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service for development

An Evaluation of Development Services and Their Cooperative Relationships

Volume I

by

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Volume 1: SERVICE FOR DEVELOPMENT
An Evaluation of Development Services
and Their Cooperative Relationships

Volume II: COMPENDIUM OF DEVELOPMENT SERVICES

Summary: SERVICE FOR DEVELOPMENT
Findings of an Evaluation
of Development Services and
Their Cooperative Relationships

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ABSTRACT

Three Questions led to this study:

1. What is the role—and effectiveness—of Development Services in furthering education, employment and citizen participation in community and national development?

2. What has been the experience with foreign assistance to Domestic Development Services in developing countries, especially the aid given to those sectors of the population left aside from the mainstream of development?

3. What future international cooperation among Development Services can be anticipated, one which goes beyond the "giver:receiver" relationship and does not interfere with the internal process of citizen mobilization?

These questions were addressed to organizational data and interview responses obtained through field surveys of 42 Development Services and foreign assistance agencies in 14 developing and industrialized countries, and from United Nations agencies. In applying a correlated, systematic approach it was found that Development Services were established in response to various societal problems related to underdevelopment, poverty, inequality of opportunity in development participation, cross-cultural communication among tribes, races and nations, and nation-building. It was further established that the effectiveness of Development Services depends, in principle, on the extent to which they are able:

- to fill immediate needs of people for maintaining a livelihood, and gaining the skills and knowledge that lead to employment and participation in society and

- to change the conditions which caused the problems in the first place.

It was found that the two major distinctions among Development Services stem from (a) the specific societal problems which caused and determined their establishment, and (b) the characteristics of their participants. The emerging different organizational profiles permit classification in **four categories**:

- Training and Employment Schemes (National Youth Service types) for uneducated youth or early school leavers, primarily from rural areas, to pro-

vide them the training and work/service experience in preparation for local employment and citizen roles.

- Study-Services for students at secondary or tertiary educational institutions to direct their education toward development needs, to provide them the work/service learning as part of the curriculum, and thereby change their attitudes toward the less fortunate of society and other sub-cultures. Study-Services also attempt to bring about change in the educational institutions in order to improve their responsiveness to the development needs of individual communities and society at large.

- Social and Technical Development Services for educated and/or experienced citizens to provide them with an opportunity to contribute to the well being of their communities, to respond to the causes of poverty and under-development to fill the needs of the less privileged, and thereby provide learning experience that will change their attitudes towards each other.

- Foreign Volunteer Services for educated and skilled people from industrialized countries to aid the efforts in developing countries for self-reliant development, to fill manpower gaps on the basis of individual requests, and assist social and technological change.

For each category, the program inputs and tasks are assessed, the factors for success discussed, problem areas and achievements identified, and the indicators of performance determined.

To be effective, **three major policy issues** require the specific attention of Development Services:

- Recurrent development education as a lifelong opportunity for all to learn and gain upward mobility, irrespective of where the education may have been obtained. Development Services are identified as educational organizations which have the potential to provide recurrent education for both youth and older citizens at less cost than formal school systems. The success and effectiveness of Development Services in future will depend on their ability to provide such recurrent education for their target populations.

- Employment-orientation as of utmost importance not only for the design and procedures of the training and work programs of Development Services, but also for institutional linkages to support the entry into employment of volunteers upon completion of their service. Without this linkage, and a specific program effort directed to employment facilitation, Development Services evade their mandate to ameliorate the underlying dead-end conditions of unemployment and underemployment which motivated their creation.

- Citizen participation as a mobilization process which involves not only the participating volunteer, his family and home community, but also project communities, and the societal guidance that Development Services can provide. The extent of citizen mobilization through Development Services

depends largely on the organizational structure of the service and that of the society it is serving. A participatory volunteer project is characterized by emphasis on modernizing development and upward mobility of people, under the leadership of the community, with the volunteer outsider role turned over to new internal sub-elites when the project takes off. Without citizen participation, neither development nor self-reliance or peaceful interdependence of peoples can be achieved.

These policy issues are discussed in principle, the record of Development Services in responding to them is assessed, and the elements for an expanded role are formulated. Each issue discussion terminates with recommendations to provide a more effective role in these three areas.

It was found that—in principle—**cooperative relationships** between Development Services can be effective because of their common basis of causes to which they respond, and the similarity of program activities and organization. Three stages of relationships were identified:

- **No cooperation**, a dormant relationship desired to establish or solidify self-maintenance of an organization.

- **Foreign assistance**, a "giver:receiver" relationship, dominant today but gradually decreasing as more national resources become available. It was found that short-term advisory services and financial assistance only at certain junctures of organizational development will be required in future, that the supply of materials and tools is less desirable and effective, and that the long-term foreign expert and volunteer role as a "giver" will increasingly diminish in the foreseeable future.

- **Partnership-cooperation**, a relationship characterized by equality between national and foreign volunteers, by mutuality of learning and helping, was identified as the desirable future relationship to respond to the changing conditions of interdependence and self-reliant development. The elements of partnership-cooperation are defined and various outlines for action discussed.

While there are no simple answers to the questions posed in this evaluation, the assessment of the materials uncovers an emerging "state of the art" of Development Services, and identifies preferences for future cooperative relationships to enhance participation of citizens in their own development and the development of their society.

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PREFACE

Volunteer services to local communities and to nations at large are not new. What is new, is that after the Second World War, voluntary and/or obligatory community and national services emerged as vehicles for participatory development. During these past twenty years, the idea of community level and national Development Service has attracted interest in all regions of the world, receiving support from governments, private sponsors and the general public never before encountered. Today, Development Services have branched out into various distinguishable types or categories. They have grown into societal movements in their own right which operate in the interface of education, employment and citizen mobilization.

This evaluation was commissioned for learning.

First, the roles and achievements of both Domestic Development and Foreign Volunteer Services required clarification. What could be learned from their past? What is their potential for education, employment and citizens' involvement in solving their own problems and contributing to the improvement of conditions in their societies?

Second, the foreign assistance that has been provided to Domestic Development Services (DDS) in developing countries needed appraisal. The question was—and is—whether aid provided to these DDS could more rapidly and effectively reach the ultimate recipients in local communities who most need help. If this were proven to be the case—then aid to DDS should receive high priority.

Third, the learning that could emerge from this study would concern future relationships among Development Services, relationships which replace the "giver:receiver" dependencies of the foreign assistance era with more equal forms of partnership, and partnerships which, in turn, open up two-way North:South cooperation as well as intra-regional joint service programs. Such partnerships would require an identification of conditions under which the presence of the foreigner, or the contribution of outside funds, would not interfere with a main objective of Development Services, namely, to mobilize citizens for participation in their own development, and in the development of others.

In exploring these questions through this four-part report, there has been a constant effort to identify and to stress the linkages between Development Services and other societal sectors.

The systematic questioning analysis which was addressed to the evaluation materials provided a correlated framework which guided the assessment, producing not only answers to the questions in varying degrees, but resulting also in the emergence of components of a general theory to underline new directions for Development Services. While the evaluation materials did not provide adequate feedback to all the questions that were raised, still, with respect to the emerging "state of the art," the results are larger than was anticipated. It is believed that many of the principles and concepts identified here "in statu nascendi" can become building blocks for future research to develop useful models of Development Services.

The discussion of these issues began in 1972 among a small group of Development Services, governmental agencies and a private foundation, and reached the stage of formulation during 1973. Now, toward the end of the 1970's, it is generally accepted that the interrelationships between developing and industrialized countries have changed significantly, indicating the beginning of a new era. The era of "development and technical assistance" as a "giving-receiving" relationship is coming to an end. It is being replaced by a new awareness of interdependence and self-reliance of nations.

It was exactly at this juncture of the two eras, in the Spring of 1974, that a multinational group of Sponsors commissioned this evaluation.

The Sponsors included: the Charles F. Kettering Foundation, Dayton, Ohio, USA; the German Ministry for Economic Cooperation and the German Volunteer Service, Bonn, Federal Republic of Germany; the US Peace Corps, the US Agency for International Development, Washington, D.C.; and the International Secretariat for Volunteer Service (ISVS), Geneva, Switzerland. Cooperating in this study were Development Service organizations from: Benin (Dahomey), Canada, Costa Rica, Denmark, Germany (FR), Indonesia, Israel, Kenya, Malaysia, Nigeria, Panama, Thailand, United Kingdom, United States and the United Nations Volunteers. The International Secretariat for Volunteer Service and, as a successor from April 1976, the Charles F. Kettering Foundation were Coordinators for the group of Sponsors.

I am extremely grateful to the Sponsors for this opportunity to explore, at this crucial juncture, the changes in reasons, needs, subsequent programs and the cooperative relationships of the various forms of Development Services, thus gaining an insight into the direction that should be pursued in the future. It was truly a learning experience which—I trust—will be transmitted to others through this report. I hope that the findings of this study will help to clarify the issues and will provide useful guidance to those involved in policy, planning, implementation and the cooperation of voluntary and obligatory Development Services.

I am grateful to all Sponsors not only for their financial and material support, but also for their valuable guidance during the course of the study. In numerous discussions their representatives provided essential inputs from their experience in similar or related fields which contributed significantly to the direction of the evaluation. They include: Phillips Ruopp of the Charles F. Kettering Foundation; Dr. Friedrich Kalff of the Ministry of Economic Cooperation, Germany; Dr. Manfred Kulessa and Detlev Rössing of the German Volunteer Service; John A. Ulinski, Jr., of the Agency for International Development; William T. White and Francis A. Luzzatto of ACTION/Peace Corps; and Maxime-Leopold Zollner and Helmut Weyers, formerly with the International Secretariat for Volunteer Service. The cooperation of the many officials from the various Domestic and Foreign Development Services and their supporting governmental agencies in the cooperating countries was essential to the study, and deep gratitude is extended to them for their patience in answering questions and supplying information. My thanks also are rendered to the many professionals from United Nations

Volunteers, UNICEF, UNDP, UNESCO and ILO, who gave valuable advice and time, and contributed ideas and data on their experience. These individuals are too numerous to mention by name but they all should be assured, that without their contribution and involvement, this project would have been impossible.

My warm appreciation for their cooperation and advice goes to my colleagues, the three Consultants from Africa, Asia and Latin America who visited the various Domestic Development Services within their regions and obtained the necessary data: Udochuku Uwakeneme, Managing Director, Ujamaa Consultants Limited, Lagos, Nigeria; Eugenia Jamias, Program Coordinator for Peace Corps, from the Philippines; and Cecilio Shaw R., from the Associatión Panemeña de Desarrollo in Panama.

Finally, but not least, I extend my gratitude to Dr. Friedrich Edding, Berlin Germany, Dr Manfred Kulessa, now Kathmandu (Nepal), Frederick J. Lewis, Washington, and Phillips Ruopp, Dayton (Ohio) for their conceptual advice and the many helpful discussions; to Dorothy Leavitt for never ending editorial assistance, and Barbara Churchill, Ann Erteschik and Renato Salazar for their secretarial support.

This has been a truly cooperative, multi-national and transdisciplinary effort, and I am indebted to all who made it possible.

Washington, D.C.
August, 1977

Irene Pinkau

PART I

SCOPE AND NATURE OF INQUIRY

PROFILE OF STUDY 1

This evaluation is addressed to policy makers, scholars, managers and individual citizens in government, local communities, private institutions and those international agencies and associations that are concerned with Development Services. It speaks to the experts who are well acquainted with the current state of affairs of Development Services, as well as to those who deal only occasionally with such programs. Government officials, educators, students, citizens active in community work, may be interested in the case studies of the four categories of Development Services, the concepts behind such programs, and their usefulness in helping to solve some of the social problems of our time.

The tremendous amount of factual information obtained from some 42 institutions and from 89 individual interviews, and the broad scope of issues related to this study posed quite a problem for the structure of the reports. The task became even more difficult since Domestic Development Services (DDS)—and to some extent Foreign Volunteer Services—are not widely known, and many misconceptions exist regarding their objectives, structure, achievements, and political nature. Finally, the ultimate goal of the study is not merely a description of these services and their foreign assistance relationships, but rather, the assessment of their current societal role and future potential both at home and for new global cooperative relationships.

In order to serve the varied interests and transmit the assessment and findings in the most useful manner, three documents are presented:

Volume I: SERVICE FOR DEVELOPMENT. This main report is structured in four parts, introducing the reader to the scope of inquiry, guiding him through the assessment of the four categories of Development Services, raising the major policy issues, analyzing past relationships, and pointing to future forms of partnership.

Volume II: COMPENDIUM OF DEVELOPMENT SERVICES. This document provides the factual description of each service that participated in this study, without attempt to assess the data.

SUMMARY: This brief highlights the major features and findings of the study on SERVICE FOR DEVELOPMENT for easy review.

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PURPOSE

This evaluation was commissioned to learn more about the role that Development Services play in the human development of their countries, and about the various interrelationships that affect their efforts.

The first step was to affirm that these Services were in fact participating in the development process by mobilizing citizens and integrating them in the mainstream of the country's society. When this role of Development Services had been clarified, the Statement of Work directed the evaluation:

1. *To identify existing types of foreign assistance to Domestic Development Services in developing countries with respect to personnel, financial and material investment, and the preferences given to various approaches;*

2. *To assess achievements of various types of assistance, especially with respect to internal mobilization of human resources through outside assistance;*

3. *To develop guidelines for planning and programming of foreign assistance to domestic services including new approaches to international cooperation through mutual assistance.*

MAJOR QUESTIONS AND ASSUMPTIONS

First, it is assumed that Domestic Development Services can make a significant contribution to mobilizing human resources. But, in fact, do they? Therefore, the first set of underlying questions relates to the services themselves: How effective are Domestic Development Services (DDS) in furthering the self-development of people and stimulating the participation of citizens in local and national development? More specifically: To what extent do the different categories of DDS provide new and flexible means for:

- Skill training and work programs for uneducated youth, thereby preparing them for employment and providing volunteer manpower for development projects?

- Experiential learning opportunities for students by placing them in a real work environment—in contrast to "practice"—and thereby providing a kind of education more relevant to them personally, and to the needs of the job market?

- Supplying technical, social and professional skills in areas of needs—especially rural communities—through service of educated citizens of all ages?

- Bridging the cultural differences within the nation by fostering new ways of communication and cooperation between rural and urban population, between members of different tribes and cultures, between the educated and the uneducated, and the rich and the poor, instilling in them a sense of belonging to one nation; in brief, nation-building?

Second, it is assumed that foreign assistance to Domestic Development Services in developing countries reaches people directly, especially in rural areas, who have been outside the development process and are in special need of securing a basic livelihood and being trained for permanent employment.

Therefore, major questions include:

- What foreign assistance has been provided heretofore to Domestic Development Services and what has been learned from this experience?
- To what extent does assistance provided by Foreign Volunteer Services to Domestic Services constitute effective help in solving the pressing problems of the underprivileged?
- To what extent would the assistance of Foreign Volunteer Services directed to the underprivileged have more impact than assistance via the "formal" system of schools or employment?

Third, it is assumed that foreign assistance to Domestic Development Services can be provided without interfering with the internal mobilization of citizens. This assumption raises the following questions:

- What are the conditions for internal mobilization and participation of citizens through Domestic Development Services?
- How can the presence of the foreigner, or the use of foreign funds, avoid disturbing this internal mobilization process?
- What future international cooperation between Domestic and Foreign Volunteer Services can be envisaged that goes beyond the present "giver and receiver" relationship, and relinquishes one-sided dependencies?

In Summary:

We know that both Domestic and Foreign Development Services aim to:

- increase citizen mobilization and development participation in local communities and beyond
- reduce the number of illiterate, unskilled, unemployed and underemployed people, especially in rural areas
- expand services to those whose basic needs for a livelihood are not yet met or maintained
- improve services and infra-structure in rural areas and urban slums
- involve more skilled and professional manpower in development projects in rural communities and in areas of national importance.

We ask:

- What are the relationships between program inputs, tasks and outputs in all categories of Development Services?
- Which program tasks are most important in Development Services and will result in the greatest good (achievements in comparison to needs and reasons)?
- What relationships and dependencies are created through personnel, financial or material foreign assistance to Domestic Development Services?
- What new relationships must be developed in response to new needs created by the interdependence and self-reliance of nations?

Clearly, this three-step questioning of (1) the importance of Domestic Development Services, (2) the role and impact of foreign assistance, and (3) international cooperation, addresses current practical policy and management issues as well as the basic conceptual questions of international development relations. Many of the questions raised are not restricted to Development Services but concern all who are involved in the advancement of people and the well being of society. Therefore much can be learned from research in other related fields. These results will help in the interpretation and insight regarding the role and potential of Development Services.

METHODOLOGY

To obtain the detailed information that would serve the triple purpose of this evaluation it was decided to conduct structured field surveys, guided by institutional inventories (example Appendix A-3) and individual interview questionnaires (example Appendix A-4). The interviews included a rating of success factors of Development Services. Also, reports and other organizational papers were obtained to supplement inventories and questionnaires. A description of the evaluation procedure is contained in Appendix A-1.

Two approaches were applied

First, the **Project Evaluation** focused on data collection and assessment of individual Domestic Development Services (DDS) in developing countries. They were selected for geographical and cultural diversity, different types and specific purposes, and the foreign aid that was given to them. Invitations to participate in the evaluation were forwarded on the basis of the criteria as outlined in Appendix A-2. Eight countries from Africa, Asia and Latin America responded favorably. In some countries more than one Development Service was invited to participate; in others, during the field surveys, organizations volunteered their data on the spot. Five organizations, out of 15 initially invited from developing countries, formally declined to participate. Three consultants, one each from Africa, Asia and Latin America, conducted the field surveys and recorded data in their respective regions: Udochuku Uwakeneme, Managing Director, Ujamaa Consultants Limited, Nigeria; Eugenia Jamias, Program Coordinator for Peace Corps, from the Philippines, and Cecilio Shaw, from the Asociación Panemeña de DeSarrollo in

Panama. In addition, the then Director of Regional Activities for ISVS, Helmut Weyers, conducted the survey in Indonesia and provided detailed information on the Panamanian Service on the basis of various field visits. Initially, a few Domestic Development Services in industrialized countries were invited to provide data that was related to their foreign assistance potential to services in developing regions. As it turned out, their institutional records were even more important for the overall assessment of the role of Development Services, that is the project evaluation. Therefore, DDS from industrialized countries are analyzed within their respective categories and jointly with the services from developing countries. Table 1 lists the Domestic Development Services, by category and country, which participated in this study:

TABLE 1. DOMESTIC DEVELOPMENT SERVICES
Providing Data for this Evaluation

1. TRAINING AND EMPLOYMENT SCHEMES

		Acronym
Benin:	• Clubs 4-D de Jeunes Ruraux, (Compendium No. 1)	Clubs 4-D
Kenya:	• National Youth Service, (Compendium No. 2)	KNYS
	• Village Polytechnics, (Compendium No. 3)	V.P.
Malaysia:	• National Youth Pioneers Corps, (Compendium No. 4)	NYPC
	• National Youth Development Corps, (Compendium No. 5)	NYDC
	• National Youth Leadership Training, (Compendium No. 6)	NYLT
	• Farm Youth Program, (Compendium No. 7)	NYP
Thailand:	• Rural Youth Leadership Training, (Compendium No. 8)	RYLT
Costa Rica:	• Movimiento Nacional de Juventudes, (Compendium No. 18)	MNJ
Panama:	• Servicio Nacional de Voluntarios, (Compendium No. 19)	SNV
Israel:	• Gadna Youth Corps*	
Malawi:	• Young Pioneers,*	
Jamaica:	• National Youth Service Programme,*	
Zambia:	• National Youth Service,*	

2. STUDY-SERVICES

		Acronym
Nigeria:	• National Youth Service Corps, (Compendium No. 9)	NYSC
Thailand:	• Graduate Volunteer Certificate Programme, Thammasat University, (Compendium No. 10)	TUVP
Costa Rica:	• Movimiento Nacional de Juventudes, (Compendium No. 18)	MNJ
Panama:	• Servicio Nacional de Voluntarios, (Compendium No. 19)	SNV
USA:	• University Year for ACTION, (Compendium No. 20/3)	UYA
Colombia:	• Asociación Colombiana de Universidades (Association of Colombian Universities)*	
Indonesia:	• Kuliah Kerja Nyata*	
Israel:	• Oded Youth*	
Nepal	• National Development Service, (Tribhuvan University)*	

*No field surveys; evaluation of reports and documentation only.

