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Editorial

Mags Liddy

Introduction

Research is an everyday practice in our lives. We explore the multitudes of options when buying car insurance; we read about our holiday destination and the history of the tourist attractions there; we assess the value and usefulness of a product to our lifestyle. The most commonly cited example of research in development education is evaluation work. Formative evaluation can greatly add to the impact of development education programmes as it is implemented during their runtime, while summative evaluation provides a written account of the work completed. In addition, some funding programmes making evaluation an obligatory requirement.

While evaluation shares some commonality with monitoring, there is also a key difference in their overall purpose. Both address programme performance, centring on the achievement of goals and objectives; however monitoring concerns itself with operational and administrative issues, whereas evaluation is strategic analysis to inform practice and assess impact. Evaluation work can be viewed as applied and strategic research, utilising social science methods to rigorously examine the added-value and acknowledge the impact of educational or training programmes. Some criticise evaluation for being technical and functional, and view it as a mere measurement tool. I believe this critique confuses monitoring with evaluation. It also negates the contribution evaluation can make to programme fulfilment and its intended benefits to participants.

My argument here is that evaluation utilising social science research methods needs to be revisioned as a valuable research process. C. Wright Mills commends the sociological imagination as enabling us 'to grasp history and biography and the relations between the two within society. That is its task and its promise' (1959:6). Evaluation as a research process needs to remind us of its task and its promise, and help us to locate development education work within specific historical and social milieu.
Evaluation and monitoring in practice

In essence evaluation is the strategic analysis of an educational or training programme. Monitoring practices add to evaluation work by informing the written narrative of the programme; however monitoring has a separate supervising function. Monitoring in practice asks questions centred on efficiency, budget analysis, and can address programme effectiveness to a limited extent. It can track continuity in programme performance, and examine advancement towards programme objectives. Some argue that utility is the prime function of monitoring as it focuses on identifying and addressing operational difficulties. This functional characteristic of monitoring is often applied to evaluation also; however, evaluation is a deeper level of analysis, appraising results in relation to the programme goals, exploring the added value of programmes to inform future work, and establishing a written record of practice. Evaluation asks questions based on relevancy and assessment of impact, especially the long-term impact of programmes. Essentially it is a judgment on a programme because at its core and inherent in the actual word itself is value.

This judgement and valuation dimension to evaluation work can cause conflict for participants and within the process itself. Evaluation is often a requirement of publicly-funded programmes. The European Union explicitly defines evaluation at project level as a crucial phase, particularly with regard to grant money awarded in relation to attainment of results and goals within agreed budgets (EU LLP, 2007-2013). This approach to evaluation focuses on cost efficiency and reflects the functional measurement dimension, rather than the long-term impact and social change, which is one of the goals of development education. Measurement of outputs does not take into account the specific context of this work. In the United States (US), the obligatory evaluation requirement receives considerable criticism as it is used as a justification tool for the continuance of public funding. This focus raises concerns about the authenticity of participants whose employment or other benefits are dependent on continued funding. The appraisal of both the merits and demerits of a programme is necessary to guide future practice and enable change; however this can be both personally and professionally challenging. Professionally, it can be challenging if your financial security is dependent on a favourable report. It is also challenging on a personal level as the evaluation report is an assessment of your work and your contribution to the programme goals, which can impact on job satisfaction and future performance.
Mark Smith defines evaluation as 'the systematic exploration and judgement of working processes, experiences and outcomes...[which] pays special attention to aims, values, perceptions, needs and resources' (2006, no page given). This definition identifies a subjective dimension to evaluation work through the naming of values, perceptions and processes. A subjective dimension allows for the inclusion of participants' experiences and biography, thus placing the evaluation research within historical and social context. Recording the personal therefore becomes important as evaluation could affect the participants' life-world. However I believe the inclusion of the subjective is also necessary as development education research and evaluation cannot ignore the historical and social context of its actual work. It specifically places itself within the context of globalisation, climate change and deepening inequalities, to name just some of the issues addressed. Development education raises questions on our personal understanding, and allows the learner to build on their understanding of the world and begin from their prior knowledge, rather than having an outlook foisted onto them. It deliberately asks learners to explore ethical beliefs and critical decision-making, and encourages action for social justice. This subjective focus precludes an objective stance associated with functional measurement approaches and also many research methods.

**Choice of evaluation methods**

Much evaluation work can centre on pre-determined sets of indicators and objectives, based on pre-determined learning outcomes and goals. However if the subjective is the appropriate focus for development education, as argued above, then this needs to be reflected in the choice of research methods employed. A subjective reading allows for multiple understandings of the world, enabling individual perceptions to emerge and is mostly associated with qualitative research methods.

Choosing appropriate research methods and evaluation tools for development education programmes which reflect development education ethos is necessary to address the technical and measurement critiques discussed earlier. Development education claims Freire as its own theorist; then as development educators we should use Freirean approaches in all of our work. Smith (2006) applies Freire's model of banking education to evaluation work, adapting Joanne Rowland's previous work entitled How do we know its working? In her work, she defined four characteristics to dialogical evaluative work: that evaluation is inherent in the reflection-action model of change; that it is empowering for participants where conclusions and recommendations are
based on consensus; that dialogue and enquiry is central rather than measurement; finally where the evaluator is a facilitator rather than an objective and neutral outsider.

These characteristics are strongly reminiscent of a development education ethos, especially empowerment, consensus and change. By development education ethos, I mean inclusive and participatory teaching approaches, democratic decision-making, and an ethical commitment to global social justice. Participatory approaches to the evaluation of development education are important as they place the learners and teachers into the research and evaluation process, rather than having evaluation done to or on them. It makes them full participants in the work, rather than bystanders, suppliers of information or objects of study. Enquiry-based approaches allow for dialogue and discussion to elaborate on the issues raised and develop capacity on the research process itself, while consensus decision-making allows for all participants and stakeholders to be informed of and to decide what is written about them and their work.

New innovative approaches in evaluation and research are constantly being developed and utilised. One exciting area is the use and analysis of visual research methodologies, and can reflect the creativity and innovation shown in development education work. Evaluation of development education events and conferences can be creative and fun, as well as providing insight into participants’ learning and reflections on the event. Media including film and documentary are often used in development education to strengthen awareness and understanding, as well as the creation of new media through the accessible social media technologies. This also provides a possible venue for evaluation. Rigorous ways of reading outputs and interpretation of results need to be developed. The Centre for Visual Methodologies at McGill University developed a guide for reading cultural texts developed from semiotic analysis (Mitchell & Reid-Walsh, 2002). In development education work, Reading International Solidarity Centre (RISC) (2008:27) use a X and Y axis to read learners' comments on sustainability to assess their understanding, where one axis is the local to global spectrum, and the other is environmental to social justice.

Innovative approaches to evaluation and dialogical research methods can more accurately reflect the ethos of development education; furthermore development education research and evaluation work needs to have a strong ethical stance in its methodology. All social research has a social responsibility
to its participants. University or institute-based research work is assessed by a research review committee, and some professional organisations have binding codes of ethical practice. However independent researchers (including myself) are not bound by any guidelines or assessed by peer review. As part of the Irish Development Education Association (IDEA) Research Community, I am looking at developing ethical guidelines for development education research practitioners. These are not foreseen as an enforceable code; rather they will be a guide to good practice reflecting capacity building and empowerment of participants during the research process.

**Conclusion**

C. Wright Mills challenges social scientists and researchers to develop their sociological imagination and locate ourselves within historical and social systems. He says:

“By its [sociological imagination] use people whose mentalities have swept only a series of limited orbits often come to feel as if suddenly awakened in a house with which they had only supposed themselves to be familiar...Older decisions that once appeared sound now seem to them products of a mind unaccountably dense. Their capacity for astonishment is made lively again. They acquire a new way of thinking, they experience a transvaluation of values” (Mills, 1959:8).

Evaluation needs to be reclaimed from being viewed as a managerial tool and from the language of objectivity to directly reflect the ethos of development education work. At its very least and most functional level, evaluation can inform practice and guide programme development. However evaluation has the potential to go further; it can also name the hidden and taken-for-granted practices that add merit to educational programmes by awakening the familiar within their house. It has the potential to be transformative and enable new ways of thinking through inclusion and participation, if implemented and designed in a dialogical and empowering manner. Evaluation can create knowledge with participants based on their lived experiences of development education, and can awaken astonishment and make us lively to the merits of research.

**References**


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Focus

EVALUATION IN DEVELOPMENT EDUCATION: CROSSING BORDERS

In this article, Gilbert Storrs seeks to identify the key elements of performance measurement systems initially adopted by the business management sector and now prevalent in the public and non-profit sector. He will examine the body of research and learning in this area and open up the possibilities of developing a system that is appropriate for application in the development education environment.

Introduction

“To throw up our hands and say we cannot measure performance in the social sectors the way you can in business is simply a lack of discipline” (Collins, 2005:7).

The continued funding of development education (DE) may in part be dependent on the development education community designing and embracing evaluation and measurement systems that can clearly demonstrate the value added impact of DE programmes. Donors, taxpayers, customers and stakeholders all demand effective and efficient use of resources that are allocated to projects and programmes, and almost all require evaluation of those projects to demonstrate effectiveness. Evaluation can also assist organisations and individuals in maintaining purpose and clarity around their mission, goals and objectives and to sustain them in the delivery of their desired outcomes.

Measurement systems offer us a feedback mechanism on what works and what needs change or adjustment. They provide valuable information on the impacts, intended and unintended, of our actions and initiatives, and as such are a vital part of all learning, living systems. Well-constructed measurement systems can ensure a consistent stream of direct and concise feedback in areas vital to the aims and objectives of a project and its success.

This article will outline the core essentials of performance management systems and place them firmly in the framework of a strategic planning process. The article will review performance systems and in particular look at the ‘balanced scorecard’ (Kaplan & Norton, 1992) as a model worthy of analysis and reflection. Rather than proposing an off-the-shelf solution the article argues
for a model that will embrace the strategic planning process to capture the added value of development education in all its aspects.

In examining the current practice of project evaluation, the article will emphasise the learning opportunities lost in contracting evaluation to external evaluators and argues that evaluation must be an integrated, on-going participatory process of measurement, reflection, adjustment and learning. Input from external evaluators, if employed at all, needs to be redirected to the project planning and design phase. The external input would focus on facilitating, through dialogue with the stakeholders (particularly the co-learners), the identification of the desired outcomes and the selection of a set of appropriate measures. The measurement and evaluation system should be designed to give continuous feedback in key areas to ensure corrective action can be taken throughout the duration of the project or organisation. Skilled internal, continuous evaluation by co-learners who are keen to learn and maximise their contribution, combined with evaluation from the perspective of the relevant stakeholders, is a rational way forward for evaluation. Evaluation is of little use if it is not planned and executed as part of an on-going, integrated and embedded process within the context of a strategic plan that contains an inspiring vision, a clear mission, and explicit measures to capture the impacts and outcomes.

Resistance to performance measurement

Performance measurement is almost universally resisted. This can arise from a fear by those being measured that they will be harshly judged, or that the measurement system adopted will not reflect the full range of contributions and added value of individuals or programmes. Some may believe that it is not possible to measure the particular type of work performed. Evaluation and measurement are often viewed negatively with mental images of judgement, competition, failure, and being monitored and observed. A more positive mental model of performance management and measurement needs to be constructed, if it is to serve us well.

Evaluation with appropriate measurement systems is a powerful asset; and the learning from that evaluation must be handed back to those who can gain most from the process:

“There is also the issue of what use will be made of the measurement. Is it intended for control and oversight, or is it for learning? Is it for the
sake of a third party or for the players involved? The useful aspect of measurement is that it helps us make explicit our intentions...‘What measurement would have meaning to me?’ This opens the discussion on the meaning of the activity and the use of the measure we take. It keeps measurement from being a supervisory device, and turns it into a strategy to support learning” (Block, 2003:22-23).

**Performance appraisal**

Prior to the development of strategic planning and project evaluation in the business sector, individual performance appraisal was practiced in a large number of organisations. An examination of the issues and insights surrounding the practice of performance appraisal is worthwhile when moving to consider strategic planning and project evaluation.

Perhaps the most groundbreaking piece of research into individual performance appraisal was carried out in General Electric during the early part of the 1960s. This research arose from the perception that performance appraisal was resisted and where practiced it produced little if any positive outcome.

“Surveys generally show that people think that the idea of performance appraisal is good...in actual practice it is the extremely rare operating manager who will employ such a programme on his own initiative...few indeed can cite examples of constructive action taken - or significant improvement achieved – which stem from suggestions received in a performance appraisal interview with their boss” (Meyer, et al., 1965:123).

This interesting insight may also apply to the prevailing model of project evaluation where evaluation is external to the day-to-day business and carried out at project end with little true participation by the key learners. Evaluation is often regarded as a necessary chore to be endured rather than an opportunity to learn and improve performance. Evaluations carried out under the prevailing model can reflect more the experience and perspective of the external evaluator than the objective performance of the project or organisation. Evaluation needs to be continuous and integrated into the day-to-day business and most vitally must take place in the context of a clearly documented set of desired outcomes, specific targets, explicit measures and baseline readings for
these measures. General Electric went on to investigate performance appraisal systems to find out what was effective in the conduct of performance appraisal:

“At the General Electric Company we felt it was important that a truly scientific study be done to test the effectiveness of our traditional performance appraisal programs [and] we found out some very interesting things – among them the following: criticism has a negative effect on achievement of goals; praise has little effect one way or the other; performance improves most when specific goals are established; defensiveness resulting from critical appraisal produces inferior performance; coaching should be a day-to-day activity, not a once a year activity; mutual goal-setting, not criticism, improves performance; and participation by the employee in the goal-setting procedure helps produce favourable results” (Meyer, et al., 1965:124).

General Electric completed a follow-up experiment to validate the conclusions derived from the original study and as a result introduced a system called Work Planning and Review (WP&R).

“The key elements of the WP&R system as outlined are:

• There are more frequent discussions on performance;
• There are no summary judgements or ratings made;
• Salary action discussions are held separately; and
• The emphasis is on mutual goal planning and problem solving” (Meyer, et al., 1965:127).

Another important aspect of General Electric’s WP&R system was that objectives, goals and measures were valued concepts in performance measurement even at the early stages of the development of performance management systems:

“In these WP&R discussions, the manager and his subordinate do not deal with generalities. They consider specific, objectively defined work goals and establish the yardstick for measuring performance. These goals stem of course from broader departmental objectives and are defined in relation to the individual’s position in the department” (Meyer, et al., 1965:128).

This piece of research and practice in General Electric provides foundation stones for the construction of enlightened measurement and
evaluation systems to meet the needs of all stakeholders. Our challenge is to build measurement and evaluation systems based on the body of learning and research mixed with innovation and creativity. The research uncovered some interesting insights on what works in individual performance assessment and yet these basic principles are often ignored in the design of and practice of modern evaluation systems.

**Enter the ‘balanced scorecard’**

In the early 1990s, David Norton, president of the information technology consulting firm Nolan, Norton & Company, and Robert Kaplan, Professor of Accounting at the Harvard Business School, proposed a new performance management framework called the balanced scorecard. This system is now in widespread use both in the private and public sector worldwide.

Their paper in the January/February 1992 edition of the Harvard Business Review began with the following:

“What you measure is what you get. Senior executives understand that their organisation’s measurement system strongly affects the behaviour of managers and employees. Executives also understand that traditional financial accounting measures like return on investment and earnings per share can give misleading signals for continuous improvement and innovation” (Kaplan & Norton, 1992:71).

The arrival of the balanced scorecard model opened up the whole area of performance measurement, evaluation and strategic planning to a new set of perspectives and a set of selected balanced measures.

“The widespread adoption of some form of a balanced scorecard approach by thousands of public service organisations since its 1992 debut is a testament to the methodology’s adaptability” (Cole & Parston, 2006:35).

**Essential components of the balanced scorecard**

The balanced scorecard is a model of planning and evaluation that can be used to manage organisations or projects. Norton and Kaplan proposed measurement from four perspectives: customer; financial; internal process; and innovation and learning. This balanced approach avoided the distortions
caused by previous narrow measurement systems which focused on financial measures and provided individuals and organisations with a system that could measure and capture the full range and richness of their contributions towards executing their mission and realising their vision. All evaluation was considered from a number of perspectives and a variety of measures were selected to reflect the full impact and contribution of the actions and initiatives of the operation.

“Today’s systems must have the capabilities to identify, describe, monitor, and fully harness the intangible assets driving organisational success...the balanced scorecard provides a voice of strength and clarity to intangible assets, allowing organisations to benefit fully from their astronomical potential” (Niven, 2008:5).

Kaplan and Norton not only focused on outcome measures but also stressed the importance of measuring the drivers of future growth and development under the perspectives of internal process and innovation and learning:

“The measures are balanced between the outcome measures - the results from past efforts - and the measures that drive future performance. And the scorecard is balanced between objective, easily qualified outcome measures and subjective, somewhat judgemental, performance drivers of the outcome measures...Innovative companies are using the scorecard as a strategic management system to manage their strategy over the long run” (Kaplan & Norton, 1996:10).

There are three sets of performance measures normally utilised in the balanced scorecard.

1. **Input measures** Simply track inputs. Input measures, while necessary, are the least valuable as they take no account of what happens to the inputs. Are the inputs used efficiently or effectively?
2. **Output measures** Track what comes off the end of the production line.
3. **Outcome measures** Track the benefits (hopefully) and more accurately the impacts. Outcomes often measure change in circumstances, and/or behaviour, skills and attitudes and can capture the intangibles referred to by Niven (2008:5). Outcomes may take time to manifest and are normally (but not always) measured in the longer term.
The move towards outcome measures

As measurement systems have matured, more emphasis has been placed on the necessity to focus on outcome measurement. In their publication Public Productivity through Quality and Strategic Management, Halachmi and Bouckaert provide a provocative yet interesting distinction between outputs and outcomes:

“In the final judgement what counts is the quality of the outcome, not the process or result of a given procedure. Education and formal education for example are not the same. Formal education is results (output) while education is an outcome...Formal credentials provide only a partial picture of one’s whole education. The history of knowledge is full of examples of individuals who were able to make tremendous contributions to the development of civilisation in spite of (or because of) their lack of formal schooling” (Halachmi & Boukaert, 1995:6).

Identifying the desired outcomes

A major element of any strategic planning process is identifying the desired outcomes for the project. The dialogue around identifying, discussing and refining the outcome measures is invaluable in building understanding and clarity around the desired outcomes. This dialogue needs to take place at the conception and planning stage and needs full inclusion of the stakeholders and the frontline participants. In the ‘Zeroing in on Outcomes’ chapter of Unlocking Public Value, Cole and Parston state:

“...The importance of focusing on outcomes has been recognised by public service organisations around the world as they attempt to measure, manage and improve performance” (Cole & Parston, 2006:19).

In the area of DE it is important to be aware that some of the outcomes may take considerable time to emerge. Medium and long-term participative reflections on process and outcomes are an invaluable part of any evaluation and learning process.

“We need patience precisely because deeper learning often does not produce tangible evidence for considerable time. You don’t pull up the radishes to see how they are growing” (Senge, et al.,1994:45).
Attributing outcomes

There is a need to attribute the outcomes to the initiatives/actions of the project or programme. In DE evaluation it is important to be alert to the fact that outcomes may be the result of other influences rather than directly attributable to a particular DE initiative:

“The performance information should be attributable. There should be a discussion and explanation of the extent to which the accomplishments achieved can be attributed to the activities of the program - how the program in question has made a difference” (Auditor General of Canada, 1997).

Outcomes can be both intended and unintended and a survey of outcomes must also be open to identifying unintended outcomes. Organisations often ignore or filter out the unintended outcomes particularly if they have a negative impact on the stakeholders or the environment.

The balanced scorecard perspectives

The balanced scorecard model proposed planning and evaluating initiatives from a number of perspectives. The initial model proposed four specific perspectives.

The customer perspective

Perhaps the most important of the perspectives proposed by the balanced scorecard model for the non-profit organisation is the customer perspective. The concept of customer is sometimes shunned in the non-profit sector however much can be gained from entering into a dialogue around the issue. A shift to the language of customer and customer service can have an important impact on the power dynamic of the relationships in addition to enabling more meaningful outcomes.

“A clear distinction between private versus non-profit and public sector balanced scorecards is drawn as a result of placing mission at the top of the framework. Flowing from the mission is a view of the organisations’ customers, not financial stakeholders. Achieving a mission does not equate to fiscal responsibility and stewardship, instead the organisation must determine whom it aims to serve and how their requirements can be best met” (Niven, 2008:33).
Introducing the concept of customer and customer service into the development education arena is likely to be met by resistance. The dialogue around the appropriateness of the use of the term customer can produce valuable insights for reflection into the motivation, values and intentions of the players. The dialogue surrounding who development education customers are could also prove to be worthwhile.

The key issue unfolded by Norton and Kaplan was the need to consider the perspective of persons other than those providing, controlling, or managing the inputs, actions and resources. The move was to shift the focus from provider perspective to the recipient perspective in planning and measuring performance. In DE there may be a need to make a similar shift to consider additional perspectives. The perspective of co-learners or co-creators in a learning space needs to be brought to the forefront of any measurement and evaluation system.

“Many political and educational plans have failed because their authors designed them according to their own personal views of reality, never once taking into account (except as mere objects of their actions) the men-in-a-situation to whom their programme was ostensibly directed...For the truly humanistic educator and authentic revolutionary, the object of action is the reality to be transformed by them together with other people - not other men and women themselves” (Freire, 1970:75).

How do we measure the desired outcomes of the co-learners and what form of measures will they choose to use? How and when can we establish these desired outcomes and what if they conflict with the agenda of the facilitator or the funder? These are important questions worthy of dialogue within the DE community. The balanced scorecard conceptual model would place the perspective of the co-learners at the top of the agenda.

The innovation and learning perspective
One of the arguments against measurement systems in the education field is their inability to value and measure creativity and innovation. The balanced scorecard model, however, emphasises the importance of learning and innovation in determining future value in a business environment. The DE community could well consider incorporating specific objectives, targets and measures in their strategic plans to foster and capture the richness of creativity and innovation in the learning environment. Indeed creativity should have a
role in creating the measures and evaluation systems. Placing the attributes of learning and innovation within a strategic planning framework is an essential part of any balanced planning, measurement and evaluation system. While there is a view that the subtleties and qualitative nature of learning is not conducive to measurement, Robert Chambers expresses a different view:

“A question has been asked about counting the uncountable. Participatory methods have a largely unrecognised ability to generate numbers which can also be commensurable and treated like any other statistics. Through judgement, estimation and expressing values, people quantify the qualitative. The potential of these methods is overdue for recognition” (Chambers, 2009:245).

The financial perspective
In the business environment typical financial goals and measurement are concerned with profitability, growth, and shareholder value. While these attributes are not as relevant in the DE environment, it is essential to design appropriate performance measures for the financial perspective.

“For self-preservation alone, public and non-profit agencies must demonstrate the effective stewardship of what limited financial resources they have to a confused and sceptical public as well as funding bodies” (Niven, 2008:188).

