

Social Drivers of Sustainable Development¹

Introduction

The emerging consensus on the post-2015 development agenda suggests the need to integrate the MDG focus on poverty reduction and the Rio+20 focus on environmental sustainability and policy coherence. Such an approach bodes well for ensuring that the three domains of sustainable development—economic, environmental and social—are treated far more equally than has been the case to date. Even since the concept of sustainable development was popularized by the Brundtland Commission in 1987, there has been a tendency to neglect its social dimensions. Moreover, as was recognized when the term green economy gained international attention in the run-up to Rio+20, social dimensions remained unclear in terms of both what they are, and how they can be addressed.

A central aspect of the social dimensions of sustainable development relates to social conditions and factors that shape processes of change. These “social drivers” relate to social structures and institutions that shape people’s preferences, behaviour and possibilities, and to agency, that is, the capacity of individuals and groups to influence change. Social structures include forms of socioeconomic stratification (class, ethnicity, gender and location). Institutions include the informal and formal “rules of the game” that pattern the behaviour of people and organizations in fairly predictable ways. Agency encompasses the myriad ways in which individuals and groups respond and adapt to circumstances, including how they cope, innovate, organize and mobilize in defense of their interests, identity and rights. All these core elements—that is, social structures, institutions and agency—that constitute social drivers are underpinned by social norms and values that are critical in making the transition to a sustainable future. Such values relate to human dignity and rights; sense of identity and citizenship; commitment to social justice, fairness and equality; inclusivity, tolerance and solidarity; and respect for diversity and environment. In this sense, sustainable development with its norms and values provides an ethical foundation for the global community.

A distinction can be made between drivers of sustainable development and causes of unsustainable outcomes, with both involving a wide range of factors across economic, social, environmental and political dimensions. Unsustainable development can be caused by poverty, inequalities, discrimination and sociocultural exclusion, insecurity, human rights abuse, corruption, as well as environmental and disaster risks and inappropriate natural resources management. Inequitable growth, consumption patterns and unjust power relations can aggravate it further. Moreover, progress cannot be achieved or sustained amid conflicts and violence, which are often rooted in social and economic deprivations.

¹ © UNRISD 2013. This note was originally prepared by Esuna Dugarova (Research Analyst) and Peter Utting (Deputy Director), UNRISD, as an input to the Note by the Secretariat, *Emerging Issues: The Social Drivers of Sustainable Development* (E/CN.5/2014/8, 52nd session of the Commission for Social Development).

To ensure sustainable outcomes, on the other hand, requires the eradication of poverty in its multiple dimensions, equality of both opportunity and outcome, equity in the distribution of benefits and costs, social inclusion and non-discrimination that would allow full enjoyment of rights. A pathway to achieve sustainable development outcomes involves recognizing the importance of social drivers that are related not only to poverty reduction, but also to enhanced productive capacity and employment, social justice and empowerment. Providing access to decent work and public services, enabling access to and control over resources, increasing public participation and involvement in decision-making all contribute to more sustainable outcomes.

This paper aims to identify a number of key emerging issues related to analysis and debates about social drivers of sustainable development. It pays particular attention to issues that have often been neglected within national and international development policy circles but that are now gaining recognition. These relate to strategies that (i) place employment rather than growth at the centre of macroeconomic policy and “development”; (ii) move beyond a narrow focus on safety nets towards social policies concerned with universal social protection and redistribution; (iii) address one of the major gaps in development policy: paid and unpaid care work; (iv) focus not only on equality of opportunity but also equality of outcome; (v) recognize the need for green economy transitions that are sensitive to uneven social consequences and that are both green and fair; (vi) promote alternative or complementary forms of “social and solidarity” economy and “food sovereignty”; (vii) support notions of participation and empowerment that go beyond dialogue and entrepreneurship to embrace deeper changes in power relations; and (viii) promote forms of social regulation associated with corporate accountability.

These issues have been the focus of UNRISD research during the past decade. Some additional issues that emerge from other research within the United Nations system are listed in the Annex.

Employment-Centred Economic Policies

There is growing recognition that social objectives, as opposed to the goal of economic growth, should be the fundamental objective of economic development strategies. Just as social objectives such as full employment were central to macroeconomic policy making in some European countries in the mid-20th century, so goals related to employment and decent work need to be core objectives of development strategies today.

Employment represents the single most important source of income for the majority of the world's people. While full employment and decent work are recognized as core universal development objectives, market-centred development strategies associated with economic liberalization are inadequate for realizing these objectives. The assumption that economic growth translates into significant employment growth, let alone decent work, is increasingly being questioned by evidence-based research. Parts of the world that have experienced relatively high growth have often experienced only moderate declines in levels of unemployment, while regions that have recently experienced renewed growth often experience a decline in the quality

of employment.² Rather than prioritizing growth strategies that see employment as a side effect, development strategies, including macroeconomic policy, need to prioritize employment and decent work as a primary development objective. In addition to active labour market policies and the realization of labour rights, this implies greater consideration of, for example, counter-cyclical policies, public investment and public works, selected industrial policies, better integration of industry and agriculture, and regeneration of agriculture.³