Malaysia:	• Persatuan Kelsangsnan Pelajar Pelajar Malaysia, (National Union of Malaysian Students)*	
Thailand:	• National Youth Office, Students Voluntary Work Camps*	

3. SOCIAL AND TECHNICAL DEVELOPMENT SERVICES

		Acronym
Kenya:	• Voluntary Development Association, (Compendium No. 11)	KVDA
Indonesia:	• Badan Urusan Tenaga Kerdja Sukarela Indonesia (BUTSI), (Compendium No. 12)	BUTSI
Thailand:	• Arsa Pattana:	
	– Rural Development Volunteers Program, (Compendium No. 13)	RDV
	– Youth Development Volunteer Project, (Compendium No. 14)	YDV
	– Volunteer Leaders for Community Development, (Compendium No. 15)	VLCD
Canada:	• Company of Young Canadians, (Compendium No. 16)	CYC
United Kingdom:	• Community Service Volunteers, (Compendium No. 20)	CSV
USA	• Volunteers in Service to America (VISTA), (Compendium No. 20/2)	VISTA
	• Foster Grandparents, Retired Senior Volunteers, Senior Companion Program, ACTION, (Compendium No. 20)	FGP/RSVP
	• Service Corps of Retired Executives, and Active Corps of Executives, ACTION, (Compendium No. 20)	SCORE/ACE
Iran:	• Army of Knowledge*	
	– Sepahe Behdasht (Health Corps)	
	– Sepahe Danesh (Education Corps)	
	– Sepahe Targive Va Abadani (Rural Extension and Development Corps)	
Jamaica:	• National Youth Service Programme*	
Israel:	• Nahal*	

4. COMBINED DEVELOPMENT SERVICES

		Acronym
Costa Rica:	• Movimiento Nacional de Juventudes, (National Youth Movement), (Compendium No. 18)	MNJ
Panama:	• Servicio Nacional de Voluntarios, (National Volunteer Service), (Compendium No. 19)	SNV
USA:	• ACTION, (Compendium No. 20)	ACTION

*No field surveys; evaluation of reports and documentation only.

Jamaica: • National Youth Service Programme*
Sri Lanka: • Sarvodaya Shramadana Movement*

*No field surveys; evaluation of reports and documentation only.

Second, the **Program Evaluation** of foreign assistance data concerns the aid provided to Domestic Development Services in developing countries. Assistance is identified as personnel (experts and volunteers), financial and material aid. Defining this section of the study as program evaluation—which normally has a control function—is based upon the assumption that foreign assistance to DDS is, in fact, one worldwide program carried out by different sponsors but with essentially similar goals.

Moreover, from the viewpoint of the recipient nation, outside help should be supplemental, filling gaps of funding or skilled personnel in order to conduct a viable operation. Normally, program evaluations are carried out within one agency as a feed-back mechanism to policy makers and management, to relate the effectiveness of individual programs to the objectives. For such program evaluation, targets and performance indicators are specified during the initial planning, and their control becomes part of each assistance program design prior to the initiation of operations. This could not be expected for aid to DDS since most foreign assistance institutions do not have a clear picture of the actual role—or potential—of these services and do not perceive or record such aid as a separate category. Rather, foreign assistance to DDS is by and large summarized under "non-formal" education, technical training, and community development. Therefore, program evaluation here emphasizes gaining an insight into the "giver and receiver" relationships and dependencies. This—it is hoped—will provide a basis for development of targets and specific performance indicators for both on-going foreign assistance and new cooperation programs.

In all, nine Development Services, two international volunteer coordinating bodies, six UN offices or agencies, and four individual consultants provided information for this program evaluation. Table 2 lists these foreign assistance institutions.

TABLE 2. FOREIGN ASSISTANCE INSTITUTIONS
Participating in the DDS Study

DEVELOPMENT SERVICES:		Acronym
Canada:	• Canadian University Service Overseas, Ottawa (Compendium No. 21)	CUSO
	• World University Service Canada, Ottawa (Compendium No. 22)	WUSC
Denmark:	• Mellemfolkelight Samvirke, (Danish Volunteer Service) Copenhagen, (Compendium No. 23)	MSV
Germany:	• Deutscher Entwicklungsdienst (German Volunteer Service), Bonn, (Compendium No. 24)	DED

Israel:	• International Youth Cooperation Center, Jerusalem	IYCC
Netherlands:	• Stichting Nederlandse Vrijwillingers, (Association of Dutch Volunteers), The Hague, (Compendium No. 25)	SNV
United Kingdom:	• Community Service Volunteers, London (Compendium No. 17)	CSV
USA:	• ACTION: Peace Corps, Washington, D.C. (Compendium No. 20/1)	PC
United Nations:	• United Nations Volunteers, Geneva, (Compendium No. 26)	UNV

COORDINATING BODIES:	Acronym
• Coordinating Committee for International Voluntary Service, Paris, France*	CCIVS
• International Secretariat for Volunteer Service, Geneva, Switzerland	ISVS

UNITED NATIONS:	Acronym
• Food and Agriculture Organization*	FAO
• International Bank for Reconstruction and Development*	IBRD
• International Labour Office	ILO
• United Nations Children's Fund	UNICEF
• United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization	UNESCO
• United Nations Youth Office*	

*No field surveys; evaluation of reports and documentation only.

A total of 42 organizational inventories and 69 interview questionnaires were returned. In addition, 20 unstructured interviews were conducted. A profile of the interview respondents is contained in Appendix A-5. Together with many reports and supplementary papers from both Domestic Development Services and foreign assistance institutions, these records formed the data base for this evaluation.

SCOPE OF THE EVALUATION

The common and specific interests of the sponsors of this study have given it a broad scope for inquiry. What initially began as three simple assumptions and questions to which all agreed, evolved into four major emphases to seek answers:

1. Classification of major groupings of Development Services based on principle common features (Chapter 2);

2. Assessment of categories of Development Services based upon individual case studies (Part II, Chapters 4-7 and Volume II);

3. Discussion of major policy issues which affect both the performance of Development Services and their cooperative relationships (Part III, Chapters 8-10);

4. Analysis of international relationships, particularly foreign assistance and partnership-cooperation (Part IV, Chapters 11 and 12).

So broad a scope of inquiry cannot be expected to maintain the attention of all who are interested all the time. Rather, it is anticipated that the different aspects of the report will serve a variety of clients. It is hoped that the professional community of Development Services will find support for their operations, but also that legislators and governmental policy makers as well as educators and scholars will find parts of this study useful.

During the first round of analysis of the materials it became apparent that the emphasis of the evaluation shifted. While initially the study was organized along "receiver" and "giver" lines—leaving the Foreign Volunteer Services with the "givers"—the emergent common ground among the various categories of Development Services and their potential partnerships required a shift in scope. The focus changed from a foreign assistance versus Domestic Development Services approach to a more balanced emphasis on each category of Development Services, and their current and future cooperative relationships. This is reflected throughout the report; Foreign Volunteer Services are treated on a par with their domestic counterparts. As a consequence, the study gains in consistency, as it not only sharpens the profile of the various categories, but certain features for possible future models of Development Services emerge. It is thus hoped that this evaluation provides a contribution to the development of a "state of the art" of Development Services.

STRUCTURE OF THE REPORT

The report is structured in four Parts and twelve Chapters reflecting the various emphases of this study.

PART I deals with the overall scope and nature of the inquiry.

Chapter one presents the reasons why this study was conducted and describes the scope of the evaluation.

Chapter two provides major terms of reference: A brief review of the origins of Development Services, classification in major categories, and the identification of the principle features of those organizations. Different alternatives of design features also are discussed.

Chapter three introduces the underlying questioning rationale for the subsequent assessment of the various categories of Development Services: Why were they created? When, Where, Who, What make up the program? What are the achievements and—in comparison with costs, objectives and reasons—what represents their efficiency and effectiveness?

PART II describes the organization and assesses the role of the four categories of Development Services.

Chapters four, five, six and **seven** contain the Case Studies of individual services belonging to the following categories: Training and Employment Schemes (Chapter 4); Study-Services (Chapter 5); Social and Technical Development Services (Chapter 6) and Foreign Volunteer Services (Chapter 7). Here the questioning approach is applied. The reasons for establishment, consequent needs and objectives are discussed for each category. Their program activities in terms of inputs and tasks are described and analyzed and their achievements are determined in comparison with the needs and causes to which each category responds. Important principles of this assessment are discussed in chapter four as it contains the first analysis of a category of Development Services.

PART III discusses the major policy issues which evolved from this evaluation.

Chapter eight focuses on recurrent development education as a lifelong opportunity for each citizen which Development Services must pursue if they are true to their mandate.

Chapter nine introduces the issue of employment-oriented development, which for Development Services is an essential feature if they are to serve their target populations.

Chapter ten explores the scope of citizen mobilization and participation, and identifies an organizational structure and operational procedure which would make Development Services more effective.

PART IV is concerned with the cooperative relationships among Development Services.

Chapter eleven reviews the foreign assistance provided to Domestic Development Services in developing countries which participated in the study. An assessment of, and preference for,

various types of assistance is provided, and the image of the foreigner in the eyes of the "receiver" is discussed.

Chapter twelve discusses the direction toward future partnership-cooperation among Development Services in all parts of the world. Three principal stages of relationships are identified and the new causes and needs for partnership are discussed. The elementary characteristics of partnership-cooperation, and outlines of action for implementation, conclude the final Chapter.

CLASSIFICATION OF DEVELOPMENT SERVICES 2

This Chapter groups the many Development Services on the basis of principal similarities. Comprehending the large variety of volunteer service programs and understanding their major specialities is necessary before the individual cases—which are the concern of this study—can be assessed. Categorization is a small first step toward developing models of Development Services that present a generally acceptable profile of design and standards of performance. Appendix C-1 contains definitions relevant to the considerations in this Chapter.

The idea of service is not new; most societies have long traditions of mutual assistance in times of need. To better understand today's many forms of voluntary and obligatory Development Services and their interrelationships, we might briefly look to their roots. Where do they come from?

A LOOK AT THE PAST

The earliest voluntary services were community-based self-help actions. They appear to have followed a built-in behavioral pattern that emerged simultaneously with the settling of ancient men in groups beyond the immediate family. Those initial forms of self-help were based on benefits for the participants and responded to elementary needs such as: clearing land for food production and settlement, house construction, joint harvesting, or family help for illness or other emergencies. For example, in his report about traditional self-help services in East and Central African villages, Philip M. Mbithi relates that the cooperative work groups (Mwethga) carried out joint work projects and the resource policy groups (Ielo) decided how to obtain and allocate resources. Similar local traditions are reported from Asia and Latin America, like the gotong-royong (voluntary mutual assistance in villages) in Indonesia. In North America, self-help for mutual benefit was a built-in behavioral pattern of the early settlers, and in middle Europe at the beginning of the Christian Era, the "Markgenossenschaften" provided the framework for self-help in this cooperative settlement after the migrations. These self-help activities were voluntary in nature but were supported by a community "code of conduct" that made it difficult to evade participation. These traditions of self-help continued to the present time, maintaining flexibility to change their patterns as needs dictated. Basically, self-help activities responded to the elementary need of survival—the survival of the individual, the family and immediate community. They required a constricted area and direct relationship between the people who participated. Hence the geographical area of voluntary self-help, as in the past, is now limited to a single community or to a cluster of neighboring villages or townships. Self-help services defy large scale organization at the national level, they have little formal institutional structure and normally operate without outside help or govern-

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mental initiative. Their main detriment today lies in the mobility of people, the breaking up of neighborhoods in urban centers and large scale housing projects.

A second root of today's voluntary Development Services goes back to the period of the American and French Revolutions toward the close of the 18th Century, and the emergence of industry with the related changes in social conditions and political activity at the start of the 19th Century. Intensified by rapid population growth, that period saw the first of modern-day associations. People became organized beyond their community or trade boundaries on the basis of political, religious, economic and social (labor unions) or special status (students, youth) interests. The student and youth movements, and the missionary services of the 19th Century up to the 1930's in Europe and North America were other forerunners of today's volunteer services. The emphasis of those services was on personal growth (Character Building), political expression and social concern (charity) for those in need. These organizations and movements differed from the earlier community self-help schemes for mutual benefit. Often established at the national or state level, the new service schemes provided outside help to the poor and underprivileged in their own or other communities out of moral, social and/or political conviction and obligation. They were—to some extent—the forerunners of today's technical assistance services. As non-governmental organizations they often became a political voice of the otherwise unorganized public. This latter phenomenon is especially true for the student and youth movements in continental Europe. The classic Anglo-Saxon concept of voluntary service, giving one's time free of charge for the benefit of others, also has its origin in this era. It became integral to the way of life—and expression of democratic values in England, Canada, other parts of the Commonwealth, and the United States. In India, for example, after consolidation of the British rule, voluntary services for social welfare and educational purposes were quite common.

The first foreign volunteer service likewise had its origin in this era: the Weltfriedensdienst (World Peace Service), founded by Professor Rosenstock-Huessy in Germany in the 1920's as a non-governmental program. As an expression of reconciliation, German volunteers served full-time for about one year in Balkan countries after World War I providing economic aid to farmers during the ensuing inflation and depression.

A third source of today's Development Services are those government organized employment programs for rather large numbers of people serving in areas of national needs. Most of these employment type services provide labor for large scale public works projects, such as construction, food production and harvesting, communication and transportation, protection and preservation of the natural environment. Such Development Services, as national employment schemes, go back more than 6,000 years when people in Egypt joined in cooperative labor projects to build dikes and canals to control the Nile (for reference see Bibliography No. 33). China, too, for centuries had labor-intensive rural public works programs to improve the agricultural infrastructure (irrigation, drainage, terracing, etc.). More recent examples include the Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC) established by President Franklin D. Roosevelt during the depression of the 1930's as a counter measure against unemployment. CCC was involved in large scale public works projects such as: reforestation, wildlife protection, water control, road construction. In Germany, the voluntary work service (Freiwilliger Arbeitsdienst) was established in the late 1920's for employment in public works construction, agricultural production, social service to large families and remote rural communities. Later, in the 1930's, under the national-socialistic government, this voluntary work service was changed profoundly for political purposes to an obligatory service for young adults which included para-military training for men, and focused on defense construction and food production. To some extent, the German and U.S. large scale programs were set up as "emergency services", responding to an acute economic problem with a short-term solution, and were not permanently institution-

alized and integrated into the economic structure of the country. While contemporary voluntary or obligatory Development Services have roots that go back many centuries, and are found in widely separated areas of the globe, following World War II, they took on new forms responding to the growing youth population and their specific development needs. The magnitude of these development problems required multi-faced and massive responses which went beyond the capacity of non-governmental efforts and, increasingly, governments either established services or supported existing non-governmental programs to carry out services for the general public.

Finally, one must take into account the unprecedented national and international political scene in the 1950's when these new Development Services began: the independence of many freshly established nations and the creation of the United Nations produced new forms of alliances, cooperation and dependencies beyond the traditional bilateral colonial ties of the past.

Toward the end of the colonial era, new types of indigenous volunteer services appeared in countries that were fighting for independence and self-determination. In some cases these services were set up as well structured military-type units; in others, they consisted of demonstrative movements (Ghandi in India) or smaller community groups acting on their own. Examples include the movements in Kenya, Zambia, Tanganyika, India, Indonesia, Bolivia, Panama, Bangladesh, and Mozambique. Parallel to these indigenous schemes, local services were formed on the basis of models imported from other usually industrialized countries such as the activities of religious groups and youth movements. Among them were: Boy and Girl Scouts, YMCA, YWCA, Work Camp Services and charity and social welfare organizations. These imported models enlisted the educated and those who could afford spare time to help others without seeking financial reward for themselves. To a large extent, they depended upon their foreign sponsors for financial and, sometimes, staffing and management support to perform their tasks. Philip Mbithi confirms this notion in his study on "Localizing Youth Volunteer Developmental Service in Kenya"[76].

With independence achieved many of the freedom movements changed their orientation to focus on development. Thus, many Domestic Development Services were established as government-sponsored indigenous schemes, emphasizing social change, economic growth, education, self-realization, nation-building.

For the most part, Domestic Development Services in developing countries were established during the 1960's. Notable exceptions are some Asian programs which began earlier (India 1905, Indonesia 1950, Pakistan 1953, Sri Lanka 1958). Similarly, Foreign Volunteer Services, most of them government-supported, which send mostly young skilled volunteers abroad, appeared at the close of the 1950's. They emphasize local level or "grass roots development" and aim at bridging the gaps between the educated and uneducated, the rich and the poor, the skilled and the unskilled, the rural and the urban people, different cultures, languages, religions and philosophies. With the rapidly expanding world population defying the hope for economic growth, their emphasis is still basic: namely to ensure a livelihood for the poor and provide some stability toward a minimum income, health and living standards. However, with gaps of income and living standards between industrialized and developing countries still widening, many services concentrate on three new basic needs: (1) helping to provide equal opportunity for people especially in rural areas; (2) improvement of income distribution, and (3) equal justice. The era of "development", since the 1950's is characterized by technical assistance, the interrelationships of "giving and receiving". Both Domestic Development Services employing skilled volunteers in their own country, and the Foreign Volunteer Services now offer such technical assistance to local communities. They endeavour to link their services

to existing community self-help schemes, initiate new ones and involve local citizens in the larger development effort of the nation.

Thus, today's voluntary and obligatory Development Services have three roots: (1) in community self-help traditions; (2) in voluntary organizations established in response to social and economic needs, and as an expression of political, religious or philosophical concerns; and (3) in voluntary or obligatory employment services to provide manpower in areas of national public need.

CATEGORIES

Here, Development is defined as the mobilization and advancement of people, in contrast to improvement of institutions and growth of profits, to achieve and maintain an adequate livelihood and self-reliance. Some services add, as a specification of development, the achievement of equal opportunity, fair distribution of income and equal justice to all.

Service is defined as work done, with attention and devotion, for others and to their benefit. And Development Services are defined as work programs that emphasize the mobilization and advancement of people, carried out with attention and devotion to the benefit of others. In other words, the mobilization and advancement of people is required in order to classify as a Development Service. Worthy though they are, voluntary services which distribute material goods and extend charity are not Development Services, as long as the recipients are not mobilized and advanced in terms of education, jobs, citizen roles, etc. Even some projects of Foreign Volunteer Services, providing technical assistance, may not be developmental in nature because they do not mobilize and advance the recipients of the service.

As people-to-people programs, Development Services are distinguished by the characteristics of their participants. The capabilities and educational background of volunteers themselves indicate immediately the kind of service they can render.

As will be explained in Chapters 4 to 7, the participation of people with different levels and types of education in various categories of services is a response to specific societal problems which caused the establishment of these services in the first place. Another indicator of service distinctiveness, resulting from the differing qualifications of volunteers, lies in the several types of learning and work programs for each category. Related to this specification of learning and work programs is the matter of schedule: Development Services require a certain continuum of commitment. at best a full-time and long-term service (1-2 years or more). Medium term services (6-12 months), or part-time service with a long-term commitment are other alternatives. However, programs which are both part-time and short-term cannot be seriously considered as Development Services since contribution and commitment are too sporadic to be relevant to the development process as defined in this study. It is in the program emphasis and the scheduling, that Development Services are distinguished from youth work and other voluntary activities.