In the monograph to accompany Good to Great: Why business thinking is not the answer, Collins further comments on the legitimacy of financial measures while distinguishing between business and the social sector:

“For a social sector organisation, however, performance must be assessed relative to mission, not financial returns. In the social sectors, the critical question is not ‘How much money do we make per dollar of invested capital?’ but 'How effectively do we deliver on our mission and make a distinctive impact, relative to our resources” (Collins, 2005:5).

Cole and Parston outlined their concept of the public service value model in 2006. While the model builds on the balanced scorecard model it gives valuable insights into the application of financial measures into the non-profit sector. Their model focuses on delivering the identified desirable outcomes in the most cost effective way.
“With the Public Value Model, value is defined as producing a basket of outcomes desirable to stakeholders and doing so cost-effectively” (Cole & Parston, 2006:65).

Financial measurement is often the most resisted and resented form of measurement in the non-profit sector. Financial measurement is sometimes seen as a device for delivering on a cost-cutting agenda and at best a necessary evil required by funders. A more constructive view of financial measurement would see it as an invaluable tool to allow us to maximise our desired outcomes from the finite resources available.

“By our definition, public service value is about more than simply attaining outcomes, and it is more than just reducing costs; it is about doing both in a balanced fashion and understanding the strategic trade-offs available along the way” (Cole & Parston, 2006:63).

Financial measures when used to measure cost effectiveness have an essential place in any balanced measurement system. The financial measures must be constructed to facilitate the delivery of the outcomes desired by the organisation or project. Financial measures when adopted as part of a balanced measurement system are an invaluable aid in determining the initiatives that maximise the desired outcomes.

When an organisation has identified clear desired outcomes and associated measures including baseline readings, it is in a position to move forward to develop financial measures that will optimise the attainment of desired outcomes for the available financial input.

**The internal perspective**

The internal perspective looks at the internal business processes of an organisation and seeks efficiency around use of resources, product cycle time and product quality. Improving learning systems, communication and networking accompanied by a set of outcome measures, all have their place in the strategic plan. Process is also vital in any learning programme, and measurement and evaluation from the perspective of process has a place in DE.

While the original balanced scorecard provided for four perspectives, different organisations have introduced additional perspectives or changed the original perspectives to reflect their particular contribution to society. Any system of evaluation requires full participatory dialogue around its design,
creation and application; only then can the potential of feedback and learning opportunity be fully harnessed.

**The importance of values in evaluation**

Most mission statements contain value statements, i.e. ‘the values that will guide our actions’. Without translation into day-to-day activities and interactions, value statements remain as aspirations and have little real impact. In constructing any strategic project or business plan, it is essential to work on formulating and agreeing a set of values that will inform and guide daily operation and practice. Any evaluation process needs to facilitate and measure the translation of values from aspirations to a level where their practice makes a perceptible difference to the stakeholders and in particular co-learners.

**Benchmarking and best practice**

Evaluation in education has sometimes relied on benchmarking and the use of best practice exemplars. However their use raises a number of issues, such as who determines what constitutes ‘best practice’? Does the term close the door on future dialogue, preventing exploration, creativity, participation and invention? The use of benchmarking and identifying best practice has serious limitations as circumstances always differ from one environment to the next. There is a need to participate and co-create unique evaluation systems for unique and diverse circumstances.

“I caution against a reliance on [benchmarks and adopting best practice]. Your strategy map should tell the story of your strategy. The objectives you choose to represent that strategy may in some cases? mirror those of other organisations, but it’s the determination of the key drivers for your particular organisation that will ultimately differentiate your from other agencies” (Niven, 2008:159).

Benchmarking and adopting best practice can also limit learning and creativity and may foster a culture of compliance rather than innovation and discovery. This may be of particular relevance in the area of development education.

“The value of another’s experience is to give us hope, not to tell us how or whether to proceed...this is not to argue against benchmarking but to express the limits of what value we can actually find in looking elsewhere for how to proceed. Most attempts to transport human system
improvements from one place to another have been profitable for those doing the transporting - the consultants - but rarely fulfilled their promise for the end user” (Block, 2002:24).

Conclusion

The business community has long since moved in its planning and evaluation processes from narrow financial measures to balanced systems that measure outcomes from the customer, process, innovation and financial perspectives. Evaluation in the business sector is embedded in the day-to-day activities and stakeholders are actively involved in the process. Within the DE community, there is a need to design and implement measurement and evaluation systems that incorporate outcome measurement from a range of perspectives similar to what has been incorporated in the business community.

There is a need to search for the intangibles, the relationships and networks formed and strengthened, the new resilience built, the flow and transfer of power, all of these intangibles and much more need to be captured by the measurement and evaluation system. We need to focus on the essential learning opportunities afforded by participative measurement and evaluation. In the DE community especially, we need to be creative, imaginative and constantly reform and refine our evaluation systems. Most of all we need to fully engage all stakeholders in dialogue to co-create effective participative evaluation systems that serve stakeholder needs and ensure delivery of the desired outcomes:

“The purpose of impact assessment [in development education] is learning and change that makes life better for [people suffering injustices]. To achieve this, we need mixed methods and pluralism. Many approaches and tools can be, and should be, used for impact assessment. Whatever they are, they must always recognise that it is those who live in poverty, those who are vulnerable, those who are marginalised, who are the best judges and the prime authorities on their lives and livelihoods and how they have been affected. We now know, as we did not two decades ago, that they have far greater analytical capabilities than we supposed. We know that ‘they can do it’. To facilitate their own empowering analysis we now have a wealth of participatory methodologies. We need to make more and better use of them. Again and again, the injunction bears repeating: ask them!” (Chambers, 2010:246).
Many opportunities are available in the development education community for those who are prepared to engage openly in dialogue around the formation of new and appropriate planning, management and evaluation systems that are home-made, participative, focused and aligned to give effect to a clear vision and mission within a framework of agreed values.

References


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THE REFLECTIVE PRACTITIONER MODEL AS A MEANS OF EVALUATING DEVELOPMENT EDUCATION PRACTICE: POST-PRIMARY TEACHERS’ SELF-REFLECTIONS ON ‘DOING’ DEVELOPMENT EDUCATION

In this article, Meliosa Bracken and Audrey Bryan explore the usefulness of reflective practice as a self-evaluative learning tool for development educators involved in formal education settings. Drawing on data derived from the reflective practice portfolios of students enrolled in an initial teacher education programme as well as from in-depth interviews with in-career teachers, insights are offered into some of the pedagogical struggles, uncertainties and dilemmas faced by teachers of development or global issues in post-primary schools in the Republic of Ireland. The findings are drawn from a much larger forthcoming study supported by Irish Aid which critically explores how the so-called ‘developing world’ gets constructed as ‘knowable’ to young people in an Irish context.

Introduction

Popularised by Schön (1983; 1987; 1996), the term reflective practice refers to the active process of examining one’s own experiences to create opportunities for learning. In a teaching context, reflective practice involves a willingness to actively participate in a perpetual growing process requiring ongoing critical reflection on both classroom practices and core beliefs (Larrivee, 2010). Similarly, development education (DE) seeks to engage participants in a process of ‘analysis, reflection and action’ with the aim of increasing awareness and understanding of the world we live in (Irish Aid, 2007), signifying a strong connection between the goals of DE and the requirements of reflective practice. While critical analysis and reflection are generally considered successful outcomes of DE, this article explores the value of reflective practice as a professional learning tool for those who also act as development educators in formal education.

The purpose of this article is three-fold: firstly, it seeks to offer insights into the practice of post-primary teachers who are delivering DE at the ‘chalkface’. Secondly, it seeks to facilitate the development of supportive DE frameworks within the context of teacher education by shedding light on some of the most common pedagogical challenges post-primary teachers are likely to encounter in their own classrooms when engaging students with global justice...
themes and issues. Thirdly, it presents the reflective-practitioner model as an evaluative framework for DE interventions in formal education settings.

Despite this article’s emphasis on some of the difficulties and dilemmas that teachers experience while delivering DE at post-primary level, the findings presented here should not be taken as representative of the broader spectrum of teachers’ experiences. They are derived from a much larger study which suggests that teachers are subject to a range of complex emotions when teaching DE, but are predominantly enthusiastic and passionate about incorporating global justice themes and issues in their teaching. Likewise, the research suggests that many post-primary students are deeply interested in global themes and issues and find the active learning dimensions of DE enjoyable and informative (Bryan & Bracken, forthcoming). This article, however, seeks to highlight some of the difficulties teachers are likely to experience with a view to informing ongoing attempts to mainstream DE within teacher education programmes.

The article begins by providing an overview of DE within the post-primary sector and within teacher education in the Republic of Ireland, the foci of the research. It then examines the inherent ‘knottness’ of evaluating DE with its complex and radical aims and longer-term objectives, and highlights the inherent limitations of more standardised evaluative tools and techniques. It then presents the findings which highlight a range of difficulties and dilemmas encountered by both in-career and pre-service teachers delivering DE at post-primary level. These findings are discussed in terms of implications for teacher education programmes and the potential for self-evaluation and reflective practice in guiding and supporting teachers’ ongoing attempts to deliver DE in Irish post-primary schools.

The ‘mainstreaming’ of development education?

Recent years have witnessed a significant increase in government support for a range of initiatives in both formal and non-formal educational sectors, designed to ‘mainstream’ a global ethic and deepen learners’ understandings about ‘global’ and ‘development’ issues (Smith, 2004). In addition, DE has a more radical agenda that aims to support people in ‘understanding, and in acting to transform the social, cultural, political and economic structures which affect their lives and the lives of others at personal, community, national and international levels’ (Irish Aid, 2007:4). The promotion of DE within post-primary schools is deemed a strategic priority for the Irish government’s
official aid programme (Irish Aid, 2007:11). Initial teacher education (ITE) programmes in particular are seen as having a key role in equipping teachers with the necessary competency to promote concern and action for equal opportunities, social justice and sustainable development in their schools (Holden & Hicks, 2007; Robbins, Francis & Elliot, 2003). In addition to its intrinsic value, incorporating DE within teacher education is seen to have a significant ‘multiplier effect’. Equipping teachers with appropriate knowledge and strategies to successfully facilitate DE in their own classrooms is often presumed by policy-makers to be an efficient and cost-effective means of reaching and impacting on a ‘captive audience’ of thousands of students.

While support for DE amongst teachers in Ireland is generally high, (Bryan, Clarke & Drudy, 2009; Gleeson, King, O’Driscoll & Tormey, 2007), recent research suggests that a number of constraints frustrate the successful integration or ‘mainstreaming’ of DE in Irish post-primary schools. These include, inter alia, a crowded curriculum which promotes minimal, superficial or sanitised understandings of development issues and a lack of confidence amongst teachers in their ability to address complex global and justice themes (Bryan & Bracken, forthcoming; Dillon & O’Shea, 2009; Bryan, Clarke & Drudy, 2009; Irish Aid, 2007). The extent to which development issues are addressed within the formal curriculum therefore, is largely dependent on the commitment and confidence of individual teachers to ‘bring development’ into their teaching and on their ability to make connections between development themes and pre-existing elements of the curriculum (Bryan & Bracken, forthcoming).

Despite these challenges, mainstreaming initiatives are grounded in the belief that newly qualified teachers will successfully integrate DE into their classroom practice by using active learning methodologies to create and implement lessons that will encourage students to engage in a critical reflection of complex global issues. The realisation of this goal is contingent upon the presence of some or all of the following factors:

- The teacher is confident of his/her knowledge and expertise in DE issues;
- The teacher believes DE is a relevant and important topic for his/her class;
- The teacher’s subject specialisation lends itself easily to DE;
- Whole-school support for DE is high;
- Whole-school support for active learning methodologies is high;
• An adequate time-frame is available for the teacher to cover exam syllabus and integrate DE topics that may not be relevant for examination purposes (Bryan & Bracken, forthcoming; Bryan, Clarke & Drudy, 2009; Gleeson, King, O’ Driscoll & Tormey, 2007; Reynolds, Knipe & Milner, 2004).

Where most or all of these conditions are met, student teachers will probably be well-equipped to overcome any additional challenges faced when delivering development education. Where they are absent, or weakened by additional internal or external constraints, the likelihood of DE becoming ‘mainstream’ is slim, and teachers - particularly those who are new to the field - may need additional guidance and support in becoming effective DE practitioners.

School-level challenges associated with mainstreaming are compounded by the fact that DE continues to occupy a marginal status within the post-primary teacher education curriculum, often taking the form of ‘add-development and stir’ introductory lectures and/or ‘development education weeks’, thereby rendering critical, sustained engagement with DE hard to achieve (Bryan, Drudy & Clarke, 2009). Consequently, many student teachers often have only limited exposure to development themes and methods before being expected to translate them into classroom practice. While limited interventions may be preferential to no DE interventions at all, teachers new to DE need pedagogical spaces where they can engage more deeply with the complexities of global injustice or critically reflect on their own assumptions about development (Andreotti, 2006; Bryan, Clarke & Drudy, 2009). In the absence of such spaces, teacher educators run the risk of reinforcing, rather than challenging, unequal power relations and colonial assumptions, and promoting uncritical forms of development action (Andreotti, 2006; Bryan, Clarke & Drudy, 2009).

Despite the identification of these challenges, very little published research evidence is available on how teachers working in schools in Ireland actually deliver DE in the classroom or how they feel about it afterwards. This article presents data from the self-reflections of both pre-service and in-service teachers who documented or narrated specific experiences of teaching DE in schools. We argue that opportunities to engage in and learn from reflective practice offer important insights for both informing the future delivery of development education and offering an ongoing support and guidance framework for both novice and more experienced educators. The next section seeks to provide a broader context by highlighting the complexities of evaluating
and assessing the often intangible outcomes of an educational process with a transformative agenda.

**Context: The complexities of evaluating the ‘burden of awareness’**

Assessing the long-term impact of any educational intervention is a complicated and often expensive process. This is perhaps especially true of DE, which strives to change the way people both think and act towards a more just and equitable world. In other words, there is an inherent ‘knottiness’ to evaluating any intervention designed to raise learners’ ‘burden of awareness’, of both the complexities and uneven consequences of globalising forces and the possibilities of working together towards other and better worlds (Tuan, 1996; cited in Sheppard, Porter, Faust & Nagar, 2009:5). As highlighted in a recent review of evaluation methods in DE: ‘demands from evaluation often exceed its capacity, especially in terms of attributing the impact of awareness-raising strategies to specific activities, and more long-term changes in attitudes and behaviour’ (Scheunpflug & McDonnell, 2008:23). And yet, in an era of performativity and accountability, educators are under increasing pressure to demonstrate the value and cost-effectiveness of their programmes, often within a very short timeframe. The pressure to provide evidence of short-term impact is arguably incompatible with the goals of an educational process concerned with longer term evolution of awareness and an interrogative attitude towards development.

Moreover, while quantitative survey instruments are often advocated as a relatively ‘doable’, ‘quick and dirty’ means of assessing attitudinal or behavioural change, the nature of DE is such that uniform, standardised measures are unlikely to adequately capture the real impact of specific DE initiatives. Additional challenges arise from the unpredictable interaction of particular DE interventions with each learner’s unique biography, predispositions and level of interest. In other words, teasing out the effects of a given DE intervention can be complicated by the fact that individuals differ in what they bring to particular educational programmes, how they experience them, and what they take from them (Halpern, 2006).

The externally-funded nature of many DE initiatives adds an additional layer of complexity to the evaluation process. In this context, continued funding for a given programme can become contingent on positive results, and evaluation can thus become an instrument of control, pressure and power (Belgian Development Cooperation, 2005). In an era of fiscal austerity measures, from which the Official Development Assistance budget has not been
immune, the pressure to produce visible and demonstrable impact has the potential to divert attention from the less easily quantifiable, more intangible dimensions of the learning process at the heart of DE. As Bourn (2007) states:

“...evaluating and measuring success of the impact of global and development education programmes can only be located within the learning processes and learning. We can and should not lose sight of the relationship between the ‘development’ agenda and the ‘learning’ agenda” (cited in Scheunpflug & McDonnell, 2008:14).

Identifying the impact and outcomes of DE interventions is a real concern for development educators, irrespective of whether formal evaluation mechanisms from funders or other sources are required. The remainder of this article examines self-evaluation and reflective practice as related means of informing the preparation of teachers working in the formal education sector. It argues that important insights on how to prepare learners for the kinds of challenges, dilemmas and uncertainties they are likely to encounter in schools can be gleaned from both novice and experienced teachers’ reflections on their experiences of delivering DE in real-world classroom situations. Analysing teachers’ candid self-reflections on their experiences of applying DE content and method in post-primary schools provided important insights into the kinds of personal as well as pedagogical challenges, resistances, moral complexities and dilemmas that development educators are likely to encounter within the context of their everyday teaching practice. Based on these findings, the authors argue that evaluation through self-reflection is a valuable tool on two distinct levels: firstly, as a guide and support for teachers to learn from past experiences in order to improve their effectiveness as DE practitioners, secondly, as a framework for evaluating DE within the context of teacher education programmes.

**Methodology**

The findings presented here are drawn from a much larger study which combined critical discourse analysis of development-related curriculum materials, in-depth interviews with 26 practicing teachers and an analysis of 75 development education lesson plans and reflections created by pre-service teachers enrolled in a Postgraduate Diploma in Education Programme (PGDE) in the Republic of Ireland. While over 200 students were enrolled in the PGDE programme, only the lesson plans and evaluations of those who provided written, informed consent to participate in the study were analysed.
The overarching purpose of the broader study is to provide deeper and more nuanced understandings of how global and international development themes are communicated in Irish post-primary schools. This paper focuses on data derived from two principal sources: self-evaluations of DE lesson plans prepared and implemented during teaching practice by pre-service teachers and in-depth interviews with practising post-primary teachers (see Bryan & Bracken, forthcoming, for a more detailed description of the study’s methodology and sample profile).

There is a significant corpus of literature on the importance of reflective practice within the context of teacher education, and the reflective practitioner model has become deeply embedded as a learning tool within teacher education programmes in Ireland and elsewhere in recent decades. The reflective practitioner model seeks to provide teachers with opportunities to capture their real-life classroom experiences so that they can learn from them. In the case of ITE programmes, student teachers are introduced to the importance of their professional development as reflective practitioners from the outset. This professional development is typically assessed through the submission of action research assignments and a reflective teaching portfolio (Macruairec & Harford, 2009). As part of their exposure to DE, PGDE students were required to create a DE lesson plan, deliver it as part of their teaching practice and provide critical self-reflection on their experience. The lesson plan, along with examples of resources and materials used in class and the written evaluation, were included in students’ teaching practice portfolios, submitted for assessment purposes at the end of the academic year. The decision to use data from student teachers’ teaching portfolios was grounded in the belief that teaching portfolios can ‘provide a connection to the contexts and personal histories of real teaching and make it possible to document the unfolding of both teaching and learning over time’ (Wolf, 1991:129).

Most of the lesson plans followed a generic template common to all lesson plans developed by students as part of their ITE training, which includes information on the title and theme of the lesson, objective, materials and resources utilised, detailed timetable and an open space for student teachers to review and evaluate the lessons post-implementation. The reflective portfolio work was a compulsory element of the evaluation process for student teachers wishing to gain a post-primary teaching qualification. As student teachers were aware that their DE lesson plans would be graded as part of their overall competence in teaching practice, there was a risk that the lesson plan evaluations would contain falsely-positive representations. However, upon
scrutiny, the evaluative comments made by the majority of student teachers were found to be candid appraisals of what was for many students their first experience of delivering a DE lesson. By and large, participants engaged in a sincere and reflective account, detailing their reservations and uncertainties about their ability to successfully implement a DE lesson and highlighting the challenges they encountered in translating theory into practice.

In the case of experienced teachers, formal opportunities for reflective practice are less common within the context of their everyday experiences. Conducting individual interviews with in-career teachers on how they experience, understand, and integrate development knowledge within their own teaching is one means of capturing the perceived ‘multiplier effect’ associated with DE ‘in action’.

Findings

The challenges of active learning methodologies
Recent research suggests that student teachers theoretically embrace active and participatory methods and are supportive of its practical value in the classroom (Bryan, Clarke & Drudy, 2009). This finding was corroborated, to some extent, by the high number of participants (54 out of 75) who incorporated active learning methodologies into their DE lesson plans. However, participants’ post-hoc evaluations of implemented DE lessons highlight the complexity of translating theoretical approaches into the real-life ‘messiness’ of a classroom setting. A number of participants experienced a pedagogical conflict between the perceived need to maintain classroom control or manage students’ behaviour and the ‘productive noise’ which is often central to the active learning process:

“Today was one of the most difficult to organise and keep on track...it was very difficult to keep the class calm and to keep the noise levels down when they were doing [DE-related group work]” (History teacher, pre-service, female).

“My head is busting after all that. At times there was so much noise. It was the first time that I did something like this. I had to ask the students to lower their voice a number of times. I found myself going around the class telling them to be quiet rather than helping them out with the [role-playing] game” (Geography teacher, pre-service, male).
Student teachers’ anxiety over noise levels and student behaviour is understandable given their fledgling status in schools. McCormack and O’Flaherty found, for example, that student teachers were often reluctant to implement participatory learning modalities over concerns about being viewed as ineffective or unable to impose discipline (2006:3). However, interviews with highly-experienced teachers revealed similar challenges:

“Well, I suppose the method we would use always was participatory, now it’s quite difficult to do it because if you’re going to do that, you’re going to have a certain amount of ri-rà, you’re not going to have them all sitting there in their seats. So if the principal comes in and they’re all standing around there talking, or if you have a teacher beside you that wants silence and they’re saying ‘what is going on in that class?’ And I understand that, so depending on the room you’re in or whatever, it can be very difficult” (Religion teacher, in-career, female).

Experiences of this nature suggest that while teachers may want to implement less didactic teaching methods for DE lessons, the inherent liveliness and unstructured nature of active learning in groups has the potential to reflect badly upon their professional reputation. McMorrow’s study of active learning in practice similarly found that norms of ‘predominantly silent, orderly classrooms’ acted as significant barriers to its use in Irish classrooms and that ‘noise’ was the constraint most frequently mentioned by teachers (2006:328). Such findings suggest that active learning methods – key elements in DE practice – are likely to be avoided or watered down if teachers are concerned about appearing incompetent or ineffectual or need to appease colleagues with more traditional understandings about what constitutes ‘learning’ or good teaching practice.

**Student resistance/apathy to development education themes**

As the following vignettes demonstrate, apathy or resistance to international development or ‘global’ themes on the part of some students was another common challenge identified by teachers. It is, perhaps, unsurprising that some students will feel apathetic towards social justice and global issues, given that the world’s poverty and problems are perceived as remote for many people in the North and that psychological barriers are often erected by wealthier populations against distressing or morally challenging issues (Wilson, 2010). While student dissenters were usually in the minority, both pre-service and in-service teachers reported feeling frustrated and/or de-motivated by negative or sceptical comments:
“And then you have your students who just don’t care, so you know you do have that definitely, you’ve kids who are like I don’t care and they’re like “oh why do we have to learn about all these people who are far away” (CSPE in-career teacher, female).

”Some of the students were sceptical as to what had happened” (in a DVD about blood diamonds shown to the class) (Science teacher, pre-service, female).