Beyond the challenge of regenerating employment after the global financial crisis, there are two fundamental concerns that policy makers need to confront head on in the post 2015 development agenda. First, the complexity of the employment challenge relates to the scale of the informal economy, growing casualization even within the formal economy, and the apparent inability of the formal sector, under present policy conditions, to absorb “surplus” labour from agriculture, as it did historically. The numbers of workers comprising the ILO’s category of “vulnerable employment” continues to grow, reaching 1.49 billion in developing countries in 2012.⁴ Tackling this challenge requires a mix of integrated policies, including skills development in the informal economy to enhance employability, the extension of social protection, a favourable regulatory environment, the promotion of labour rights, support for entrepreneurship and micro- and small enterprise development, local development and strengthened social dialogue.⁵

The second 21st century challenge concerns how to generate employment in sectors and production systems that do not degrade the environment, as occurred in the 19th and 20th centuries. This has led to the current focus on eco-efficiency and “green jobs”, defined as “work in agricultural, manufacturing, research and development, administrative, and service activities that contribute to preserving or restoring environmental quality.”⁶ Key in this regard are not only cleaner energy and technology, but also generating employment by expanding in low-carbon social service sectors such as education, health, public transport and leisure, as well as retrofitting housing.⁷

Putting people at the centre of development strategies also means factoring into the analysis of vulnerability and inequality the impacts of macroeconomic and other policies associated with “business-as-usual”, including international trade and investment agreements, regressive and restrictive fiscal policies, budgetary imbalances associated with defense expenditures, liberalization of financial markets, and privatization of essential social services and the commons.⁸

Social Policy: Beyond Safety Nets

Global events like the 1995 World Summit for Social Development and the Millennium Summit in 2000 served to reposition social protection more centrally in both international and

² ILO (2013a), *Global Employment Trends 2013: Recovering from a second jobs dip*; ILO (2013b), *Transitioning from the Informal to the Formal Economy Report*.

³ UNRISD (2010). *Combating Poverty and Inequality: Structural Change, Social policy and Politics*, UNRISD, Geneva.

⁴ ILO (2013a). *Global Employment Trends 2013: Recovering from a second jobs dip*

⁵ ILO (2013b). *Transitioning from the Informal to the Formal Economy*. Report V (1).

⁶ UNEP/ILO/IOE/ITUC (2008). *Green Jobs: Towards Decent Work in a Sustainable, Low-Carbon World*.

⁷ Jackson, Tim (2011). *Prosperity without Growth: Economics for a Finite Planet*, Routledge.

⁸ UNRISD (2010). *Combating Poverty and Inequality: Structural Change, Social policy and Politics*, UNRISD, Geneva. UN-NGLS (2013), *Advancing Regional Recommendations Post-2015 Consultation Report*. New York: UN-NGLS.

national policy agendas. Indeed, much of the focus of the Millennium Development Goals and new forms of social policy, such as conditional cash transfer programmes, have focused on primary education, maternal and child health, and major diseases such as HIV/AIDS and malaria. Another main focus of social policy has been on active labour market policies such as training. Expanding and consolidating gains in these areas remain crucial for the post-2015 development agenda. But there is also growing recognition of the need to go beyond an approach to social protection that targets specific vulnerable groups by revisiting the idea of universal social protection and redistribution.

Universal social protection. There are increasing calls for an approach to social policy that leans towards universalism—that is, comprehensive social service provision and social security.⁹ Evidence suggests that 75 to 80 per cent of the world’s population does not have access to a comprehensive social protection system.¹⁰ Leaning towards universalism involves (i) more generalized access to quality social infrastructure and services, and (ii) more comprehensive social security via policies can provide adequate levels of security under multiple contingencies related to unemployment, sickness, disability, widowhood, old age or other lack of livelihood in circumstances beyond a person’s control.

Recent policy innovations and proposals include, the significant scaling-up in certain countries of conditional cash transfer programmes, minimum employment guarantee schemes, the Basic Income Grant and national social protection floors. The latter comprise essential health care, including maternity care, as well as basic income security for children, persons of active working age affected by sickness, unemployment, maternity and disability, and the elderly.

In various countries, social and environmental policies are now breaking out of their policy silos and merging in ways that bode well for policy coherence and integration. Examples of these “eco-social” policies include schemes such as Bolsa Verde in Brazil, that extend conditional cash transfer programmes to environmentally sensitive zones; employment programmes, such as NREGA in India, that rehabilitate environmentally degraded areas; biofuel schemes that also address issues of food security; and the use of fiscal savings from energy subsidy reductions to expand social programmes.¹¹

Redistribution. Too narrow a focus within the field of social policy on social protection and adaptation via safety nets and human capital formation (education and training) runs the risk of ignoring the importance of redistributive policies. Policies associated with progressive taxation (including measures to deal with tax evasion and avoidance), land and tenure reform, public works and infrastructural development in rural areas, reallocation of subsidies away from the advantaged, and concern for the functional distribution of income (the ratio of wages to profits) need to be brought back onto the policy agenda. Such policies can address more directly the gross disparities in wealth, income, ethnic, gender and locational advantage and disadvantage that have widened in recent decades.¹²

⁹ UNRISD (2010). *Combating Poverty and Inequality: Structural Change, Social Policy and Politics*, UNRISD, Geneva.

¹⁰ Cichon, Michael (2013). “The Social Protection Floors Recommendation, 2012 (No. 202): Can a six-page document change the course of social history?” *International Social Security Review*, Vol. 66, 3/4, 21-43.

¹¹ Cook, Sarah, Utting, Peter and Smith, Kiah (2012). *Green Economy or Green Society? Contestation and Policies for a Fair Transition*. Occasional paper 10, UNRISD.