Finally, the kind of contribution a program makes to the development of people sets the performing service in a distinct category.

Table 3 provides a brief review of the Categories of Development Services.

TABLE 3. CATEGORIES OF DEVELOPMENT SERVICES

CATEGORIES	CATEGORY DESCRIPTORS					
	Education of Volunteers	Age Range Years	Volunteer Training	Volunteer Work Programs	Achievement Indicators	Schedule of Service
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Training & Employment Schemes	No school drop-outs	16-25	Literacy techn./ vocational farming civics home making	Public works, trade, farming, crafts, self-cooperatives, administration, home making.	Volunteer employment, change of formal education system, continued community service.	Full-time 1 year up to 5 years.
Study Services	Students	17-25	Teaching management community devel. culture, communications	Teaching, rural development, surveys, development administration	Graduation after service return to rural areas, employment social service oriented.	Full-time for 1 year, 6 or 3 months or part-time with long-term commitment.
Social & Technical Development Services	Completed education: formal or by experience	18-50 or un-limited	Comm. devel. Administrat. of CD program cultural communications.	Rural development; community service	Provision of needed skilled manpower, continuation of projects volunt. left, rural employm. of former volunteer	Full-time for 1-2 years, or part-time with long-term commitment
Bilateral Foreign Volunteer Services	Completed techn. & profession. education	21 - un-limited	Language, culture & communication special techn. skills	Community based: rural development, urban slums: health, social service, educat. and techn. training	Continued volunteer requests, project continuation after volunt. left, number of target persons reached, number of persons participating	Full-time for 2 years; few 1 year; reassignments possible
United Nations Volunteers	Completed techn. & profession. education	21 - un-limited	same as Bilateral Foreign Volunteers	U.N. assisted projects, large scale, highly technical, often not community based	Funds saved instead of expert pay; Same as Bilateral Foreign Volunteers	Full-time for 2 years

1. Training and Employment Schemes

Also called National Youth Services, they offer uneducated youth and early school leavers literacy, civics and technical/vocational skill training, in combination with employment in work programs. They are usually government sponsored, they require full-time service for a duration of 1-2 years. A few programs combine part-time and full-time participants. Typical projects for work programs are: farming and land settlement, rural craftsmanship and mechanics, public works construction, development of rural industry and marketing. Customarily such projects are community-based and focus on local level development. The age range of volunteers is from 12-18 and even up to 25. Males predominate but the number of girls is increasing. Most National Youth Services, Service Civic and Junior Brigade type of programs in Africa, Asia and the Caribbean fall under this category (see Table 1 and Compendia Nos. 1-8, 18, and 19).

In a few industrialized countries, such programs provide training for school or employment drop-outs and help them to obtain work; as for instance, the Jobs Corps and two experimental programs of ACTION, both in the United States (see Compendium No. 20). In Israel, the Gadna Youth Corps belongs to some extent in this category—even though they usually involve high school students and no drop-outs. Their program emphasizes citizenship training and nation-building, instilling national and social values and developing leadership qualities and physical fitness. The service of the Gadna Youth Corps is linked to civil defense. It's concepts and experience have influenced many of the Training and Employment Schemes in developing countries.

2. Study Services

Often known as university services these programs are carried out by, or linked to, educational institutions usually universities or colleges, but in some instances secondary schools. Student volunteers are assigned to development projects, mostly in rural areas, in jobs that may or may not be related to their field of study. Study-Services respond to the need for relevant experiential learning and a new development orientation of the university. Through development work programs they emphasize practical skill training and learning of work processes, change of attitudes toward other tribes or sub-cultures, and the provision of professional services in rural areas or urban plight situations. Study-Services are part of an educational program, often for credit, on a full-time basis, and for a duration of 6 months to 1 year. The age rangs is from about 18 to 25 years. Most services are co-educational with the girls not necessarily restricted to "typical women activities". Projects are community based and include teaching in primary and secondary schools, rendering agricultural, social and health services, assisting in general community development. Examples in this category are: Ethiopian University Service, Graduate Volunteer Certificate Programme in Thailand, National Youth Service Corps in Nigeria, Association of Colombian Universities, Kuliah Kerja Nyata (KKN) Indonesia, National Development Service of Nepal and Iran's Education Corps, (one of the four Development Corps which provides off campus credit programs upon request to volunteers teaching in villages). The Ethiopian University Service is currently suspended and integrated into a rural areas scheme of National Service for all students. As this report is written, it appears that the emphasis has shifted to political action, and student cadres are also charged with implementing the revolution in the hinterland.

A few examples from industrialized countries also belong in this category. For instance, the Community Service Volunteers (CSV) in the United Kingdom which started by involving high school and college students in community service, subsequently succeded in having some

schools integrate the CSV service in the curriculum. In Israel, the Oded Youth Groups are part of the Kibbutzim Movement. Here high school graduates serve in community and social work, especially in child care and youth development projects. At the college level the U.S. Teachers' Corps, provides teacher education through service assignment of volunteer-teachers. The program is carried out by the Office of Education and credit is given. Finally, the University Year for ACTION in the United States is a Study-Service carried out by individual universities under the guidance of the ACTION umbrella agency. This program is included in the curricula and credit is given.

The Study-Services that provided data for this evaluation are listed in Table 1—a detailed description is contained in Compendia Nos. 9, 10, 18, 19 and 20/3.

3. Social and Technical Development Services

Most often these programs involve educated citizens who have schooling plus technical skills and/or professional training. They provide (a) service opportunities to the enrollee, and (b) skilled volunteer manpower and professional talent to the recipient communities. There are also a number of services which make use of mature people educated by experience (and by heart). Such are, for example, the National Service in Tanzania, Sarvodaya Shramadana in Sri Lanka and the Thailand Volunteer Leaders for Community Development (Compendium No. 15). Their volunteers serve on a full-time or a part-time basis for 6 months to 2 years in projects such as: general education, technical training, health, nutrition and social services, development of agriculture, small industry, rural infrastructure and general community improvements. Although there are no age limitations the majority of volunteers range in age from 17-30 years. The customs of the country and the nature of the project determine the recruitment of women. Iran, for example, has special programs for women only. In Panama and Indonesia women are accepted on the same basis as men. In Thailand, as in other countries, women are excluded not by policy but because of the nature of the service and the cultural traditions of the society.

Typical examples include Iran's four Development Corps (designed as an alternative to military service, but on the basis of voluntary application and careful screening of candidates), Indonesia's Rural Development Service (BUTSI), Thailand's Community Development Volunteers (Arsa Pattana), Panama's National Volunteer Service and the majority of the volunteer development services in Latin America.

In this group of Social and Technical Development Services belong also those domestic volunteer services in industrialized nations which are community oriented and which employ graduates during vacations, and youth or adults who take leave of absence from employment because they wish to experience volunteer service. There are quite a number of full-time and long-term programs carried out by governments and private groups, such as ACTION/VISTA, and the service groups of the elderly and businessmen and women in the United States, Company of Young Canadians, Community Service Volunteers in Britain (also has part-time volunteers), Working Group for Social Services in Germany. Israel has various services in this category: Youth Movement Envoys, a community service of the Kibbutz Movement; Volunteer Associations, a community service as alternative to military service for girl graduates of religious high schools; and the Nahal Movement, a three-year service which combines land settlement and farming with military service.

Social and Technical Development Services which provided data for this evaluation are listed in Table 1 and explained in detail in Compendia Nos. 11-20.

4. Bilateral Foreign Volunteer Services

This category comprises those programs which send volunteers abroad on the basis of bilateral agreements between the sending and receiving institutions. As explained earlier, they stem from the early 1920's when the World Peace Service was founded in Germany, but their time came after the Second World War with the beginning of the "development and technical assistance" era. Voluntary Service Overseas (VSO), founded in 1958 by Dr. Alec G. Dickson in Britain, pioneered development service to distant countries. The creation of the U.S. Peace Corps in 1961, on the initiation of President John F. Kennedy and his "New Frontier" philosophy, eased the acceptance of these services by citizen groups and by governments in other parts of the world. Thus, the international climate with respect to volunteer development service changed during the 1960's and Foreign Volunteer Services were established in Australia, Canada, New Zealand and most Western European countries. This process paralleled the rise of Domestic Development Services in independent nations of Africa, Asia and Latin America.

All Bilateral Foreign Volunteer Services have similar objectives: to provide (1) technical assistance to those in need, (2) a learning experience for the participating volunteers, and (3) a contribution to peaceful relationships among nations. The priorities among the three objectives may differ from service to service and indeed has changed even within the service. Clearly, the learning experience and the technical assistance role are not incompatible, but the emphasis each is given significantly changes the type of programs carried out, and the relationship to the "receiver" of the service.

Volunteers with a minimum age of 21 years (VSO and Peace Corps 18 years) and a completed education are sent abroad for one, two or more years on the basis of specific requests from host countries. In the main, the age of volunteers in this category ranges from 23 - 27 years but there are no limitations for older people to serve abroad. The educational background of volunteers from various countries differs because of the difference in their educational systems. Anglo-Saxon countries which have a university system with two levels of graduation, the bachelor's and the master's degrees, produce more "generalists", (i.e. bachelor's degrees) for service abroad. In contrast, in the continental European education system, universities confer only master's degrees. Technical education—sometimes combined with apprenticeships—of the secondary and post-secondary level is deferred to specialized educational institutions in the various fields. The results produce middle level, technically skilled volunteers available for service abroad. In recent years, these differences in skill level among Foreign Volunteer Services have disappeared because of more specialized and higher skill level requests from developing countries, resulting in selective recruitment efforts on the part of the sending organizations.

Most services require a completed technical or professional education and assign volunteers abroad to development projects that include vocational and technical training, general education, industrial development, health and nutrition, social services and community development, agricultural and rural infrastructure development, construction and surveying, and public administration. The majority of foreign volunteers are assigned to rural areas.

There are only two **Foreign Volunteer Services in developing countries** established for the purpose of sending volunteers abroad: Operation Brotherhood International in the Philippines and BUTSI in Indonesia, the latter being a Domestic Service Board with one section responsible for Indonesian volunteers who are sent to a foreign country. However, there are a number of Domestic Development Services in those countries which now provide volunteers for service abroad with the United Nations Volunteers or in student exchange programs. These DDS have

also supplied volunteers to multinational volunteer teams coordinated by ISVS, for example in Chile, Yemen and Panama.

Foreign Volunteer Services participating in this evaluation are listed in Table 2, and explained in detail in Compendia Nos. 21-25, 12 and 20/1.

5. Combined Development Services

These services are not a distinct class unto themselves but rather combine some or all of the four categories described above. Some of the combined services carry out the different categories as separate program sections but do not give them separate organizational structure, nor call for a specific "corps d'esprit". Others maintain separate identities for the various categories of services and thus provide special focal points for the engagement of different types of volunteers. Countries that provide such combined services include Costa Rica, Panama, Sri Lanka and the United States. A detailed description is contained in Compendia Nos. 18-20.

6. Multinational Foreign Volunteer Service: UNITED NATIONS VOLUNTEERS

The United Nations Volunteers (UNV) created in 1971, is the only multinational volunteer organization sponsored by governments and designed to send volunteers abroad. UNV was established as an arm of the United Nations Development Program, the Administrator of UNDP also being the Administrator of UNV. Drawing on resources of both bilateral Foreign and Domestic Development Services, volunteers with a minimum age of 21, and professional or technical qualifications are sent overseas to United Nations-sponsored projects, and serve for a period of two years. As is the case with all other Foreign Volunteer Services, UNV teams are assigned only upon the explicit request from host countries, and their composition draws from as wide a geographical distribution as possible.

Because volunteers are assigned only to U.N. financed projects, which are chiefly large-scale, technology-oriented, the qualifications of volunteers are rather high and specialized. During 1974 and 1975 UNV's mandate was expanded to carry out special programs supporting Domestic Development Services to involve youth in the United Nations efforts. A detailed description of UNV is contained in Compendium No. 26.

It should be noted that there are a number of **multinational non-governmental voluntary services** which send either multinational groups or provide an "umbrella" for many foreign bilateral and domestic programs. In this category belong the Service Civic International, Commission on World Service/World Council of Churches, YMCA, YWCA, Friends Service Committee (Quaker) and the International Voluntary Service (IVS), USA. In fact, Service Civic International operated its first multinational work camp in 1929.

7. International Volunteer Service Coordinating Bodies

Only two organizations belong in this category: the Coordinating Committee for International Voluntary Service (CCIVS), Paris, France, and the International Secretariat for Volunteer Service (ISVS), Geneva, Switzerland.

CCIVS was founded in 1947 to coordinate non-governmental voluntary work-camp organizations (Co-Co); it later expanded its scope to voluntary development services, both short and long-term and part and full-time programs. CCIVS now has 130 member organizations. Since the 1960's youth organizations from socialist countries have joined. In 1968, at the XVIth Conference of Organizers of International Voluntary Services, CCIVS approved "The Universal Charter of Volunteer Service".

> *" . . . Volunteers are men and women who give up their normal work and, without regard to financial benefits, devote their knowledge and abilities, within the framework of common efforts, to the people in regions of social and economic need. In their daily work, their attitudes and relations, they support the principle of equality and the right of every person to dignity and respect.*
>
> *The work which they carry out in accordance with these principles is voluntary service. This same spirit is also to be expected of the administrative staff in a volunteer organization, who may, however, receive salaries."* The complete document is contained in Appendix B-1.

For the past half dozen years CCIVS has emphasized the importance of Domestic Development Services in developing countries. CCIVS enjoys third class membership at UNESCO, which contributes funds for activities. Its role best can be described as a strong advocate of non-governmental and voluntary service and a critical examiner of government involvement.

ISVS was founded in 1962 as a result of a Conference of Middle Level Manpower held in Puerto Rico. Founding members were 43 governments present at this conference. As an international governmental agency ISVS had the mandate to assist organizations and governments in the establishment, expansion and improvement of volunteer services for development. There were no limitations as to whether the assistance was provided to non-governmental or governmental organizations. ISVS had 64 Assembly member countries, of which 26 were Council members who contributed to the budget by providing funds and/or personnel. As an assistance agency, ISVS carried out a comprehensive program of Directors' Conferences, Staff Training Seminars and Staff Exchanges, issues Seminars for both Domestic and Foreign Volunteer Services in various regions of the world. Appendix B-2 contains a documentation of Conferences and Seminars, many of which were sponsored by ISVS. ISVS assisted the United Nations in founding the United Nations Volunteers and coordinated some multinational volunteer teams, preceding the establishment of UNV. ISVS maintained regional offices in Asia and Latin America and representatives in Africa and North America.

In December of 1975 the ISVS Council, after long deliberations, decided—because of insufficient funding and in order to consolidate international volunteer service relations—to propose to the ISVS Assembly the termination of the organization as of March 31, 1976. The Assembly concurred and ISVS did terminate at that date. During 1975, UNV had taken over some ISVS activities and assumed the remaining projects. UNV will thus expand its role to an international coordinating body and a clearinghouse of volunteer service information.

Now that the major categories of development services have been identified it appears appropriate to clarify some basic features of their design which have not yet been discussed but are relevant for understanding their roles. While these distinctions have their origin in the different traditions of services as described earlier they often cause heated debates and tend to cloud the real issues.

VOLUNTARY VERSUS OBLIGATORY SERVICES

Voluntary Services are either (1) locally, (2) regionally, (3) nationally or (4) internationally organized schemes whose members enter into service of their own choice and free will. The free will—whatever motivations are behind this will—is the decisive criterion of a voluntary service. This is a "minimum definition" all services agree on. Perception of further aspects of volunteer service differ and not any one definition is acceptable to all. Other criteria defining a volunteer service include:

- Schedule of service: part-time volunteers can provide service for unlimited periods, and often do, as an expression of their way of life. Full-time volunteers serve for limited periods designated by the purpose of the organization or by the project they carry out. This point is important to avoid misconstruing volunteer service with regular employment and career.

- Remuneration: part-time volunteers and full-time volunteers who serve within their own community normally do not receive remuneration but, occasionally, reimbursement for expenses and free meals. Particularly, this applies when volunteers from the less fortunate section of the population participate in the service. Full-time volunteers serving in other communities or countries receive room and board and/or a minimum living allowance to sustain them during their assignments. In Principle, all volunteers should receive uniform remuneration and be treated equally, irrespective of their educational background, tribal or social status which would provide them with different incomes in regular employment. Remuneration of volunteers is probably the most significant change in the concept of volunteer service occurring after World War II. It opens up opportunities of service to those who do not have the means to sustain themselves without income from regular employment. In other words, the earlier "classical" voluntary concept of service without any remuneration restricted it to the upper classes of society—thereby reducing the concept of service to charity for the poor. Today, all full-time services, both domestic and foreign, pay volunteers equally to sustain themselves.

- Recipients of Service: most volunteer services, be they domestic or foreign, locally or nationally organized, part or full-time programs, serve local communities at "the grass roots level", and emphasize the immediate and personal contact with those who need help. In some instances, volunteers are conceived as the "pontifex", the bridge builder, or the last link in the chain ensuring that outside help reaches those in need. This outside help can be governmental or non-governmental programs, regular public administration efforts or foreign assistance. In other instances, volunteers themselves—as part of those communities who need help—are the primary recipients of the benefits of their service. This is true for most Training and Employment Schemes described earlier. An exception is the Kenya National Youth Service which primarily focuses on large scale public work projects such as land clearing, public works construction, wildlife preservation, etc. which indirectly serve communities.

Obligatory Services are nationally organized full-time and long-term schemes whose members enter service because of a legally binding arrangement. In other words, they do not vary as much in design as the voluntary services. Here, members enter service without expression of their free will, but because they belong to a certain age group or have a certain status, i.e. students, bound by the legal arrangement. Most obligatory services are created to enforce a social obligation and/or educational purpose not apparent to, nor pursued by, those sections of the population called for service. This is especially true for students called for service as a compulsory credit program and for those educated young people who are idle in cities and do not participate in their nation's development. Examples of obligatory services are: The Nigerian National Youth Corps calling students to a year of service in rural areas after completing studies for the first university degree and before receiving their certificate (see Compendium No. 9); the Study-Services in Indonesia and Nepal; and the three Iranian Development Corps which draw on military draftees who have completed secondary, post-secondary or university education, and are permited to volunteer for Development Services in rural areas in lieu of military Service. In other words, entering the Development Services is a voluntary move, whereas the first call, the military service, is a draft. There are no basic differences between voluntary and obligatory services as to policy or remuneration and recipients of service. One can, of course, argue that because no free will to volunteer is exercised, the value of those services in terms of learning impact, contributions to others in need, attitudinal change toward other subcultures, and improved identification with the nation, is diminished. After all the concept of voluntarism holds that the will is the primary factor in experience. But how is will formed? What influences the creation of different kinds of will in today's mass-societies, communication explosion and marketing of ideas? It can be argued that the service experience within a group, the person-to-person encounter with the residents of villages, and the deflection of attention from oneself is a powerful experience for change in anyone's life. It can motivate and create an environment which furthers voluntarism as an experience of free will. This notion is confirmed by a recent study by Ms. Irene Sie of the Philippines, "Volunteer and obligatory services of University Students"[111]. She found no difference in involvement or performance level between both groups concerning contact with communities, group organization or management functions in service.

There are ample other examples on both sides of the fence: volunteers who returned frustrated and with reduced motivation toward serving others, and corpsmen who became volunteers by spirit and devotion. In Iran, for example, a high percentage of members of the Education Corps, after completion of their two year obligatory service, volunteer to remain in remote villages another five years as primary school teachers.

Inasmuch as voluntary application remains an expression of a free will to enter into service to others, the obligatory service can create a will to serve other people—through the experience of service.