In addition, many of these issues, such as global warming are trends, not catastrophic events (McMichael, 1993). As such, some students perceive them as marginal issues that do not require urgent or immediate action:

“Some students were very negative towards the videos [on global warming] stating that it doesn’t concern them so why are we bothering....One student seemed convinced it didn’t directly concern him. This student commented ‘when it affects me directly I’ll get back to you for information’” (Science teacher, pre-service, female).

In some cases, students appeared caught in a ‘them or us’ view of social justice, prioritising problems at home over crises in ‘far-away’ countries:

“One of the students highlighted an issue ‘why don’t we/these charities put more emphasis on helping people at home (Ireland) who need aid?’ Clearly this opinion reflects many others in society so I decided that I should take their opinions on board and not just dismiss them. However, this started a group discussion which required some critical thinking and effective re-arrangement of questions. I somehow managed to keep the students focused on the topic...” (CSPE teacher, pre-service, female).

“...you know they’re really very focused on their own experience and if it’s not they get quite annoyed that we’re not doing things about Ireland and we keep talking about people far away. They can't seem to, they don't have the same kind of big world view I suppose that an adult who's travelled I suppose” (CSPE teacher, in-career, female).

Against a backdrop of increasing cuts in public expenditure and growing unemployment figures, it is possible that the stance adopted by the
students in the above narrative will gain ground, placing more teachers in the difficult position of ‘defending’ DE interventions. By the same token, offering students a safe space to tease out the implications of adopting a particular stance is all the more crucial when recent reductions to the aid budgets suggests an ‘us or them’ attitude is, to some extent, politically endorsed. These findings suggest that teachers would benefit from being exposed to a range of pedagogical strategies which would enable them to transform hostile or resistant responses into springboards for deeper explorations and discussions. The foregoing example detailing students’ resistance to the notion of climate change highlights that teachers need to be able to effectively demonstrate, through content knowledge and pedagogical tools, the extent to which ‘the struggle is not about “us” and “them”, but about “us all”, always’ (Andreotti & Dowling, 2004:611).

**Critical engagement vs. superficial understandings**

Other participants did not encounter open or active resistance but did struggle with getting pupils past weak or superficial understandings of global or social justice issues:

“I have some misgivings regarding the fact that I am unsure as to whether or not I really achieved the aims and objectives I had set out for the class. I feel that in some respects, although the students really enjoyed reading and discussing the articles, I am not sure they understood quite what I was trying to get across to them. We discussed in our development education workshops how the point is not to make our students feel guilty for what they have or to merely make them sympathetic towards those less fortunate and yet this is how I believe the students felt at the end of the lesson. My objective had been, as we discussed in our lectures, to enable the students to think about, reflect on and therefore feel a responsibility towards other people. I feel for this reason that this lesson was not entirely successful and will have to reflect on how to rectify this” (English teacher, pre-service, female).

“The students found it hard to relate [the experiential learning exercise] to other examples in the wider community or globally. They have a poor understanding of global issues so that part of the discussion was not good. With a lot of prompting the girls could eventually relate to the fact that what they do affects others all around the world” (Science teacher, in-career, female).
In other cases, teachers themselves felt torn between engaging students with some of the more challenging and intractable dimensions of DE, and presenting a more sanitised version of reality. One participant explained how she felt conflicted between presenting an ‘over-simplified’ understanding of development issues and distressing her students with ‘the ugly truth’:

“And I think that's the thing with aid, it's so complicated. Like, it's so, I think it's such a complex issue, so complex, so how on earth do you simplify it so teenagers can understand it...but still be true? So I think I always end up with either choice. I always either oversimplify it and then walk away thinking I didn't tell them the truth at all, or else I tell them the truth and walk away thinking I’ve completely depressed them and I don't think any of them will get involved in charity because I told them the ugly truth. So I don't know what the balance is, I haven't figured out how to try and tell them the truth but in a way that doesn't depress or discourage them” (CSPE teacher, in-career, female).

These fears are further compounded by the positioning of teachers as ‘experts’ in classroom settings who are expected to have all the ‘right’ answers. While this may be appropriate, if not necessary, when teaching mathematical formulae or scientific tables, DE defies precise explanations and tidy solutions, leaving teachers vulnerable to feelings of inadequacy and helplessness:

“Sometimes when I'm teaching I feel a bit despondent in relation to development education throughout the world. And teaching them all and making them aware of inequality, but I don't know the way forward, and I'm not able to give them any answers. And you know, am I just, letting them aware of what's wrong but not letting them know how we can solve the problem?” (Geography teacher, in-career, female)

The following, highly-experienced teacher eloquently describes her own, self-perceived, shortcomings in tackling the underlying complexities of development issues:

“Um, so from a CSPE perspective, I think we don’t question enough. When we read a piece about a developing community and the fact that they do not have health care, they do not have a, a good education system, that they must pay for their education, that they have child labour, often I think we don’t really analyse why that is. And we do come from a certain perception that somehow they’re not able to get
their education system going, it must be corrupt or incapable
government. We don’t look at the real obstacles to development within
the country and created by colonialism, by the political system, by
globalisation, by the exploitation of workers, and those are huge issues.
And they’re probably too complex or at least we don’t have, I personally
don’t feel I have perhaps, the skills and the really accurate information
and resources to delve into that and explore it, in a way that is accessible
for young students” (CSPE teacher, in-career, female).

This participant went on to discuss the tension she perceived between the
educative and active dimensions of DE, explaining how within real-life
classroom situations there is a need to present development content knowledge
both complex enough to allow for deep engagement and not too complicated to
prevent an active response. She also expressed concern about what she
perceived as the potentially disempowering effects of a particular ‘academic’
approach to DE, wherein the magnitude of development problems is addressed
without accompanying ideas on how one might go about altering the existing
system or ameliorating these problems:

“And it dumps an awful lot onto the students if you’re telling them so
many people are dying in the third world of AIDS, or so many people
are dying of poverty, or children can’t get education and then you walk
out of the classroom and you don’t leave them with any empowerment
to make to change that system” (CSPE teacher, in-career, female).

Comments of this nature speak directly to the sheer enormity of the task of
facilitating effective engagement in an educational process like DE, which has at
its heart an explicitly radical and socially transformative agenda, within the very
limited time periods allocated to subject areas like CSPE in the post-primary
syllabus. The vignettes presented here highlight some of the gaps and pitfalls
between theoretical expectations and real-life corollaries of delivering DE in Irish
post-primary classrooms. The next section attempts to tease out some of the
implications of the above findings in terms of how more supportive DE
frameworks can be developed within the context of teacher education.

Discussion

“In the varied topography of professional practice, there is a high, hard
ground overlooking a swamp. On the high ground, manageable
problems lend themselves to solution through the application of
research-based theory and technique. In the swampy lowland, messy, confusing problems defy technical solution” (Schön, 1987:3).

Schön’s evocative description of ‘swampy lowlands’ captures the messy, confusing, grey areas that teachers of DE must contend with when introducing complex issues relating to social justice, development, global citizenship, diversity and interdependence. While DE interventions aim to supply student teachers with knowledge and resources for engaging with these issues, the findings revealed varying levels of uncertainty, confusion and conflict. Even where teachers were experienced in classroom environments, attempts to introduce complex and contentious issues in an active and participatory manner led to unpredictable outcomes and unanticipated dilemmas. Boud and Walker (1998) argue that ‘reflection on demand’ can sometimes be reduced to a ‘check-listing’ exercise that students work through in a mechanical fashion. However, in this case there was strong evidence to suggest that the opportunity to engage in a reflective evaluation of their DE lessons was a beneficial exercise for both novice and more experienced teachers. All participants were able to critically reflect on their teaching and eloquently articulated the anxieties, difficulties and moral complexities associated with delivering DE, as well as their passion and commitment to the field. While ‘quick-and-dirty’ quantitative research instruments may produce fairly immediate, measurable evidence of impact, the snapshot presented here suggest that much can be gained from alternative, more qualitative approaches to evaluating DE interventions in university and / or post-primary settings.

This article has attempted to demonstrate the utility of critical self-reflection and self-evaluation as valuable learning tools for teacher educators concerned with the question of how best to prepare pre-service teachers for delivering DE at post-primary level. To best prepare their students, teacher educators need to understand the difficulties post-primary teachers are likely to encounter as they attempt to engage their own students with ‘big’ and complex issues. At a personal level, some teachers spoke of their difficulty in overcoming feelings of inadequacy or uncertainty while others were reluctant to upset students with distressing information. At a school level, professional expectations of teachers maintaining ‘control’ (read: quiet, orderly classrooms) conflicted with the practicalities of implementing the participative learning methodologies that are central to DE practice. At student level, some teachers struggled with getting past pupils’ simplistic understandings and limited worldviews. Other teachers encountered a range of negative responses to DE issues. While only a small minority of students expressed apathy, scepticism or
antagonism, disparaging comments appeared to have a disproportionately strong effect on teachers’ motivation and confidence in delivering DE.

The article also highlights the major difficulties posed by the overcrowded nature of the curriculum in both post-primary and teacher education settings for the realisation of DE’s radical agenda. The ‘add-development and stir’ approach - which is often all that the existing timetable and curricula in schools and colleges will allow - creates insufficient opportunities for genuine and deep critical engagement with issues of global injustice. In the absence of more critical framings of development issues, it becomes all too easy to perceive development crises as ‘theirs’ and not ‘ours’, as evident in the foregoing example of those students who dismissed the relevance of climate change to their own lives. Creating spaces for more critical engagement is crucial, for example, if students are to grasp the reality that issues of climate justice, do, in fact have everything to do with them, to the extent that environmental policies and consumer practices in one part of the world can profoundly impact on lives in another, and that ‘our’ lifestyle conveniences and choices in the global North are deeply implicated in the evolution of ‘strange weather’ patterns and desertification in the global South.

Another implication is that teachers’ fears about the disempowering effects of particular forms of development knowledge may result in them shying away from more complex development narratives towards ‘overly-simplistic’ or sanitised, easily-solvable, versions of DE. Although it is perfectly understandable and admirable that teachers do not want students to feel powerless to intervene as individuals, without opportunities for more sustained engagement with development education in their training and within their own classrooms, teachers may resort to promoting symptomatic, as opposed to diagnostic approaches to DE. In other words, teachers who lack anything more than a superficial understanding of DE themselves are likely to promote forms of development knowledge and activism which address the symptoms of global poverty, without illuminating or transforming students’ understanding of the problem or challenging the assumptions which underlie symptomatic responses. Underscoring the ways in which symptomatic pedagogical approaches actively frustrate the realisation of DE’s more radical goals is something that teacher educators should strive to communicate, even within the confined spaces of ITE programmes.

In the absence of these much needed pedagogical spaces for sustained critical engagement with DE, there are other things that teacher educators can
do to reassure their students of the efficacy of their DE interventions. Novice teachers may need frequent reassurance, for example, that noise in classroom settings is ‘OK’, and can be productive and even advantageous to the learning process. In other words, they may need to be regularly encouraged to experiment with a range of methods, even in those environments where they are new and understandably anxious about ‘rocking the boat’ or making a bad impression.

The findings suggest that current teacher education programmes may need to explore ways to encourage and support teachers before, during and after integrating DE into their teaching practice. Effective DE requires teachers to have more than a bag of teaching tricks and a grasp of DE issues. These alone are insufficient in addressing the complex issues that arise in the real-world setting of an Irish post-primary classroom. Encouraging teachers new to DE to adopt a reflective approach might help allay anxieties and restore confidence. For example, it could be helpful for teacher educators to engage pre-service teachers in discussions around how best to gauge the effectiveness of classroom-based DE. These discussions would be particularly useful if they facilitated pre-service teachers in developing a range of relevant markers to be used as a touchstone for future DE class-based interventions. If teachers new to DE can be encouraged to adopt such reflective strategies, they may avoid being trapped in ‘unexamined judgements, interpretations, assumptions and expectations’ (Larrivee, 2010:294), which may, in turn, lead to frustration and uncertainty. Equally important is that student teachers are encouraged to view DE as a learning process for themselves as much as for their pupils, thus freeing themselves of unrealistic expectations of instant success. It is in this context that the role of self-evaluation and reflective practice becomes clear. Engaging in an ongoing process of reflection and evaluation could assist teachers new to DE navigate their way through Schön’s ‘swampy lowlands’.

The preceding analysis is not intended to overstate the difficulties attached to teaching DE in Irish post-primary schools. Many teachers spoke about valuable and rewarding outcomes arising from their DE interventions and the vast majority retained a positive attitude towards integrating DE into their teaching in the future, even amongst those who had less than ideal experiences. Instead, it is hoped that the findings presented here can be used to inform ongoing attempts to mainstream DE within teacher education programmes. Searching questions may need to be asked about the possible risks attached to sending insufficiently-prepared teachers into classrooms charged with the responsibility of introducing young students to intricately complicated global
issues. Moreover, the findings suggest a crucial need for further research into the possible disconnects between curriculum intent and practice to identify contributing factors and possible solutions.

The final words of the article come from a student teacher who initially struggled with discipline and behaviour issues in her class. After implementing a DE lesson, she focuses her comments on her own learning, revealing just how powerful and important self-evaluation can be in becoming a successful DE practitioner:

“Following today’s lesson I saw a different side to the class. They actually seemed human to me! The visual stimulus of a video clip worked tremendously with this group as I expected it would. Quite a number of them have issues with reading and writing but the video worked as something they could focus on easily and absorb as easily as the rest of the class. They showed participation in a way that I didn’t realise they were capable of. It actually made me a little sad as I understand now that these girls act out because they are frustrated rather than because they want to be nasty. The development education lesson illustrated to me that teaching goes beyond examinations” (CSPE Teacher, pre-service, female).

Note: This research is supported by Irish Aid. The ideas, opinions and comments made in this report are entirely the responsibility of its authors and do not necessarily represent or reflect Irish Aid policy.

References


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Melíosa Bracken works as a researcher at the School of Education, University College Dublin and as a development and adult educator in a number of educational institutions. Her interests lie in the interface between formal and non-formal education, particularly in the areas of development education, adult education, adult literacy and community education.

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Measuring Up: A review of evaluation practice in the Northern Ireland community and voluntary sector

In this article, Brendan McDonnell, Nicola McIldoon, Gladys Swanton and Norman Gillespie describe Community Evaluation Northern Ireland’s recent review of the current monitoring and evaluation practice in the community and voluntary sector in Northern Ireland. The Measuring Up: A review of evaluation practice in the voluntary and community sector study was conducted to explain how to better communicate the aims and needs of individual organisations and to demonstrate the value of their work to funders and stakeholders in the current economic climate.

Introduction

Community Evaluation Northern Ireland (CENI) was established in 1995 to provide evaluation support to the voluntary and community sector in Northern Ireland. As the region’s only dedicated support body on evaluation, CENI has a particular role to play in identifying and assessing the sector’s evaluation needs, influencing policy-making and decision making, and informing future strategy and practice in this area.

In the current economic climate, government policy makers and funders will need to become more strategic in targeting and allocating resources where they are most needed. They will have to be more specific about the outcomes and impact expected from their investment, and in turn voluntary and community sector organisations will have to specify the needs they intend to address, and provide evidence of the measurable outcomes or changes produced for their communities. This poses real challenges in terms of the capacity of the sector and its funders to be able to understand and use the tools of monitoring and evaluation to best demonstrate the value of their activities and present evidence of their successes.

In this context CENI decided to carry out a review of the current monitoring and evaluation practice in the community and voluntary sector in Northern Ireland in order to assess the benefits of, and challenges in, current practice and support provision, and to identify learning that can inform evaluation policy and practice. Measuring Up: A review of evaluation practice in the voluntary and community sector was conducted by four CENI staff members and published in 2010.
This research will be of relevance to any public agency providing, investing or involved in working with the community and voluntary sector. Development educators will benefit from the insights provided on the challenges faced by funded organisations in demonstrating the value of their work and in particular their contribution to government policy objectives in the light of impending public sector cutbacks. This article is even more relevant to development education amidst constant debate on how to best demonstrate ‘value for money’ and impact of development education work on target audiences. It is increasingly important to conduct and report in-depth, comprehensive evaluations to continue public support and funding for the sector, and to ensure effective monitoring of individual projects to improve practice throughout the duration of project delivery.

**Methodology**

The research was carried out between June and September 2009, and included:

- A review of relevant policy documents and other research on monitoring and evaluation issues in the sector;
- Interviews with representatives from twenty three funders including government departments, statutory agencies and non-governmental/independent funders;
- A postal survey to a sample of 400 voluntary and community sector organisations, which generated 158 responses, a return rate of almost 40 per cent;
- Interviews with representatives of mainly regional umbrella/support bodies in the sector representing a range of themes and issues; and
- Consultation with representatives of evaluation practitioners and economists within government.

The breadth of consultation with a range of stakeholders, and the consistency which emerged across their different perspectives, provides a valuable insight into the main evaluation issues and challenges facing both funders and the sector at this time.

**Findings and conclusions**

The research shows that, while there are variations between funders, monitoring and evaluation focuses primarily on scrutiny and accountability as funders respond to the external demands of audit. In turn, the approaches adopted by
funders, particularly government funders, are focused on meeting this demand. Accordingly, data collection systems and processes have been designed around measuring project performance against targets, and testing for compliance with financial or other governance controls. This has resulted in:

- Increased demands - often multiple, from different funders - for information from funded organisations;
- Collection of data about activities and outputs, with less emphasis on other information about, for example, innovation or practice development;
- Increased focus on good governance and quality standards, and on risk assessment;
- Value for money and sustainability issues coming to the fore;
- The conduct of external evaluations for accountability purposes, rather than learning; and
- A focus on individual project evaluation/inspection; and less concern with aggregating project level data, or programmatic/strategic evaluation.

At the same time, a shift to an outcomes-focused approach to funding (where the function of funding is not to sustain organisations or posts but to deliver outcomes against government programme objectives) has placed further demands on both funders and organisations within the sector. While there are some examples of good practice, the methods and skills needed to understand, develop and implement outcomes approaches remain largely underdeveloped. The focus continues to be on outputs, generating quantitative monitoring data, as opposed to outcome measurement. Traditionally the ‘drivers’ of evaluation within government are finance and audit departments; therefore internal systems are geared up to assess outputs, i.e. risk assessment, financial compliance, monitoring outputs against targets, etc. For this reason, in practice evaluation has been viewed primarily within government as serving an administrative function rather than a broader strategic or planning agenda. Existing systems, whilst necessary for administrative and audit purposes do not provide the data required to measure outcomes as they are designed to do so. Generating and using data on outcomes requires a totally different understanding of and approach to evaluation.

The research suggests that there is a growing awareness that the scope of evaluation needs to be widened beyond a focus on scrutiny and accountability to encompass improved programme outcome/impact measurement and the
capture of learning. However, achieving this will require overcoming barriers which are not just technical but also institutional, i.e. the all-pervading audit culture within government and the underdevelopment of strategic relationships between funder and funded.

It is clear that scrutiny and accountability will remain key priorities for monitoring and evaluation, especially for government funders. As resources become tighter, every pound of public money invested in the community and voluntary sector has to be accounted for. In this sense, a focus on individual projects is important; they need to demonstrate that they are efficient, well-run organisations, delivering on funding objectives and meeting agreed targets. The current government Green Book (HM Treasury, 2003) standards provide a good framework for examining these issues.

However, beyond this there are wider questions that evaluation needs to address: primarily, is this investment of scarce public resources achieving the maximum return it can? This needs to be considered against the following criteria:

- Is investment being directed to where it is most needed and can add most value?
- Is there a clear understanding of the change that investment is expected to achieve?
- Is the investment producing identifiable and measurable outcomes that make a real difference?
- Is learning being captured to inform improvements in service delivery or programme development?

As the research has shown, addressing these wider evaluation questions is hugely challenging for both funders and funded projects.

The challenge is particularly focused on funders. The need to maximise return from a contracting funding base means that they will continue to take a more strategic approach to funding the community and voluntary sector. This will have implications for relationships, particularly between government funders and the sector. The shift from grant-making to contracting of services will continue post the Review of Public Administration in Northern Ireland, with a greater focus on a purchaser/provider split. However, it is important that voluntary and community organisations are not viewed simply as sub-contracted service deliverers, but rather as partners in social improvement.
In this context the onus is on the funder to define their priorities for funding and negotiate the delivery of agreed outcomes with voluntary and community organisations.

**Recommendations**

The research has shown that the demands for, and expectations of, monitoring and evaluation are growing. Evaluation now has to address multiple needs and has become an increasingly complex and multifaceted process. In an effort to distil some of this complexity and produce a more unified and integrated approach to evaluation, CENI proposes a possible framework. This is informed by current literature on a ‘systems thinking’ approach. Seddon (2008) described ‘systems thinking’ as a systematic relationship between purpose, measure and method. Measures need to be derived from purpose, which then inform the methods used to collect the information required.

Translating this into a proposed framework we start with an emphasis on the broader questions for evaluation: i.e. what is the need that the investment/programme is addressing; and what change is the investment expected to achieve and how is this to be measured? In considering these questions we refer to the headings of Intelligence, Systems, Support and Relationships. Each element is interdependent and an essential part of the whole picture. Generating and using data on outcomes requires a totally different understanding of and approach to evaluation and one which needs to be led by government funders and negotiated with funded organisations in a planned and integrated way.
The key elements of this approach would include:

**Intelligence**
- Strategic Investment
- Holistic Evaluation

**Systems**
- Measurement
- Data collection
- Analysis

**Support**
- Skills/capacity
- Resources

The framework promotes an integrated approach, beginning with a clear rationale for investment and the adoption of a holistic approach to evaluation to capture change. This then informs the design of systems required to measure, collect and analyse monitoring and evaluation data. In turn, the implementation of the systems needs to be underpinned by appropriate resources and support, to develop capacity among both funders and organisations. Finally, the whole process is predicated by the notion a partnership approach between funder and funded which seeks to ensure mutual benefits from the process.
The following table details the key components of the framework.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intelligence</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strategic Funding</td>
<td>Evidence of need - Targeted investment;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rationale for funding - Theory of change;</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Engagement with projects – Negotiated transaction.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Holistic Evaluation</td>
<td>Scrutiny - Accountability, inspection ;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Outcomes - Project and programme achievements;</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Learning - Practice improvement; policy development.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Systems</th>
<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Measurement</td>
<td>Define - Develop Programme level outcome indicators;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Inform - Negotiate Project level outcome indicators.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Data collection</td>
<td>Monitoring - Appropriate, proportionate, and coordinated;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>External evaluation - Terms of reference, timing, involvement;</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Self-evaluation - Connected to needs of project and funder.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analysis &amp; Use</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td><em>Project Level</em></td>
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<td></td>
<td>Scrutiny - Project inspection;</td>
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<td>Outcomes - Project achievements;</td>
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<td>Learning - Practice/service improvements.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>Programme Level</em></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Scrutiny - Programme management;</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Outcomes - Aggregate project achievements;</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Learning - Review practice, feedback learning, inform policy.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

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<tr>
<th>Support</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Skills/capacity</td>
<td>Understanding role &amp; purpose of evaluation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resources</td>
<td>Outcomes – Define, develop;</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Data collection – Design, management;</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Data analysis – Understand, inform.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Relationships</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Partnership</td>
<td>Partnership approach between funder and funded which ensures mutual benefits from the process.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coordination</td>
<td>Coordination between funders to share learning.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Intelligence**

Developing a strategic funding approach to investing in the community and voluntary sector should be informed by evidence of need, clarity of purpose and negotiated agreement.

