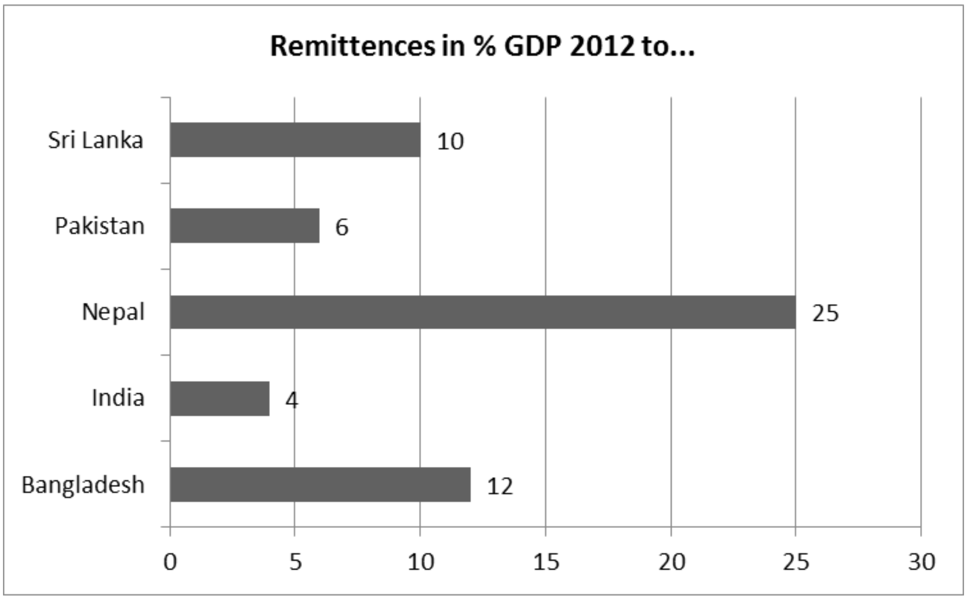
One generally positive effect of migration is remittances to the country of origin. In 2010, it was estimated that there were one billion international and internal migrants around the world (Sugiyarto 2015:277/279). According to the International Organization for Migration IOM, 214 million of these were international migrants and 740 million were internal migrants. In 2009, migrants sent home $414 billion, of which $316 billion went to developing countries (Sugiyarto 2015:279).

The amount of remittances sent to each country varies widely, but is trending upward. The chart below shows the share of remittances in the GDP of Middle Eastern and North African countries.



Quellen: Romagnoli/Mengoni 2014:186 und eigene Berechnungen.

Remittances to Asian countries were and are also considerable:



Quellen: Rahman / Yong 2015:4 und eigene Berechnungen

In relation to the level and development of rimesses to the country of emigration, there are the following mechanisms:

In terms of the amount of rimessen, there are the following mechanisms:

1. Migrants with more economic potential remit larger amounts, while families with low incomes benefit more from remittances

2. The amount of remittances depends on the migrants' intention to return to their home country.
3. As the number of migrants from the same families increases, the amount of remittances sent by individual migrants decreases.
4. Larger household incomes lead to lower remittances.
5. Over time, remittances decrease as a result of weakening intra-family contacts to the home country and stronger roots in the country of immigration (cf. Romagnoli/Mengoni 2014:180).

Thus, it is certainly not wrong to include remittances to the home country in a sustainable development strategy.

3. Control Questions

1. To which areas do the Millennium Development Goals refer?
2. In which areas have informal economic sectors emerged?
3. Outline the emergence of informal housing settlements.
4. Why are informal economic sectors problematic?
5. What strategies does de Soto propose to regularize informal sectors?
6. Name and explain the OECD's four main evaluation criteria for development interventions.
7. Explain the principal-agent problem in development cooperation.
8. Name the two most important international conventions against corruption.
9. What are the two basic views on the relationship between migration and development?
10. Name the 17 Sustainable Development Goals by 2030.

4. Links

MIlleniums-Entwicklungsziele Bericht 2015
http://www.un.org/depts/german/millennium/MDG%20Report%202015%20German.pdf

Institut für Nachhaltige Entwicklung an der Zürcher Hochschule für angewandte Wissenschaften ZHAW
https://www.zhaw.ch/de/engineering/institute-zentren/ine/

Bildung für nachhaltige Entwicklung – eine Definition
http://www.education21.ch/sites/default/files/uploads/BNE-Definition_SUB-SBE_de.pdf

The 17 „Sustainable Development Goals" 2016 – 2030
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http://www.nachhaltigkeit.org/ oder
www.cleantech.ch

Indikatoren Nachhaltige Entwicklung
https://scholar.google.ch/scholar?q=Indikatoren+Nachhaltige+Entwicklung&hl=de&as_sdt=0&as_vis=1&oi=scholart

Transparency International
https://www.transparency.org/

LivingEducation –Hilfswerk in Pakistan
LivingEducation führt verschiedene Schulen und Bildungseinrichtungen in Pakistan für Frauen, sowie eine Menschenrechtsstelle für verfolgte Frauen, ebenfalls in Pakistan.
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