GOVERNMENTAL VERSUS NON-GOVERNMENTAL SERVICES

In voluntary service circles, normally the non-governmental service—often referred to as "indigenous scheme"—has a better image than the government supported program. The reasons for this image difference appear related to the voluntary traditions in many societies as an expression of citizen concern and a democratic way of life. However, the history of today's services make it clear that the answer is not that simple and a distinction is not as clear-cut as one would surmise. Discussions on governmental versus non-governmental organizations usually center on the question of the dependency of volunteer services vis-a-vis government policies, decision-making and funding. In principle, however, the distinction between the two types pertain to their legal structure and their funding.

Today the following structures occur in the various categories of Development Services:

- Local community self-help groups, organized on a local scale for mutual benefit are non-governmental, and normally receive no governmental funding. However, there are local self-help, private groups which concern themselves with curing societal ills and they often participate in a larger governmental program. They normally receive governmental funding for cash expenses and provide volunteer manpower and/or facilities as matching contributions in kind. In some instances they receive nationally recruited or foreign volunteers to implement the governmental program. Examples in the latter category include Domestic Development Services in Indonesia, Thailand, Canada, the United Kingdom and the United States (Compendia 12, 13, 15, 16, 17, 20).

- Most Domestic Development Services in developing countries are governmental by legal structure and by funding. They are, at the same time, as described earlier, the indigenous schemes, i.e. developed from their own traditions and resources. In contrast, the non-governmental services in the developing regions are imported models—often going back to the colonial era, and up to today, dependent upon outside support. Also, they mostly involve only the educated as volunteers and address the poor and underprivileged as their object of service (charity). In Europe and North America, most Domestic Development Services are non-governmental in their legal structure—with the exception of the Company of Young Canadians and ACTION/USA which are governmental organizations. But most of these nationally organized DDS carry out social services within the realm of governmental responsibility and receive some funding. To them must be added the number of church programs, industry or foundation sponsored non-governmental volunteer services in the United States, which draw on their private sponsors or on capital market incomes for support.

- All Foreign Volunteer Services from Europe and North America receive governmental funding, with the exception of the church services and a very few specialized professional services (veterinarians) in the United States. However, they differ in their legal structure: the Dutch, Norwegian, Swedish, Swiss Volunteer Services and the US Peace Corps are governmental. In contrast, the Austrian, British, Canadian, Danish, French and German (Fed. Rep.) Volunteer Services have a non-governmental legal structure. Of the latter, only the British and Canadian services obtain private and some-

what above 50% governmental funding, whereas the Danish, French and German services are 100% financed by the government. In Europe and North America, apart from the services described here, most countries have various services sponsored by churches, labor unions, and other sources, which receive some governmental funds for their involvement abroad.

This clearly indicates that most of today's volunteer Development Services have entered into a relationship with governmental sources to carry out their mandate. It also indicates that, increasingly, governments accept and value the non-governmental efforts, and that both consider "development" too large a job for any one source. It seems that only a few non-governmental services are rich enough to remain private in their funding.

Finally, as a point on the dependency of governmental and non-governmental involvement in development services, it seems that the problem lies not so much in the "What" of the legal structure or funding, but "How" the dependency on government is arranged and executed. For example, the Canadian University Service Overseas (with 57% governmental funding) and the Danish Volunteer Service (with 100% governmental funding) have significant flexibility in their decision-making once the annual budget and program is approved. Only one annual audit certifies the regularity of expenditures. In contrast, the German Volunteer Service (DED)—even though non-governmental in legal structure but 100% government-financed—has added governmental strings attached to its decision-making during the course of the year, with detailed financial management regulations affecting personnel and project decisions.

SMALL VERSUS LARGE SERVICES

The question of size of a Development Service is a concern of many professionals. At times, it seems, the issue becomes more a question of principle than of organization—actually it is both. As the German Friedrich Hegel (1770-1831) pointed out in his dialectical philosophy, a quantity changes into another quality when it reaches a critical size.

Thus, one group argues that, upon reaching a certain size, a Development Service changes its quality, requires more administration and discipline enforcement, and discourages citizen involvement and individual volunteer contribution. They contend that a variety of smaller local services is better than a large one.

The counter proposition is: the smaller programs may be useful for solving local problems, but a large scale effort is necessary to respond to nationwide needs. So far, many small service programs have not demonstrated a significant impact on the large scale problems of national underdevelopment.

These two contrary positions are, of course, simplified to point up the difference. For a solution to the size of Development Services the following factors are of importance:

- large scale needs require a concerted large effort in response, covering all relevant population groups and geographical areas
- small group settings encourage creativity, growth and participation by individuals
- innovative solutions require a pluralistic structure and a local application

Therefore, size in itself is not an isolated issue: The quality of a service is dependent upon:

1. a national policy and plan directly responsible to the needs of the people they are designed to serve

2. a size which covers target population and geographical areas, and

3. an organization which decentralizes administration and delegates decision-making to the local responsible unit.

SELF-HELP VERSUS HELPING OTHERS

Another question relevant to the design of Development Services within the various categories is: How important is the function of self-help in comparison to helping others?

- Self-help in the traditional unstructured way as described earlier, is an active process. It is a first step of mobilizing people. Self-help is basically ego-centered and based upon mutuality of benefit. Self-help is also tribal and group centered, in that people remain in their closed cultural community environment and are neither endangered nor challenged to think beyond their boundaries.

- Self-help groups which are recipients of outside help, governmental programs or foreign assistance—often including the presence of government officials, national or foreign volunteers—are somewhat different. The determination to help themselves, the free will or voluntary decision to enter into an activity remains the most crucial step, this being the precondition for any mobilization of local communities. However, the availability of a governmental program, or outside help, changes the environment for that decision. In the above first case the community acts alone without knowing what others are doing. In this second case, once outside help is requested, linkages are established, communications are broadened, inviting participation or even competition with others to do the same thing. Although the nature of the self-help is still ego-centered, the presence of the outsider is a necessary challenge to go beyond the traditional way. In fact, joining with others in similar projects has a marked impact on the advancement of the living conditions of the people in the community. In other words, the learning and change process is intensified significantly. It is at this point that development begins. It requires a delicate balance between both the voluntary decision to mobilize and bargain about the priorities of the "What to do?" on the part of the community, and the type of rules and regulations under which outside help is provided. If these regulations of aid are inflexible, dominating in requirements and rigid in execution, the community or so-called self-help group is degraded to a welfare recipient or "cadre" executing outside advice. Again, not the "What" of outside help to support development is the crucial question, but the "How" it is designed and executed. Thus, development processes require outside challenges to the community in form of ideas, programs, people and/or funds. Isolation, even if it is based on mutual self-help, does not create advancement, i.e. development, as defined earlier.

Many Training and Employment Schemes belong in this type of self-help group which receive outside assistance. The participants make a voluntary decision to join but they themselves are the beneficiaries of the assistance in terms of training, work experience and potential employment opportunity. In addition, apart from advancing themselves, they work for their local communities or regional development of their country through various work programs.

- Helping others is an altogether different aspect of Development Services. It requires involvement outside one's own immediate interest and a devotion to the needs and interest of others. All Development Services, whether domestic or foreign have this "helping others", as a people-to-people relationship, i.e. producing advancements, as an underlying principle. This is crucial because, as we have just seen, self-help in terms of development requires outside help. Again the "How" is the important parameter to make it work satisfactorily. To be sure, helping others is not without ego-centrism; it appears only in another form and at another level. Whereas self-help centers mostly on economical and social gain, helping others centers on spiritual gain and satisfaction. If done correctly, i.e. making it a learning and contributing experience, this can be a crucial period of personal growth and satisfaction. If done in the wrong way, helping others can become a charity, looking down on others, and a distribution of "giving power". In other words, helping others designed as an educational and learning process results in growth and personal gain for both the recipient and the helper, whereas giving as a charity from the "haves" to the "have nots" is destructive because it perpetuates a subservient relationship and maintains dependencies.

COMMON DENOMINATORS OF DEVELOPMENT SERVICES

Irrespective of different origins, category of service, speciality of design and underlying philosophy, all Development Services have many common denominators. In fact, the overlapping areas include objectives, policy, operations, support, etc. Common denominators are crucial as a basis for any form of cooperation among Development Services. They include:

- Conceiving themselves as social change agents, in their own society and culture, for self-education of citizens and involvement in local communities;

- Emphasizing the participation of their own people—even the poor and uneducated—in projects of importance to local communities and national development;

- Treating each member-participant equally, irrespective of education, family or tribal background;

- Promoting employment after completion of service, and often providing incentives, especially for employment in rural areas;

- Providing an opportunity for contribution to a common goal even for the poorest who would have no economic, but probably motivational, means of participation on a voluntary basis, and who would otherwise have little or no chance to give and contribute to a community or a larger national effort.

- Most important, all types of Development Services respond to two basic needs of every person, whether poor or rich, educated or uneducated, rural or urban, national or foreign: **the need to learn** and **the need to contribute**.

- This combination of learning and contributing in a service scheme embraces more than the opportunity for experiential learning—it is an actual mobilization of people and an investment of human manpower in the social and economic development process. But such an investment becomes self-defeating if it does not lead to further learning opportunities and further employment.

- Therefore, the linkages with other institutions which enable the service to function effectively are the significant and common characteristics of development services design and operations:
  - Linkages with resources: local communities which recruit the participants and governmental or private agencies which provide policies, funds and supervision.
  - Linkages with "consumers": the employment system (including self-employment) providing jobs for volunteers after completion of service and/or the education system providing opportunities for further training and education.

NUMBER OF VOLUNTEERS

Table 4 provides a review of the number of **both domestic and foreign volunteers** by region of origin. Figures are based on the World Statistical Directory of 1973 (as of January 1973) published annually by ISVS (now published by UNV).

TABLE 4. NUMBER OF VOLUNTEERS BY REGION OF ORIGIN

Region of Origin	Number of Development Volunteers		
	Domestic	Foreign	Total
1	2	3	4
Africa	79,256	–	79,256
America Central and South	45,597	78	45,675
America North	36,082	9,966	46,048
Asia	186,866	705	187,571
Australia & Oceania	10	270	280
Caribbean	2,586	–	2,586
Europe	4,341	14,768	19,109
International	–	7	7
Grand Total	354,738	25,794	380,532

This concludes the classification of services by orgin, service category, and design specialty. It is a first step toward Models of Development Services which will not only be useful for policy planning and management decisions but necessary to formally identify the present state of the art of Volunteer and Development Services as a viable and distinct entity in the life of a country.

QUESTIONING RATIONALE FOR ASSESSMENT 3

Questioning the Why, What, Where, When and Who of the volunteer service activity in a structured way offers an important tool leading from analysis and assessment of these facts to the identification of program output and achievements. Comparing the latter with the causes, or original problems, the extent of effectiveness can be concluded. Since Development Services are work programs of a special nature their analysis is based on a questioning approach which combines early work study with systems analysis[2,70].

WHY DEVELOPMENT SERVICES?

This Critical Examination procedure is concerned with eliminating the unnecessary; identifying reasons, conditions and relationships for existence. Therefore, the first question deals with the problems, the reasons or causes. A cause is a condition, consisting of demands for remedial action, plus the available resources present at the same time, permitting or producing a subsequent activity.

By asking the first question, "Why have Development Services?", and then analyzing the conditions which induce action—action being the creation of a Development Service—the subsequent questions and answers concerning needs, objectives, profile of program, and achievements fall logically into their proper places. It becomes fairly clear that a set of conditions rather than a single cause determined the creation of Development Services. For example, the masses of idle and often unskilled people, the expanded communications flow (radio, TV), the inheritance of outmoded educational systems, the absence of employment opportunities, certain aspects of tribalism that prevent the development of a national identity—these are conditions in developing countries that demand remedial action within the framework of available resources. These conditions fall into three main categories:

1. Structural
2. Attitudinal
3. Value causes.

It must be borne in mind, however, that Volunteer and Development Services do not exist in isolation; they are part of larger efforts or systems which endeavour to respond to the same causes that are demanding change. As was explained in the classification of Development Services in Chapter 2, they are linked to four major systems: education, employment, national

development and foreign assistance. This fact, in itself, places Development Services in a unique position. By the very relationship to the larger—previous—system, a major reason for their existence is to be a linkage between education, employment, development and foreign assistance.

Identification and specification of the reasons why development services exist provide the basis for all consequent steps: establishing needs, objectives and program activities.

Needs derive from specified reasons. They are defined as: A qualitatively and quantitatively structured profile of conditions, which require relief and determine the nature of response. For example: the numbers of uneducated youth with no outlook for schooling, or reasonable employment near their homes, represent a specific demand for training, employment preparation and job assistance to which Training and Employment Schemes respond.

WHAT OBJECTIVES/GOALS?

In turn, objectives respond to needs by specifying the preferred outcome of activities of a development service, but without attaching a specific time-frame. In other words, the objectives of a service are defined as those aims which require an undetermined length of time for achievement but nevertheless are considered possible with the available resources [2]. In contrast, program goals characterize the preferred outcome of program activities, such as training or work programs, in terms of targets to be achieved in a given period of time. Program goals then identify, for example, specific targets for training to be achieved during the time available for training. Without going into the problems or targeting, particularly when not much is known about themeans-ends relationship[20] in Development Service activities, program targets are an important tool for management control of those services. This is especially true, since Development Services often have the image of—and sometimes tend to be—a kind of "free-wheeling" activity, satisfied just by being active. To avoid targeting means to be unable to measure results against goals, objectives, and reasons; one can comprehend effectiveness only in very general terms.

For individual Development Services, the information on reasons, needs and objectives is recorded in paragraph 2 of each Compendium in Volume II.

WHEN, WHERE, WHO, WHAT PROGRAM DESIGN?

The answers to these questions describe the program activities of Development Services in terms of inputs and tasks performed to produce an output. Foreign assistance, as described in Chapter 9, is part of the inputs of Domestic Development Services and work tasks for Foreign Volunteer Services. In the terminology of targeting, the "inputs" and "work tasks" represent the "means" by which the "ends" are to be achieved. For individual Development Services, this information is contained in paragraphs 1 and 3-6 of each Compendium in Volume II.

WHAT ELSE CAN BE DONE?

This question focuses on alternatives for action. It is a main facet of creative thinking and "brainstorming" on how the problems can be solved. It invloves questioning whether the reasons can be eliminated or modified, by more effective means. This step is most often applied for planning or management control purposes and requires detailed knowledge and data of similar programs that are responding to the same problems. It is an important step in order to keep an open mind and preclude early conclusions.

WHAT IS ACHIEVED?

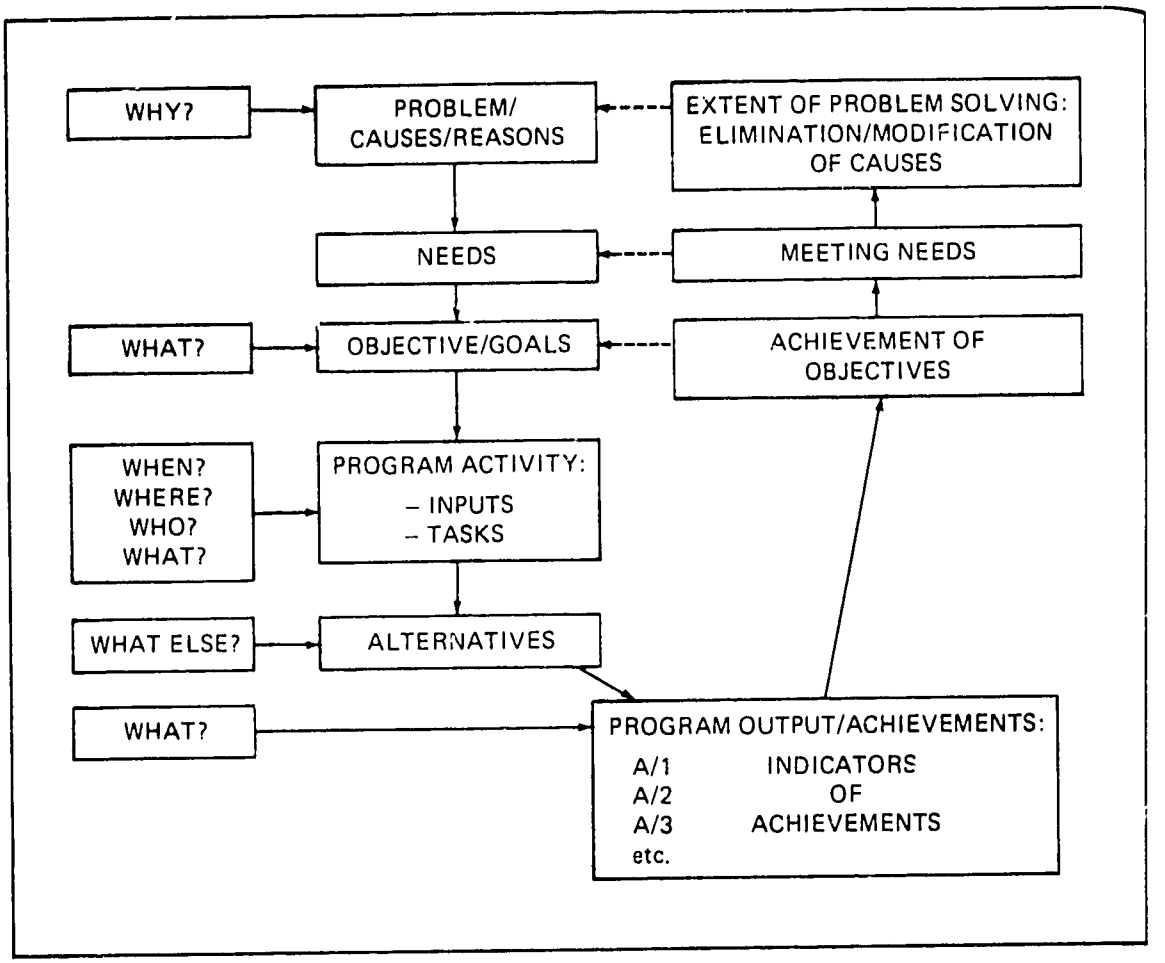
This is the question for program output both quantitatively and qualitatively—or in terms of targeting "the ends". As in all programs—and especially those of an educational/learning nature—the quantitative output is easily identified, whereas the qualitative achievements are difficult or impossible to measure. There have been various attempts to quantify the qualitative process of education but they are enormously complex without delivering comprehensive and "safe" results. This limited study cannot attempt a specific cost: benefit analysis—with the uncertainty of useful results as many similar evaluations have demonstrated.

Therefore, achievements are described in terms of quantitative output—where such figures are available—in indirect terms reflecting qualitative changes of attitudes, learning and increased employment potential, mobilization and participation of citizens outside the service, etc. As a "system linking larger systems" achievements of Development Services can also be expressed in terms of linkage with other institutions and development processes. In this respect the institution building model for social change [31] was helpful for the assessment of some relationships and dependencies, especially the enabling and functional linkages with other institutions and persons and the question of authority. All of these are indicators describing the social role of Development Services.

For individual services, information on achievements is contained in paragraph 7 of each Compendium in Volume II.

The following Diagram 1 displays the sequence of questioning steps.

DIAGRAM 1 SEQUENCE OF CRITICAL EXAMINATION PROCEDURE



PROBLEM SOLVING: ELIMINATING OR MODIFYING CAUSES

Any Development Service is a work program, and if tuned to the reasons for its creation, must aim at the elimination of the very causes which originally established it. If this cannot be achieved, the aim must be the amelioration of the reasons, because the elimination, or amelioration, represents the contribution the service makes to solve the problems which were identified at the onset. To do otherwise would make the service aimless; it would represent institutional self-perpetuation, in contrast to problem solving orientation. For example: If one of the causes for Training and Employment Schemes is the lack of adequate schooling available to youth, especially in rural areas, the goal is not only training youth to make them employable, but also eliminating or modifying the causes for inadequate schooling by contributing to changes in the education system.