Evidence-based policy has long been the mantra of government investors. There is an increasingly rich supply of datasets being developed and made available on the needs and assets of communities. These include local area data from sources such as the Northern Ireland Neighbourhood Information Service, NINIS, (which now includes a ‘Social Assets’ database recently developed by CENI and the Community Foundation for Northern Ireland), as well as previous evaluations and research studies. Using these sources to update understanding of need and to channel resources effectively is important, especially in spatial development programmes such as Neighbourhood Renewal, in order to better baseline community needs and measure change.

The rationale for funding needs to be clear and, where possible, informed by a theory of change, i.e. what change is the investment trying to bring.

“Where policy does not have a stated theory of change it will become difficult to link activities to outputs and outcomes during delivery. How can change be targeted and measured if how it happens is not understood?” (Lawlor & Nicholls, 2006).
Engagement with the community and voluntary sector as delivery agents for change is also an important part of the process. As pointed out previously the nature of the funding interaction, particularly between government funders and the voluntary and community sector, needs to be clarified. In previous research, CENI referred to this as a negotiated transaction:

“Transactions involve a specification of mutual responsibilities, of what should be done at what costs and, as far as possible, of the benefits to both parties. This requires a sharing of the different kinds of knowledge held by each side, agreement about the outputs required and negotiation about their anticipated outcomes” (Morrissey, McDonnell & McGinn, 2003).

The role and purpose of monitoring and evaluation in this context is widened beyond accountability to include the specification and measurement of programme and project level outcomes and the capturing of learning. Scrutiny still remains a core function, but this is within a more holistic evaluation approach, which places more responsibility on both funders and funded organisations to embrace and operate. Evaluation becomes a strategic part of the feedback loop, providing the evidence base to inform decision-making. As the research has indicated, too often evaluation stops at project inspection with no feedback loop into programme or policy level.

**Systems**

Clarity about the purpose of funding and the adoption of a more holistic approach to evaluation informs the development of appropriate systems to measure, collect and analyse information required.

Measurement systems should be the primarily focused on outcomes. The research shows that many funders and organisations have not sufficiently engaged with outcomes and that evaluation is often focused more on outputs than on the link between outputs and outcomes.

Outcomes need to be derived from the objectives of the funding programme and the changes it wants to achieve. Policy or programme level outcomes then need to be translated and negotiated into the project level. Stakeholders at all levels need to be involved in the development of the desired
outcomes to ensure they are meaningful, specific and useable. This can be achieved as part of the negotiated transaction.

“...the indication of anticipated outcomes requires a synthesis of the different kinds of knowledge held by funder and funded organisation. Accordingly they cannot be dictated by either side, but should be the result of negotiation” (Morrissey, McDonnell & McGinn, 2003).

A number of useful outcome frameworks have been developed including those used by the Supporting People Programme; there are also models such as the Social Return on Investment and the CENI Social Assets model (Morrissey, Healy & McDonnell, 2008) which can inform an outcomes approach. These provide potential reference points to take forward with an outcomes approach.

Data collection systems are then developed and informed by the specific measurement requirements of the funding programme. The research showed that too often monitoring systems are imposed externally with a one-size-fits-all approach. Ideally data collection systems should be appropriate to the specific needs and circumstances of both the programme and project, proportionate to the level of investment and coordinated across programmes.

Similarly the external evaluation of funded projects should be informed by specific measurement needs. Terms of reference should reflect this; they should be negotiated up front and incorporated as part of the funding contract. Furthermore, funded organisations should be briefed on what information is required for evaluation purposes so that they can prepare this for when it is needed. This would facilitate the development of internal or self-evaluation systems which are better connected to the needs of both funders and organisations themselves.

This also re-focuses the role of the external evaluator and would make possible a more participative approach to the external evaluation process, whereby organisations would be better able to interact with the evaluator as a ‘critical friend’. This in turn would inform the experience and skills sets required of evaluators. In light of this a set of principles and guiding standards for the conduct of external evaluations would be useful. This could involve an update of the guidelines produced by the then Voluntary Activity Unit in 1996, Guidance on the Commissioning and Conduct of Evaluations (Voluntary Activity Unit, 1996).
Analysis and use of monitoring and evaluation data collected should be made explicit at the outset. Again, if the information required is correctly specified at project and programme level, the analysis of that data will make it possible to:

- Scrutinise performance, i.e. project inspection and programme management;
- Link outputs to outcomes for projects and then aggregate from project to programme level; and
- Consider the implications for learning and improvement for individual projects and future programmes/policy.

Support

The development and implementation of such an integrated approach will take considerable investment, not least in the training and support of programme managers and administrators as well as funded organisations.

The research found that the primary skills/support needs identified amongst both funders and organisations within the sector relates to measuring and reporting on outcomes, and that for the former, this is matched by the need to be able to use monitoring and evaluation data to inform programme development. While these are clearly essential areas for development, the framework would suggest that there is a need to consider capacity building across a much broader range of inter-related areas including:

- Understanding the role and purpose of evaluation in the context of the community and voluntary sector;
- Defining outcomes;
- Design and management of data collection systems;
- Analysing and using data to inform decision making; and
- Sharing of information to inform learning.

While the research indicates that there has been some investment in supporting monitoring and evaluation practice in the sector, there is a need to continually build on this, and to consider a more strategic approach to developing capacity with the type and format of support tailored to the particular needs of both funders and funded organisations.
Both generic and specialist training provision is required. Generic training, particularly in understanding the role and purpose of evaluation in a changing funding environment, is required at all levels. More specialist training in outcomes measurement, data collection and analysis is required for funding programme managers and project staff. It may also be useful to consider developing the capacity of staff from support organisations to develop skills in effectively dealing with support needs on the ground. Moreover as well as providing technical skills training for both parties, developing a culture of learning is essential to fostering a better understanding and use of evaluation. The research found that existing skills are recognised within the sector, and these should be shared, both across the sector and between funders and funded organisations.

There may also be a need to consider developments around other areas related to monitoring and evaluation. Better use of information and communication technologies (ICT) could be one potential area that would assist the streamlining of data collection, and while there are issues associated with this, there may be a need to think about ways of effectively using ICT to support monitoring and evaluation processes. Similarly, there may be a need to develop greater understanding of the complementarity of quality approaches and standards with other approaches to measurement, monitoring and evaluation. There are clearly resource implications for all of these aspects, both for the sector, and its funders. However, if monitoring and evaluation is to become an integral part of the strategic planning and funding cycle, then these sorts of investments are essential.

Relationships

Finally and importantly the operation of this framework is contingent upon the development of relationships at a number of levels. The engagement and participation of the community and voluntary sector at all stages is essential. If evaluation is seen as serving only funders’ needs, then organisations will not be motivated or encouraged to understand and use information for their own development. Ownership and sharing of information is crucial to the building of partnership relationships and developing a more mature and strategic use of evaluation. The current development of the Concordat, a framework for cooperation between the main government departments and the local organisations responsible for the delivery of the work, will be an important step to help to ensure that this is realisable.
At the same time, there is also a need for the development of relationships across different funders, to ensure better co-ordination, not just in relation to the development and implementation of approaches to monitoring and evaluation, but also to facilitate shared knowledge and learning.

Here, it is worth pointing to developments elsewhere. In 2006, the Scotland Funders’ Forum, in conjunction with Evaluation Support Scotland, produced an ‘Evaluation Declaration’. This sets out the principles for and approach to monitoring, evaluation and reporting within the voluntary and community sector in Scotland. While the declaration does not have an official status, it is important:

“The declaration is evidence of shared thinking between funders and a shared agenda with the organisations they fund. For the first time in Scotland funders have set out their view and vision of monitoring and evaluation. And they have done it together...The declaration should help the voluntary sector and others understand what is important to funders in monitoring and evaluation and so improve relationships between funders and funded organisations” (Scotland Funders’ Forum, 2006).

Evaluation Support Scotland is currently reviewing the operation of the declaration, and will shortly be reporting on progress towards the development of a more coordinated approach to reporting amongst funders. It will be important to learn from this initiative and incorporate the ideas and approaches into any future framework for evaluation.

Conclusion

The Measuring Up report has attempted to review the current state of monitoring and evaluation practice from the perspective of both funders and voluntary and community sector organisations. While the research indicates that there are differing views on the purpose and usefulness of evaluation as currently practised, it is worth noting that there have been many positive developments, and practice has advanced considerably over the last decade. This has included initiatives from independent funders such as the Big Lottery Fund and Children in Need for example, as well as the development of pioneering approaches to measurement and the provision of support as developed by CENI in conjunction with the Voluntary and Community Unit and other funders.
However it is clear that in the tighter fiscal environment now looming, public investors in particular are faced with a stark choice. On the one hand they can continue to ‘sweat’ the existing assets in order to enhance efficiency and maximise the outputs delivered, which means an even greater focus on scrutiny and accountability and a corresponding top-down, command and control relationship with voluntary and community sector deliverers. The other option is to try to discover more effective ways of investing public resources to address need and deliver better services. This would widen the scope for evaluation to focus on evidencing need, measuring real changes and capturing learning to inform new ways of working. This would also involve a more proactive partnership engagement with voluntary and community sector deliverers.

The research shows that both funders and voluntary and community organisations see the need and recognise the potential for the latter approach, but it will require a shift in priorities to widen the scope for monitoring and evaluation and a corresponding commitment of time and resources to achieve this.

The framework outlined in the conclusions of the report attempts to draw together all of the key issues identified through the research and provide a means of systematically considering these through a more unified and integrated approach. It is intended that this should provide a basis for further discussion and development in order to move monitoring and evaluation forward in the new environment.

References


**Brendan McDonnell** has been Director of Community Evaluation Northern Ireland since its inception in 1995. He has an MPhil in Social Policy and has over 25 years experience of working in the third sector as a manager, trainer and researcher. He has a particular interest in developing research and evaluation tools which support the voluntary and community sector to capture and measure change and contribute to evidence-based policy for the sector.

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ENGAGING THE DISENGAGED THROUGH DEVELOPMENT EDUCATION: CHALLENGES AND SUCCESSES

In this article, Alosa Kaimacuata describes the challenges and successes encountered during the delivery of the ‘Engaging the Disengaged through Development Education’ project, which worked with pupils excluded, at risk or exclusion or ‘disengaged’ from their learning, classmates and teachers. The article aims to demonstrate how a range of development education methodologies were employed to effectively engage excluded or disengaged pupils with global issues. It also describes how the project was evaluated using the How do we know it’s working? toolkit developed by the Reading International Solidarity Centre.

Introduction

This article describes the challenges and successes encountered during the delivery of a Department for International Development (DfID) and Esmée Fairbairn-funded project entitled ‘Engaging the Disengaged through Development Education’ at the Lancashire Global Education Centre. The project worked with teachers and pupils at four schools in Lancashire, including two pupil referral units/short stay schools, which had pupils that were either excluded, at risk of exclusion or deemed to be ‘disengaged’ from their learning.

The article highlights the approaches used within this project to practically engage pupils and the challenge of engaging teachers in development education approaches. It also examines the need to model these approaches to engage those working with challenging pupils and considers some of the successful outcomes for pupils and teachers involved in the project. Finally, the article poses and addresses the question: who is really ‘disengaged’ in terms of development education?

Engaging the Disengaged through Development Education project

The project was delivered over three years between August 2007 and July 2010 by the Lancashire Global Education Centre (LGEC). It aimed to work with excluded primary and secondary students in pupil referral units (PRUs) and those at risk of exclusion in mainstream schools or by their teachers, using development education (DE) approaches. It followed on from previous pilot
work done by LGEC with pupils in two Lancashire secondary PRUs, which indicated the potential benefits of using DE approaches with disengaged pupils.

The objectives of the project were to implement and incorporate DE methodologies, approaches and activities into project schools’ schemes of work, to more fully engage challenging key stage two (KS2) and three (KS3) pupils in PRUs and mainstream classes in their learning. The project aimed to increase participation by giving them opportunities to develop their local and global awareness of important issues such as poverty, climate change, human rights and responsibilities, and in turn by improving their skills in critical thinking, discussion and action. Training and support for the teachers and staff were provided to ensure effective selection and delivery of appropriate DE approaches. This would also support a more sustained impact upon pupils and schools over time as DE methodologies could become embedded in the schemes of work for their learning.

Project activities included: planning meetings with key staff at schools; a training day to introduce DE participatory approaches appropriate for the target group; support from LGEC’s project co-ordinator in delivering DE directly with pupils; biannual working group involving all key teachers to provide further support; biannual steering group meetings involving headteachers, evaluators and local authority (LA) advisors to support the project’s strategic aims related to sustainability; and dissemination and evaluation of activities undertaken in partnership with researchers at Edge Hill University’s Department for Social and Psychological Sciences.

The first project activity involved meeting with headteachers from the four schools that had originally shown interest in the project. However, there was a long delay between their initial show of interest and the start of the project, and two schools subsequently decided to no longer take part. We therefore needed to bring on board two new schools as well as four extra schools, who would not be involved to the same intensive level as the other schools, but would receive introductory training, attend teachers’ project meetings in the last year of the project, and participate in the project evaluation. As introductory material, headteachers of schools that fitted the project criteria were presented with two booklets: Developing the Global Dimension in the School Curriculum (DfES, 2005) and The Global Dimension in Action (QCA, 2007), which illustrate only recommended global educational practice. None of the headteachers approached was familiar with these materials or the ‘global dimension’ and how it related to their school’s curriculum. They tended to find
the breadth of the eight key concepts of the global dimension overwhelming, and this led to a discussion on how they could begin to balance what they were already doing with concepts they felt they needed support to cover or were lacking attention. The global dimension concepts which they seemed most interested in addressing were conflict resolution, values and perceptions, diversity and social justice, as these related to the issues their pupils dealt with on a personal and local level.

**Development education approaches used in the project**

The next phase of the project involved selecting DE approaches and activities that would address these concepts, and then incorporate them into training for teachers of both KS2 and KS3 pupils with challenging behaviours. Previous experience gained while working with such pupils showed they would need to develop their participation skills on an ongoing personal-local manner in order to feel confident enough to participate in the DE activities that would link to wider global issues. The main focus was on developing pupils’ and teachers’ skills such as: speaking and listening; teamwork in small groups; sharing ideas; critical thinking; and for the teachers, fostering a more facilitative mode of leading their class.

These skills are required when working within a DE approach which emphasises aspects of ‘good education’, such as increased awareness and understanding through participation, and critical thinking and reasoning within a global perspective. But how might DE differ from other approaches fostering ‘good education’ already used in schools and why would teachers need to be introduced to it? There is no clear cut answer to this as many of the aspects of ‘good education’ are fostered in pupils according to teachers’ approach to the curriculum.

Many teachers already deliver what is deemed a DE approach to education without labeling it as such. Some may feel restricted by the curriculum, or the topics and approaches taught to them in their teacher training. They may also lack confidence in implementing an approach to teaching that is flexible, facilitative, incidental and critical in which pupils’ learning objectives are more skills-based than information-based. This is an educational culture in which teachers and pupils are used to being ‘spoon fed’ the required knowledge. Schools are accustomed to inclusive approaches such as the SEAL (social and emotional aspects of learning) programme and circle time to encourage personal skills of empathy, sharing, speaking and listening in
isolation or in the context of Personal Social Health Education (PSHE). However, most are unaware of methods they could use to embed and encourage similar skills whilst teaching core curriculum areas. The Engaging the Disengaged through DE project encouraged teachers to allow their pupils to critically think about and discuss, within a global perspective, information presented to them, empowering both pupils and teachers to make their learning relevant personally, locally and globally.

As part of the initial teacher training component of the project, we introduced the participatory methodology of Philosophy for Children (P4C) (see www.sapere.org.uk and www.p4c.com for more information), and demonstrated how to incorporate the global dimension concepts into the curriculum using activities such as simulation games and role play activities, including forum theatre (see Kent and the Wider World, 2007). Each of the four key schools received a minimum of six P4C sessions using stimuli related to the concepts highlighted earlier. For example, in one session pupils were told a story about two villages separated by a river with a bridge, and how originally they clashed but ultimately came to appreciate their interdependence when the bridge was broken. In response to this story, pupils in groups formulated open questions for potential discussion, shared these with the class and then voted for the question they wanted to discuss the most. Pupils chose and spent time discussing the question ‘Why is there conflict in the world?’ in the mainstream Year 5 class and ‘Why do people fight over where they live?’ in the KS2 PRU. Teachers were then encouraged to deliver their own P4C sessions with their class to foster participation skills and discussion around global dimension concepts.

After engaging in participatory classroom-based sessions within the first two school terms, pupils were brought together to take part in school linking activities during their summer term. The KS2 mainstream pupils (of predominately Pakistani and Bangladeshi origin) wrote profiles of themselves to the KS2 pupils at the PRU (of white British origin) and the latter wrote a class profile back to them. They also spent two days working together: for the first day they engaged in football-based team building activities at Blackburn Rovers Community Trust, a local charity. On the second day they participated in drama activities facilitated by professionals from Konflux Theatre-in-Education, and performed two plays based on global issues entitled ‘Love Food Hate Waste’ and ‘One World’ to the group, which also included their teachers and parents. A KS3 geography class and the KS3 PRU also took part in linking activities in which both classes followed Get Global (Actionaid, 2003) steps and
activities to choose local to global issues that interested them to explore further. They shared these issues at a ‘get to know you’ day at Blackpool Zoo where they chose three topics, war, drugs and bullying, to explore in their classes and in a subsequent ‘Get Global Conference’. At the conference they engaged in activities defining conflict and peace, and photo-based exercises, and participated in drama and role play exploring issues of bullying in local and global contexts. The conference finished with a P4C inquiry where pupils discussed the question: ‘will there ever be peace?’

At this point in the project a second training day was held to introduce DE to additional teachers in the project schools. Project teachers were given the opportunity to attend a workshop on forum theatre to address community cohesion led by Globallink, a partner Development Education Centre. Useful information on this and other DE approaches that were introduced to project teachers to incorporate the global dimension, including case studies, school linking guidance, lesson plan guidance, benchmarks and policy related information can be found in an LGEC booklet, (Drake, 2006), and at www.globaldimension.org.uk.

Key teachers attended working group meetings prior to the linking activities to share their experiences of the DE approaches and to plan for their linking days. During the second school year of the project the teachers were left to deliver their own planned DE activities with minimal project support.

**Challenges**

At the start of the project the main challenge was engaging teachers with the approaches and activities to be used in the project. Teachers were not experienced in using participatory methods with their pupils and some headteachers even commented that they would need to be ‘spoon fed’ the approaches instead of being required to develop the activities themselves. However, DE approaches are best when developed by those who will deliver the activities:

> “An important and challenging aspect for development education practitioners is thought to be building ownership within schools. Ideally this means enabling teachers to question ideas and develop their understanding of and responses to the global dimension without imposing solutions” (Critchley & Unwin, 2008:15).
Key teachers’ initial responses to the DE approaches (particularly P4C) were that given the challenging nature and behaviour of their pupils, they did not believe that the approaches would engage their students. It seemed that the teachers lacked the confidence to deliver a new approach in which they played a more facilitative rather than an authoritative role, and expressed concern as to the likely response and engagement of their pupils. The expectations of the teachers were that their pupils’ behaviour would hamper participation and they would not want to engage in global issues.

Throughout the project, key teachers, colleagues and teachers in additional schools were expected to attend working group meetings to support and share their delivery of the DE approaches. However, these were not well attended during the last year of the project due to teachers’ inability to get release time. There was also poor attendance at the steering group meetings by the headteachers and Local Authority (LA) advisors supporting the project. Beyond the difficulty of finding time to engage with issues outside already pressing curricular requirements, this also reflected the low priority given to global education within the education system. Changes in senior management at schools with headteachers retiring or moving on also hindered continued active participation, which in turn highlighted the importance of teacher engagement for the sustainability and use of the DE approaches.

**The need for modelling development education approaches**

If the project had relied on imparting training in DE methodologies alone, these approaches would not have filtered into teachers practice and pupils’ learning, due to teachers’ initial attitudes and expectations.

The project activities following on from the teacher training however focused on intensively supporting teachers within key schools, and modelling participatory approaches that incorporated local-global issues on a regular basis. These in-classroom sessions played an important part, not just in enabling the pupils to participate in group discussions on global issues, but in supporting their teachers in exploring the feasibility of using DE approaches with more challenging pupils. Teachers saw pupils interested, participating and communicating both in small groups and with the class as a whole. They witnessed normally withdrawn and disinterested pupils engaging in discussion on various issues, demonstrating the usefulness of DE approaches in increasing pupils’ confidence, self worth, communication skills and empathy, and also how DE could support other key objectives.
These in-class support sessions prepared the teachers to confidently plan for and engage in the school linking activities, enabling them to fully engage in the project and giving them the motivation and incentive to deliver these approaches by themselves.

**Successful outcomes of the project**

DE approaches used in the project were clearly successful in engaging both primary and secondary pupils in their learning, and increasing participation and discussion around local-global issues and their links. For example, a boy with autism at the primary PRU had changed from being very withdrawn and not wanting to speak directly to people, to being able to confidently share his opinions on global issues (of which governments, global poverty and crime interested him most) and encourage his peers to also participate in group discussions. He thrived, given the opportunity to learn in this participatory manner where there are no right or wrong answers. Teachers at both PRUs indicated that the DE activities had played a key role in successfully integrating pupils into mainstream education.

The project was also able to support teachers’ colleagues through training, the modelling of some DE activities with their pupils and by enabling teachers to impart skills in their teams. In terms of sustainably integrating DE into schools, all key teachers have shown a real improvement in their attitude to and confidence in delivering DE activities with their pupils. All continued to deliver, adapt and further explore DE when left to their own devices during the last year of the project. For example, the primary PRU teacher gave pupils the opportunity to discuss contrasting contexts within South Africa (in relation to a World Cup focus) and let them learn about apartheid and Nelson Mandela (a controversial topic she would not have had the confidence to approach previously). The key teacher at the secondary mainstream school has also increased her confidence in using DE approaches and took up the position of community cohesion co-ordinator to improve her school’s performance in this area.

These outcomes were disseminated to local teachers at a regional subsidised conference in June 2010 (supported by James Nottingham of www.p4c.com) at which the aim was to encourage teachers to give DE approaches ‘a go’ in order to provide a challenging learning environment for their pupils.
**Evaluation of the project**

The project was monitored and evaluated in partnership with Professor Helen Whitely and colleagues at Edge Hill University. They looked for noticeable impact on pupils’ confidence, self-esteem, self worth and general attitude to learning as a result of being involved in project activities, as well as looking at teachers’ opinions and attitudes to the project over time. They took quantitative and qualitative measures twice yearly in the form of pupil questionnaires, pupil focus groups, behaviour rating scales and staff interviews to provide them with appropriate data.