¹² UNRISD (2010). “Redistributing wealth and income : Implications for policy.” In *Combating Poverty and Inequality: Structural Change, Social Policy and Politics*, UNRISD, Geneva.

The concept of transformative social policy has been coined to refer to this broader perspective on social policy.¹³ In addition to functions related to social protection, human capital formation and redistribution, a fourth dimension relates to social reproduction.

Social Reproduction and Care

Despite the considerable attention that issues of gender equity and women's empowerment have received within the international development community, limited attention has focused on the question of care for children, the elderly and infirm, as well as the key role that women play in both the reproduction of a healthy, educated labour force and in generating intangible assets such as trust, reciprocity and ethical norms.¹⁴ Unpaid care and care-related services constitute a fundamental aspect of social reproduction. Despite their importance in meeting many of the MDGs (such as reducing child mortality, achieving universal primary education, combating HIV/AIDS, and reducing maternal mortality), as well as in facilitating access to the labour market, unpaid care has not been explicitly addressed in the MDGs. A growing body of evidence points to the importance of cultivating a policy environment that recognizes and values care as the foundation of economic and social development and a core component of equality.¹⁵

Inclusive and sustainable development requires greater recognition of the rights and needs of both care-givers and care-receivers. Policy priorities include greater investment in infrastructure and basic social services, including preschool facilities and school feeding programmes; ensuring adequate incomes for care-givers and care-receivers through paid work and social transfers; maternity and paternity leave; shifting from reliance on market and informal provision of care to nurturing professional, decently paid and compassionate forms of care; and making care more visible in statistics and public debates.¹⁶

Although specialized social care services (such as early childhood care, elderly care and care for these with disabilities) tend to be underdeveloped in many low income countries, policies that are good for care are not a luxury that only high income countries can afford. Research has shown that while explicit care policies may be rudimentary in many developing countries, a wider range of policies influence the supply of care, from social provisioning and social protection programmes to employment, infrastructure development, and education and health services.¹⁷

Care has far-reaching implications for gender relations and inequalities, including race and social class.¹⁸ Care underpins productivity, equity and social cohesion, but the cost of providing care is unequally borne. The unequal distribution of unpaid care work further undermines the dignity of women care-givers, makes them more vulnerable to poverty, and prevents them from

¹³ Mkandawire, Thandika (ed.) (2004). *Social Policy in a Development Context*. UNRISD/Palgrave Macmillan, Basingstoke; UNRISD (2006) *Transformative Social Policy: Lessons from UNRISD Research*, Research and Policy Brief 5.

¹⁴ Diane Elson, "Social Reproduction in the global crisis: Rapid recovery or long-lasting depletion?" In Utting, Peter, Shahra Razavi, and Rebecca Varghese Buchholz (eds.), *The Global Crisis and Transformative Social Change*, UNRISD/Palgrave Macmillan, 2012.

¹⁵ UNRISD (2005). *Gender Equality: Striving for Justice in an Unequal World*, UNRISD, Geneva.

¹⁶ UNRISD (2010). *Why Care Matters for Social Development*, Research and Policy Brief 9, UNRISD, Geneva.

¹⁷ UNRISD (2010). *Combating Poverty and Inequality: Structural Change, Social Policy and Politics*. UNRISD, Geneva.

¹⁸ UNRISD (2010). *Why Care Matters for Social Development*, Research and Policy Brief 9, UNRISD, Geneva.

enjoying their rights—to work, to education, to health, to social security and to participation on an equal basis with men.¹⁹

The challenge here is to forge policies that support them and are grounded in certain key principles: recognize and guarantee the rights of care-givers and care-receivers, distribute the costs more evenly across society, and support professional, decently paid and compassionate forms of care.²⁰

Equality of Opportunity and Outcome

There is a growing recognition that market-centred approaches to development have exacerbated various forms of inequality and that the question of equality has not featured as prominently as it should on the international development agenda.²¹ Equality matters both for its intrinsic value as a human right and for instrumental reasons linked, for example, to economic growth and social cohesion. It is also essential for enhancing people's resilience to external crises and shocks. Inequalities are crucial for determining how people are affected by, for example, food and financial crises or climate change, and their capacities to respond and adapt to adversity and opportunity.

This broad perspective on equality points to the need to rethink current approaches to addressing the issue of inequality. While there is growing awareness of the ways in which inequality negatively impacts development,²² governments and international development agencies have often focused on addressing equality of opportunity, which is concerned with levelling the initial conditions people confront when attempting to secure their livelihoods and realize their cultural rights. While it is crucially important to improve access to quality health care, education and skills development in order to create a more level playing field, this approach tends to ignore structural factors that influence individual outcomes.

Gender-based wage gaps, for example, often relate to disadvantage in the workplace that derives from unequal responsibilities for care work or discriminatory forces that are embedded in labour market institutions, such as gendered definitions of "skill".²³ And macroeconomic policies and market pressures that result in fiscal retrenchment can affect health care service and intensify the time women must spend engaged in unpaid care work.

Reducing the problem of inequality to equality of opportunity runs the risk of sidelining important policy instruments for tackling gross disparities in income, wealth and location. In addition to redistributive and investment policies mentioned above, also important are macroeconomic policies geared towards employment generation; labour market regulations

¹⁹ Sepúlveda, Magdalena (2013). "Unpaid care work, poverty and women's human rights: Challenges and opportunities for the post-2015 agenda." Observer's paper submitted for UN Women and ECLAC's Expert Group Meeting on structural and policy constraints in achieving the MDGs for women and girls.