Finally, since Development Services are partners in a process, their role cannot be perceived as stationary. Societal changes within one country or changes in international relations between countries can be the source of new modified causes. This is an area where an interesting test of the Development Service as an institution occurs: Has the service become a bureaucracy, unable to change and respond to new reasons and needs—and thereby lost its potential as

change agent and as a partner in a development process? In the later part of the study when future cooperation is considered, this question will be raised again.

Diagram 2 displays the assessment rational for Development Services. It also explains that a comparison of the program output with

- costs indicates the efficiency of the service, and with
- objectives, needs and causes indicates its effectiveness.

FACTS AND PARAMETERS

The questioning approach is based on two preconditions:

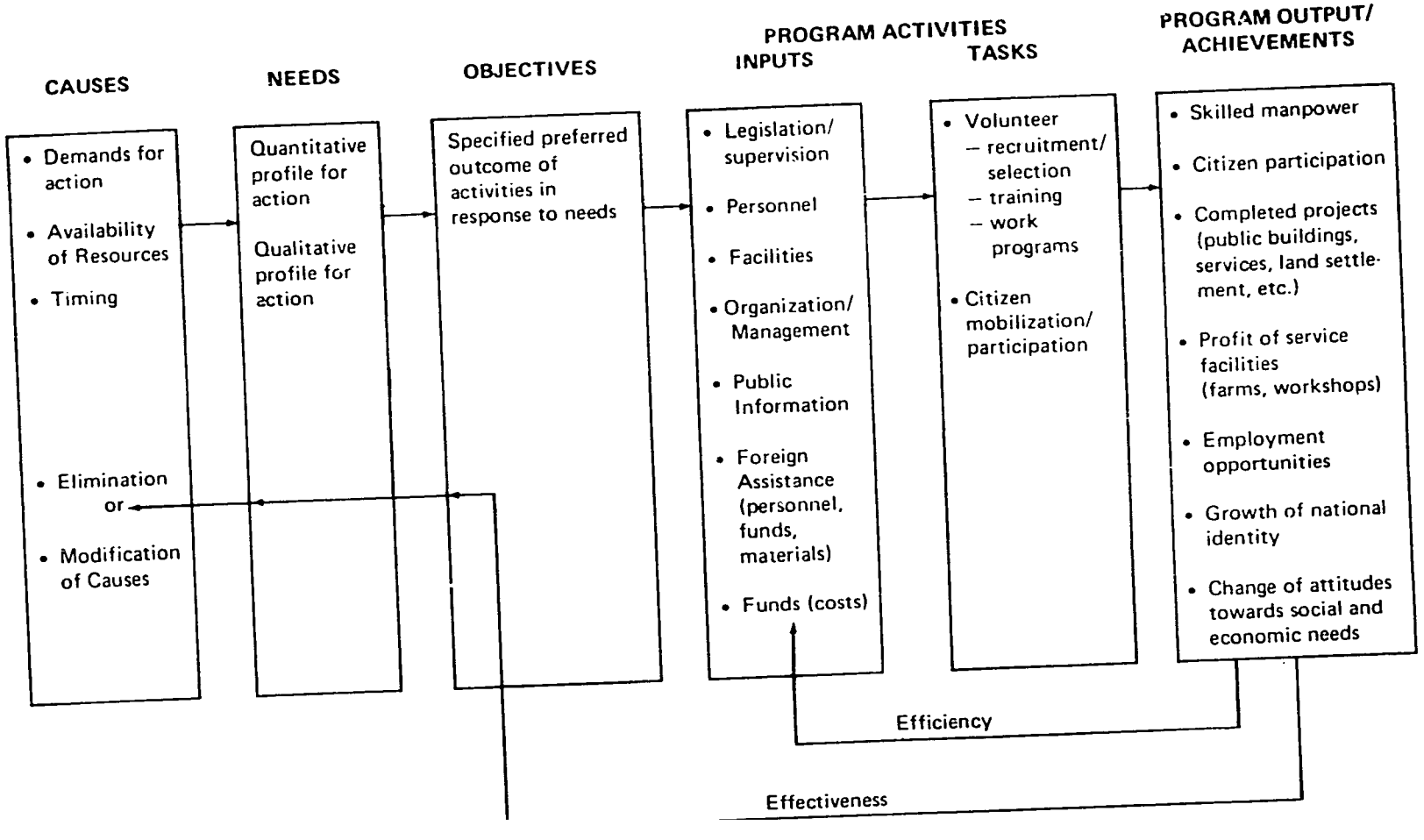
- that the facts are properly recorded, and
- that the parameters within which the development service operates are identified.

As described in Chapter 1, METHODOLOGY, the facts of Development Services were recorded in organizational inventories (for format see Appendix A-3). In addition, facts were obtained from pertinent legislation, publications and reports. It should be noted that in the data collection process, care was taken to separate facts from opinions. The latter are contained in Interview Questionnaires (format Appendix A-4).

In other words, the facts contained in individual Compendia in Volume II will provide the basis for the following Chapters of analyzing and assessing. In some instances, the opinions from interviews will be quoted as additional evidence or as contradiction.

Finally, the parameters set by legislation, policies, funding, available human resources, environmental conditions, etc., are the constraints within which a Development Service operates. They are not easily changed. Change, nevertheless, may be imperative in order to improve performance and meet the needs for which the Service was established.

DIAGRAM 2 ASSESSMENT OF DEVELOPMENT SERVICES



PART II

ORGANIZATION AND ROLE OF DEVELOPMENT SERVICES

TRAINING AND EMPLOYMENT SCHEMES 4

This Chapter deals with Training and Employment Schemes in Benin (Dahomey), Kenya, Malaysia, Thailand, Costa Rica, Panama, and the United States. Detailed descriptions are contained in Volume II, Compendia Nos. 1-8, 19 and 20.

Also, examples of Training and Employment Schemes in Jamaica, Malawi, and Zambia are taken into account to underscore typical program indicators in this category.

WHY TRAINING AND EMPLOYMENT SCHEMES?

As explained earlier in Chapter 3 the answers to the question "Why" are the key to (a) the understanding of a development service's mandate and program and (b) the assessment of its achievements. The reasons for the creation of Training and Employment Schemes, described on the following pages, will determine what kind of programs are needed and what kind of achievements are important.

Independence of Nations

The attainment of independence for many nations in Africa and Asia placed immediate demands upon the leaders to involve their people in the development of their country. Many, especially the young, had fought in the liberation movements and—after achieving the major goal of independence—demanded new direction of purpose, fulfillment and identification. Also, during the fight for independence, cultural, religious, tribal and other differences were relegated to the background, but after the nation was proclaimed, these differences again became a matter of concern. The task of coalescing a multi-tribal, multi-racial and often multi-lingual society into one nation was lying ahead. Many DDS were created to help and develop the new identity, cohesion, purpose and direction following independence, and to bridge the gap between tribes, subcultures, languages, in order to build one nation. Table 5 illustrates the time relationship between the proclamation of independence and the establishment of Development Services.

Obviously, leaders of new nations saw the importance of establishing Youth Services, whether to satisfy transitory reasons, or for long range planning. The Director of the Kenya National Youth Service stated[50]: " . . . *The assimilation of militant youth who have been actively engaged in pre-independence struggles and who, once Independence was achieved, required re-orientation to fit them for normal working lives. Such a reason may be politically pressing to*

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TABLE 5. INDEPENDENCE OF NATIONS AND DDS

Domestic Development Services	Founding Year of DDS	Year of Independence
Dahomey (Clubs 4-D)	1966	1960
Indonesia (PTM & KAMI Study-Service Program)	1950	1945/1949
Jamaica (National Youth Service)	early 1960's	1962
Kenya (National Youth Service)	1964	1963
Malaysia (National Youth Pioneer Corps)	1966	1963
Malawi (Young Pioneers)	1964	1964
Israel (Gadna Youth Corps)	1939	1948
Zambia (National Youth Service)	1964	1964

a degree where it dominates all others at the start, but its nature is transitory, and it has no place in long-range planning." And: *"The creation of a national spirit among young—an important factor where a country has many tribes, and, for unity, must seek to move from a tribal to a national outlook."*

In Zambia, which was then Northern Rhodesia, plans for the establishment of the Zambia National Youth Service were completed before Independence in 1963. A Youth Development Council designated by the then Prime Minister of Northern Rhodesia, Kenneth D. Kaunda, developed the plans which led to early implementation after Independence. The Information leaflet that describes the Zambia National Youth Service cites three reasons for its creation:

> *"It is for the Nation*
>
> *The country needs its youth to build a new nation here. It cannot afford to waste its manpower by allowing thousands of its people to be unemployed.*
>
> *It is for the Youth*
>
> *There are not yet sufficient facilities for training all the youth of the country as useful citizens. Fifty per cent of the population is under the age of 21, and unless the youth are able to turn their energy and enthusiasm into constructive work, they will become a destructive element in society.*
>
> *It is for Service*
>
> *The greatest thing any young person can do for the nation is to serve it with skilled hands, a trained mind, and a dedicated spirit."*

In Israel, The Gadna Youth Corps was originally founded as an adolescent voluntary service to defend the Jewish communities in Palestine before and during World War II. With the declaration of the State in 1948 it changed to a national learning and character-building service for school youth, but maintained its self-defense functions. Joseph W. Eaton described this pro

cedure in his article "Case of Gadna Youth Corps of Israel" in "Institution Building, A Model for Applied Social Change."[32]

The independence of nations and the correlated new needs are among the structural causes responsible for the creation of these Training and Employment Schemes.

Population Growth, Lack of Education and Employment

Population growth and lack of oportunity for education and employment constitute a well known chain of structural causes. Reports of Social and Economic Council[153] and the International Labour Office[13] early predicted there would be increasing problems in providing sufficient learning opportunities and jobs for youth during the period 1970-1980:

1. An increase in the total number of youth from 150 million to 575 million;

2. Youth in developing nations will face the following specific educational problems:
   - about half of the world's school-age youth will not be able to attend schools or literacy programs, and will be unable to obtain adequate employment;
   - about half of those attending school will drop out at the age of 10 and 11;
   - youth with the privilege of attending school will receive a general education, theory-oriented toward the academic world, and quickly outmoded by rapid social and technological changes; this is in contrast to the need of practice-oriented education and training, directed toward employment and national development needs

3. The labor force of young people will increase as follows:

	1970	1980
youth under 20 years of age:	230 million	245 million
youth 20-24 years of age:	211 million	264 million
Total:	**441 million**	**509 million**

These trends are confirmed by a recent "Sector Working Paper on Education" published by the World Bank [132] explaining in more detail the magnitude of the problem and the need for massive and concerted efforts to remedy this situation.

Today, the majority of young people in the world are growing up in rural areas. If they find no learning opportunities and cannot be absorbed in farming or in the local job market, they migrate to urban centers, adding to the problems of unemployment, inadequate urban settlement, youth unrest, and, as a consequence, their capabilities and potential contributions are lost to their country's development.

Table 6 explains the **population structure and growth rate** for the project countries.

TABLE 6. POPULATION IN DDS PROJECT COUNTRIES*

Country	Latest Date	Census Total Number (thousands)	Estimated Total 1975 (thousands)	Population Percentage					
				Male %	Female %	Urban %(e)	Rural %(e)	Growth rate %(f)	Under 20 Years %(g)
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Africa (a)									
Dahomey	9/61	2,106	2,821	50	50	18	82	2.5	N.A.
Kenya	8/69	10,943	12,789	51	49	13	87	3.1	59
Nigeria	11/63	55,670	63,022	51	49	26	74	2.5	52
Asia									
Indonesia (b)	9/71	118,309 (c)	141,338	50	50	19	81	2.8	52
Malaysia (d)	8/70								
—Sabah		656	781	52	48	18	82	4.1	56(h)
—Sarawak		977	1,203	51	49	22	78	2.8	56(h)
—West		8,801	10,457	51	49	51	49	2.4	54(h)
Thailand	4/70	34,152	42,550	—	—	17	83	2.7	56(h)
Latin America									
Costa Rica	4/63	1,336	2,182	51	49	39	61	3.2	N.A.
Panama	5/70	1,428	1,737	51	49	50	50	[illegible]	54(h)
Peru	6/72	13,568	15,870	—	—	54	46	[illegible]	55

* United Nations Statistical Year Book, 1972
a) Estimate for African population based on result of sample survey;
b) Excluding West Iran;
c) Provisional result;
d) Population excludes transients afloat;
e) 1975 estimates;
f) 1963-71;
g) United Nations Demographic Yearbook, 1972, 1973;
h) 1973.

Table 6 confirms three facts concerning the population structure in project countries:

1. More than half of the population are youth under 20 years of age;
2. In African and Asian Countries 75% or more are growing up in rural areas (with the exception of West Malaysia);
3. In Latin America slightly more than half of the population is rural.

Lack of Educational Opportunities

Most governments in developing countries spend far more of their national budgets for education than do industrialized countries. As long as education continues to stress "formal" schooling as the best preparation for adult life, with its larger investment for facilities and equipment and high recurrent costs, the capacity of the education system to "absorb" all those in need of education will remain very limited.

In 1969/70 the project countries participating in this evaluation spent between 13.2% – 18.9% of their national budget on education [158], mostly for "formal" schooling. While in 1970 the illiteracy rate remained a high 74% for Africa, 47% for Asia, 24% for Latin America[158], the enrollment of school age youth in primary and secondary education reached only a fraction of the total age group, especially in rural areas. Additionally, it was estimated a large portion of those entering primary school will drop out by the age of 10. The world average of out of school youth is slightly above 50%. The Economic Commission for Africa, West Africa Regional Office, reports that only 32% of children entering primary school now complete the cycle, 68% drop out[1]. In the first secondary cycle, 70% of the students complete, whereas in the second secondary cycle only 24% finish school. West African Countries spend about 50% of their education funds on school repeaters or drop-outs. This situation is not restricted to West Africa but generally can be found in other regions as well.

The problem is intensified for rural youth: UNESCO reports in a Latin American Study of 1960[157] the drop-out rates between urban and rural children up to sixth grade as follows:

	Drop-out rates of children	
	Urban	Rural
• in Guatemala	50%	96.5%(sixth grade)
• in Columbia	72.7%	96.3%(fifth grade)
• in Uruguay	26.4%	58.3%

Philip M. Coombs, in a World Bank Study on non-formal education for rural areas[19] reports that *"today fewer than one in every four young people reaching 14 years of age—sometimes fewer than one in ten—has achieved functional mastery of reading and writing. And many of these, regrettably, may have lost this ability after a few years for lack of opportunity to use it."* Further, a German study[15] points out that secondary illiteracy creates a graver problem for retraining reading and writing because not only do the skills have to be taught again, but students have to become convinced that these skills are useful. The authors caution about the optimistic and simplistic approach of changing existing cultural ties through introduction of literacy without having new community relationships and employment situations developed into which the newly literate can integrate. This aspect of cautious development of literacy is especially relevant for Training and Employment Schemes which want to prevent youth estrangement from the home environment in rural areas.

Table 7 portrays these structural problems of project countries:

TABLE 7. EDUCATION IN PROJECT COUNTRIES*

Country	Year	Illiteracy of Adults (a) Percentage	First & Second Level School Enrollment (6-18 years)	Out of School 6-18 years age group
1	2	3	4	5
Africa:	1970	M (b) 63.4 F 83.7		
Dahomey Kenya Nigeria	1970 MF 1970 MF 1970 MF	30% (1968)	23% (40) (c) 43% (67) 21% (34) (6-19 yrs)	77% 57% 79%
Asia:	1970	M 37.0 F 56.7		
Indonesia Malaysia –Sarawak –West Thailand	1970 MF 1970 MF 1970 MF 1965 MF		44% (71) (7-18 yrs) 54% (85) 61% (89) 56% (80) (7-18 yrs)	56% 46% 39% 44%
Latin America:	1970	M 19.9 F 27.3		
Costa Rica Panama Peru	1970 MF 1970 MF 1970 MF		78% (92) (7-17 yrs) 80% (91) (7-18 yrs) 85% (–) (6-16 yrs)	22% 20% 15%

* UNESCO Statistical Year Book 1972
a) Adults 15 years and older;
b) M-male; F-female;
c) Ratio of primary school enrollment only listed in parenthesis.

The above figures seem to explain that, because their primary school enrollment is high, Latin American countries have few Training and Employment Scheme type services. However, if one takes into account the earlier described high drop-out rate of rural youth in Latin America one wonders why only a few Training and Employment Schemes for rural youth exist there and in the Caribbean countries to help those who cannot make it through the formal educational system.

The data in Table 7 confirm that African and Asian countries need special training and employment programs for those not able to attend schools. Apart from the need to facilitate training for out-of-school youth the question remains: *"What kind of education is given those who are privileged to attend and complete—at least—primary school?"* Classroom teaching, theoretical curricula and drill were still the norm in educational institutions when Training and Employment Schemes were established. Through these services a new dimension of experiential learning, skill training and practical experience in employment roles has been added to educational opportunities. Again, the needs of providing useful education for more people caused the creation of various Training and Employment Schemes. For example, when the Rural Youth Leadership Training in Thailand was established these problems were cited (summary quote from "Facts and Statistical Figures on Youth in Thailand", National Youth Office, 1973):

- *"Limit to school education: About 63% of the population in Thailand are children or youths, of which 85% live in rural areas. Of the youths aged 11-24 years only 17% are enrolled in schools whereas 83% are out-of-school and have no chance to receive any formal education.*

- *Population growth: The population growth in Thailand remains 3.3 percent per year preventing school education for the majority of youth in the foreseeable future, and creating high pressures on the labor market from unskilled youth.*

- *Food production: The cultivated land available per person for food production in 1973 was approximately 2 rai per person; if the population growth continues and no new land is cultivated, the farm land will only be 1 rai per person in 1980.*

  Finally, because the majority of Thai population are children and youth, in 1970 about 100 working-age persons had to support 89 children and youth."

Underemployment and Unemployment

The underemployment and unemployment of unskilled youth, especially in rural areas, is related to population growth and lack of primary or continuting secondary education. In Kenya, for instance, in 1970, only 2.19% of the primary school leavers, aged 15-19 years, had opportunity to continue in form 1 secondary education[140]. Thus, of those few who completed primary school, even less have opportunity to continue their education and prepare for jobs. At the same time primary school leavers have no employable skills and there are virtually no opportunities to find jobs either in the "formal" or "informal" sector. The "informal" sector comprises all forms of self-employment, normally requiring only trade or commercial licensing for operations. This "informal" sector of trades and services has the broadest capacity, next to land settlement and public works construction, to expand and create new jobs, and thereby absorb less educated youth in useful employment. In most of the developing countries the existing agricultural sector is not well prepared to absorb the young school leavers (or those without any schooling) into farming. According to an ILO Report[140], Kenya, for instance, would need:

(a) intensification of land use for crop and livestock production,

(b) redistribution of land towards labor – intensive smaller farm units,

(c) settlement of unused or underutilized land, to create more jobs in agriculture before work opportunities in agriculture could be created to any significant degree.

In addition to lack of job opportunities due to inadequate education and employment structure, often conditions at home intensify rural unemployment or migration of the young.