Pupils’ global awareness was also monitored and evaluated twice yearly through the use of activities from the Reading International Solidarity Centre’s toolkit *How do we know it’s working? A toolkit for measuring attitudinal change in global citizenship from early years to KS5* (RISC, 2008). Although time-consuming to implement and record, these activities proved to be very insightful as to pupils’ attitudes and global awareness, and useful in informing and evaluating individual teaching approaches. One of the activities undertaken by pupils at the start of the project was to answer the question, ‘Who will have which job?’ when looking at a number of pictures of children of similar ages and differing ethnicities and given the job titles farmer, doctor, teacher, nurse, cook and cleaner. Pupils were initially very quick to decide who would have which job and related their decisions directly to the photo. When pupils did the same activity approximately nine months later, after having participated in regular P4C discussions, more pupils were able to give reasons for their decisions beyond the content of the photo, e.g. choosing the African boy as the farmer as he is likely to live in a poor country where fewer jobs are available. More importantly, some actually questioned the activity of making the decision itself citing reasons such as: they could not predict the future; people change; they were unaware of where they lived or their hobbies; their circumstances might necessitate a particular position; they might attend university; it would depend on academic performance; and that out of the millions of occupations in the world there were only a few to choose from.

The activity titled ‘What would you see if you visited a country in Africa?’ gauges pupils knowledge and awareness of Africa, and responses are categorised into natural environment, built environment, people and society, culture and history, economic activity, energy transport and communications, and named geographical features. It became clear through this activity that
pupils held negative and unbalanced views of Africa and its people; they were also unable to name any countries in Africa and stated that people in Africa had few clothes, little food and few things. This lack of knowledge informed teachers’ future planning, such as incorporating discussions about the World Cup in South Africa as a focus for DE activities. The categories aided in comparing pupils’ responses over time. When the activity was repeated, natural environment responses were still dominant, but pupils could also name significantly more countries in Africa, describe living conditions in more accurate detail and demonstrate an awareness of development issues related to education and poverty, such as lack of universal primary education. Repeating these activities also pointed to pupils’ improvements in group work, with responses subsequently being given as mind/concept maps.

So, who is really ‘disengaged’ in terms of development education?

The pupils targeted in this project, deemed ‘disengaged’ with mainstream education, have shown increased participation and full engagement when given the opportunity to learn using DE approaches. Comparatively, youth groups have also shown full engagement in and action for change in response to being given the opportunity to engage in DE activities (DEA, 2010a).

Teachers should not be underestimated by their trainers or senior managers as needing to be ‘spoon fed’ and only able to ‘spoon feed’ as this project demonstrated. When teachers have the opportunity to learn about and witness DE approaches in practice, with their pupils in their classroom, they become more willing to and confident in exploring and developing DE approaches in their teaching, leading to very successful outcomes for their pupils.

In a wider context, a research study carried out by Ipsos Mori on behalf of the DEA found that:

“Without an opportunity to learn about global issues in school, over a third of the population (34 per cent) are neither involved in, nor interested in getting involved in, any form of positive social action. Amongst those who have learnt about climate change, poverty or world politics and trade at school, this figure drops to around one in ten...There is a very high level of public support for the idea that all members of society should have the opportunity to learn about global issues” (DEA, 2010b:3).
Given these scenarios there is real evidence that the education system, which could be deemed ‘disengaged’ from development education, should prioritise this opportunity to learn about global issues in a critical manner within the curriculum, initial teacher education (ITE) and schools. DE funding needs to be secured as well so that teachers and pupils can engage in DE approaches to allow the education system to “[nurture] a socially responsible, outward looking populace” (DEA 2010b:3).

**Note:** As the final data collection has only recently been completed since the writing of this article, the final evaluative report is not yet complete. If readers are interested in the final report once completed, please contact the author for further evaluation details.

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Perspectives

THE ROLE OF SOUTHERN PERSPECTIVES IN THE EVALUATION OF DEVELOPMENT EDUCATION

Susan Gallwey

Introduction

This article explores the role of Southern perspectives in the evaluation of Northern-based development education (DE) programmes. The article outlines the rationale for the inclusion of Southern perspectives in the evaluation of DE; explores key challenges in the area; reviews two examples of Northern attempts to engage in evaluation/reflection with Southern partners; and concludes with suggestions for further work in this area.

Rationale for including Southern perspectives in DE evaluation

In recent years, ‘Southern perspectives’ have been the focus of much discussion in the DE community. 80 per cent of the world’s population lives in the global South, and it has become increasingly clear that Southerners need to play a key role in any form of education that claims to be about ‘increasing understanding of our...interdependent and unequal world’ (Irish Aid, 2003:9). Although there are contested definitions of the term ‘Southern perspectives’ (IDEA, 2010a), nearly all of today’s development educators would agree with Andreotti (2006:9) that ‘listening seriously and respectfully to Southern voices’ is a vital first step towards addressing the power imbalances that exist between North and South. The DE sector has begun to address this challenge, and Southern perspectives are being incorporated in a variety of ways into a growing number of Northern-based DE courses, events and resources.

However, evaluation is one key area of DE in which Southern perspectives have not yet received much attention. Evaluation is the ‘bottom line’ of any endeavour, and is particularly important in a field such as DE, in which critical reflection occupies a central role in the learning cycle (Dolan, 1998:8). Scriven defines evaluation as the ‘determination of the worth or value of something judged according to appropriate criteria, with those criteria
explicated and justified’ (1991). Scriven’s emphasis on criteria is significant, as it highlights the power dimension of evaluation. Whoever develops the ‘appropriate criteria’ for an evaluation gains the power to assign value to certain ways of thinking and doing. Therefore, truly bringing Southern perspectives into DE evaluation involves much more than asking for a Southern ‘stamp of approval’ for DE work; it holds the potential to bring real changes to the North-South power dynamic that Andreotti (2006) places at the heart of DE.

The incorporation of Southern perspectives into DE evaluation is also desirable from the point of view of current good practice in educational evaluation. There has been a general trend away from traditional evaluation models which measure success in pre-determined quantitative terms, and towards qualitative models which celebrate a multiplicity of values and perspectives (Christie & Alkin, 2008). An example of this is Guba and Lincoln’s ‘fourth generation’ evaluation:

“Fourth-generation evaluation recognises the constructed nature of findings, takes different values and different contexts (physical, psychological, social and cultural) into account, empowers and enfranchises...it extends both political and conceptual parity to all stakeholders” (Guba & Lincoln, 1989:11).

This type of model would appear to be ideally suited for DE, as it advocates the creation of an open space for evaluation, in which people from South and North could negotiate values and work collaboratively towards new meanings.

**Challenges**

There is a clear rationale for including Southern perspectives in the evaluation of DE. However, many challenges emerge when one considers how Southern perspectives might actually be implemented into DE evaluations. The most significant difficulty relates to identifying who from the South should be involved in the evaluation process. In ‘development’ projects, it is usual to have specific stakeholders in the global South, such as a Southern community in which a particular education or health care initiative is delivered. However, in DE, Southern stakeholders are usually not obvious (with the exception of projects such as school links, which have a specific, closed set of Northern and Southern participants). The ‘South’ undoubtedly occupies a role, but, depending on the theoretical and practical framework upon which any particular
DE project is constructed, the South could be perceived as a ‘stakeholder’, a ‘partner’, a ‘target group’ or a ‘long-term beneficiary’.

This lack of clarity about the South’s role in DE gives rise to a number of complex questions, such as: how can a sole Southern individual contributing to the evaluation process represent the entire global South in all of its diversity? If a Southerner occupies the privileged position of expert adviser to a Northern organisation, then can he/she still speak on behalf of the ‘oppressed’? These questions relate to fundamental difficulties with the North-South binary as a framework for DE. Andreotti and de Souza (2008:31) point out that the North-South binary is a helpful framework in that it highlights ‘the inherently social constructions of identities and relationships and the power dynamics that permeate relationships between the groups’; however, they also note that the binary tends to ‘essentialise’ the individual experiences of Northerners and Southerners. Applying these observations to the evaluation of DE, it would seem that a Southern evaluator can legitimately act as a spokesperson for ‘the South’ in terms of the broad South-North identities and relationships that underlie a DE programme, but at the same time, it must also be recognised that any individual Southerner brings his/her unique background, perceptions and values to the evaluation process. There is no easy way of resolving this tension; therefore, the process of choosing an evaluator, or consenting to become one, would require a great deal of dialogue between Southern and Northern partners to clarify roles and representation.

Even if these challenging issues are worked through, and if practical obstacles to do with distance, language and finance are overcome, there are further difficulties to face. Southern and Northern participants must successfully negotiate decisions around evaluation criteria and methodologies. As noted above, issues of power underlie these decisions; a Southern evaluation being done ‘to’ a Northern group has a very different power dynamic than one being done ‘for’ or ‘with’ them. Finally, there is the thorny issue of what happens post-evaluation. If Southerners are involved in the evaluation process, but possess no influence in regard to future projects, then do they really have equal power in evaluation? For Southern participation in evaluation to have any meaning, there need to be structures through which Southerners can meaningfully contribute to all aspects of the project cycle.

Given these challenges, and given the fact that the major Northern funders of DE (such as Irish Aid) do not require, or even suggest, that Southerners should be involved in the evaluation of DE, it is not surprising that
very few attempts have been made to engage the South in DE evaluation. Even when clearly-defined groups of Southern stakeholders are present, such as in a North-South school link, Northern evaluators have rarely sought Southern participation. Indeed, Burr (2008:4) provides a disturbing anecdote about an award-winning UK school that completed an evaluation of its school link but did not involve the Southern school at all ‘because they wouldn’t understand’.

The RORG-South Evaluation

A notable exception to the norm is the RORG DE network in Norway, which in 2001 made a decision to ‘subject itself to an evaluation from the South’ (van der Merwe, 2003:6). The rationale for this initiative is clearly articulated:

“DE is basically motivated by a desire to change the world to be a better place, fighting poverty and injustice. Thus, the part of the world most hit by poverty and injustice, the South, should have a say in how DE is done in the North” (van der Merwe, 2003:20).

RORG commissioned a team of Southern evaluators, led by a South African academic and including members from the Philippines and Nicaragua (unfortunately, there is no available documentation regarding how these individuals were selected). The team’s remit was ‘to assess the efficacy of DE in Norway as viewed from the South’ (van der Merwe, 2003:6). The RORG network made it clear that the Southern partners would be ‘in the driving seat’ of the evaluation; this was perceived by both parties to be a reversal of the traditional North-South power dynamic (van der Merwe, 2003:11).

The process was inherently ‘a long shot at goal’, with both Northerners and Southerners acting as willing partners in an ‘uncertain and risky process’ (van der Merwe, 2003:11). Indeed, fundamental challenges emerged at the earliest stages of the project. The Southern team were unclear as to what they were being asked to evaluate and why they had been asked to do so:

“The core business of RORG, i.e. DE, turned out to be rather uncertain in the mind of the RORGs. DE in the North in general, and in Norway in particular, was a practice to which the participants from the South were not only totally unfamiliar with, but also fundamentally suspicious about. The decision to involve the South in an evaluation of the
RORGs was also treated with a significant amount of suspicion” (van der Merwe, 2003:23).

Both RORG and the Southern evaluators wisely recognised that these apparent obstacles were in fact an integral part of the process; they commented that ‘the learning that took place during this South-North process became a purpose in itself’ (van der Merwe, 2003:11).

The evaluation produced interesting recommendations, including a call for the development of a ‘pedagogy for the rich’ that would help to build real solidarity with the global South (van der Merwe, 2003:24). The recommendations were quite critical of current RORG practices, but were offered in the understanding that ‘evaluation should facilitate and empower the evaluated’ to take steps towards positive change (van der Merwe, 2003:12). RORG’s work in subsequent years indicates that the evaluation resulted in increased reflection and action regarding the role of the South in Norwegian DE. These changes include the development of position papers on the role of DE, Southern perspectives and co-operation with the South (RORG, 2004a; 2004b); the publication of a set of ‘ethical guidelines’ for practitioners working in the development NGO sector (RORG, 2006); and successful bids for government funding for DE projects with Southern partners.

The RORG evaluation should be recognised as an important milestone in DE’s journey towards North-South equality. However, it would be unrealistic to presume that other DE groups could replicate the RORG model of evaluation. On a practical level, few organisations have the time and resources for such a process. More significantly, in today’s competitive funding climate, DE groups are under pressure to gloss over difficult issues and to use evaluation merely as a means of advertising the ‘success stories’ of their programmes.

The Global Educator in Residence Programme

A possible alternative to the RORG model would be to engage a Southern educator in the role of ‘critical friend’ to a Northern DE organisation. This year, the Irish Development Education Association (IDEA) ran a pilot programme titled Global Educator in Residence (GEIR). In this programme, educators from the global South, all of whom were familiar with Northern-based DE, were engaged to meet face-to-face with IDEA member organisations to discuss how the organisations might better incorporate Southern perspectives into their work.
The overall aim of the GEIR programme was ‘to contribute towards creating a fair and equal dialogue between global North and global South’ (IDEA, 2010b: 3). The GEIR programme was not conceived as an evaluation or as a ‘Global South Driving Test’ for IDEA members. Instead, the programme was promoted as an opportunity to engage in reflection and dialogue with a Southern educator. It was left to each participating organisation to communicate with its assigned Global Educator in order to plan what they would do during their time together. A pre-visit workshop, an online discussion forum and learning journal tasks helped participating organisations to shape questions and define critical issues prior to the visits. The supporting activities provided a safe space for exploring some of the more challenging ideas relating to power, voice and representation in the ‘Southern perspectives’ debate.

Yet even within this supportive framework, there were still some anxieties about inviting an outsider into the inner, vulnerable spaces of an organisation. As IDEA (2010b:9) points out, this anxiety ‘was not always conducive to the learning objectives established by the programme’. The Global Educators themselves expressed discomfort with the role of ‘expert adviser’. One of the Educators commented:

“The role of the Global Educator is not/should not be a provocateur; it is someone from a different network coming in to give advice and support...challenging and pushing the organisations further (like a mentor or a coach perhaps), not judging or forcing but working with the passions of the organisations” (IDEA, 2010b:18).

At the end of the programme, one organisation commented that the Global Educator acted not as a judge but instead as a catalyst for learning, development and change. For a number of organisations, the most valued aspect of the GEIR was the fact that the overall programme ‘provided them with a space for reflection and engagement with a highly controversial topic and that they were able to do this while sharing their learning with others’ (IDEA, 2010b:7). In this way, the Southern educators empowered Northern DE organisations to formulate key questions to ask themselves. Hopefully, these questions will form the foundation for important internal evaluation work. In this light, the GEIR programme could be perceived as a viable alternative to a more structured and formal Southern evaluation.
Conclusion

This article has shown that, although a clear rationale exists for the incorporation of Southern perspectives into the evaluation of Northern-based DE, practical implementation of this ideal presents many difficulties. Southern stakeholders/partners are not usually clearly defined in DE, and, even if an appropriate evaluation team were to be assembled, most organisations lack the time, resources, and most importantly, the incentive to undertake a South-North evaluation.

The ambitious RORG programme produced valuable results, but the evaluation process demanded an extremely high level of commitment and a willingness to face uncomfortable issues. The much smaller-scale GEIR programme demonstrated the value to Northern DE organisations of reflecting upon their work with the aid of a Southern ‘critical friend’.

Further work needs to be done in this challenging area. School links, and other DE projects with clearly-defined Northern and Southern stakeholders, would benefit greatly from a collaborative approach to evaluation. In such evaluations, Southern participants would need to be involved not just in evaluation tasks, but also in setting the evaluation criteria and deciding what changes will take place post-evaluation.

Other DE projects, with less obvious Southern stakeholders, would benefit from developing the ‘critical friend’ model. Ideally, a Southern critical friend would be introduced at the early stages of a project, and would to help to construct an evaluation framework that could be revisited periodically throughout the project lifecycle.

Because the global South, in all of its complexity, plays many different roles in the wide variety of programmes that make up ‘development education’, there will never be a single formula for bringing Southern perspectives into DE evaluation. Each DE organisation needs to look closely at how its particular programme relates to the global South, and then find creative ways of engaging Southern voices in a process of reflection and evaluation.

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THE EUROPEAN CONSENSUS ON DEVELOPMENT EDUCATION: FROM SCRATCH TO IMPLEMENTATION AND MONITORING

In this article, Rilli Lappalainen looks at the European Union’s efforts to coordinate and evaluate development education practice through common frameworks, joint strategy monitoring and evaluation reports and documentation of various countries’ development education innovation, strategies and implementation. It aims to demonstrate the utility of Europe-wide research in maximising effective development education delivery through communication and coordination among member states.

Introduction

The European Union (EU) is the foremost donor of international aid in the world, accounting for 56 per cent of the total aid flows (DCD-DAC, 2010). Despite the quantity, effectiveness of aid has not yet reached a proportional level. Due to this contradiction, coordination and harmonisation of development cooperation has been one of the EU’s main concerns in the first decade of 21st century. In addition, development education and awareness raising have gained ground at the European level as well. Beginning from the Europe-wide Maastricht Global Education Congress in 2002, the importance of global education/development education has been emphasised at the EU political level as a means to poverty eradication and sustainable development.

To harmonise European development strategies, a common framework for development education and awareness raising was published in November 2007. It assisted in the implementation of the general European Consensus on Development, set up in 2005, with particular reference to the declaration that ‘...the EU will pay particular attention to development education and raising awareness among EU citizens’ (2005). The European Consensus on Development: The contribution of Development Education & Awareness Raising was compiled in joint cooperation with representatives from EU member states, non-governmental organisations (NGOs), European Commission, European Parliament, the Organisation for Economic Co-Operation and Development (OECD) and the Council of Europe. The representatives comprise the European Multi-Stakeholder Steering Group on Development and Education, established in Helsinki in 2006. The strategy framework is a roadmap for decision-makers and different organisations in the EU member states to carryout persistent, regular and creative educational work.
The joint statement provided the first strategy framework for development education at local, regional, national and European level.

The European Consensus on Development

The main aim of 2007’s European Consensus on Development: The contribution of Development Education & Awareness Raising was to increase people’s knowledge about global issues and their understanding of the interconnectedness of the world, hoping to in turn transform their actions reflecting to the ethos of global responsibility (2007). It also promotes people’s active engagement in global issues and to take knowledgeable, critical, and positive public action in a changing world. In addition, the Consensus seeks to enhance interest in common international concerns and to strengthen cooperation between different stakeholders. The development education sector in Europe requires wider impact and better integration in the existing informal and formal education systems to establish collaborative strategies between EU, state and non-state actors.

The Consensus offers a clear framework for institutions and other actors in the field, and it has already encouraged countries to initiate their own national strategies for development education and awareness raising. In addition, it drives to establish active dialogue between stakeholders in order to create common operation models and to learn from other’s experiences to avoid possible flaws and overlaps. The framework answers to the urgent needs of systemising the heavily fractured development education field in Europe and encourage different stakeholders to be involved in cross-cutting activities.

Initiating the evaluation process

Evaluating progress on the European Consensus on Development Education was taken forward when the European Development Education Monitoring Report (DE Watch) was published in June 2010. The report constitutes an integrated overview of the existing development education policies around Europe. The comparative overview provides practitioners and policy-makers adequate information on DE frameworks used in 28 European countries and enables readers to seek parallels between the different systems.

The study was conducted between January and May 2010 on behalf of the European Multi-Stakeholder Steering Group. It is not based on a primary piece of research, which some see as compromising the reliability of the report.
Instead, the data was collected through a range of previous studies on development education in Europe, and was compiled on a synthetic basis. The documents that were utilised in the study included national reports and previous European evaluations and surveys, e.g. General Evaluation of DE/AR by the EC (2008), CONCORD/DEF Study on DE in the School Curriculum (2009) and various other reports. During the spring of 2010, the study was circulated twice for additional comments from the different stakeholders. The stakeholders included: 11 governmental and 20 non-governmental national actors from 18 countries; two international actors (North South Centre, Global Education Network Europe); and representatives from the Development Education Research Centre at University of London (DE Watch, 2010).

Although the dependability of the study can be questioned, it should be viewed as a working paper - a well-projected starting point, calling for future updates and further research. It enables readers to seek common denominators within the systems and identify recommendations and proposals for the development education sector in Europe. It also takes into account various levels in DE and helps to elaborate coherent and coordinated strategies within Europe (DE Watch, 2010).

The methodological challenges are also expressed in the DE Watch. One of the most challenging issues in the making of the monitoring report was the inconsistency between definitions of development education in different countries. The usage of different jargon made it difficult to analyse the amount of funding that development education is granted in different contexts and therefore, direct comparisons between the different countries are unreliable. The report attempts to conceptualise the term development education into four main groups: public relations; awareness raising; global education; and life skills. Without acknowledging a starting point for a well-balanced framework, a need for extra clarification and discussion on the substance is needed.

The findings compiled in the research suggested some common trends and tendencies that could be enthroned from the study. In countries where development education is practised in close cooperation between different institutions, the impact of DE has been more effective. Also common strategies for implementation enrich the vitalisation of quality DE. In addition, the research concluded that the responsible ministries and institutions should be in a leading position in implementing the common development education strategies, including schools’ curricula. For the finalisation of quality DE, development education should be understood as part of a good democratic
process, where it functions as a necessity for common global responsibility and a sustainable future (DE Watch, 2010).

**Monitoring and restructuring of DE in Europe**

Presently, development education is in turmoil. The global financial crisis and the politically right-wing atmosphere in Europe have led to DE funding setbacks during the past years. This was also identified by the NGO representatives taking part in the Development Awareness Raising and Education Forum, which met on 20 May 2010 in Lisbon, Portugal. However, despite insufficient funding, a great deal of effort is put in lobbying and implementing development education in many countries. In France, the Ministry of Education has decided to integrate education for sustainable development into their schools’ curricula; Cyprus has shown efforts to commence drafting their own national strategy for DE; and Estonia has finalised a national concept paper. Also, various other cross-curricular networks are being developed to strengthen the implementation of DE in a more coherent and Europe-wide approach. In numerous countries national strategies for DE have been constructed through a multi-stakeholder process, including the Czech Republic, Ireland and Finland. More recently strategies have been developed in Portugal and Spain (in 2009 and 2007, respectively), where they are currently in the phase of preparing action plans for the implementation of the strategy.

The increase in the number of national strategies is promising, but attention to the quality of DE should be of further concern. The process should also include a variety of civil society actors, and should be provided with sufficient funding. In line with the intentions of harmonisation and including civil society organisations and local authorities (CSO & LA) in the decision-making process, the European Commission launched a structured dialogue process in March 2010 (European Commission, 2010). It brings different stakeholders to the same table to discuss jointly the EU’s different development policies. The structured dialogue aims to find ways to improve the effectiveness and quality of CSO & LA involvement in the European Commission’s development education and awareness raising cooperation and programmes. It consists of various working groups, several meetings and regional seminars, and three supporting initiatives, including a seminar on Development Education & Awareness Raising (DEAR). The format encourages participants to contribute their knowledge and ideas in the discussions through live-events, but also through structured dialogue on-line discussions (European Commission, 2010).
The DEAR Study

To facilitate the ongoing structured dialogue process, the European Commission (EC) assigned a team of experts to carry out an initial study on the European development education sector. The primary focus of the study is on the CSO & LA projects funded by the European Commission and which operated between 2004 and 2009. The interim report of the ‘Study on the Experience and Actions of the Main European Actors Active in the field of Development Education and Awareness Raising’ (DEAR Study), similar to the DE-Watch, includes an overview of the main actors, strategies and initiatives in the field of DEAR in the 27 EU Member States and offers recommendation for future EC initiatives in the field of DEAR. In addition, the study examines 286 EC-funded projects, and compares feedback gathered from the field to find quality practices in project cooperation, effectiveness, impact and sustainability. Additionally, the DEAR-study focuses on portraying the different national development education sectors and gives details on country specific cooperation forms. The final report will be published in November 2010, after it has been circulated for comments and responses from DEAR stakeholders (DEAR Study, 2010).