²⁰ UNRISD (2010). *Why Care Matters for Social Development*, Research and Policy Brief 9, UNRISD, Geneva.

²¹ Sustainable Development Solutions Network. 2013. *Achieving Gender Equality, Social Inclusion, and Rights for All: Challenges and Priorities for the Sustainable Development Agenda*. Report of the SDSN Thematic Group on Challenges of Social Inclusion: Gender, Inequalities, and Human Rights. September

²² Human Development Report 2005 *International Cooperation at a Crossroads: Aid, Trade and Security in an Unequal World*; World Development Report 2006 *Equity and Development*; World Bank, World Development Report 2012 *Gender Equality and Development*.

²³ Razavi, Shakra (2011). "World Development Report 2012: Gender Equality and Development: An Opportunity Both Welcome and Missed (An Extended Commentary)." UNRISD, Geneva.

and labour rights that promote social norms and forms of bargaining that can serve to compress wage gaps and modify hierarchical structures associated with exploitation and control of the workforce; and policies and programmes that proactively support smallholder agriculture.²⁴

Green and Fair Economy

Contemporary efforts to promote sustainable development and deal with climate change have centred to a large extent on green economy. Viewing green economy through a social lens highlights a number of issues that often receive scant attention in policy circles. Research in this field suggests that win-win assumptions about green economy need to be seriously questioned. Green economy initiatives and strategies impact social groups differently and can produce both winners and losers. Schemes and incentives associated with payments for environmental services (PES), monetary pricing and market-based allocation of environmental assets and biofuels often benefit or target the better-off, redistribute assets upwards and favour people and places with the greatest purchasing power.²⁵ Concerns about land grabbing²⁶ have now extended to “green grabbing” where land and natural resources are appropriated for environmental ends.²⁷

Such findings suggest the need to focus not only on green economy transitions that address tensions between economic development and the environment, but also the issue of green and fair economy.²⁸ Key in this regard are social drivers associated with social policy and community-based development.

Comprehensive social policies are needed not only to protect and compensate the vulnerable and facilitate the uptake of green jobs through education and (re)training—the current focus of much policy—but also for many other reasons. Other social policies include: (i) labour market regulations to ensure decent work within green economy; (ii) redistributive shifts in fiscal policy to encourage green consumption and minimize socially regressive impacts of adequate carbon pricing; (iii) “eco-social” investment to retrofit, for example, housing and public transport; (iv) public support for care services to facilitate women’s participation in green economy; and (v) agrarian reform measures to facilitate the participation of rural populations.²⁹

Myriad examples of community-based livelihood and natural resource management systems point to the potential of local experiences that simultaneously address multiple development objectives associated with green and fair economy. The traditional knowledges and practices of small-scale farmers, fisherfolk, indigenous peoples and forest dwellers are essential for crafting transition paths conducive to sustainable development. Concerns have arisen that such perspectives and the values they embody are not given the weight they deserve in policy agendas

²⁴ UNRISD (2012). *Inequalities and the Post-2015 Development Agenda*. Research and Policy Brief 15.

²⁵ UNRISD (2012). *Social Dimensions of Green Economy*. Research and Policy Brief 12.

²⁶ Saturnino M. Borras Jr., Philip McMichael and Ian Scoones (2010). “The politics of biofuels, land and agrarian change: Editors’ introduction.” *Journal of Peasant Studies*, Vol. 37, Issue 4, pp. 575-592.

²⁷ James Fairhead, Melissa Leach and Ian Scoones (2012). “Green grabbing: A new appropriation of nature?” *Journal of Peasant Studies*, Volume 39, Issue 2, pp. 237-261.

²⁸ Cook, Sarah, Peter Utting, and Kiah Smith (2012). *Green Economy or Green Society? Contestation and Policies for a Fair Transition*. Occasional paper 10, UNRISD.

²⁹ UNRISD (2012). *Social Dimensions of Green Economy*. Research and Policy Brief 12.

and decision-making processes. It is also crucial that policy makers address the fact local resource management institutions are often being undermined by market forces and “modernization”.

Another key set of social drivers of green and fair economy relates to inclusive and participatory governance arrangements.

Participation and Empowerment

Participation and empowerment have long been recognized as key social drivers of inclusive, equitable and sustainable development. Such processes not only facilitate the design and implementation of both development policies and projects but are also important for realizing human rights and strengthening people’s capabilities. The “good governance” agenda that took off in the 1990s further reaffirmed the importance of issues such as participation, accountability and transparency. Emerging issues relate to the need to go beyond narrow perspectives of (i) participation as consultation or dialogue with selected stakeholders, and (ii) empowerment as economic empowerment.

Instrumentalist notions of participation are being increasingly challenged. Participation involves more than giving disadvantaged groups a voice at the table; it is also about (i) strengthening their capacity to gain control over decision-making processes, and (ii) enhancing their capacity to exert claims on external actors and institutions that affect their lives. Public policy that purports to facilitate participation should be concerned as much with civil and political freedoms that enhance the capacity of disadvantaged groups and social movements to organize and mobilize—freedoms such as the right to information, assembly, expression, free press and collective bargaining—as engaging a select number of NGOs, trades unions and other civil society organizations in consultative processes.³⁰ Furthermore consultative processes need to open to a diverse range of voices, including those of social movements.³¹

Similarly, while the international development community is paying greater attention to the issue of empowerment, for example, of women, smallholders and informal economy workers, there is often a narrow focus on economic empowerment of individuals with the aim of promoting entrepreneurship and strengthening micro and small enterprises. Microcredit and skills development have been important policy instruments in such efforts. Far less attention has been paid to the economic and political empowerment of such individuals through collective action.