The Clubs 4-D in Benin (Dahomey) refer to this situation rather bluntly: (Information Folder Clubs 4-D)

> *"The young leave the fields, and more precisely farming, for adventure: The young literate and semi-literate deliberately hang on to the large cities of their country, even if they cannot obtain work.*
>
> *The young illiterate want to escape their parents' discipline. They cannot change any of the traditional family exploitation because they have neither the authority nor the necessary knowledge to do so. These young prefer going to foreign countries to practice agriculture as "seasonal" farmers. In this way they can use their earnings as they wish, and consequently remain mobile.*
>
> *In villages, the extension agent faces, most of the time, a large proportion of elderly people physically weak and often very attached to their traditional methods of farming.*
>
> *Under these conditions one cannot expect a rapid development of our agriculture and of the indispensable transformation of our rural areas because these areas specifically lack youth—not only physically able, but also eager for progress.*
>
> *We must, therefore, be able to hold youth in the villages by teaching them their profession correctly.*
>
> *We must, as much as possible, avoid that tomorrow's adults merely improvise as farmers. Farming is a profession that is taught and learned like any other profession.*
>
> *The rural young should have confidence in themselves as much as any other youngster graduating from a school or technical training center."*

In some countries, the problems of youth's lack of opportunity for education and employment became so pressing that youth unrest resulted. This violent expression of youth dissatisfaction provided the final reason for governments "to tip the scale" and move ahead with the implementation of new Training and Employment Schemes or changes in those existing. The motive was to prevent further violence, direct the energies of youth to development work and —at the same time—provide young people with skill training. This occurred in Malaysia which set up the National Youth Development Corps, and in Thailand, which created the National Youth Office to strengthen and expand Rural Youth Leadership Training and various student

services. In Zambia, where youth unrest and disciplinary problems required the introduction of military type discipline and structure, the National Youth Service changed from training and settling unemployed rural youth as small farmers to a National Service for civil order and defense, located in the President's Office. In a new turn, the Zambia National Service has now been called to help solve the problem of unemployed urban youth, most of whom earlier had migrated from rural areas to the cities. 42,000 unemployed urban youth will be given training and work in rural areas, linked to agricultural settlement and farming. The ruling party, UNIP, will join in the effort and train and settle 64,000 urban youth in rural areas (according to: "Youth Programme", in Africa, An International Business, Economic and Political Journal, Nos. 45, May 1975).

It is commonly accepted that "non-formal" and "formal" education and employment are essential to help meet the most pressing needs that arise from the underemployment and unemployment of youth. The Word Bank (IBRD), for example, established an Educational Fund of $350-400 million for the years 1974-1978 to provide *"fundamental, flexible and low-cost education for those whom the formal system cannot reach or has already passed by."* In addition, IBRD has initiated a five year plan (1975-1979) for rural development in poorer countries and for assistance to small farmers, the world's "marginal men": $3 billion are available for new style projects to directly benefit the small farmer such as credits, seeds, fertilizer, health services, basic education.

It is only in a concerted effort – in which Training and Employment Schemes have their specific role – that these structural problems can be eliminated or reduced to such an extent that the advancement of people in these countries can be ensured.

Change of Attitudes

Another element that influenced the establishment of Training and Employment Schemes has its basis in the attitudes of national groups toward each other. Tribalism, isolationism, lack of understanding and participation in community efforts, lack of appreciation of other sub-cultures within their own country are often cited as reasons for the creation of development services. These attitudes are rooted in traditions, cultural or class structure, status symbols, societal or political systems wielding power and influence on people's opinions.

Attitudinal causes in the context of this study refer to those mental dispositions or opinions which prevent the mobilization of people and their participation as citizens in the affairs of their community and their country as a whole. They encourage divisiveness and foment prejudice.

Training and Employment Schemes were established as part of the effort to change these attitudes—a recognized necessity if a unified nation were to be built.

For example, The National Youth Pioneer Corps in Malaysia cites as one reason for its establishment the creation of one national culture bridging the cultural, language and skill gaps existing among the major population groups, the Malay, Chinese and Indians. Whereas, the Chinese and Indians are more industrious and participate to a larger extent in the country's development, the mostly rural Malay lack employable skills and the drive to obtain such skills. In principle, the National Youth Pioneer Corps is open to young people from all cultural groups—and special attempts are made to keep it a multi-cultural service—but in fact, those who need the service most, are the rural Malay.

The Costa Rica National Youth Movement was created to change the attitudes of youth regarding active participation in local community development and to instill patriotism. The earlier quoted examples from the Kenya National Youth Service, the Zambia National Youth Service, and the Clubs 4-D in Benin refer to similar needs for change of attitudes.

New Values

Change of traditions, social relations, and attitudes are meaningful only if new values are accepted as guiding principles for the newly developing societies.

Development Services, and in this case Training and Employment Schemes, are also established as an expression of a moral cause, belief, doctrine or philosophy. Examples include:

- In Kenya, President Kenyatta's call "Harambee" (Let us all pull together) became the slogan for all nation-building efforts, including the Kenya National Youth Service.
- In Malaysia, the Rukunegara (the Nation's Pledge) is the underlying doctrine for the establishment of the various service programs.
- In Tanzania, President Nyrere's "Ujamaa" (Familyhood) is the symbol for his policy of self-reliance[89], as the larger family of one nation, forming a new African Socialism. The National Service is created as one way to involve people from all walks of life and all areas in this cause.
- In Zambia, President Kaunda's new African Humanism provided guiding values for establishing the Zambia National Youth Service.
- Other examples include: Israel's Gadna Youth Corps' *"getting to know and love your country"*--the value of building the nation as a safe place.
- In the People's Republic of China, the movement *"Up to the Mountains and Down to the Country Side"* in 1964 involved more than 3 million unemployed teenagers from cities in productive farm work as one way of preparing *"laborers with socialistic consciousness and culture"* and further self-reliance and resoluteness[57].

As could be expected, the value causes of these government-sponsored Training and Employment Schemes express political philosophies that guide the building of the nation. The demands for action concern national values, in contrast to the personal values an individual volunteer may have as reasons for joining the service. National or community values can induce individual volunteers to join a service and become involved in a cause beyond the mere material benefits of training, employment or technical assistance. At the same time, value causes can easily be misused to "mobilize the masses" and mislead them for partisan purposes. Mankind's history is full of examples on both sides of this coin.

Individual reasons volunteers offer as to *"why they joined a service"* do not necessarily coincide with the reasons why the organization was established, especially not in their priority or intensity. Responses to interviews in this study reveal the following individual reasons:

1. Hope for training and later employment;
2. Help the country;
3. Leave home and meet other people.

study by Philip Mbithi of Kenya[76] confirms these individual priorities, with a surprising omission on the part of his young respondents: *"to amuse myself."*

The encounter between national and personal values within a service provides the learning environment for the individual volunteer to experience social obligation and the satisfaction of contribution. Of course, if the service environment is such that volunteer and organization clash, then negative responses occur, and frustration and alienation result.

CONCLUSIONS: WHY?

1. As indicated at the outset, there is always a set of different reasons—and not one cause alone—why Training and Employment Schemes are established.
2. A comparison of Training and Employment Schemes from the various regions indicates that the causes for establishment are similar; not the "Why" as such differs but the emphasis placed on one or the other reason depending upon the specific history of the country, its political and societal structure.
3. The structural, attitudinal and value causes are interrelated and cannot be isolated from one other. This means that the objectives, programs and achievements of the Training and Employment Schemes must respond simultaneously to all the reasons identified.

NEEDS

The identification of needs is a response to the question "Why". Needs are demands for action specified in qualitative and quantitative terms. For the Training and Employment Schemes, a profile of needs would identify the number of volunteers requiring training, the quality of training, the jobs to be identified or the support necessary to create employment. No one of the services evaluated specified those needs. Reference is made only to the general needs, that the "formal" system of education (schools) and employment (labor market) can not fulfill. It appears that the lack of opportunities for youth is accepted as part of overall needs and that somehow the many different "non-formal" programs will share the burden and reach those who need help.

Training and Employment Schemes are part of this "non-formal" effort, and try to respond to some of the needs insofar as their resources and mandates permit. At this point it is not known whether this lack of need specification is accidental, or deliberate, in order to remain flexible to changing needs, and avoid committing the organization vis-a-vis the supervising agencies to achieve certain scores.

WHAT ARE THE OBJECTIVES?

The objectives of Training and Employment Schemes should be established in response to the causes and needs. They should specify the preferred outcome of the actions to be taken to help solve the problems. Problem solving here means the elimination of the causes that produce needs or—at least—a lessening of them. In other words, objectives which do not address the reasons for the establishment of the service are not responsive to needs and are inconsistent with the preferred outcome. Unclear objectives will lead to inconsistent policies and ineffective programs.

The objectives of the various Training and Employment Schemes under evaluation are almost identical in their main aspects:

1. Training young citizens in employable technical and vocational skills, including work discipline

2. Upgrading literacy

3. Employment in work projects, either of national importance (Kenya National Youth Service), or of importance to the local community (except for Malaysia National Development Corps which does not have a separate work program)

4. Citizenship training, Nation-Building.

Apart from the main objectives, listed above, some minor objectives were specified by some of the services evaluated:

1. Nourish a favorable attitude toward agricultural and rural life (Benin, Malaysia, Thailand)

2. Learning work values and discipline (Benin, Village Polytechnics Kenya, Malaysia NYPC)

3. Provide discipline training: para-military training, (Malaysia Youth Development Corps); training in group discipline, (Malaysian National Youth Pioneer Corps and the Kenya National Youth Service)

4. Rural youth leadership training, (Costa Rica Youth Movement, the Malaysia Farm Youth Project and the Thai Rural Youth Leadership Training.).

The objective of **Nation-Building** deserves some further consideration because it is probabl the most misunderstood or misinterpreted aim of Training and Employment Schems Changing a tribal society (Benin, Kenya) or a country with citizens of different racial bac grounds (Malaysia, Thailand, Costa Rica) into one nation has a high priority in most of the services. Only independence made it possible—and mandatory—to overcome the cultur language, skill and economic differences between the various population groups. Industrializ nations do not sufficiently appreciate how much these differences hamper the knitti together of one nation. Too often new nations are mistaken as nationalistic or isolation because their policies are not addressed to international relations and cooperation, when reality they regard as their first priority the narrowing of the differences within. To disdain

need for Nation-Building would be disregarding the fact that many nations in Europe, or China for that matter, developed their own identities over very long periods of time. Most Developing countries are challenged by circumstances to accomplish within decades what took other countries centuries. The few industrialized nations which are "new", and in a somewhat comparable position as developing countries, are still actively engaged in nation-building efforts: Australia, Canada, Israel, New Zealand and the USA. One may add that the People's Republic of China, which in many respects is an attractive example for self-development and self-reliance, does not offer any parallel to the young nation-states in this respect. In contrast, their survival as a people through dramatic change—as indeed the the change itself—was made possible because of their history and survival of some 4000 years past[33]. In this respect, one wonders whether social change requires an awareness of the continuum as a people in history, on which they can rely and retain their own identities, despite all changes. If this is correct, a serious Nation-Building effort deserves all possible respect and support, expecially if one is looking to the future and the increasing interdependence between nations and people.

The objectives of the Training and Employment Schemes listed above respond in very general terms to causes and needs cited in the previous Sub-Chapter. Only a few organizations specify targets and preferred outcomes within the limitations set for them such as: limitations of financial resources and facilities, legal authority, etc. Examples include:

- Benin (Dahomey): The Clubs 4-D aim at a total of 2,000 Ciubs, i.e. one per village, and the settlement of 1,025 volunteers by 1978 in farming or rural trades. It is important to note that the Clubs 4-D is the only service evaluated which targeted this important next step into employment after completion of service. In a similar approach the Malawi Young Pioneers specified objectives for land settlement and self-employment in trades for their volunteers, following completion of service.

- Kenya: The National Youth Service Act provides for up to 7,000 volunteers in service per year, depending upon annual fund appropriations. Equal quotas of volunteer vacancies are allocated each year to all Provinces to ensure equal recruitment through District Committees, and a national composition of participants.

  The Village Polytechnics aim at 250 State approved V.P.s by 1978, distributed over all Provinces.

- Malaysia: The National Youth Pioneer Corps has facilities and funds for a national target of 500 volunteers per year.

  The National Youth Leadership Training Center has provision for training 350 youth leaders annually.

- Thailand: The Rural Youth Leadership Training's target by 1974 was to have 200 volunteers each in the 4 regional training camps – a total of 800 volunteers – and consequently 800 volunteers in work programs in their home villages (this service rotates volunteers between training and work periods).

Other Training and Employment Schemes have not indicated specific targets.

The **modification of objectives** is an important indication of the flexibility of an organization to respond to changing needs[31]. An example is the Kenya National Youth Service whose objectives were defined in the NYS Act (Article 16) as:

- *"training the young citizens to serve the nation, and*
- *employment of its members in tasks of national importance and otherwise in the service of the nation."*

  And: "during a state of war, insurrection, hostilities or public emergency, the President may order NYS to serve with the armed forces in the defense of the nation whether within or outside Kenya."

After more than ten years these objectives are still viable but they have been supplemented and modified through policies and practical operations. According to the Director of KNYS, there was no need to put the pool of trained manpower into action with the Army or Police in cases of national emergency, and the availability of the service in cases of emergency did not affect the day-to-day operations as a Training and Employment Scheme.

Over the years, the main objectives of KNYS, the training of young citizens and the employment in tasks of national importance, were modified and changed direction:

- Training became more diversified, especially for vocational skills employable in agriculture, small scale industry and self-employment. This is a modification of the initial emphasis on training for a disciplined labor force to serve the nation in large scale projects of public works, in contrast to training for individual employment.
- Employment of the members in work programs also became more diversified while the large scale construction and land clearing projects continued. New work assignments in farming and various vocational, technical workshops, emphasized the new objective and helped to prepare members for regular employment and self-reliance.

Thus, the Kenya National Youth Service over the years changed from a disciplined-force-oriented service to a development-oriented service, responding more directly to the needs of Kenya youth for training and employment.

Another example is the Malaysia National Youth Pioneer Corps which modified its objectives on the basis of suggestions of United Nations Interagency Mission. This interesting example of assistance provided by a small team of foreign experts, is described in Chapter 11.

Conclusions

1. The objectives of Training and Employment Schemes address in general terms the causes and needs for which they were created. A few services have set some quantitative targets within their financial means. At this point it is not clear whether the lack of specifications of preferred outcomes is intentional to keep flexibility of operations, or accidental because of lack of planning. The specification of objectives is important for the assess-

ment of achievements and the identification of the effectiveness of the service as Diagram No. 2 explained earlier.

2. The objectives of Training and Employment Schemes are very similar in four major areas: (1) technical and vocational skill training; (2) literacy; (3) employment of volunteers in work projects of either national or local community importance; (4) citizenship training and Nation-Building.

3. Some organizations have modified their objectives over the years. These are indications of a healthy and flexible institution if the new direction of objectives is a response to changing needs.

PROGRAM ACTIVITIES

The review of Program Activities of the Training and Employment Schemes follows the asses ment outlined in Diagram 2. It is not the intention to repeat here the description of individu services as contained in the Compendia but, rather, to point out their similarities and specif program features and experience.

Program activities are reviewed in two main sections, the Inputs, and the actual operation the Tasks. While some readers may be eager to learn about volunteer training and work pr grams (the tasks), it is logical to first analyse the program inputs, for the reason that this latt section describes the available volunteer and staff resources, the legal and financial constraint and thus describes the input framework which makes the later program tasks possible.

Before entering into detailed analysis of specific program features it seems appropriate to kee in mind the **overall institutional performance.** Milton J. Esman identifies the following facto in his Institution Building Theory[41]:

1. Whether the organization survived its implementation phase and continued operations

2. Whether the service gained autonomy to develop its programs; i.e. had access to the necessary resources and influenced its environment (achievement of intrinsic values)

3. Whether the development service spread the effect of activities that became normative for other institutions with which it interacts (elimination or modification of causes)

4. Whether the institution can maintain its innovative thrust as an original vehicle for change and/or can continue to provide symbolic or emotional sources for continuing innovations in response to changing needs.

Esman distinguishes three stages for the process of institutionalization of educational insti tions: launching, growth, consolidation and maturity. He opines that at least eight years necessary to consolidate an institution. This is confirmed by many practical experienc including those of the author, that the development of educational or training institutio requires about eight years "to come into its own".

PROGRAM INPUTS

This Sub-Chapter analyses the following enabling inputs into Training and Employment Schemes:

1. Legislation and related questions of authority, supervision and leadership
2. Volunteers, their age range and background
3. Women's participation
4. Staff
5. Organization and Management, including questions of size, decentralization of management function and linkages to other institutions
6. Costs and Funds.

The following Table 8 provides a review of some major Program Inputs of Training and Employment Schemes.

TABLE 8. PROGRAM INPUTS OF TRAINING AND EMPLOYMENT SCHEMES

Organizations	Establishment/ Legislation	Volunteers				Costs per volunteer man-year 1973 (a)
		Number 1973	Total since established	Age Range, years	Educational Background	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
BENIN: – Clubs 4-D	1966 by Executive Action	(1974) (b) 3,337	(b) 3,337	8 - 18	90% no schooling	n.a. (National Budget)
KENYA: – National Youth Service	1964 by National Youth Service Act	3,500	20,000	16 - 30	No requirement; most have 7 years primary	US$ (c) 302.-
– Village Polytechnic	1968 by National Christian Council(d)	(e) 3,836	1,200	16 - 20	drop-outs; some completed primary	US$ (f) 20.–25.- (estimate)
MALAYSIA: – National youth Pioneer Corps	1966 by Executive Action	500	3,199	16 - 25	no schooling; not more than 6 years primary	US$ (g) 1,220.-
– National Youth Development Corps	1969 by National Operation Council(h)	2,106	13,218	16 - 25	no schooling; drop-outs; unemployed	
– Farm Youth Project	1971 by Executive Action	2,530	687	n.a.	many no formal schooling; drop-outs	US$ (i) 29.60

THAILAND: – Rural Youth Leadership Training	1971 by Prime Minister's Executive Action	358	First graduation 1975	16 - 25 (majority 18 - 22)	Minimum 4 years primary education; secondary illiteracy	n.a. (National Budget)
COSTA RICA: – National Youth Movement (k)	1966 by Public Law	A (i) 1,000 B (j) 6,000	n.a. n.a.	13 - 15 13 - 15	A. no schooling; drop-outs; B. secondary students	US$ 105.- (k)
PANAMA: (m) – National Volunteer Service	1967 by Presidential Decree (l)	?(n)	n.a.	16 - 27	Drop-outs; primary, few secondary education	1969: US$ 606.- (n)
USA: ACTION (o) – Youth Challenge Projects (p)	1971 by Executive Order; 1973 Domestic Volunteer Service Act	Planning Stage	Experimental Program	14 - 21	Pupils; some drop-outs	1974; (q) 19 planning grants (q)
– Program for Local Services (r)		1,066	Experimental Program	18 and over	drop-outs from unemployment	1974: US$ 4,198 (s)

Explanations of Program Inputs:

(a) One volunteer man-year = one adult volunteer serving full-time for 11 months.

(b) Except for drop-outs no volunteers have left service because lack of funds prevented settlement on small farms or self-employment in trades following the service; settlement of 1,025 volunteers is planned for 1975-78.

(c) Including administrative overhead, training facilities, heavy equipment for work programs; the earnings through work programs carried out for other governmental departments such as: land clearing for farm settlements (agriculture), heavy earth work and road building for national parks, etc., are paid to the Treasury and amount to 6% of the total KNYS budget.

(d) In 1969, the Government of Kenya recognized the V.P.'s via a formal policy document and in 1971 launched a National Village Polytechnic Programme under cooperative contract with the National Christian Council of Kenya.

(e) Goal for 1977/78: 22,500 volunteer-trainees in 250 governmental and 28 church-sponsored Village Polytechnics nation-wide.

(f) Average governmental costs per volunteer per year U.S. $16.30 (Total Budget U.S. $62,400.-); the following local contributions in cash and kind are expected: land for V.P. site, raise simple building in self-help, give materials, work voluntarily as instructors, buy items produced by V.P., employ V.P. leavers, give cash during Harambee day, pay fee as parents (guideline U.S. $28.- per volunteer-trainee per year).

(g) Average costs for NYPC, NYDC and Youth Leadership Training including administrative overhead of the Department of Youth Training and the maintenance of the Training Centers at Dusun Tua and Peretak (see Compendia 4, 5 and 6).

(h) Established by direction of the National Operation Council by the Ministry of Youth, Culture and Sports after the youth unrest of 1969 which was stimulated by the problem of youth unemployment. There was a need to immediately reach more youth than the National Youth Pioneer Corps could absorb in their long-term program.