Development Education Summer School in Finland

Continuing the multi-stakeholder progression in the EU, the European development education project DEEEP (Developing Europeans’ Engagement for the Eradication of global Poverty) and CONCORD annually organise a week-long Development Education Summer School (DESS), an international event aimed at sharing knowledge and learning. It is targeted to European Union and the countries, as well as Southern NGO partners. The Summer School educates on the annual theme, reinforces participants’ ability to work towards reducing global poverty and strengthens their social participation. The 2011 DESS in Finland will for the first time feature a multi-stakeholder view on DE, with representatives from different European multi-stakeholder groups invited to attend the event. It will focus on the quality and impact of development education projects and initiatives, and will therefore also content-wise continue the process of reaching quality development education in Europe.

Conclusion

The progress in development education in Europe since the 2002 Maastricht Treaty has been considerable. The increase in international processes in
development education and the multilateral dialogue possesses great potential for future work and it demonstrates the strong commitment of people working in the field. The importance of the previous milestones presented in this article, including the studies prepared in joint collaboration with different stakeholders and the increasing political engagement towards development education, lies in the created momentum that needs to be maintained. The reports such as the DE Watch and the DEAR study, as well as The European Consensus on Development: The contribution of Development Education & Awareness Raising, have paved the way to create stronger political commitment and increase the level of knowledge in development education. Establishing a common framework and creating a legally binding document for European nations to ensure quality development education for all can be reached through versatile and comprehensive dialogue with every stakeholder involved and committed to the work.

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Joint Statement by the Council and the representatives of the Governments of the Member States meeting within the Council, the European Parliament and the

**Rilli Lappalainen** is the Co-Chair of the ‘European Consensus on Development: the contribution of Development Education & Awareness Raising’ process, a member of the board of CONCORD (the European NGO confederation for relief and development), and the former chair of the CONCORD Development Education Forum.
YOUNG CHILDREN AS GLOBAL CITIZENS

Sheila Dillon, Brian Ruane & Anne-Marie Kavanagh

Introduction

The publication of Aistear, the Early Childhood Curriculum Framework (NCCA, 2009) provides a unique opportunity to promote the inclusion of a global and justice perspective in education programmes for young children at pre-school and junior primary school levels. The Framework highlights the importance of global citizenship and diversity issues and provides the opportunity to support educators engaged in their implementation. To facilitate the provision of such support, a partnership between Trócaire and St Patrick’s College, Drumcondra has undertaken research into young children’s engagement with issues of global justice. This article describes the background to the research, the methodologies used, and the research findings and dissemination.

Background

Trócaire’s engagement in the early years sector began in 2000, at a time when Ireland was becoming increasingly multi-cultural and when statutory support was available for education programmes incorporating diversity and inclusion perspectives. Trócaire’s initial education work in the sector focused on developing a programme with a global focus in conjunction with representatives of the various stakeholders within the early years sector. The programme was delivered with the support of the nationwide network of Childcare Committees. Subsequently, to provide ongoing support, Trócaire began producing thematic materials for early years annually. These materials included Dansa from Ethiopia (Trócaire, 2005), Pedro from Nicaragua (2006), Paulo from Malawi (2007), Maji Water Pack (2008), People on the Move (2009) Food for thought and Food for Life (2010) (available at: http://www.trocaire.org/Early-years).

Recognising the challenges inherent in exploring complex development issues with young children and the opportunities presented with the publication of Aistear (NCCA, 2009), Trócaire approached St Patrick’s College, Drumcondra (SPD) to explore how young children’s engagement with the justice perspective of development education could be supported. SPD as a college of education for primary teachers, with its Centre for Human Rights and Citizenship Education, its engagement in the Development and Intercultural
Education (DICE) programme and its commitment to educational research, was well placed to respond. The Trócaire/SPD partnership which subsequently emerged from this dialogue began by undertaking research which focused on two main areas: how young children engage with issues of global justice and strategies for exploring these issues in early years settings. The research involved a literature review, small scale qualitative research, and the application of the findings and the methodologies employed to the development of an early years education programme.

**Literature review**

There is a dearth of literature on young children’s engagement with issues of global justice and that which exists reveals conflicting attitudes regarding children’s perceived ‘readiness’ to deal with global justice issues (Robinson & Jones Diaz, 2009; Kelly & Brooks, 2009). These attitudes are strongly interconnected with different early childhood discourses and theories of socialisation and developmentalism. Discourses of childhood innocence and the perception that children are too young and too cognitively and emotionally immature to deal with global justice issues take little account of the significant impact of globalisation on children. The proliferation of sophisticated technologies, increased worldwide interconnectedness and the targeting of young children with items of popular culture, suggest that discourses of childhood innocence and naivety may be outdated (Steinberg & Kincheloe, 1997, cited in Robinson & Jones Diaz, 2009). Innovative ways of understanding childhood and children’s learning have emerged from the new sociology of childhood, postmodern/poststructuralist theories and critical psychology (Robinson & Jones Diaz, 2009; Devine, 2003; Hong, 2003).

Proponents of these new perspectives challenge conventional definitions of childhood. One conventional view is Piaget’s (1932) theory of cognitive-development, which is based on the notion ‘that all children reach certain cognitive development stages’ (that are biologically predetermined) that ‘correlate’ with specific chronological ages. The process is linear, begins at birth and continues until adulthood (Robinson & Jones Diaz, 2009:6). Piagetian theory ignores children’s social world (Van Ausdale & Feagin, 1996). This traditional view perceives children as passive recipients of the dominant culture and constructs children as being too young and too innocent to engage in ‘adult’ issues. This perspective has a significant impact on early childhood educators’ perceptions of ‘children’s experiences and understandings of diversity, difference and social difference and social inequalities’ (Robinson &
Jones Diaz, 2009:171). In contrast, the new perspectives challenge educators to identify appropriate strategies for engaging young children in global issues. Theorists such as Vygotsky (1986) and Donaldson (1978) locate children ‘in a social world in which interactions are the source of mental functioning and meanings for social concepts’ (Peterson & McCabe, 1994:780).

The literature review sought out research into children’s conceptions of key development issues such as poverty and fairness. There is a paucity of literature pertaining to children’s conceptions of poverty (Chafel, 1997). However, existing research indicates that young children think about and try to make sense of social justice issues such as poverty and its manifestations (Ramsey, 1991; 2008; 2008a; Leahy, 1983). Similarly, there is a dearth of literature pertaining to young children’s constructions of fairness with existing literature focusing largely on moral dilemmas regarding interpersonal relations or financial poverty (Killeen, et al., 2001; Ramsey, 1991; Lerner, 1974). However, the research recovered indicates that children develop a sense of fairness and can identify inequalities from a young age. It also suggests that approaches aimed at promoting young children’s engagement with issues of global justice should:

- allow space for children’s own concerns, personal experiences and solutions (Hong, 2003; Chafel, et al., 2007);
- build on children’s own experiences and background knowledge (Hong, 2003);
- address conceptions and misconceptions about global justice issues including issues relating to poverty and human rights, prejudice and discrimination (Fountain, 1990);
- encourage children to think critically (Connolly & Hosken, 2006);
- explicitly deal with young children’s racial attitudes (Connolly & Hosken, 2006); and
- ensure that stereotypes are not reinforced (Ramsey, 2008b).

Research process

Following on from the literature review, a research study was conducted in three settings – pre-school, junior and senior infants at primary school level – representing the most common formal educational contexts for children aged three to six in Ireland. The research was qualitative, informed by the ‘mosaic’ approach to research (Clark & Moss, 2001) and drew on existing classroom practices.
The principle strategy used was adult-child interaction through dialogue. It involved observation and recording of children’s engagement with materials presented by the teacher and small group work undertaken by the researcher. Story was the main stimulus employed. The story chosen - Mama Panya’s Pancakes (Chamberlin & Chamberlin, 2005) tells of a trip to market by Adika, a young Kenyan boy and his mother, Mama Panya. Along the way, Adika meets his friends and invites them to evening dinner. As each character is invited, Mama Panya pleads that she can only afford to buy food for themselves. The story ends positively as each character brings something and everyone has enough to eat. The story and powerful illustrations positively reflect the Kenyan landscape, culture and family values but there are underlying themes of hunger and poverty which offer rich opportunities for exploration.

Additional research methodologies included thinking/circle time, drama and exploring real life photographs. The photographs were selected to prompt discussion on themes of the wider world, food and poverty, enable children to identify similarities and differences between their lives and those depicted, appeal to children’s sense of the familiar, offer positive images of the developing world and allow children to explore local and global dimensions of justice issues.

**Research findings**

The research findings will contribute to an understanding of how young children engage with issues of global justice. Children in the study appeared to be able to identify people’s needs and on some occasions made direct links with poverty. Mama Panya’s dilemma of having just enough food for herself and Adika seemed to have been understood by at least some of the children. The children drew on their previous learning and experience to identify why food and water were important. The youngest children could use the words ‘hunger’ and ‘thirst’ in relation to themselves and others.

The study suggests that the children’s understanding of food and water as needs and their own familiarity with the concepts of hunger and thirst enabled them to engage with and recognise the central worry for Mama Panya, i.e. not having enough food for everyone. This concurs with the contention of Chafel, et al. (2007) that children are more actively engaged when they have the opportunity to incorporate their own personal experiences into discussions.
Although a connection between poverty and money was not always apparent in the children’s responses, there were indications in discussions on Mama Panya’s Pancakes and certain photographs that children in each setting could see the link between poverty and the lack of basic needs. It was notable that only in the senior infant setting did children use the language of poverty and wealth. Younger children appear to have a conceptual understanding of people not having enough but using terms such as ‘poor’ and ‘rich’ develops later. While this observation supports the findings of Ramsey (1990) that children have a limited understanding of the causes of poverty, it also suggests that theirs is an emergent understanding. Even the youngest children showed an emergent conceptualisation of poverty. Poverty was more consistently understood by all children as the denial, or lack of, basic needs such as food and water rather than of money.

Throughout the research settings there was expression of feelings and emotions, concern and empathy for those in need. In general, the capacity of the children to empathise was most evident in their ability to describe how those in the story and photographs might be thinking or feeling. The extent to which children recognised emotions depended on the context and the photograph used, but many were able to recognise that Mama Panya was worried and speculate how individuals in the photographs were feeling. This was grounded in the children’s personal experiences and based on familiar contexts rather than on a sense of global justice and fairness.

Using stories with familiar objects or routines helps children see links between their own lives and those of others in different places (Bates & Pickering, 2010). Consequently, children are better placed to investigate things that are different from their own experiences. Mama Panya’s Pancakes featured enough content which was appealing and relevant to the children’s own experiences. The research also identified a number of significant starting points to develop children’s thinking in relation to global justice including, children can: explore consequences if basic needs are not met; demonstrate altruistic tendencies; see another’s perspective; and identify possible solutions to problems. They are familiar with charity campaigns, the power of negative imagery and the need to address the commonly held association of all African people with poverty through exposure to varied depictions of the wider world.
A programme for early years

These findings argue for developing strategies for engaging young children in global justice issues and are providing the basis for the development of a programme by the Trócaire/SPD partnership. The programme will engage with students and lecturers in initial teacher education, pre-school educators and teachers in early years’ classrooms and those engaged in curriculum development. It will use some of the tools and methodologies employed successfully during the research process and will go towards addressing the issues raised by the research.

In addition, clusters of pre-schools and primary schools have been introduced to the research findings and are developing a classroom resource by applying skills, such as story-telling and puppetry, to develop methodologies to engage young children in exploring issues like those introduced in Mama Panya’s Pancakes such as the causes of food insecurity. The resource will also explore the consequences and possible strategies for addressing these issues and will be rolled out at pre-service and in-service level by building on the opportunity presented by Aistear (NCCA, 2009).

In keeping with the Partnership’s commitment to evidence-based research, the impact of the programme will be measured in conjunction with three education colleges. This will further contribute to the overall picture of how young children engage with issues of global justice.

Conclusion

The research indicates that young children are capable of engaging with global and justice issues provided the strategies are appropriate to their age and cognitive development. The research points to the opportunity which exists to engage children at an early age with issues which have been previously viewed as beyond their world and level of understanding. It also points to the opportunity to expand the prevailing emphasis on aspects related to culture when introducing young children to the wider world. However, it is more than an opportunity. As global citizens in their own right, children should be allowed to participate ‘on the basis of who they are, rather than who they will become’ (Moss, 2002, cited in Nicholas, 2001:119). Non-governmental organisations (NGOs) seeking to develop active citizens as agents for change in our global society have a unique opportunity to re-orient their focus of engagement to include younger children. It is envisaged that the research findings and
resultant education programme will be of interest to those engaged in
development education and in early years education whether in curriculum
development, delivering education programmes or providing continuing
professional development and support services for early years educators within
the primary and pre-school sectors.

The full report, How Young Children Engage with Issues of Global Justice
(SPD/Trócaire, 2010) is available on www.trócaire.org/primary.

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DIFFERENT DRUMS: DEVELOPMENT EDUCATION THROUGH INTERACTIVE MUSIC EXPERIENCES (A RESPONSE TO CHAIB AND DE LA TORRE)

Maurice Macartney

Introduction

“To the oppressor consciousness, the humanization of the ‘others’, of the people, appears not as the pursuit of full humanity, but as subversion” (Freire, 1996:41).

In ‘Music listening circles: Contributions from development education to democratising classical music’ (Chaib, 2010), Danilo Martins de Castro Chaib examined the way in which Freirean ‘culture circles’ can allow members of marginalised groups to engage critically with classical music, traditionally seen as a cultural interest of the elite.

This article complements Chaib’s analysis. For Chaib, music circles are democratising, emancipatory collaborative efforts undertaken by marginalised groups within, and in relation to a dominant culture. Nothing in his article suggests that Chaib would restrict such practices to this scenario. On the contrary, the thrust of his approach is to expand such efforts, carrying them beyond this context.

The issue of context is key here: the term ‘development education’, for better or worse, is predominantly a ‘Western’, or ‘developed country’ coinage. It is, arguably, in itself an example of the sort of ‘cultural capital’ that Chaib, after Bourdieu, Freire and others, attempts to open to democratic criticism. That is, ‘development education’ often takes place within the context of the dominant cultural group vis a vis the ‘developing’ world. Here, ‘we’ are the dominant group, ‘our’ culture is ascendant; the cultures of the developing world belong to the category of the marginalised and the subordinate.

Chaib’s approach concerns a critical encounter of the marginalised group within the Western canonical tradition, but how do we analyse the converse situation? What happens if we confront a group from the ‘centre’ with the culture of the ‘periphery’? Specifically, how do we analyse a situation in
which a group of students in a developed country encounters what could loosely - and problematically - be termed ‘world music’?

By good fortune, another article, published in the same issue as Chaib’s points to a project which is currently putting this to the test. Alexandra de la Torre’s ‘Global education and music’ (de la Torre, 2010) examines the work of Beyond Skin (with whom, to declare an interest, I am involved), a Belfast-based organisation dedicated to challenging racism, sectarianism and other forms of prejudice through music and arts. De la Torre describes, in particular, Beyond Skin’s Exploring Global Issues through Music project, whereby musicians from the global South living in Northern Ireland join local musicians and educators in delivering development education in schools.

The impact of these encounters is multi-dimensional, ranging from the physical presence of people from different ethnic and cultural backgrounds, to the use of unfamiliar languages, names and, of course, music. De la Torre points out that music is a ‘universal language, and is easy to understand and share with others irrespective of their culture’, adding that it is ‘non-threatening’ (de la Torre, 2010).

This is true, yet it is worth recalling Chaib’s argument here: ‘music education rooted in development education, specifically Paulo Freire’s work, can become a site for resistance’ (Chaib, 2010). Or, in the words of Daniel Barenboim (citing his friend Edward Said), ‘music is a little bit subversive’ (Barenboim, 2006). Music is, as de la Torre says, non-threatening; yet it is capable of providing a ‘site for resistance’, delivering a powerful impact, so much so as to be thought ‘subversive’ (even if only a little bit) (de la Torre, 2010). The value of so-called ‘world music’ for development education is that, deployed with sufficient care, it can exhibit both these characteristics at once.

The politics of music

Chaib’s emphasis in his article was on what could be called the politics of ‘classical music’, a term generally used to refer to the broad tradition of formal European and European-derived music, as distinct from folk and popular traditions, and music originating from other cultures. This distinction, it should be said, has been increasingly difficult to maintain, certainly since the early twentieth century, as some composers of ‘classical’ music began to borrow more and more from jazz, blues, and other forms of popular music, and musicians in the jazz tradition became more and more ambitious in terms of
their compositions. The tension and interplay between jazz and the classical tradition has been the occasion for a certain amount of thought that could shed light on our concerns.

Some critics, such as Theodor Adorno, regarded jazz as too commercial to be politically progressive, a product of the ‘culture industry’ that promoted conformity (Adorno & Horkheimer, 1997:127). For him, Schoenberg’s twelve tone system was the most progressive form of music, as the dissonances it generated were an expression of the truth of human suffering in an oppressive society, the dominant totality. Needless to say, Adorno’s views are not universally held, even among leftist intellectuals. Eric Hobsbawm, for instance, says that ‘Adorno wrote some of the most stupid pages ever written about jazz’ (Hobsbawm, 1998:339). It would certainly be difficult to maintain that the experimental jazz of the 1960s, which, along with soul music, formed something of a soundtrack to the United States’ (US) civil rights’ movement, was in any way ‘conformist’.

But even before that, indeed from the beginning, jazz and the politics of liberation were intertwined. Jazz, like the blues, emerged at around the turn of the 20th century in the US, specifically from the black community of the post-Civil War era. It seems to have formed out of a number of sources including slave songs, black country dance and banjo music, urban ragtime tunes, minstrel songs, and spirituals. In addition to this distinctly African American lineage there was, it should be pointed out, a certain European influence brought in through the French presence in New Orleans (Szwed, 2000; Stacy & Henderson, 1999).

Though it is sometimes said that jazz is the one truly American musical form, it has always been a mixture – rather like America itself. It has, moreover, always been an affirmative music in its most essential gestures. And one could argue that a similar process of affirmation (what could be more iconoclastically affirmative than, say, African hi-life music?) and fusion is unfolding with regard to ‘world music’: for some years ‘Western’ music has been increasingly exposed to a new admixture of styles previously seen as marginal, while musicians from across the globe incorporate elements of American popular music such as rap.

‘World’ music

The term ‘world music’ is, in many ways, quite unsatisfactory. Taken literally, it should refer to any music made in the world – but then why not simply say
‘music'? On the other hand, as soon as one tries to narrow it down, it becomes difficult to know where to draw the line. In any case, here it refers to music originating outside the American and European mainstream, and which is experienced, by listeners used to the standard diet of music in our media, as ‘different’, as ‘other’.

What happens if we fold this back into Chaib’s analysis? Classical music may function as cultural capital within certain societies, but on a broader scale pop, rock, R and B, and hip-hop dominate the scene, particularly amongst the young. Our critique of the culturally dominant position of classical music must be extended: the hegemonic role of (to draw everything under one heading) US pop is such that it is taken as, virtually, the ‘natural’ order of things, the cultural standard by which everything else is measured. The ideological potential of such a standard is clear.

What we are calling ‘world music’ is, on the other hand, a potentially potent ‘outsider’ music, following its own trajectories rather than conforming to the pattern dictated by commercial fashion. This is not to say that these pressures are always resisted; nor is this the only danger. There is also the danger of domestication; the ‘outsider’ music is reduced to a stereotype, closed off in its own specialist bracket, seen as ‘worthy but dull’. At its worst this can tend towards a sort of minstrelsy, with music and musicians being paraded as though at a theme party.

But such attitudes are hard to maintain when confronted by, and invited to join in, the force of creative music-making in a different ‘language’. Such an ‘interactive musical experience’, to use Beyond Skin’s term, combines the empowering and challenging elements of Chaib’s musical circles and de la Torre’s collaborative, non-threatening approach.

Why the priority given to the ‘non-threatening’? Because in a general culture in which the ‘other’ is constructed as a threat, nothing could be more subversive than a non-threatening, let us say nonviolent, intervention. The scene is already set for violence the moment one construes the other as threatening: one thereby gives oneself permission to ‘defend’ one’s community (that is, attack the other in advance). Such relations are viewed through a friend-enemy binary reduction, and the other-as-enemy is seen as an existential threat. It is therefore, so the logic goes, ‘them or us’, and the scene is set for a zero-sum fight to the finish.
In the sort of situation described, on the other hand, in de la Torre’s article, where a school group encounters and joins in with a group of musicians, this logic is subverted. Here, musicians from other cultures have brought fresh rhythms and harmonies - crucially, not typical of, or perhaps even available through the Western cultural mainstream - and have shared them with the school group. ‘Shared’ in a fairly precise and rather rich sense: drums are handed round, you get your hands on them; someone sets up a beat; you and, say, a percussionist from Zimbabwe must listen to, and respond to each other, or the beat falls apart. This is not passive listening, nor is it simply active drumming; it is rather a collaboration, a co-responding, where, though one partner may have set the initial pace and structure of the rhythm, the group together guides the pace and introduces variation as the music develops. Something similar happens in singing or in playing a melodic instrument. Each must listen to the other; each must adjust to the pitch of the other, if the harmony is to work. None of this can be pre-planned, all of it unfolds in real time, and, once the process is underway, it can no longer be controlled by any single individual. This musical democracy of the ensemble is such that the ‘leaders’ are part of the group.

Conclusion

Harmonically and rhythmically, music is essentially relational, constructed out of differences, but producing a relational whole. The interactive musical experience has the potential to be almost a paradigm case of powerful, but nonviolent intervention, a practical deconstruction of oppositions between periphery and centre, marginalised and hegemonic.

The collaborative, shared act of music-making provides a face-to-face encounter with the other. It would be possible to analyse this situation theoretically, drawing upon thinkers of the ‘ethics of the other’ such as Levinas, and even Derrida (Derrida, 1978). However, this would run the risk of missing the power and even simplicity of what we are talking about. Music provides the possibility of a richly human, perhaps joyous encounter, subverting preconceptions, prejudices, and stereotypes about the developing world.

It is not by accident that some of the terms used in connection with music (beat, pulse) are those used to describe the functioning of the most intimate and vital components of our body, our very vital signs. Music has a connection with the rhythms of our own bodies. It is so intimate as to be
carried on under our breath, on the edge of the unconscious. Nothing could be more interior - yet nothing could be more public.

And when one has played and sung together with someone else, in their language, then discovering more about them, finding out about the country from which they have come, becomes more than just another ‘lesson’; it arrives as a natural extension of a relationship already established.