Social and Solidarity Economy, and Food Sovereignty

There is a groundswell of academic, civil society and governmental opinion that is recognizing the need to shift from an approach that focuses on assisting the poor to empowering them through productive activities and social organization. Important in this regard is the growing

³⁰ UNRISD (2010). *Combating Poverty and Inequality: Structural Change, Social policy and Politics*, UNRISD, Geneva.

³¹ Bebbington, Anthony, Samuel Hickey and Diana Mitlin (2008). *Can NGOs Make a Difference? The Challenge of Development Alternatives*. Zed Books.

body of research on “social and solidarity economy”.³² This term is increasingly being adopted to refer to the production of goods and services by organizations and enterprises that put social, and often environmental, objectives before profit; that involve cooperative and associative relations and forms of democratic management; and espouse values of solidarity, sharing and caring. Relevant in this regard are concepts such as *Buen Vivir*, voluntary simplicity and even happiness, that are gaining currency in international development discourse. Such perspectives uphold values and lifestyles associated with non-conspicuous consumption, living in harmony with both people and the environment, and enhancing people’s sense of purpose and belonging.³³

Contexts of crisis linked to finance and food, and the rise of Fair Trade and other social movements and networks of women producers, smallholders, informal economy workers and “ethical consumers”, have fuelled the expansion of social and solidarity economy³⁴ in recent years.

As the historical experience of cooperatives has shown, organizing the production and exchange of goods and services collectively can be an effective way of dealing with market failures and building resilience. Communities in Africa are playing a key role in the provision of basic social services and forms of social security. Community forestry initiatives in South Asia suggest the importance of such approaches for the management of common pool resources. Over two million women’s self-help groups in India are seen by some researchers as key both for environmental protection and agricultural regeneration. Important in this regard is the combination of institutional innovation associated with cooperation in production, soil and water management and technological innovation.³⁵

Cooperation is also key for strengthening the capacity of groups of workers and producers to engage in advocacy. Attention to social and solidarity economy broadens the focus of development interventions beyond the empowerment of individuals to forms of collective action that are important not only for economic empowerment and addressing market failures, but also for political empowerment.³⁶

Research suggests that this approach to sustainable development needs to receive far more support from governments and international organizations. While several governments are beginning to adopt policies and laws that aim to support social and solidarity economy, they often see the social and solidarity economy as a poverty reduction tool rather than an alternative approach to development that promotes environmental and social justice.³⁷

³² Fonteneau, Bénédicte, Nancy Neamtan, Fredrick Wanyama, Leandro Pereira Morais, Mathieu de Poorter, and Carlo Borzaga (2011). *Social and Solidarity Economy: Our Common Road towards Decent Work*. ILO Reader; UNRISD (2013), *Potential and Limits of Social and Solidarity Economy*. Event Brief 1.

³³ See Jackson, Tim (2011). *Prosperity without Growth: Economics for a Finite Planet*, Routledge; Gudynas, Eduardo (2011). “Buen Vivir: Today’s tomorrow.” *Development*, Vol. 54, No. 4, pp. 441–447.

³⁴ ILO (2011). *Social and Solidarity Economy: Our Common Road Towards Decent Work*.

³⁵ Agarwal B. 2010. *Gender and Green Governance*. New Delhi: Oxford University Press; see also Presidential Address, International Society for Ecological Economics Conference, 2012, available at www.isecoeco.org/

³⁶ Heyer J., F. Stewart and R. Thorpe (2002). *Group Behaviour and Development: Is the Market Destroying Cooperation?* Oxford University Press.

³⁷ See UNRISD (2013), *Potential and Limits of Social and Solidarity Economy*. Event Brief 1; UN-NGLS (2013). *Advancing Regional Recommendations on the Post-2015 Development Agenda*. UN-NGLS, New York.

An important aspect of social and solidarity economy relates to ways of organizing the production, exchange and consumption of food that involve: (i) the prioritization of smallholder and low-external input agriculture; (ii) the organization of and cooperation among agriculturalists, farm workers, herders, fisherfolk, indigenous peoples and others; (iii) local development and decision making, as well as more localized trade circuits; (iv) direct links between producers and consumers; and (v) principles of agro-ecology and food as a basic human right.

Such aspects are part and parcel of the concept of “food sovereignty” that has been popularized by sectors of civil society, notably La Via Campesina and has begun to resonate with some governments particularly in Latin America, and international organizations and knowledge networks.³⁸

Food sovereignty also directs attention to the importance of deep structural reforms associated with land redistribution, as well as fundamentally rethinking intellectual property and trade and investment regimes, and transforming production and consumption patterns. Furthermore, it emphasizes the importance of social organization, mobilization and advocacy on the part of disadvantaged rural and coastal populations to bring about policy and institutional change.³⁹

The uptake of the term has often been resisted within mainstream knowledge and policy circles that have preferred the term food security. Food security policies generally aim to increase food production, people’s access to food and livelihood security through such means as increased ODA targeting agriculture, cheap food imports, agricultural intensification using more environmentally-friendly technologies and production systems, private investment coupled with voluntary standards for land governance, the promotion of multi-functional agriculture and rural livelihood strategies, better terms of access for farmers to markets and global value chains, corporate social and environmental responsibility, and extending the coverage and quality of social policy to rural areas.⁴⁰ Unlike food sovereignty, this approach runs the risk of ignoring both structural and political determinants of livelihood security and sustainability.