(i) Average cost per volunteer per year, without administrative overhead for the Farming Youth Project in the Division of Youth and in the agricultural extension service provided to work programs; average costs per volunteer per year for local farming project support (materials) only: U.S. $17.80.

(j) The National Youth Movement combines various categories of development services; here only the Training and Employment Schemes are described: type A program for uneducated youth, type B for secondary students.

(k) 1973 costs per volunteer man-year for programs only, no administrative overhead included and based upon an estimate of 900 volunteer man-years, consisting of:

120 volunteer man-years for type A
430 volunteer man-years for type B

(l) The National Volunteer Service combines various categories of development services; here only the Training and Employment Schemes are described. Established in 1967, the service was integrated into the newly created Dirección General para el Desarrollo de la Comunidad (DIGEDECOM), dissolved in Summer 1972 and re-instituted in 1976.

(m) No breakdown between early school leavers and professional volunteers available. In 1972 both the Training and Employment Schemes and the Social and Technical Development Services (professional) involved the following volunteers:

80 volunteers: full-time 1 year 80 volunteer man years

200 volunteers: various, minimum of 2 months full-time service (often continued part-time) = app. 30 volunteer man-years.

(n) Costs include volunteer support and administrative overhead of Volunteer Department; not included, overall services provided by DIGEDECOM such as: financial administration, evaluation of field staff support; costs per volunteer man-year are based on 285 volunteer man-years.

(o) The United States is the only industrialized country supporting Training and Employment Schemes at home. Apart from the Job Corps which is under the jurisdiction of the Department of Labor, and not evaluated here, ACTION has created the two services under the provision for experimental programs. Both are community based and directed.

(p) The purpose is to provide young people with incomplete education, who dropped out of school or have lost touch with formal education, a learning opportunity for credit through the challenge of community service (training orientation).

(q) ACTION provides up to $4,000.- planning grants per project to local institutions *"meeting human needs in a manner which will have recognized educational value."* It is expected that the service will be recognized by educational institutions (for credit). Operational grants are available up to one half of the project budget or to the upper limit of $20,000—whichever is smaller.

(r) Provides *"community service opportunities offering working experience enhancing career devemopment and manifesting their (the volunteers') sense of civic responsibility"* (employment orientation). Grants are provided to projects meeting State or local governmental needs, particularly those related to poverty. Projects should include at least 50 volunteer assignments.

(s) ACTION supports 90% of the total costs per volunteer man-year.

1. Legislation/Supervision/Leadership

The legislation creating a Training and Employment Scheme establishes the authority, the framework for leadership and supervision. Most services in this category derive their authority from the executive branch of government via Presidential Decrees or other executive action. This is the case for the Clubs 4-D in Benin and the services in Malaysia, Thailand and Panama. For others the authority originates from the legislative branch of government; for example: The Kenya National Youth Service, Costa Rica National Youth Movement and ACTION in the

USA. In other words, most nation-wide services are part of a governmental effort to fight poverty and underdevelopment via social mobilization programs. The Kenya Village Polytechnics (V.P.), however, were created as non-governmental, church-sponsored programs but, in order to reach out to those in need, required a larger backing. Because the performance of the initial V.P.'s was impressive, the government decided to integrate it into its social programs on the basis of a contract with the National Christian Council of Kenya.

The **Supervision** of Training and Employment Schemes derives authority from legislation. The following listing shows how the assignment of supervision over the services differs.

Organization:	Supervised by:
BENIN Clubs 4-D	Ministry of Rural Development and Cooperative Action, Department of Agriculture
KENYA National Youth Service	Ministry of Labor
KENYA Village Polytechnics	Ministry of Cooperatives and Social Services, Commissioner for Social Services
Both MALAYSIAN Youth Corps	Ministry of Culture, Youth and Sports, Directorate of Youth
MALAYSIAN Farm Youth Project	Joint supervision between Ministry of Culture, Youth and Sports, Directorate of Youth, and Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries
THAILAND: Rural Youth Leadership Training	Office of the Prime Minister until 1972; since 1973, under the Youth Office when it became a Department in its own right with extended authority
COSTA RICA: National Youth Movement	– Executive Council – Ministry of Culture, Youth and Sports, Directorate of Youth
PANAMA: National Volunteer Service	– Governing Board (Patronato) – Junta Directiva – Office of the President; under Dirección General para el Desarrollo de la Comunidad (DIGEDECOM) which has ministerial level and is part of the Office of the President.
USA: ACTION	U.S. Congress

Clearly, the integration of Training and Employment Schemes into different branches of government is related to the program emphasis of each service. Finally, the proximity to the

central seat of government, the Prime Minister's Office, indicates the political importance assigned to the service by the current administration.

Somewhat different is the personal authority bestowed upon those officials in charge of the leadership of a Development Service. They, foremost the Directors of the service, derive their authority also from the legislation which created the service. But more importantly, their personal charisma endows the formal authority with spirit and provides the direction and guidance necessary for each service to do its job effectively. Jerome Weisner, President of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology (M.I.T., USA) is quoted as saying[118]: *"It would be nice to have charisma, but you would like it to be based on an understanding of what the hell is going on."* And Richard Morris, Historian from Columbia University, USA questions: *"Do we really need the charismatic, individualistic leadership. . today we could do with honest ones."* This is not the place to discuss the different perceptions of leadership roles but the two quotes are helpful to describe the make-up of the personal authority to execute leadership in a Development Service: Knowledge—Charisma—Honesty.

As governmental programs, Training and Employment Schemes have delegated the leadership authority to civil servants as is seen in Table 9

TABLE 9. LEADERSHIP ASSIGNMENTS

Organization:	Leadership
BENIN: Clubs 4-D	Director of Rural Youth in the Ministry of Rural Development and Cooperative Action
KENYA – National Youth Service – Village Polytechnics	KNYS Director at the service's Headquarters. – Local autonomy: supervised by Village Management Committees and directed by Local Managers – National coordination and guidance by the Principal Youth Officer at the Department of Social Services, Ministry of Cooperation and Social Services
MALAYSIA: – National Youth Pioneer Corps – National Youth Development Corps – Farm Youth Project	Director of Youth at the Ministry of Youth, Culture and Sports
THAILAND: Rural Youth Leadership Training	Director General, National Youth Office
COSTA RICA: National Youth Movement	– Director General of Youth, Ministry of Culture, Youth and Sports – Executive Director of National Youth Movement and Head of Department in Youth Directorate
PANAMA: National Volunteer Service	– Technical Director, General Directorate for Community Development (DIGEDECOM); – Director, Volunteer Department, DIGEDECOM.
USA: ACTION	Director of ACTION at the Agency's Headquarters.

With the exception of the Kenya National Youth Service and ACTION, USA—which have full-time directors at the Headquarters of the services—the leadership authority is bestowed upon the respective administrators of the youth offices. Under their supervision, hired executives actually execute leadership as head of the service departments or in person to person contacts with volunteers at training sites or in work programs. This implies that leadership of Training and Employment Schemes is divided, and the necessary authority must be delegated to those staff members responsible for actually directing the activities. Here, of course, Jerome Weisner's *"knowldege, what the hell is going on"* becomes very important in terms of establishing a two-way information exchange between the leading administrator and the leading program managers. Some may argue from other volunteer service experience, that both the designation of the administration of youth programs and the leadership authority for a development service upon the same person, may create conflict and one or the other will suffer. But this is not necessarily the case as reports and interview responses reveal. It appears that successful leadership of Development Services is more dependent on the knowledge, skills and personality traits of the office holder, and on the linkages of communication and cooperation he or she is capable of establishing, than on the location of the director's office in a ministry or at service headquarters.

Following are some opinions from interviews (see Appendix A-4 for the detailed questionnaire) concerning the leadership role of directors of Training and Employment Schemes. They include replies from nationals working in or supervising these services, and foreigners knowledgeable of their operations. Even though a small sample (total 44 interviews, of which 27 are national and 17 foreign responses), respondents come from all services evaluated in this category.

The following first, second and third priorities were assigned in answer to the question: *"In your judgment, which factors are most important for successful leadership of the director?"* (see Appendix A-4, Card No. 6):

TABLE 10. RANKING OF FACTORS FOR LEADERSHIP SUCCESS

Factors for Leadership Success	National Response Priorities: 1. %	2. %	3. %	Foreign Response Priorities: 1. %	2. %	3. %
• Administrative/managerial proficiency	48	18	7	41	18	6
• Technical/professional proficiency	37	30	4	6	12	18
• Understanding for people of different background or culture	33	15	30	29	6	–
• Flexibility to adjust policy and programs to changing needs	7	18	–	18	29	–
• Strong backing of supervising governmental agency or Board/ Council	4	15	15	18	29	12
• Participation of staff/volunteers in decision-making, partnership style	7	11	11	18	12	–
• Emphasis of leadership on objectives, philosophy of service (doctrine)	4	7	4	12	12	6
• Emphasis of leadership on program implementation	–	11	–	–	6	12
• Level of position & salary within the service/Civil Service	4	7	7	–	–	12

It is of interest to note that both nationals and foreigners give highest priorities to the administrative/managerial proficiency. Overall, nationals rank the importance of factors affecting leadership success in three major areas; (1) administrative/managerial, (2) technical/professional proficiency and (3) understanding for people of different background or culture. Foreigners differentiate their opinions more widely, give higher importance to understanding

for people over technical/professional proficiency and equally emphasize: (1) strong backing by supervisory bodies, (2) flexibility of policies and programs, and (3) partnership style of leadership.

Space is lacking to give more review to the ratings, except for one question:

Does the higher importance assigned to technical/professional proficiency on the part of the national respondents stem from an overrating of these qualifications or has the director, in fact, a more technical role? The latter cannot be supported from the overall materials evaluated. The remaining eight factors which received lower ratings can be reviewed on Card No. 6 in Appendix A-4.

The question: *"In your opinion, what are the* **major achievements of the director?"** received the following answers, ranked according to priority (sample: 24 nationals, 4 foreigners):

1. Securing financing of service
2. Reforming the organizational structure/administration
3. Improving various aspects of service program
4. Coordinating all sectors of society relevant to youth development, governmental departments, private sector, youth organizations
5. Achieving acceptance of the service on the part of the general public and other governmental agencies.

This ranking confirms the earlier identified needs for the following qualifications to successfully execute a leadership role: (1) administrative/managerial proficiency, (2) understanding of people from different backgrounds, and (3) emphasis on the doctrine of the service.

Table 11 indicates problem areas of high concern to the leadership in directing Training and Employment Schemes. A total of 53 citations from 37 respondents were given to the question: *"What do you consider the major problem areas for directing this Service successfully?"*

TABLE 11. PROBLEM AREAS OF CONCERN TO LEADERSHIP

Problem Areas		Responses (Sample 53)
• Organizational structure, administration, divisions and procedures		18%
• Functional Linkages*		62%
i.e.:		
– lack of funding	9%	
– lack of adequate staffing	19%	
– lack of support by youth	9%	
– lack of general public support	9%	
– lack of acceptance of service on part of governmental agencies and politicians	16%	
• Program improvement (especially training)		11%
• Service, identity, autonomy, doctrine/philosophy		9%
Total		100%

*Milton Esman developed this useful concept of linkages with colleagues in the Institution Building Model[41]. Functional linkages should secure for a service the supply of inputs or the use of outputs.

Even though this is a small sample it is believed that these responses indicate the major problem areas correctly for the majority of services. Organization, administration and functioning linkages are the major bottlenecks. This is an important finding, for both the consideration of achievements of the overall service and the role of foreign assistance. So far, in volunteer service circles, the problems of organization and management, and the importance of linkages have been underestimated, and most of the attention focused on program improvements such as volunteer work programs and training. A smaller portion of responses refers to a leadership problem related to the identity of the Development Service, its philosophy and symbolism ("mysticism" it was called in some responses). The comments refer to both:

- the lack of service doctrine or philosophy reducing it to an administration department, and
- the overemphasis of "corps d'espirit" and the danger of politicizing the service.

Finally, related to other aspects of leadership is the cooperation between the director and the supervising agency which was described in interviews. Out of 44 respondents, 24 provided answers to this question:

"How would you describe the cooperation between the director and the supervising governmental agency?"

	Responses (Sample 44)
• Extremely satisfactory	7%
• Very satisfactory	9%
• Satisfactory	29%
• Not very satisfactory	7%
• Not at all satisfactory	2%
• No answer	46%
Total:	100%

There are several reasons for the high percentage of "no answers". To some extent it is the lack of knowledge of the actual situation, but also a desire not to reveal too many details, and in one instance the supervising official was present when a staff member was interviewed. Nevertheless, the small sample reflects an approximate normal statistical distribution slightly edged towards positive cooperation.

Reasons given in a follow-up question: *"Why not very or not at all satsifactory cooperation?"* include in their priority:

1. Big supervising agency and the Development Service is a new program in the office and not yet accepted

2. The Ministry and the advising Youth Council do not always agree how the service should be directed

3. No satisfactory understanding of the service on the part of politicians (and therefore lack of financial support)

4. The service existed before the supervising governmental agency was created; the service was later integrated as a department in the agency and problems of jurisdiction and cooperation occur (related to identity and autonomy of service).

All of these responses indicate that leadership of a service still is the crucial input and that top flight management and communication skills are required, plus a modest form of charisma to give spiritual direction.

2. Volunteers

Volunteers are both the major input and—after completion of service—the main program output. The **number of volunteers** (Table 8 columns 3 and 4), in comparison with the vast portion of uneducated and unemployed youth, is small, even for the larger services and those which have conducted programs for 10 years or more.

Unfortunately, statistics in the same age ranges of youth in and out of service are not available in project countries, thus making it impossible to identify the **population coverage** of the service activities as a percentage of the total age group. However, if one compares the number of volunteers with the total number of youth out of school (Table 7) and with the continuing

population growth rate (Table 6) one must admit that Training and Employment Schemes produce only a limited solution to the problem of youth training and employment. There are various reasons why those services have not been able to reach a larger portion of the uneducated and unemployed youth:

- Most countries offer a large variety of "non-formal" education programs parallel to the volunteer services, designed to solve similar problems, and they all compete for governmental funding. A concerted planning effort would be required to determine what optimal combination of program efforts within one country would be able to reach all youth in need of training and employment.

- "Non-formal" education programs have financial and status limitations; they cannot complete the unfinished business of the schools if the school system itself is unwilling to change and open alternative routes of education.

- Development Services only gradually grow into their full role potential and become accepted at home; the planned expansion of services in Benin, Kenya, Malaysia, Thailand and Costa Rica are indications that they are still in a growth and consolidation phase.

There is little difference in the **age range of volunteers** (Table 8 column 5) in the Training and Employment Schemes of different countries. This was expected since the service categories are arranged on the basis of volunteers' educational backgrounds and consequent functions.

Volunteer's Educational Background

Applicants with no schooling (Table 8 column 6), are a main resource in most services, with the exception of the Thailand Rural Youth Leadership Training which requires a minimum of 4 years primary school for entry. At the same time, this service tries to limit participation to young people who do not intend to go on to higher education. The fear is that those who are interested in further education will leave the land and move to urban centers—a migration the Rural Youth Leadership tries to prevent. It is too early to tell whether the program will be able to stem the natural drive for more education. If this education is not provided in rural areas, those who long for further education will migrate to the cities. This—at least—is the experience of other countries.

In principle, the focus on illiterate youth, early school leavers, or primary students with no skills is in line with the basic mandate of Training and Employment Schemes. However, there are indications that some services in this category move towards recruitment of the more educated, secondary school leavers and above. This trend seems to have been caused by:

- The need for skilled young people to carry out the development projects. Even though the work in such projects is considered primarily a learning experience and secondarily a manpower investment, the needs and pressures to complete certain projects tend to shift these priorities around, resulting in the recruitment of higher skilled volunteers in the first place.

- There are plenty of secondary—and higher—educated young people available who are looking for jobs. For them, joining such a service provides some employment—at least for a while.

- Finally, services report proudly when their programs attract the interest and attention of students or graduates of higher learning institutions—and they are seeking ways to accomodate them. It is somewhat similar to the two year colleges expanding to four year programs to become accepted as full fledged academic institutions. It seems that again, the status symbols related to the higher level of education—in this case of the participating volunteer—is also a temptation for Training and Employment Schemes.

The result of this trend would, of course, be self-defeating—unless there are no uneducated youth and drop-outs around requiring service opportunities for training and development work. Since this is not the case, and most Training and Employment Schemes have a limited budget and consequently volunteer places, the uneducated or early drop-out again competes with the higher educated applicant, this time for a service place. And he or she will be again the loser and left by the wayside. Thus, the educational background of volunteers in Training and Employment Schemes—and how it changes over the years—becomes an indicator of whether the program is still responsive to the very reason for which it was established, or whether the service has cut off this cause, its responsive tie, and has become a self-serving establishment".

3 Women's Participation

Many Training and Employment Schemes are slow in integrating women to a significant degree into their programs. Of those evaluated, the services in Benin, Kenya (Village Polytechnics), Thailand, Costa Rica and the USA have coeducational programs by design. The Kenya National Youth Service established a small separate program for girls. It would appear that the reasons for the low key involvement of women in Training and Employment Schemes are related to the population target group these services address: the rural, less educated "closely knit" communities. There, traditionally, women's roles are not geared to public service but are family and farming oriented. They prefer participation in services within the confines of their community.

Following is a brief review of female participation in these services:

TABLE 12. WOMEN'S PARTICIPATION IN TRAINING AND EMPLOYMENT SCHEMES

Training and Employment Scheme	Number of Women Volunteers 1973	Major Work Program Areas
BENIN: Clubs 4-D	Coeducational/ no number provided	Child Care, Home economics, sewing, management of family budget (jointly with male volunteers)
KENYA National Youth Service	No number, small scale participation	Separate program for girls: administration, secretarial services, home economics, fitting, turning electrical work.
KENYA Village Polytechnic	No number/ coeducational	Domestic science, agriculture, trades (leather work).
MALAYSIA:		
– National Youth Pioneer Corps	No girls	–
– National Youth Development Corps	No girls	–
– Farm Youth Project	Some girls	Domestic science
THAILAND Rural Youth Leadership Training	179 (50%)	Home-making
COSTA RICA National Youth Movement	Coeducational (43%)	Community Development, social work, home economics, health, crafts.
PANAMA National Volunteer Service	N.A.	–
USA:ACTION	Coeducational No number	Poverty-related community services.

The participation of women in Development Services in general depends largely on the role women play in a specific culture, their educational background and the specific nature of a service. For the latter, discipline training oriented or large scale public works services have no women in their regular programs.

As will be explained later on, women's participation in other categories of Development Services differs from the low key involvement in Training and Employment Schemes.

4. Staff

Adequate staffing is one of the major problem areas of Training and Employment Schemes. Most services are still in the stage of developing an adequate staffing pattern in terms of quantity, quality and career opportunity, all of which are interrelated. Currently staff comes from other civil service positions, as teachers or agricultural advisors, from the military, and universities. Few have previous experience with volunteer service, or received an education equipping them with skills and knowledge related to experimental learning, community development or group dynamics. This is not surprising since this kind of training is not normally offered at institutions of technical or higher learning. Exceptions to some extent are the Costa Rican, Panamanian and U.S. programs which have more options for hiring staff trained in these fields, and they also provide some staff preparation and training.