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INDIGO: AN INTERNATIONAL DOCTORATE FOR HEALTH SYSTEMS RESEARCH


Introduction

This article looks at the International Doctorate in Global Health (Indigo), an innovative programme launched in 2009 and coordinated by the Centre for Global Health at Trinity College, Dublin, with partners from Africa, Europe and North America. Indigo aims to produce doctoral-level graduates who have the ability to address global health problems using a systems framework, utilising interdisciplinary research to provide an evidence base that indicates practice and policy-relevant action to improve the effectiveness of public health services, particularly in Africa. By developing the interface between biological science, social sciences and public health, the programme seeks to create more effective and efficient platforms for service delivery, in the context of a region challenged by HIV/AIDS and a range of many other serious health problems.

The programme's distinctive contribution is to strengthen genuine interdisciplinary capacity, rather than to pursue solutions along multiple, albeit sometimes interlocking, disciplinary pathways. While the approach is global, the main focus is currently on sub-Saharan Africa. By working collaboratively with universities in Africa, Indigo seeks to enable them to become regional centres of excellence in interdisciplinary health research, producing research leaders who will develop the evidence base for health systems capable of developing and implementing effective treatment strategies and technologies.

Background

The Indigo programme emerges from ongoing debates around aid effectiveness, academic collaboration between European universities and institutions in low- and middle-income countries and, more specifically, the widely recognised need for health system research strengthening in Africa. Irish health and social science research has played an increasing role within the European research area (MacLachlan & Caball, 2004) and with the Indigo programme it is now poised to assume a greater role in global health research. The Indigo programme
builds on recognised best practice in Ireland and contributes to realising the 2000 Lisbon Strategy’s call for a doubling in the number of PhD graduates, an aspiration endorsed by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development’s (OECD) 2006 review of the third level sector in Ireland.

The Irish Universities Quality Board’s *National Guidelines on Good Practice in the Organisation of PhD Programmes in Irish Universities* (2005) makes a range of recommendations that have shaped the programme. Amongst its most salient recommendations for PhD projects is that students will benefit from experience and training in institutions other than their primary institution. Kirwin (2008) has reviewed doctoral programmes, recommending that the maximum valued added will be gained by programmes that are interdisciplinary, inter-institutional and international.

The endorsement of interdisciplinarity and mobility in Ireland is echoed elsewhere. The European Commission’s Charter for Researchers notes that ‘all forms of mobility should be encouraged’ (Statement 11) and that ‘the value of mobility needs to be fully recognised in career appraisal and career development’ (Statement 12) (European Commission, 2005). A European ministerial meeting in Bergen (2005), part of the Bologna Process, concluded: ‘We urge universities to ensure that their doctoral programmes promote interdisciplinary training’ (p. 6). Citing this call, the European University Association goes on to stress the importance of developing transferable skills through doctoral training, and of ‘bringing together doctoral candidates from different disciplines and different levels to encourage interdisciplinary dialogue and foster creative thinking and innovation’ (p. 12). Similarly, the Salzburg Principles provide a consensus statement, adopted by European ministers regarding the future of doctoral education in Europe. Principle 8: ‘Increasing Mobility’, states that ‘doctoral programmes should seek to offer geographical as well as interdisciplinary and intersectoral mobility and international collaboration within an integrated framework of cooperation between universities and other partners’. A recent workshop in Wageningen in 2008 similarly stressed the importance of interdisciplinary PhD research and training involving European and sub-Sahara Africa (ICRA, 2009). Chambaz (2008), Chair of the European University Association’s newly constituted Committee for Doctoral Education, has, however, noted that sometimes there is resistance to such programmes, with a ‘long tradition of academic conservatism hiding behind claims of excellence’.
These aspirations for more and better doctoral training in Europe interface with current thinking on international aid and development. The Bamako Call for Action on Research for Health (2008), endorsed by ministers of health, education and science and technology, from 60 countries, stresses the need for inter-disciplinarity, inter-sectoral, and inter-ministerial collaboration. In short, the call seeks to scale up the ambition, and deal with the complexity, of research that can connect with the realities and intricacies of a systems-based approach to health promotion and protection.

The Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness (2005) stresses the importance of low-income country ownership of development initiatives; the need for wealthy countries to align their aid efforts with the goals of low income countries, and the need for high income countries to harmonise their aid efforts. All of these elements regarding aid effectiveness apply to attempts to strengthen health research systems in low and middle income countries (COHRED, 2007) and all are incorporated in the Indigo programme. Some of the key features of the Indigo programme are aligned with the best practices noted above. These include the promotion of contextually relevant research and the provision of teaching modules by a variety of internationally renowned universities.

Programme details

The design of the Indigo programme has emerged through discussions among partners since 2005 and continues to evolve in the light of early practice and experience. The main elements of the Indigo programme, including its structure, management, taught components, research and capacity building activities are described below.

The programme partners Trinity College Dublin, the Mailman School of Public Health at Columbia University, Harvard Medical School and the United Kingdom (UK) Cochrane Centre in Oxford with four universities in sub-Saharan Africa: Addis Ababa (Ethiopia), Ibadan (Nigeria), Makerere (Uganda) and College of Medicine (Malawi). The programme also works collaboratively with South Africa’s Human Sciences Research Council’s (HSRC) Social Aspects of HIV/AIDS & Health (SAHA) group and the Council on Health Research for Development (COHRED), based in Geneva.

Initial discussion about the Indigo programme took place between the international partners and with potential funders, and focused on the
recruitment of African students based in partner institutions in Africa, especially junior academic staff. Over time, however, this emphasis has shifted to include the direct recruitment of students who do not come on to the programme through a partner institution in Africa but aspire to spending part of their study period at an African university. What follows here relates largely to the first category, albeit with some reference to the latter.

**Establishment of the programme**
Between 2005 and 2008, the partners in the Indigo School undertook an intensive period of consultation, which included meetings of representatives of the partner institutions in Dublin in September 2006 and in Kampala in February 2008. Detailed planning was undertaken for the establishment of a joint degree programme with a strong capacity-building element. A funding proposal was developed and submitted under the Programme of Strategic Cooperation between Irish Aid and Higher Education and Research Institutes (2007-2011). This proposal, part of a wider Trinity programme of Doctoral Training for Development in Africa, was awarded funding for a three year period, beginning in October 2008. This is sufficient to fund two intakes of three African doctoral students (each funded over a four year period), the employment (from February 2009) of a programme coordinator and half-time administrator, and certain ancillary activities. This funding ensured the participation of a core of African students but also provided a platform for the recruitment of additional, independently-funded, students.

The target group of students entering the Indigo programme includes suitably qualified health professionals and emerging researchers from either the biomedical or social health sciences, wishing to conduct research that contributes directly to addressing Africa’s pressing health challenges. Within this group, particular emphasis is placed on junior staff within African universities who have not yet had the opportunity to study at doctoral level but are in a position to make a direct contribution to health research and training within their home institutions.

Indigo admitted its first students in September 2009 – three African bursary holders and one self-funded student – two of whom registered as doctoral students in Trinity College Dublin’s School of Medicine and two in the School of Psychology. Six to eight additional students are expected to register in September 2010.
Indigo is managed through a nested structure involving all partner institutions. Overall responsibility for the programme rests with the International Doctoral School in Global Health, comprising representatives of every partner institution, which meets in person once a year and communicates electronically as required between meetings. Each university at which students can register for the programme has a local Indigo Steering Committee which coordinates activities within their respective institutions. Day-to-day coordination of the programme is in the hands of a three-person team based at the Centre for Global Health at Trinity College, comprising the Programme Director, Programme Coordinator and Programme Administrator. A part-time administrator has recently been appointed at the Human Sciences Research Council in South Africa, part of a strategy to transfer all programme management and administration functions to the African continent over the next three years.

While the aim of Indigo is to establish a full joint degree among all the partner universities, this has yet to be approved by the respective institutions. As an interim measure, students register as PhD students at Trinity College in the conventional manner. During periods when students are physically based in African universities, they register as ‘Occasional Students’, which entitles them to academic supervision and use of university facilities such as library and internet. Once a Memorandum of Understanding (MOU) has been approved by all the partner universities, students will register during their first and fourth years at Trinity College Dublin and for their second and third years at an African partner university. Minimum requirements to be met in each participating university will be set out in the MOU. Examination and defence of doctoral theses can take place in any of the participating universities, but it is expected that this will occur in the African university where the student has spent most time (i.e. the student’s ‘home’ university). Graduates will be awarded a single PhD degree bearing the crests of at least two participating universities.

For the African university partners, a joint degree of this kind ensures that partnership with leading Northern institutions does not undermine their status in the eyes of potential students, but rather contributes to enhancing the international reputation of the African partner universities through a strong association with internationally-renowned universities. Northern partners also recognise the multiple benefits of a close relationship with leading African academics and institutions, and with emerging scholars with a commitment to building a career in Africa. It is also expected that African universities will
benefit from their association with strong Northern universities, by helping them attract well-qualified candidates who might otherwise seek opportunities abroad but, under this programme, can contribute to the long-term future of the African institutions. A specific objective of Indigo, therefore, is to contribute to an environment that is conducive to retention of staff within African universities and thereby counter the ‘brain drain’ of talent to high-income countries.

International mobility, joint activities and mutual capacity building are at the heart of the Indigo programme. To this end, an ambitious programme of structured training, research under joint supervision and various support activities has been put in place, as outlined below.

**Structured training**
In a break with traditional research-based PhD training, the first year of the Indigo programme consists of a structured programme of taught courses and a research internship. It is designed to develop core competencies in applying health and social science perspectives to understanding diseases of poverty and strengthening health systems in low and middle income countries. The breadth of expertise offered across training sites is intended to not only provide and debate different perspectives, but also to cultivate an ethos of producing leading edge research.

In their first semester, students are based at Trinity College Dublin where they take up to three taught modules, either drawn from the Masters in Global Health or from their choice of relevant modules elsewhere in the university, the only limitation being timetabling. Students are assessed in the same way as other students on their chosen courses (usually a mix of continuous assessment and written assignment) and, while the marks obtained do not count directly to the award of a PhD, they do appear on the student’s academic record. In this sense, Indigo does not meet the definition of a ‘structured’ doctoral programme, but further movement in this direction may be considered in the future.

In the second semester of the first year, students travel to Columbia University in New York, where they take selected graduate courses at the Mailman School of Public Health. Students chose from a broad range of modules (ranging from classes in ethnography to those in geographic information systems (GIS) and water quality), this choice also being informed by the advice of their supervisors and Columbia-based mentors in order to ensure the optimal selection of modules with regard to their likely future research
needs. One compulsory class ensures that the cohort continues to have a shared experience of learning together. Again, students participate in all aspects of their chosen courses, including assessment. Columbia also offers the students a wide range of experiences in terms of seminars and public lectures, as well as the opportunity to engage with leading scholars in the field of global health working not only on Africa but also on Asia, the Caribbean and Latin America. Coursework at both Columbia and Trinity also provides students with the opportunity to engage with their fellow Indigo students and with a diverse group of students from around the world, thereby helping to overcome some of the isolation typically associated with doctoral study and building social and professional networks that will, hopefully, endure into the future.

Following completion of their study period at Columbia, students return to Trinity for a month, during which there is a particular emphasis on providing training in health-related research methodologies, and on proving individualised tuition to help them develop research skills. This includes a specially tailored module on systematic reviews in health care which draws on experience from the University of Oxford’s MSc in Evidence Based Health Care, and a week of intensive Case Studies in Global Health Delivery delivered by staff of Harvard School of Medicine, based on the Harvard Business School style of case study and problem focused learning. These intensive courses are opened up to all Indigo supervisors and international partners and to Irish-based researchers, including PhD students, thereby creating a rich learning environment for the Indigo students while spreading the benefits of the international alliance to a wider audience. This also gives effect to the principle of the school being a shared experience, regardless of geographical location.

The final phase of learning in the first year is a two-month internship at the Human Science Research Council in Pretoria, South Africa. Here students are exposed to the daily challenges of conducting large scale, and often multi-country, health-related research projects. Students also attend modules on communication and ethics, in order to prepare them for their role as research practitioners. While at the HSRC students undertake a reflexive practice assignment which encourages them to critically review their approach to research work and their engagement with other people. Together, these structured elements expose students to a wide range of research environments and international networks, and prepare them for the individual research projects that will lead to their doctoral dissertation.
**Research and supervision**

Despite the taught components outlined above, high quality research projects remain central to the Indigo programme. Indigo is particularly committed to research that contributes to strengthening health systems in Africa and, in practice, this is being interpreted broadly so as to accommodate a wide range of potential research topics.

Prospective students are required to submit detailed research proposals as part of their formal application to Indigo and develop these further during the first year. Choice of research topic lies largely with the individual student and their lead supervisor (usually Africa-based). The proposal may be worked up jointly between the student and at least one of their supervisors, based on mutual interests, and students are strongly encouraged to conduct research on topics of immediate relevance to their home country. Where students apply directly to the programme for admission - as opposed to coming through a partner institution - the lack of a suitable supervisor in the chosen area is already emerging as a limiting factor, leading to some qualified candidates not being accepted on the programme.

Topics selected by students in the first year of the programme (2009-2010) covered a broad spectrum of issues in global health: reform of health insurance in Ethiopia, research governance in Malawi, the impact of water and sanitation on people living with HIV/AIDS in Uganda, and human resources for health in Ethiopia. For 2010-2011, proposed areas of research include health informatics, leadership in senior health service managers in Uganda, international migration of doctors from Africa, and health care delivery in urban Nigeria.

While in Dublin during their first year, students attend weekly research seminars where they present a number of drafts of their proposal and have the opportunity to discuss research design and methodology with fellow students and with academic staff from the Centre for Global Health. Similarly, while at Columbia and the HSRC, students are required to continue developing their research plans and to make at least one formal presentation of their proposal to relevant forums at the respective institutions. From the beginning of the second year, students are expected to focus almost exclusively on their individual research projects, but attendance at research seminars and conferences, as well as occasional teaching duties in their African university base, also contributes to the ongoing PhD experience.
Supervision of research students is, in theory, based on an international supervisory panel, drawn from across the Indigo network. In some cases, however, this is turning out to be more of a ‘2 plus 2’ model, with the first two joint supervisors being at the students’ ‘home’ university (typically in Africa) and at Trinity College Dublin, respectively. This pairing of joint supervisors, which is established at the point of admission to the programme, provides intensive support throughout the first year and remains central to the research project up to the point of thesis submission. The third and fourth co-supervisors (if applicable) are appointed at the end of the first year or early in the second year, and are expected to play a more limited role – possibly of short duration – such as the provision of specific technical support in the area of research design, data analysis or skills training. During their first year, students are encouraged to identify potential co-supervisors from any of the institutions they attend or from elsewhere in the Indigo network.

**Capacity building**

An explicit claim of the Indigo programme is that it is not just training a new cadre of global health researchers but that it is engaged in a collaborative effort that, over time, will build capacity for researcher training in Africa. This is approached from a number of directions, shaped at all times by the expressed wishes of the African partner and based on the principle of parity of esteem in all aspects of the design and management of the programme.

From an early stage it was established that the priority for African academic partners was to provide access for their students to the resources offered by well-resourced universities (e.g. in the global North) without undermining universities in the global South. This is achieved in four main ways: maximising exposure of students to leading universities and academics outside of Africa, especially in the early stages of the programme, while retaining the bulk of study time in Africa; full involvement of African supervisors in all aspects of the programme, especially joint supervision, to be strengthened by regular contact between supervisors and student via tele-conference, video-conference and, where possible, face-to-face contact; selection of research topics of direct relevance to home country needs, with fieldwork to be carried out locally; and specific activities aimed at the professional development of supervisors.

The latter has included the intensive training courses in global health case studies and systematic reviews mentioned above and ongoing collaboration around joint proposals for research funding, joint publications and
international events. Starting in 2011, students will participate in Research Development Symposia for Strengthening Health Systems, where they will share their learning experience with each other and other cohorts in the Indigo programme, present their work and receive feedback from supervisors and peers, receive intensive supervisory input and participate in workshops focused on their stage of research. This annual event will serve to maintain the identity of the Indigo School and bolster the support and camaraderie which will sustain research friendships and collaborations into the future. Every three years, starting in 2012, the Indigo School will also host a high profile conference which will incorporate the functions of the symposia, but go beyond it in terms of inviting high profile speakers and using the international networks of Trinity, Oxford, Columbia, Harvard and COHRED to influence significant multilateral institutions to attend, such as the World Health Organisation (WHO), World Bank, Global Development Network, and Global Forum for Health Research. It is anticipated that these events will constitute an important platform for highlighting future research targets and developing strategies to fund them.

**Quality assurance**

There is little comparative evidence available on building or strengthening research institutions and systems, especially in Africa. The Indigo doctoral school will provide a mechanism to do this, but not necessarily in the same way in each of the African countries. The Council on Health Research for Development (COHRED) has specific expertise in building and strengthening research institutions and systems in low and middle-income countries. COHRED is a partner in Indigo and has the specific remit to undertake a comparative analysis of how Indigo is contributing to strengthening in each of the four African-university partner countries, as well as how the HSRC in South Africa, and three northern partner universities, are contributing to this process. The intention is for COHRED to provide an ongoing monitoring and evaluation function for the project, but to also actively suggest changes in project management as the project develops. COHRED’s comparative analysis will be fed into the project on an ongoing basis and constitute a vital ‘action research’ component, as well as providing a biannual comparative report on progress. An important aspect of this report will be consideration of the extent to which Indigo promotes research utilization. COHRED will also undertake four country case studies that will capture the experience in the first four years and provide analysis for further development of this and similar programmes.

This important monitoring and evaluation function has not as yet been funded as part of the initial funding start-up support. Given the
complexity of the institutional arrangements within Indigo and the inevitable multiple and interacting institutional agendas it would seem to be essential that there is some ‘outside’ agency that is encouraging reflexivity among the partners, tracking progress in research capacity building and anticipating some of the challenging issues around dominance, organisational justice and individual and group identities that are sometimes problematic in conventional aid projects (MacLachlan, Carr & McAuliffe, 2010).

Perhaps a successful outcome for the Indigo school would be where its own graduates from partner universities in the global South can out-perform and out-compete graduates from its partner universities in the global North. To what extent are universities in the North committed to this sort of success? To what extent may Northern partners be tempted to use the Indigo platform to simply position themselves better for Southern focused research funding and networking? Appropriate monitoring and evaluation of Indigo’s activities could help to address these sorts of questions in a constructive and transparent manner. While the consortium’s intention to move the secretariat for Indigo from Trinity to one of the African universities in the first instance, and to then fan out so that similar secretariats can be established in the other partner universities, is promising, again the actual value and contribution of this in practice needs to be monitored and evaluated.

Conclusion

The Indigo programme represents a significant and ambitious departure in international training and capacity building for global health in the context of academic collaboration between the global North and the global South. Early experience confirms the expected demand and enthusiasm for a programme of this sort but also highlights the many challenges associated with it.

Among the strengths that can be identified are the high level of ‘buy-in’ to the programme evident in all the participating institutions - and the desire to accelerate its development - and the high quality of students coming on to the programme. Key challenges that have emerged to date include: identification of available supervisors in areas directly related to student and African supervisor-selected topics across multiple institutions; establishment of good communication and effective working relationships between supervisors in different parts of the world; identification of appropriate doctoral level courses that address specific needs of individual students; and the difficulty for students
of retaining focus on individual research proposals during a sometimes hectic first year spread across three continents.

A central objective for the next three years is the transfer of programme management to Africa, once the core elements (especially the joint degree and funding) are in place. While this will not necessarily change the fundamental model that guides the Indigo programme, it can be expected to open up a new and exciting phase of research and capacity building for health in Africa, led by a network of African institutions in a strategic alliance with northern partners. A new and overarching theme which we are now concerned with is the development of an ethics of research governance in global health, and in particular the governance of North-South relationships with their asymmetries in funding, status and influence. This latter concern has led us to identify the theme of ‘Global Health Governance – The view from the South’, as one of our areas for future development within the Indigo School.

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NEGOTIATING BELONGING: DISCOURSE ON CULTURE AND LANGUAGE FOR MIGRANTS FROM THE GLOBAL SOUTH

Philip McDermott & Elly Odhiambo

Introduction

This article is based on a research report *Voices from the Global South*, which was compiled by the authors on behalf of the Centre for Global Education (CGE). The research involved the collection of twelve biographical narratives from individuals who have come to live in Northern Ireland from the global South. The interviewees represented three research target groups: first generation migrants; second generation migrants; and refugees/asylum seekers. These stories have helped to identify key issues in relation to the life experiences of the individuals who participated in the research. The interviewees were born in countries as diverse as China, El Salvador, India, Iraq, Kenya, Malaysia, Sudan and Zimbabwe; four individuals were also born in the United Kingdom (UK), but maintained family connections in other countries. Two individuals were of Indian heritage, one with connections to the Cape Verde islands and one with Guyana. Despite the small sample size, the narratives gathered were useful in identifying initial patterns in relation to the life experiences of first and second generation migrants living in the global North.

In this article, we focus on the interrelated issues of language and culture which participants noted as major factors affecting their sense of belonging in Northern Ireland. This was not only an issue at the individual level, but was also a major factor in shaping the nature of the relationship between migrants and their host communities as well as shaping the nature of relations within migrant groups/communities themselves. Language and culture have increasingly been viewed as major elements in these processes and have come to be identified by a number of previous studies (Holder, 2003; Bell, et al., 2004; NicCraith, et al., 2008; Odhiambo, 2008; McDermott, 2008;). The question of culture and minority languages has also been noted as a major element of the Northern Ireland peace process with both the Belfast (Good Friday) Agreement (1998) and the Shared Future policy strategy (Office of the First Minister and Deputy First Minister, 2005) placing great emphasis on these areas as a means to promoting respect for diversity and widened participation.

Language
For first generation migrants, asylum seekers and refugees, language barriers have often impinged on the capacity of individuals to access services, gain employment and communicate with the host communities. One first generation Chinese participant noted that language was a unifying factor within the Chinese community but the lack of English language knowledge restricted communication with the wider community. Speaking through an interpreter she said:

“When I came over at the beginning there were a lot of Chinese people together and we all spoke the same language. Sometimes local people wanted to speak to us, but we could only speak a little English....It was sometimes embarrassing and then other times you felt that you were wasting another person’s time because you couldn’t speak the language” (Rose, 2009).

This was also noted by Norjehan a first generation migrant from Malaysia:

“Some here cannot master the language, even after staying here for a long time. Malaysians here don’t mix much with the local communities...Malaysians love one another too much, they are like family. It is good and it is also bad” (Norjehan, 2009).

Even for those with a high standard of English, Northern Ireland accents have sometimes caused communication difficulties for migrants and to some extent, settled ethnic minorities. One Indian student living in Northern Ireland stated:

“When I started in the pizza place over here I used to be on the phone all of the time, but it was very difficult for me with the accent and it wasn’t my English at all, it was the accent, it was just so strong” (Shaez, 2009).