Social Regulation and Corporate Accountability

Regulation, of course, is also key for ensuring that principles and practices of both environmental sustainability and decent work are adhered to in economic sectors, production systems and value chains that are often associated with environmental degradation and indecent work, not least extractives, high-input external input agriculture, apparel and textiles, as well as traditional polluting industries. Civil society actors are actively shaping business regulation, not only exerting pressures on corporations and governments but also engaging in social dialogue with managers and setting environmental, social and governance (ESG) standards. Civil society organization have played a key role in recent initiatives such as the ISO26000 Guidance Standard on Organizational Responsibility, the UN Business and Human Rights “Protect, Respect and Remedy” Framework, revisions to the OECD Guidelines for

³⁸ UNCTAD (2013). *Wake Up before It's Too Late*; World Committee on Global Food Security (2013), *Report of the Fortieth Session* (Rome, Italy, 7-11 October 2013) available at: www.fao.org/docrep/meeting/029/mi744e.pdf; Sustainable Development Solutions Network (2013), *Solutions for Sustainable Agriculture and Food Systems*. Technical Report for the Post-2015 Development Agenda. September.

³⁹ UN-NGLS (2013), *Advancing Regional Recommendations Post-2015 Consultation Report*. UN-NGLS, New York.

⁴⁰ IFAD (2010), *Rural Poverty Report 2011*.

Multinational Enterprises, and numerous NGO-led commodity roundtables and certification schemes.⁴¹

Emerging issues in this area relate to the need to (i) bring the state back in as a stronger regulatory actor, following decades of liberalization and de-regulation, (ii) not only strengthen the regulatory effectiveness of standards initiative led by non-state actors but also ensure they are inclusive of stakeholders from developing countries and do not constrain the developmental capacities of small producers and enterprises; (iii) to go beyond weak forms of corporate social responsibility centred on codes of conduct and company reporting towards measurement of impacts, third-party monitoring and verification, and penalties for non-compliance; and (iv) strengthen the role of so-called international soft and hard law in setting ESG standards governing the behaviour of investors and business enterprises.⁴²

A key development in the field of corporate accountability relates to the growing recognition of grievance procedures and the right of victims to seek effective remedy.⁴³ While this right has recently been emphasized in some internationally recognized principles and guidelines, grievance procedures tend to be weak in practice and difficult to access by those seeking redress.⁴⁴

⁴¹ Reed, D., P. Utting and A. Mukherjee-Reed (2012). *Business Regulation and Non-State Actors: Whose Standards? Whose Development?* Routledge, London.

⁴² UNRISD. 2010. "Business, power and poverty reduction," In *Combating Poverty and Inequality: Structural Change, Social Policy and Politics*, UNRISD, Geneva.

⁴³ Report of the Special Representative of the Secretary-General on the issue of human rights and transnational corporations and other business enterprises, John Ruggie, 2011 (A/HRC/17/31).

⁴⁴ J. Oldenziel and J. Wilde-Ramsing (2010). *OECD Watch – 10 Years On: Assessing the Contribution of the OECD Guidelines for Multinational Enterprises to Responsible Business Conduct*. OECD Watch; Reed D., P. Utting and A. Mukherjee-Reed (2012). *Business Regulation and Non-State Actors: Whose Standards? Whose Development?* Routledge, London.

Annex: Other Gaps and Neglected Issues

The work of other United Nations agencies has sharpened the focus on other critical gaps that need to be addressed in order to achieve sustainable development outcomes. This annex summarizes four of these issues that received little or no attention in the Millennium Development Goals, but are increasingly recognized as key elements of the new global development agenda beyond 2015: (i) security; (ii) consumption and production patterns; (iii) culture; and (iv) technology

Security

Human security, which refers to the freedom from want and fear, is characterized as “the protection to the vital core of all human lives in ways that enhance human freedoms and human fulfilment”.⁴⁵ Recent and ongoing multiple crises have shown the depth of human insecurity and revealed the inadequacy of systemic and structural reforms over the past few decades to achieve and sustain a socially inclusive and equitable development pathway. While many parts of the world have seen substantial progress in reducing poverty in the past six decades, repeated cycles of violence and conflict left some areas far behind, with economic development being compromised and human indicators being stagnant.⁴⁶ More than 1.5 billion people, nearly a quarter of the world’s population, live in areas affected by conflict, fragility and violence.⁴⁷ Security concerns associated with a volatile environment are shown to have a heavy impact, for example, on women’s political participation and activism in some countries, which is accompanied by increased risk and a backlash against women’s rights.⁴⁸

While the interrelation between security, justice and development has been largely ignored in the narrow approach of MDGs,⁴⁹ there is increasing recognition of the importance to reposition human security at the centre of development strategies. It has been argued that without ensuring security, progress towards achieving sustainable development goals is likely to lag severely.⁵⁰ Further to this, the concept of sustainable development in the new post-2015 development framework is being broadened to encompass not only economic development, social inclusion and environmental sustainability, but also the issue of security.⁵¹

Human security lies at the core of social policy concerns. Various measures can be provided to address security through a wide range of social policy and social protection instruments, as well as labour market regulations, political stability and enforcement of law and order. Social

⁴⁵ Commission on Human Security (2003). “Human Security Now”, New York.

⁴⁶ World Bank (2011). *World Development Report 2011: Conflict, Security and Development*. World Bank, Washington, DC.

⁴⁷ World Bank (2013). Retrieved 11 November, 2013, from <http://web.worldbank.org/WBSITE/EXTERNAL/NEWS/0,,contentMDK:20042303~menuPK:34480~pagePK:64257043~piPK:437376~theSitePK:4607,00.html>

⁴⁸ Saferworld (2013). *It’s Dangerous to be the First: Security Barriers to Women’s Public Participation in Egypt, Libya, and Yemen*. Saferworld’s MENA Report.

⁴⁹ UN System Task Team on the Post-2015 UN Development Agenda (2012). “Peace and security”, Thematic Think Piece prepared by Peace Building Support Office, May.

⁵⁰ United Nations Technical Support Team Issues Brief “Conceptual issues”, 2013.

⁵¹ UN System Task Team on the Post-2015 UN Development Agenda, *Realizing the Future We Want for All*, Report to the Secretary-General, New York, June 2012; Report of the Secretary General (2013) *A Life of Dignity for All: Accelerating Progress towards the Millennium Development Goals and Advancing the United Nations Development Agenda beyond 2015*, 26 July 2013 (A/68/202).

security systems are increasingly seen as a key element in coordinated and coherent national responses to shocks, crises and natural disasters and are playing a marked role in reducing levels of inequality and poverty.⁵² They help invest in and preserve human capital, reinforce social cohesion and combat social exclusion.

Consumption and Production Patterns

A critical development issue arises from unsustainable consumption and production patterns that have evolved in developed countries and are increasingly being adopted by developing countries.⁵³ A high degree of inequality that accompanies these patterns makes them socially unsustainable and impedes the achievement of the development goals. A fundamental shift to sustainable patterns of consumption and production is increasingly seen as one of the key elements of the emerging vision for the development agenda beyond 2015.⁵⁴

Along with a transition to an inclusive green economy, changing unsustainable and promoting sustainable patterns of consumption and production that are consistent with planetary boundaries is essential for sustainable development. Examples shared from around the world provide insights into the growing challenge and the need for action on sustainable production and consumption.⁵⁵

It has been found that while it is possible to provide access to food, energy and water for the poorest part of the world's population without serious environmental consequences, meeting the needs and aspirations of a growing global middle class will require finding new approaches to production and consumption if planetary boundaries are to be respected.⁵⁶

⁵² International Social Security Association (2013). *Dynamic Social Security: A Global Commitment to Excellence*, Global Report 2013, Geneva.

⁵³ WESS (World Economic and Social Survey) (2013), *Sustainable Development Challenges*, UN DESA, New York, 2013.

⁵⁴ Report of the Secretary General (2013), *A Life of Dignity for All: Accelerating Progress towards the Millennium Development Goals and Advancing the United Nations Development Agenda beyond 2015 (A/68/202)*; Report of the Secretary-General's High-level Panel of Eminent Persons on the Post-2015 Development Agenda (2013), *A New Global Partnership: Eradicate Poverty and Transform Economies through Sustainable Development*.

⁵⁵ Final Report of the Thematic Consultation on Environmental Sustainability in the Post-2015 Agenda (2013) *Breaking Down the Silos: Integrating Environmental Sustainability in the Post-2015 Agenda*.

⁵⁶ Melamed, Claire and Ladd, Paul (2013), "How to build sustainable development goals: Integrating human development and environmental sustainability in a new global agenda", ODI and UNDP.

Culture

The concept of culture, regarded as “the set of distinctive spiritual, material, intellectual and emotional features of a society or a social group”,⁵⁷ and understood in the broadest sense, is a critical consideration when defining the constitutive elements of well-being, dignity and sustainable development.⁵⁸

While culture was not included in the MDGs, its role as a driver for sustainable development with social, economic and environmental impacts, has been increasingly acknowledged.⁵⁹ Despite this growing awareness of the importance of culture in development, a globally agreed and shared recognition that development strategies at the local, regional and global levels should incorporate culture within their goals, indicators and targets is still missing.

Data show that cultural resources are one of the fastest-growing sectors of many economies.⁶⁰ Cultural heritage and infrastructure, creative industries, as well as sustainable tourism can be instrumental in generating revenues, particularly in developing countries in view of their abundant natural and cultural resources as well as substantial labour force.⁶¹

Culture holds an intrinsic value which is conducive to creating a more inclusive, stable and resilient society where marginalized groups, particularly minorities and indigenous peoples, are acknowledged.⁶² Promoting respect and support for cultural expressions can contribute to strengthening the social capital of a community and foster trust in public institutions.⁶³ Traditional cultural activities along with local knowledge systems can help promote more sustainable consumption and production patterns, and more broadly tackle ecological challenges. In post-conflict or disaster-prone areas, rehabilitating the cultural heritage can help enable the communities concerned to rebuild their identities.⁶⁴

⁵⁷ UNESCO Universal Declaration on Cultural Diversity, 2001.