However, problems for more recently arrived groups with no English skills go much deeper than difficulties with local dialects. Some participants noted a need for services such as translation and interpretation, which are not always available. An Iraqi participant noted that the problems were not limited to spoken English, with a written command of the language also important due to the high level of bureaucracy in relation to public services and job seeking. He commented:
“Language would be the main problem. We speak Arabic in Iraq but we do have access to the translators here in Northern Ireland. Most Iraqis would need help filling out application forms” (Amin, 2009).

Another refugee noted that his English language ability had caused him difficulty in finding a job but that he was attempting to improve his chances by studying English at a local college. He stated:

“I have great limitations to working in the UK as my English is poor. However, I am studying English in Belfast Metropolitan College. Maybe soon my situation will change and maybe I can get a teaching job here, like teaching Arabic which is what I was doing before in Sudan. My employer has been very good and patient with me especially considering the fact I do not speak English very well” (Ibrahim, 2009).

This shows that English language acquisition is a voluntary and personal pursuit but with barriers such as irregular work patterns, this is not always well facilitated. If this issue is not addressed, immigrants will continue to face associated difficulties, including: access to proper healthcare, education, and unequal competition in the job markets. This particular situation could be addressed with greater appreciation of multilingualism at policy level. Northern Ireland and the UK are not monolingual societies, therefore the state should emphasise the positive aspects of a multilingual presence in our society whilst also addressing issues of acute language barriers facing immigrants or the host community. This can enrich local society and culture and potentially strengthen the economy.

For second generation participants, the issues around language were related more towards issues of connection or loss with aspects of their heritage. A number of participants commented on how second generations often did not know the language of their parents or grandparents, which in some cases caused communication problems with relatives or symbolised elements of cultural loss. A young second generation Indian woman explained that she had become very aware of this issue but that she found it difficult to learn a language that she had not been brought up speaking:

“Well I don’t speak Hindi at all...My Mum always says to my dad ‘you should have taught them Hindi when they were younger’. I think though that Hindi is a very hard language to learn. It probably now
would be even harder for because I have such a broad Strabane accent as well!” (Kamini, 2009)

Another second generation participant, whose father had come to live in the UK from Cape Verde, explained that her lack of Portuguese language skills had meant that she had little direct contact with family still living in Cape Verde:

“We have a kind of secondary contact with them through him because there are a million language barriers.... For me though the contact that I have with my father’s family is only secondary because of that language barrier, which is a real shame” (Abby, 2009).

Abby has attempted to learn Portuguese, which she sees as a very important way of improving her ability to communicate with her father’s family, as well as reconnecting with an important aspect of her own heritage. Her desire was also driven by Northern Ireland’s increasingly multilingual and multicultural environment:

“I have actually met a couple of people here in Northern Ireland from Cape Verde. I was shocked to bits when I first met them...It did spark something and made me realise the importance of starting to research that part of my own history, because I would like to get to know some of these people more” (Abby, 2009).

**Culture**

The celebration of cultural events, whether in private or public, was commonplace among many of the interviewees and similarly important in creating relationships both within communities and with the wider society. One participant noted that the simple freedom to express one’s culture and way of life openly is a very positive aspect of life in Northern Ireland:

“The culture is different here; I dress the way I like, the food we eat here, the freedom the government affords me as a resident. Also, religion here is much of a personal choice than everybody’s way of life” (Amin, 2009).
For some migrant groups various organisations were set up which have been vital in creating a sense of community built around a shared culture. For instance, Ibrahim commented:

“We do have an organisation of the Sudanese in Northern Ireland, we meet, talk, organise events and celebrate our national days, like independence days together. We are a strong community here” (Ibrahim, 2009).

Other participants noted the role that community groups have played in helping them to celebrate their culture through festivals and events. These events were viewed as hugely important by a number of participants as they offered a space where members of migrant communities and the host community could come together and share their stories and their culture. One participant said:

“As people hear personal stories they become less and less alien to people. I think that we tend to imagine if somebody comes from a completely different culture we think that there is a huge gulf and you wouldn’t be able to understand each other, but if you get a chance to listen to personal stories you see them more as a human being” (Abby, 2009).

Another woman noted that many festivals and events are attempting to develop a similar intercultural approach:

“In Belfast we have a lot of Latin American events that we try to do things and keep in touch with them. We are also really trying to branch out and get more of the community involved so that it’s not just us. We are also planning a festival that everyone will be welcome to” (Rhina, 2009).

However, others who have been settled in Northern Ireland for a longer period of time can be caught ‘between’ cultures. Questions around language, religion, cultural traditions and values become issues of contestation and negotiation, particularly for members of the second generation and beyond. As one man of Indian heritage noted:

“I personally have a mixture of Indian culture and Western heritage in our household. The only thing I regret very much now is the little or no exposure in detail to my Indian culture. For example when I go to
England and meet my friends of cultural identity as Indians, I find that they know more culture-wise, so they talk about Indian films and music and so on” (Sharjesh, 2009).

This exposure to multiple cultural backgrounds was viewed by some as a generally positive influence on life, particularly when none of these cultures was given prominence in the family environment. One man whose parents came to Northern Ireland from Guyana in the 1960s stated:

“Well...I feel that I relate more to the Northern Irish culture. I look different to your typical person from here because of the colour of my skin and stuff, but I have a Northern Irish mentality. I have to say my mother and father didn’t push religion down our throats, they didn’t mentally manipulate us into following a particular religion or a particular fashion or way of living. They gave us choice and I am very grateful for that because it opens your minds to others” (Peter, 2009).

Many first and second generation migrants commented that they also shared aspects of their heritage and culture with local friends who are often very curious as to their cultural backgrounds. One woman said that she was frequently asked about her background:

“I try always to promote culture and awareness. I like it when people ask me about El Salvador, that it is not just a dot on the map” (Rhina, 2009).

Another participant of Indian heritage commented that she also tries to inform her inquisitive friends on aspects of her culture:

“They would ask me about the languages spoken there and stuff like that. They would ask me can you speak those languages. They definitely do take interest because they know that I am from a different culture” (Kamini, 2009).

Conclusion

The case studies discussed in this article were part of a qualitative study involving a small sample size of interviewees. Clearly, the issues discussed above in regard to culture and language identified through our study can not necessarily be applied to the migrant sector as a whole. Nonetheless, the study
has pointed to issues worthy of further investigation involving a larger sample group that could certainly probe these issues more fully. However, the research has shown that language and culture have been identified as important elements to those who have come to live in Northern Ireland both in shaping interaction within their communities as well as their wider relations with the host community.

Research studies on multiculturalism often focus primarily on immigration policies and procedures. While these are undoubtedly important, they can often detract from or overlook the many realities confronting incoming communities in their daily lives. As the participants to this study have attested, negotiating senses of identity and belonging are important to many migrants and should be addressed more fully in future research studies of this nature.

Note: This article is based on a research study commissioned by the Centre for Global Education. To access the research report, please e-mail info@centreforglobaleducation.com or visit the Centre’s web site: http://www.centreforglobaleducation.com

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GLOBALISING HIGHER EDUCATION: CHALLENGES AND CONTRADICTIONS

Niamh Gaynor

Introduction

Higher education institutions in Ireland, as elsewhere, are facing severe challenges on a number of fronts. On the one hand, increasing enrolment figures coupled with dwindling state support are leaving higher education institutions facing severe financial challenges; on the other, the very idea and fundamental role of higher education is being challenged through the shifting nature of knowledge(s) and the changing needs of an increasingly complex global society.

Within this context, a considerable debate has grown on the impact of globalisation on higher education. One aspect of this debate, played out most recently in the pages of The Irish Times (Garvin, 2010; von Prondynski, 2010), is the increasing corporatisation of management structures and practices within higher education institutions. The other inter-related aspect relates to the nature and function of higher education itself in an increasingly complex, globalised world. In this article I focus on the latter. Following developments in higher education over the past four decades, I highlight some fundamental challenges and contradictions in the globalisation of higher education in Ireland. Specifically, I suggest that the combination of a prioritisation of the exigencies of the knowledge economy with the neglect of development and global education within third level leaves students and graduates ill-prepared to mediate, negotiate and challenge the increasingly complex, global society in which they live and work.

Globalising higher education

From the mid-1990s to 2006 the Irish economy underwent a period of very rapid growth with the average growth rate of over 7 per cent per annum, more than double that of the USA and close to triple the average growth rate in the Eurozone (Ryan, et al., 2008). Unemployment fell to 0 per cent with over 600,000 jobs (an increase of 50 per cent on 1994 levels) created between 1994 and 2004. While the causes of this transformation are still the subject of much debate, there is agreement that the key factor driving the country’s economic
success was the attraction of almost 1,000 foreign-owned firms. While political stability coupled with a range of favourable tax incentives and a relatively low cost base combined to produce a climate attractive to investment, higher education institutions have also been identified as a key actor promoting the country’s successful insertion into the global economy (Fitzgerald, 2000).

The contribution of higher education in this regard took two forms: significant increases in training and skills developments in targeted areas from the 1970s onwards; and targeted funding for research and development beginning in the early 2000s. Since the late 1960s, a major thrust of national economic policy has been to dramatically enhance the country’s national technical, technological and innovative skill base through increased public support to a growing number of higher education institutions (White, 2000). In line with trends across the European Union (EU), enrolment and participation rates at higher level increased significantly from the 1970s following targeted policy developments aimed at meeting the changing labour force requirements of a late-industrialising society. Admission rates in 2003 and 2004 were well over twice the rate of those in 1980 (O’Connell, et al., 2006:314), and in 2008, 34 per cent of the labour force in Ireland (aged 25-64) had completed some form of higher education, compared to 4 per cent in the early 1970s (NCC, 2009:9).

Although this new direction gave rise to considerable debate, most notably about the merits of liberal education versus a more vocational role for higher education (White, 2000:191-193), by the mid-1990s these training versus education debates fell by the wayside as the dramatic upturn in the economy highlighted the need for a range of new skill sets and expertise. The influential strategy document produced in 1996 by Forfás, the policy advisory and coordination board for industrial development, science and technology, emphasised that the main determinant of the competitiveness of the enterprise sector was the skills and knowledge of the workforce. As White notes, ‘The [Forfás] report was indicative of how much the education system had become central to the success of the state’s industrial policy’ (2000:192).

Globalising society

The result of this strategy has been not just a globalisation of the national economy, but also of society more broadly. The rapidly changing face(s) of modern Ireland, at work and at leisure, is now readily apparent to all. The most recent census figures available on population and demographics document
the increasing diversity of the island’s population with over 10 per cent of what is classified as ‘non-Irish’ living in Ireland in 2006 (CSO, 2009). With foreign nationals accounting for 8.1 per cent of the national labour force in 2005 (NESC, 2006: 21 – Table 2.3), and over half (54.3 per cent) of immigrants estimated to have third-level qualifications (NESC, 2006:23), it is clear that many Irish graduates (who account for just over a quarter of the national population (NESC, 2006:23)) will, even if they remain in Ireland, come into regular contact in their working lives with people from different backgrounds, cultures and life experiences. This likelihood is multiplied by the extremely high proportion of foreign owned companies in the country, with foreign-owned (and often managed) firms accounting for 50 per cent of all manufacturing employment in Ireland by the early 2000s (O’Riain, 2004).

In this context, fundamental questions arise in relation to how well Irish higher education institutions equip students with capacities to comprehend, negotiate and play active roles within this globalised society. What do Irish students and graduates know and understand of the diverse backgrounds of their managers, co-workers and friends? What do they understand of the circumstances that brought them here, that encourage them to stay, and perhaps, that thwart them from leaving? Has their university education assisted them in critically analysing the global context in which the companies in which they work operate? In short, how well do they understand and engage with the interrelated, globalised society in which we all now live?

The findings from two surveys, conducted in 2002 and 2006 respectively, suggest not terribly well. The principal finding of the 2002 survey was the lack of detailed knowledge of global issues among the Irish populace at large (Weafer, 2002). The preferred source of information on global issues for 92 per cent of the 1,000 people surveyed was the media (2002:11). Moreover, over 50 per cent of those surveyed are reported to have found educational institutions unreliable in the information they provide on global issues (2002: 13). Following on from this study, the 2006 survey, carried out among 900 students across all universities in the republic, found ‘little evidence of any sophisticated understanding of development issues, or any capacity to rank different explanations of development’ (Connolly, Doyle & Dwyer, 2008:226). Analysing the survey findings, the researchers report that, once again, the media (television at 83 per cent of respondents, followed by newspapers at 68 per cent) proves the most popular source of information on global issues, although 50 per cent also cite their educational institutions as important (2008:219). Interestingly, these latter findings resonate with those conducted among
university students elsewhere. Lunn (2008: 236-237) cites similar findings from studies carried out in the UK, Denmark, Canada, France, Germany, Italy, Japan, Sweden and the United States where students are again found to have a poor knowledge of contemporary global issues, current affairs, and other people, places and cultures. These findings indicate that the time has come to re-engage in debate on the role and relevance of higher education in this contemporary context. To answer this question we need to interrogate more broadly the role of higher education in society.

What is higher about higher education?: Commonalities with development education

According to one of the leading international scholars on higher education, Ronald Barnett, at the heart of higher education lies the development of students’ critical abilities (1995; 2005). Students need to be supported and encouraged in developing faculties to critically mediate, negotiate, and engage with the increasingly complex world in which they live. As Barnett states:

“students on courses of higher education should be encouraged to enter into a continuing conversation, be prepared to take on the point of view of others and become comfortable in conducting that critical dialogue with themselves” (1995:27).

In a later paper dealing specifically with post-modern challenges to the universality of knowledge, Barnett (2005) develops this core dimension of critical thinking more fully. He argues

“in a postmodern world, universals are not at an end. The new universal is precisely the capacity to cope, to prosper and to delight in a world in which there are no universals... And it is a task of – and challenge to – the university to provide those capacities” (2005:794).

Barnett advocates that research and teaching within contemporary higher education institutions (in all faculties and departments) take what he terms ‘an ontological turn’ (2005:795). This entails a shift ‘from knowledge to being: instead of knowing the world, being-in-the-world has to take primary place in the conceptualisations that inform university teaching’ (2005:795). In practice, this means equipping students with the competencies and capacities to comprehend, analyse and critically function in the increasingly interconnected yet complex world in which they do or will live and work.
In order to do this, students’ knowledge of and engagement with the world necessarily needs to move beyond the traditional parameters of the nation state. As Robertson and Dale argue, a critical approach to contemporary education entails an engagement with the wider challenges posed by contemporary globalised, and globally driven, transformations within the field of education. Specifically they argue for a:

“...need to get beyond framings and analysis of education policymaking that continue to assume education to be a national enterprise taking place within what has historically been called the ‘education sector’” (Roberton & Dale, 2009:24).

This is because, they argue, the persistent appearance of national autonomy serves to conceal the real sources of development, underdevelopment, knowledge and power within globalised society.

Following this, a truly globalised higher education system has much in common with the aims and ethos of development education which also puts critical thinking at its core. While both the concept and practice of development education, as with other forms of education, remain somewhat contested (see Khoo, 2003 for a good overview of different conceptions), there is agreement on the importance of this critical dimension as a precursor to action towards social change. For Irish Aid development education is defined as follows:

“...an educational process aimed at increasing awareness and understanding of the rapidly changing, interdependent and unequal world in which we live. It seeks to engage people in analysis, reflection and action for local and global citizenship and participation. It is about supporting people in understanding, and in acting to transform the social, cultural, political and economic structures which affect their lives and others at personal, community, national and international levels” (Irish Aid, 2003).

This clearly highlights the commonalities in aims and ethos between the two educational forms. Yet, to date, development education at a formal sectoral level has remained largely focused on primary and secondary-level educational institutions and systems. At this crucial time when the impact of globalisation on higher education (together with society more broadly) is being
challenged, and when the relevance (and associated financial support) of higher education is in question, it is time for development education policymakers and practitioners to come together with higher education authorities with a view to truly globalising higher education, shifting boundaries and borders – both geographic and conceptual – to build synergies and work together to equip students with the competencies and capacities to comprehend, analyse and critically function in the increasingly interconnected world in which we all now live.

**Conclusion**

The changing faces, challenges and opportunities offered by an increasingly diverse, globalised society require new thinking on the traditional boundaries of development education. Relegating development education within higher level institutions to small numbers of specialist courses, staff and low-tier journals dealing with issues and problems ‘over there’ is no longer a viable option. ‘Over there’ is now here. Having played a critical role in building Ireland’s globalised ‘knowledge economy’, the challenge is now for higher education and development education institutions, agencies and specialists alike to address the other side of the coin, working together to build consolidate globalised ‘knowledge society’ in equal measure.

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Resource reviews

HOW DO WE KNOW IT’S WORKING? A TOOLKIT FOR MEASURING ATTITUDINAL CHANGE FROM EARLY YEARS TO KS5

Paul Green

‘How do we know it’s working?’ is a valuable educational resource which provides a methodology and toolkit to evaluate the impact global citizenship work has on young people by measuring attitudinal change. The resource was developed by the Reading International Solidarity Centre (RISC) following their Global Schools project, which worked with a group of six primary and secondary schools to develop global citizenship in the curriculum.

The main body of the resource outlines 16 short audit activities for small groups of pupils covering the themes of ‘understanding diversity’, ‘making a difference’, ‘thinking about futures’ and ‘awareness of the wider world’. The methodology proposed uses activities as a baseline audit, analyses the results and uses them to inform the school’s planning. At the end of a teaching and learning programme informed by the baseline audit, the audit activities are then repeated. By comparing and analysing the responses to the baseline and repeat activities, teachers can illustrate changes in values, attitudes and understanding. The toolkit is designed to provide an insight into the impact of global citizenship work on a class or group of young people, rather than to form an individual assessment.

The activities draw on a range of techniques including voting, brainstorming and responding to photographs to develop a snapshot of pupils’ understanding of and attitude towards issues such as how to protect the environment, what makes a family and what you might see in a country in Africa. The activities promote thought and discussion, which is the key to revealing knowledge and understanding, and values and attitudes. However, the audit activities are not teaching and learning activities themselves; they are intended to bring out existing views and misconceptions and gaps in knowledge rather than to address them. Teachers must therefore be prepared for controversial issues that may be raised through the activities that they should not necessarily challenge, as this would influence the audit.
Some of the activities are very open in creating a snapshot of values and attitudes; however, a few activities could potentially be seen as influencing pupils into giving a particular response. In these activities pupils are encouraged to draw on stereotypes to complete the task, in a way justifying the application of stereotypes. For example, one activity asks pupils to decide who will have a specific job based solely on a photograph of a young person. The toolkit does also include a warm-up activity which ‘encourages (pupils) to think and respond independently in preparation for subsequent activities’; this preparation and encouraging of independent and critical thinking is important to avoid a following-the-crowd approach to the activities.

Each activity is clearly explained and includes a section on how to analyse and interpret the results and how to know if the teaching has been effective in changing perceptions. These sections provide useful criteria to analyse the activities against; however they are value-laden. This is acknowledged in some activities, for example, the ‘what’s the best way to look after the environment?’ activity states that ‘there is no definitive answer in this complex debate’, and goes on to give an example of the response of an ‘expert in sustainable living’. In some other activities a ‘right’ answer is proposed; although this is sometimes controversial, it does provide a useful starting point for teachers to engage in a debate about what they would like to see their pupils demonstrating through the activities.

Case studies from RISC’s Global Schools project are also included with each activity and provide informative examples of how schools have used the toolkit. Although the case studies are from schools that have used the whole toolkit over a two-year period, it is more likely that teachers will pick and choose activities and use them over a shorter period. Flexibility is a key strength of the resource: the duration of the activities can vary and the ideas behind each activity can be easily adapted to focus on a different global citizenship theme.

By bringing a wide range of activities together in one resource, ‘How do we know it’s working?’ helps to bridge the gap between the difficulties of measuring attitudinal change and the importance of monitoring and evaluating the impact of global citizenship work. It gives a framework with accessible tools and ideas to start the process of evaluating global citizenship, which is a welcome development in the global education sector.

References

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Auditing, monitoring, evaluating. The mere mention of these can leave the listener or reader in a temporary state of boredom until the topic shifts onto more engaging issues. Yet as many in the development education community know too well, assessment, checking and account-giving are an everyday part of work. Moreover, success or failure in auditing, monitoring and evaluation can have critical implications for the future of those audited, highlighting in turn the central role of these practices in organisation and control. Michael Power recognises this centrality in his engaging and critical exploration of the audit explosion in the United Kingdom in the late 1980s. Initially published in 1997, *The Audit Society: Rituals of Verification* remains as relevant today as then.

Power, questioning the meaning behind the explosion in auditing, monitoring and evaluating, distinguishes between the operational and normative characteristics of these practices. This leads him to highlight how practices of evidence gathering are also ideas-bound, or rather, ‘systems of values and goals inscribed in the official programmes which demand it’ (1997:7). From this, Power begins his exploration by examining the history of financial auditing. He describes the shifting and contentious relationship between audit practices and programmatic responses to financial scandals, corporate failures and the detection of fraud. This serves to illustrate how the audit process is a collective activity, characterised by an ambiguity that permits discretion in the construction of a legitimising narrative to also support evaluation and monitoring routines and procedures themselves. He argues that ultimately these routines and procedures, coupled with slavish adherence to performance measures, can serve to simply maintain an institutionally credible audit system. This falls short of achieving the ideal of productive learning and improvement that monitoring and evaluation practices arguably should set out to achieve.

Power goes on to examine evaluation exercises in higher education and medicine, and highlights how an excessive focus on these practices can have dysfunctional effects on organisations. These case studies lend further strength to his arguments, and highlight an aspirational dimension to many auditing practices that are not always linked to operational capacity, improvement or the objectives of the organisations being evaluated. Power does not however reject
the need for and value of monitoring and evaluation outright, given that these procedures can greatly assist organisations. Instead, his book represents a critical questioning of everyday practices that are often taken for granted, despite these practices being a powerful force for organisation and control.

At times theoretically complex, and sometimes lacking empirical support, the book nonetheless opens up for questioning the consequences of checking and monitoring that warns against the worst excesses of evaluation procedures. Moreover, it offers rewards, particularly for those directly engaged in auditing, monitoring and evaluation procedures required by their donors and by their own organisation. It asks the reader to consider who and what are auditing, monitoring and evaluation procedures and routines for, and to question the neutrality of monitoring techniques and consider them bound to the maintenance of institutional credibility. By recognising the normative character of monitoring procedures, it asks us to question the value systems underlying these procedures, and significantly, the social relations that produce them. As Power notes, auditing is an interactive and negotiated process. This raises several questions: to what extent are members - and which members - of the development education community contributing to the value system underlying the official donor evaluation practices that their organisations are subject to? And if the broader community is not contributing to any great extent, how might they go about ensuring they will in the future? At minimum, it asks for the nuts and bolts of auditing, monitoring and evaluation to be hotly debated within the development education community so that they might also contribute to the design and implementation of the instruments of organisation and control that these procedures represent.

Provocatively, it also asks that development educators question the monitoring and evaluation procedures they construct and use to determine the effectiveness of their own development education programmes. What normative framework shapes programme evaluation? Are these evaluation procedures designed to enhance programme effectiveness, and how does it connect with the aspirational goal of assisting programme participants in challenging global inequalities and bringing about a more just, sustainable world? Or are development educators caught up in rituals of verification that merely produce comforting signals to themselves and their funders?

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