⁵⁸ “Culture in the Post-2015 Sustainable Development Agenda: Why Culture is Key to Sustainable Development” (2012), Background note for UNESCO’s High Level Discussion on Culture in the Post-2015 Sustainable Development Agenda, prepared by Nao Hayashi, Giovanni Boccardi and Nada Al Hassan.

⁵⁹ Report of the Secretary-General (2013). *Science, Technology and Innovation, and the Potential of Culture, for Promoting Sustainable Development and Achieving the Millennium Development Goals* for ECOSOC’ 2013 Annual Ministerial Review; United Nations General Assembly, “Keeping the promise: United to achieve the Millennium Development Goals”, Outcome Document of the 2010 Millennium Summit (A/65/L.1), New York, 2010. For importance of culture in a development context see also Resolutions by the UN General Assembly (65/166 and 66/208); Note by the Secretary-General (2011) “Culture and development” (A/66/187), and regional documents such as the “Sao Paulo Declaration on Culture and Sustainability” (April 2012), accessible at http://p2pfoundation.net/S%C3%A3o_Paulo_Declaration_on_Culture_and_Sustainability; “Culture as a Catalyst for Socio-Economic and Political Transformation in Africa: the Kinshasa Declaration of CAMC4” (Fourth Session of the African Union Conference of Ministers of Culture, November 2012), accessible at <http://www.au.int/en/content/culture-catalyst-socio-economic-and-political-transformation-africa>.

⁶⁰ Data on the contribution of culture to economic development are available at www.unesco.org/new/en/culture/themes/culture-and-development

⁶¹ UN System Task Team on the Post-2015 UN Development Agenda, “Culture: A driver and an enabler of sustainable development”, Thematic Think Piece prepared by UNESCO, May 2012.

⁶² “Culture in the Post-2015 Sustainable Development Agenda: Why Culture is Key to Sustainable Development” (2012), Background note for UNESCO’s High Level Discussion on Culture in the Post-2015 Sustainable Development Agenda, prepared by Nao Hayashi, Giovanni Boccardi and Nada Al Hassan.

⁶³ UN System Task Team on the Post-2015 UN Development Agenda, “Culture: A driver and an enabler of sustainable development”, Thematic Think Piece prepared by UNESCO, May 2012.

⁶⁴ “Culture in the Post-2015 Sustainable Development Agenda: Why Culture is Key to Sustainable Development” (2012), Background note for UNESCO’s High Level Discussion on Culture in the Post-2015 Sustainable Development Agenda, prepared by Nao Hayashi, Giovanni Boccardi and Nada Al Hassan.

To ensure inclusive and sustainable development, proactive policy making that integrates a cultural dimension and promotes intercultural dialogue is needed. It should be based on deep-rooted knowledge of the local context and involve the participation of marginalized groups. Protection of cultural heritage and preservation of indigenous languages, among others, should form a part of national legislation. The cumulative experiences of countries where cultural diversity is a basic attribute of society have shown a wide array of policy approaches and all of them represent instances where accommodation of diversity has been a central aspect of government.⁶⁵

Technology

Technology, including information and communication technology (ICT), is increasingly being seen as an important element in the contemporary sustainable development agenda.⁶⁶ Rapid technological change, particularly in ICTs, is deepening the integration of the global economy, providing new pathways to decoupling growth from resource use and creating new opportunities for developing countries to join an international production system.⁶⁷ In this sense, technology is likely to play a major role in the transition to sustainable production and consumption.⁶⁸ Developments in technologies have also contributed to migration processes by enabling migrants to strengthen ties to their homelands and also allowing people to migrate with greater frequency over longer distances.⁶⁹ Expanded use of technologies is considered to be central in addressing challenges of the poor, improving public service delivery, including health care, education and basic infrastructure.⁷⁰ Evidence around the world further points out to the growing role of ICTs, especially new media, in increasing transparency and accountability of public institutions, broadening participation, and reducing corruption.⁷¹ An important concern to address here is to ensure that the change generated by technology is directed to more sustainable and equitable outcomes and to improve access to opportunities provided by technology, particularly in developing countries.

⁶⁵ Young, Crawford (1999), *The Accommodation of Cultural Diversity: Case Studies*. UNIRSD, Palgrave Macmillan.

⁶⁶ For the role of technology in sustainable development see United Nations Technical Support Team Issues Brief “Conceptual issues” (2013), Report of the Secretary-General (2013) *Science, Technology and Innovation, and the Potential of Culture, for Promoting Sustainable Development and Achieving the Millennium Development Goals* for ECOSOC’s 2013 Annual Ministerial Review.

⁶⁷ SDSN (2013). *An Action Agenda for Sustainable Development*. Report for the Secretary-General, prepared by the Leadership Council of the Sustainable Development Solutions Network.

⁶⁸ WESS (World Economic and Social Survey) (2013). *Sustainable Development Challenges*, UN DESA, New York, 2013.

⁶⁹ Report of the Secretary-General (2013). *International Migration and Development (A/68/190)*.

⁷⁰ SDSN (Sustainable Development Solutions Network) (2012). “A Framework of the Sustainable Development Solutions Network”, Draft, 19 December 2012, available at <http://unsdsn.org/files/2012/12/121220-Draft-Framework-of-Sustainable-Development.pdf>

⁷¹ For the role of technology in governance see, for example, UN System Task Team on the Post-2015 UN Development Agenda (2012). “Governance and development”, Thematic Think Piece prepared by UNDESA, UNDP and UNESCO.