Table 13 indicates the staffing pattern of Training and Employment Schemes:

TABLE 13. STAFF AT TRAINING AND EMPLOYMENT SCHEMES

Organization	Staff	Number National	(Foreign)[a]	Staff : Volunteer Ratio
BENIN: Clubs 4-D	Local Superviosrs Only (part-time)	227	(3)	1 : 15
KENYA: – National Youth Service	Officers and Staff-ranks[b]	559	(73)	1 : 6
– Village Polytechnics	Managers and Instructors[c]	425	(98)	1 : 9
MALAYSIA: – National Youth Pioneer Corps – National Youth Development Corps	Training Center Dusun Tua only[d]	148	(14)	1 : 18
– Farm Youth Project	Full-time professional project Staff[e]	33	(–)	1 : 77
THAILAND: Rural Youth Leadership Training	Goal: 25 teachers per training camp of 100 volunteers; part-time field staff	n.a.	(I)	n.a.
COSTA RICA: National Youth Movement[f]	Staff at H.Q. and in the field; not counting some local staff in Regional Youth Centers	61	(4)	1 : 15
PANAMA: National Volunteer Service[f]	Small full-time staff; majority part-time community development workers for field support	173	(–)	1 : 2
USA: ACTION[f]	ACTION paid staff for overall domestic operations without local part-time staffing	923	(–)	1 : 15

Explanations for Table 13:

(a) The number of foreign staff—both experts and volunteers—is listed for comparison only. The role of foreign staff is discussed in detail in Chapter No. 9, Foreign Assistance. Foreign staff is excluded from the Staff : Volunteer Ratio.

(b) Staffing of KNYS is patterned along military-type of command; staff ranks are held by servicemen and women who receive some additional allowance above the average volunteer allowance. They include: Sergeants (84), Corporals (182), Lance Corporals (196).

(c) Managers and Instructors in local V.P.'s without involvement of staff from the Ministry supporting and supervising V.P.'s

(d) Staff at Training Center Dusun Tua where both programs are conducted; without staff at the Ministry managing the overall programs.

(e) The Farm Youth Project has only 33 full-time professional staff managing the local projects; in addition, agricultural extension workers support and advise volunteer projects on a part time basis.

(f) These are organizations combining more than one category of development service in one institution; staff listed for overall organization.

The staff : volunteer ratio is the best indication whether the quantity of staff is sufficient for the number of volunteers involved. It can also indicate the efficiency of management of the service, and the quality of instruction, were information on staff levels, professional breakdown and hiring guidelines available. That was not always the case and, because the data is not comparable from organization to organization, the staff : volunteer ratio must be used with caution. It appears that the Clubs 4-D in Benin, the Farm Youth Project in Malaysia and probably the Training Center in Dusun Tua are under-staffed for functions dealing directly with the volunteer, his training and work. In contrast, the Kenya National Youth Service seems to be somewhat over-staffed—but probably not in the area of field work. The very low staff : volunteer ratio of the Panamanian volunteer service is not significant in this respect, since the vast majority are community development workers of DIGEDECOM, or from the agricultural department, who devote only part of their time to volunteer support in the field. Also, most Panamanian volunteers work in small teams or single assignments in communities that are spread over a wide geographical area, and require more part-time staff.

The interviews which sought opinions about the staffing situation in Training and Employment Schemes reveal more detail. The replies are based on a total sample of 44 respondents.

To this question: *"Would you consider the* **quantity of staff** *sufficient to carry out the program of the service?"*

	Responses from: Nationals (Sample 27)	Foreigners (Sample 17)
Yes	19%	41%
No	63%	18%
With Modifications	15%	12%
n.a.	3%	29%

Reasons given in a follow-up question to the "no" or "with modifications" response rank in their priority as:

1. Lack of field staff (by far the majority of responses);
2. More local staff from communities needed, top heavy staffing in ministry;
3. Lack of career provisions and funding to hire full-time and permanent staff;
4. Not enough staff available for program needs (no specification is given whether insufficient staff is due to financial limitations or lack of qualified applicants).

The opinions concerning the actual number/sufficiency of staff differ largely between nationals and foreigners. However, the reasons given by both the nationals and the foreigners reveal that the problem for some services seems not so much a question of absolute numbers but rather a distribution of staff between field and main office administration.

To the question *"Would you consider the* **quality of the executive staff** *of this service adequate for the jobs to be accomplished?"*

	Responses from: Nationals (Sample 27)	Foreigners (Sample 17)
Yes	41%	29%
No	15%	12%
With Modifications	44%	41%
n.a.	–	18%

The follow-up question clarified the reasons for the "no" and "with modifications" responses:

1. Lack of technical and pedagogical/professional skills (by far the most replies)
2. Lack of overall staff development
3. Lack of career provisions, adequate staff selection and hiring practices (temporary hire, level of salaries, on loan from other ministries, etc.)
4. Constant change of programs rendering staff unprepared and inadequate (discontinuity).

And in a further follow-up question: *"In your opinion, which program areas need special improvement of staff?"* both nationals and foreigners gave the following priorities:

1. Technical and vocational skills
2. Planning, management and supervisory (work programs) skills
3. Pedagogy and teaching methodology, group dynamics and youth work

4. Social skills for mobilizing people, community organization and counseling

5. All areas of volunteer service operations

6. Leadership skills

7. Motivation and attitudes towards volunteer service on the part of staff.

The opinions concerning the quality of staff do not differ much between nationals and foreigners, but the high percentage of foreigners (18%) who gave "no answer" refrained because they were not familiar with details of staff performance. Only a small portion obviously did not reply out of politeness. In all, it seems reasonable to accept the rating in the "no" and "with modifications" ranks as realistic. The reasons given for the lack of qualifications and the areas needing improvement are self explanatory. They are confirmed from observation of other services not included in these interviews, and the many staff training seminars the International Secretariat for Volunteer Service conducted in all regions (see Appendix B-2).

The following measures were suggested by respondents to improve the quality of staff:

1. In-service training.

2. Periodic training outside the service

3. Counterpart training by foreign volunteers

4. Clear career guidelines and supervision

5. Assignment of foreign experts.

The first four suggestions are obvious; the last does not provide a solution to the problem. I personally would give the development of career opportunities and assignments (including staff selection procedures) highest priority because training per se cannot repair problems related to staff selection, management and organizational structure. Various services acknowledge that members of their staff joined after attempts for other employment failed. This circumstance is related to the lack of career programs—and consequently security and status—that Training and Employment Schemes could provide. This discussion of the staffing pattern and quality is, of course, most relevant for the considerations of foreign assistance to Domestic Development Services later on, (see Chapter 11).

The interviews revealed further aspects of the staffing pattern.

To the question: *"What are the reasons for professionals joining the service?"* respondents gave the following priorities:

1. No choice; on detail as a civil servant from another ministry

2. Interest in this type of work, dedication

3. Opportunity, challenge to do development work

4. In the line with field of studies, exercise of profession.

And: *"How would you describe the cooperation between executive staff and volunteers?"* (sample 44):

Extremely satisfactory	5%
Very Satisfactory	18%
Satisfactory	52%
Not very satisfactory	7%
Not at all satisfactory	–
n.a.	18%
	100%

he reasons given for the "not very satisfactory" rating:

1. Because of a "drill" relationship with volunteers

2. Problems over volunteers' participation in the decision-making in local group affairs, (for example, management of local funds)

3. Field staff has too many other obligations and cannot devote full-time to support and supervise volunteers.

All of these replies confirm and elaborate on the problems identified earlier concerning the number and qualifications of staff.

Tables 14 and 15 specify the factors affecting staff success as they are perceived by nationals (sample 27) and foreigners (sample 17). To the question (see Appendix A-4, Card No. 5 for options of ranking): *"In your judgment, which factors are most important to the* **success of national staff assignment?"** the following first, second and third priorities were assigned by respondents:

TABLE 14. RANKING OF FACTORS FOR NATIONAL STAFF SUCCESS

Factors for National Staff Success	National Response Priorities: 1. %	2. %	3. %	Foreign Response Priorities: 1. %	2. %	3. %
• Technical/professional proficiency	48	22	18	35	24	18
• Administrative/managerial proficiency	44	26	4	18	18	6
• Leadership & understanding for people of different culture & background	41	18	11	47	41	12
• Flexible to adjust to changing conditions	–	30	26	12	12	18
• Comes from same local background, knows villagers	4	11	15	6	6	–
• Staff preparation and training	4	7	11	6	6	6

Out of a total of 14 factors given to both nationals and foreigners they chose the three most important factors in very similar fashion:

- both prefer technical/professional proficiency over administrative/managerial proficiency, but give the latter a very close second ranking
- the leadership qualifications and understanding of people from different background and culture received a high first ranking from foreigners and was given third importance from nationals
- both feel equally strong about the importance of flexibility to changing conditions.

The differing viewpoints are also of interest:

- Nationals give more importance to staffers coming from the same local background (knowing villagers) and to staff training.

- Foreigners give high importance to speaking the local language—a ranking which may be influenced by their own shortcomings or limitations in this respect.

In summary, professional qualifications and certain personality traits are ranked highest, suggesting that selection of qualified staff is most important and that training has only a supplementary role to improve the quality of staff.

"In your judgment, which factors are most important to the **success of foreign staff assignments?"** Again, first second and third priorities were assigned by national (sample 27) and foreign (sample 17) respondents:

TABLE 15. RANKING OF FACTORS FOR FOREIGN STAFF SUCCESS

Factors for Foreign Staff Success	Foreign Response Priorities: 1. %	2. %	3. %	National Response Priorities: 1. %	2. %	3. %
• Leadership & understanding for people of different background & culture	41	24	12	15	11	7
• Flexible to adjust to changing conditions	35	12	12	4	11	15
• Technical/professional proficiency	18	6	6	30	7	7
• Speaks local language	12	12	12	4	4	4
• Administrative/managerial proficiency	12	6	12	11	4	4
• Staff preparation and training	6	12	12	7	3	7
• Partners to volunteers, partnership style	12	–	18	4	–	4

- Here the two groups differ in the priority they assign to the technical/professional proficiency of the foreigner—the nationals give it highest rankings, whereas the foreigners give higher importance to cultural communication, social skills and personality traits—an opinion which is of importance for foreign assistance assignments.

- Both include leadership and understanding for people of different background and culture in the two most important factors—with the foreigners assigning a higher priority to this aspect. It seems that the high rating of flexibility on the part of the foreigners underlines the feeling of uncertainty in another cultural environment—therefore the call for adjustment to changing conditions.

- In line with the above ranking is the high importance assigned to speaking the local language on the part of the foreigners. It is, however, surprising that this factor receives such a low priority from nationals.

- Administrative/managerial proficiency are rated of low importance in comparison with social and communication skills and technical qualifications. This is appropriate since foreigners' roles should not emphasize the management of institutions or programs.

- Finally, it is of interest to note that national respondents give sixth priority to two factors not mentioned in Table 15: Level of staff position and salary and strong backing from supervisors. It seems that national respondents acknowledge here the—often unjustified—advantage foreign staff has because of higher pay level, and direct access to the authorities.

These differing and common perceptions about each other merit consideration not only for the current foreign assistance assignments but also evolving future partnership-cooperation.

6. Organization and Management

The organizational structure of a Development Service—as for any other institution—should relate persons and facilities in such a manner that programs can be managed both effectively and efficiently. The constraints of the organizational structure are set foremost by the legislation and supervisory authority, but also by objectives, size of service, coverage of geographical area, program types and cultural traditions. The organizational structure also affects the public response to a Development Service, whether it enables (or even invites!) citizen participation.

The legislative framework, supervisory and leadership structure already have been described and do not require further explanation. Table 16 sets forth the main organizational structure and management functions. Organizational Diagrams for services in this category are attached to the individual Compendia (Volume II).

TABLE 16. ORGANIZATION AND MANAGEMENT FUNCTIONS OF TRAINING AND EMPLOYMENT SCHEMES

Organization	Management Functions		
	Headquarters	Regional	Local
BENIN: Clubs 4-D	Policy; planning; staff hire; supply of materials and food	Channels for administrative advice; supplies & funding via 6 provincial & 40 District Rural Development Offices	Donation of land; building of club facilities; planning work schedule; management of local Club funds
KENYA: —National Youth Service	Policy; planning; staff hire; training; direction of work projects	Recruitment & selection of volunteers through Provinces & District Committees in each District	No local projects
—Village Polytechnics	No Headquarters but centralized program advice; hire of local managers; funding	Provincial Youth Officers and Youth Training Officers support V.P.'s in their Provinces	Village level Management Committees: develop training site; raise funds; supply vocational trainers; supervise V.P. Managers
MALAYSIA: —National Youth Pioneer Corps —National Youth Development Corps	Policy; planning; training design; staff hire. Work programs & employment support through Youth Guidance Bureau	Recruitment of volunteers: District Youth Councils	Recruitment of volunteers: Local Youth Clubs & other associations
—Farm Youth Project	National Committee: Policy and Coordination, hire of staff; funding	State Committees; District Committees. Planning & implementation; supervision of projects	Local Clubs: work plans; management of local funds & materials (agricultural investment)
THAILAND: Rural Youth Leadership Training	National Youth Office. policy; planning, management of 4 Regional Training Centers; hire of staff	District officers of agricultural extension part-time supervision of work projects	Individual work assignments at home; establishment of youth clubs and cooperatives
COSTA RICA: National Youth Movement	Department within Directorate, Policy; planning; recruitment of volunteers; staff hire; funding	60 Regional Youth Centers: recruitment & training of volunteers; direction of regional work programs	Recruitment of volunteers; design & management of local projects; participation in funding; supply of local staff
PANAMA: National Youth	Department within DIGEDECOM, Policy; planning of operations; staff hire; funding	9 regional offices (DIGEDECOM): recruitment & training of volunteers; supervision of local projects	Recruitment of volunteers; execution of projects
USA: ACTION —Youth Challenge Projects —Program for Local Services	Project approval; funding	State agencies can conduct projects & can receive funds	Local project agencies: project planning; direction and supervision; partial local funding

According to Table 16 most Training and Employment Schemes use available governmental channels at the intermediate Province and District levels for regionalization of their organizational structure and management. The exceptions are the Costa Rica National Youth Movement which has its own Regional Youth Centers, and the ACTION agency in the USA which acts as a funding agency for such services and delegates the entire project to State or local organizations.

Centralized organization and management is carried out by the Kenya National Youth Service, Malaysia's National Youth Pioneer and National Youth Development Corps, and Thailand's Rural Youth Leadership Training.

Malaysia's Farm Youth Project, Costa Rica's National Youth Movement and the National Youth Service in Panama largely decentralize organization and management functions to the regional levels.

Finally, the Clubs 4-D in Benin and the Village Polytechnics in Kenya in principle have decentralized their organization and management to a large extent to the local community level. Both organizations have, judging from their structure, a high degree of local citizen participation, but both report rather rigid staff control and insufficient communication between the local projects and headquarters which reduce the flexibility of the organization to adjust to local needs. On the other hand, reports also indicate that central guidelines and direction are necessary to maintain a fairly equal performance level of programs and to prevent misuse of nationally provided materials and funds.

In general, centralization, especially concerning policy development and management decisions, prevents Development Services from (1) expanding in size (2) responding to changing local conditions, and (3) involving local communities in their program. Also, centralized management tends to overformalize administrative procedure through rigid guidelines and the involvement of too many officials in the "clearing" of decisions, thereby developing bureaucratic behavior and "red tape" which hamper the improvement of the overall performance of the service. It is in this sector of organization and management that a service may defeat its very purpose: to provide a flexible and less costly alternative to training and employment preparation in comparison with formal schooling. As related earlier, the interview responses confirm that major problems for directing Training and Employment Schemes arise frequently from top-heavy management and administration.

It is especially difficult to develop a unique style of organization and management for governmental programs because, to some extent, it is necessary to challenge bureaucratic traditions—and this for a program that is without high acceptance and status within the system in the first place. Again, it will largely depend on excellence of leadership and performance of the overall service whether a more independent organizational structure and flexible management procedures are made acceptable to the supervising governmental agencies. It should be noted that this problem of bureaucratization is not limited to governmental agencies; it is a problem of non-governmental services as well. In other words, a non-governmental organization of equal size does not necessarily guarantee a more effective or efficient management—an opinion often voiced in the volunteer service professional community. Most non-governmental programs in this category of Training and Employment Schemes are smaller in size, and reach only specific local groups in need of training and employment preparation—they do not tackle the overall national problem. Even the governmental services in this category are too limited in size to reach a sufficient number of young people who need these services.

The question of size as it relates to the effectiveness of a service is a concern of professionals in development circles, and many favour small local programs. The analysis of the evaluation materials reveals, however, that the negative impact of large organizations is not related to absolute size, but rather, to organizational structure, delegation of authority and management functions so that important decision-making takes place in the small local unit. Currently, none of the existing Training and Employment Schemes has achieved a significant size which reaches and mobilizes more of the many in need. The reasons are not limitations by legislation, and only to a lesser degree funding, but rather, organizational structure and costs per volunteer. The latter addresses the question of efficiency: program output in comparison to costs. In other words, if Training and Employment Schemes maintain centralized organization and management they, at the same time, limit their growth potential, increase their administrative costs, reduce efficiency and hinder local citizen participation.

In order to achieve a high degree of **decentralization of organization and management** and to involve local communities responsibly, the field reports that contributed to this evaluation suggest that the following conditions must be met:

1. Communication feedback channels betwen field and headquarters must be developed and used; a breakdown of communications renders a Development Service ineffective

2. Project planning at the local level, and from there integration into national plans, not vice versa

3. Participation of local communities in project preparation, including volunteer selection and training where this is applicable

4. Improvement of field staffing, including career provisions and preparation/training of local community members as the receivers of volunteers ("receiver" training)

5. Local community participation in the project oversight and funding by providing in kind and/or cash funds

6. Local autonomy of project management within the framework of the previously agreed upon plan

7. Local participation in a regional and national advisory function to the Training and Employment Scheme.

Finally, the **functional linkages** established by Training and Employment Schemes are pa the organizational structure and are crucial to the overall institutional performnance[41] : D of these linkages are described for each service in individual Compendia in Volume II. H brief summary presents the current situation.

Linkages supplying inputs include:

- Supervising ministries provide funding, materials and often part-time staff for project support and supervision: typical of all Training and Employment Schemes.

- Other governmental divisions such as agriculture, education, community development, national parks, are cooperating project agencies that provide supervision to volunteers working in their projects. For example, in the case of the Kenya National Youth Service, governmental agencies reimburse KNYS for the volunteer manpower provided and thus contribute to the funding of the service.

- Local communities provide inputs into project planning, provisions in kind (land, training sites, volunteer instructors, etc.), funds to local groups, project supervision; this is true to a varying degree, for the Clubs 4-D in Benin, the Kenya Village Polytechnics and the services in Costa Rica, Panama, Thailand, the Malaysia Farm Youth Project and the USA Youth

Challenge Projects and Program for Local Services. The Kenya National Youth Service and the Malaysia National Youth Pioneer and National Youth Development Corps are not community based in their operations.

- Foreign Volunteer Services and other foreign assistance institutions provide inputs to all Training and Employment Schemes evaluated in developing countries (exception is the Farm Youth Project in Malaysia) including: advisory and technical training staff, funds, equipment, materials and facilities (for details see Chapter 9, Foreign Assistance).

Linkages using the output, the volunteers, include:

- Governmental and private agencies, and local communities which use volunteer manpower to complete development projects, either for large scale public works (Kenya National Youth Service) or for local community projects. Output linkages to agricultural development institutions are important for those services involving farm youth (Malaysia, Thailand, also Malawi).

- Training Certification Boards certify the proficiency of volunteers at completion of service: Kenya National Youth Service volunteers receive Grade III—and in a few cases Grade II—Trade Tests; Malaysia National Youth Pioneer Corps members can be admitted to the National Industrial and Trade Tests, and the Thailand Rural Youth Leadership Training volunteers are eligible for examination as secondary school achievers. This certification provides the entry linkages into regular employment in industry or public service or for continuing education.

- Occasional employment arrangements with industry, land settlement or rural trades. In general, employment linkages with the production and services sectors are increasing, whereas the use of former volunteers in police forces (Malaysia and Kenya) is decreasing.

What is badly needed in most Training and Employment Schemes are formal linkages to use the output—the volunteer who completed service. Linkages with the employment sector are insufficient or do not exist. It would be unrealistic to expect that volunteers can easily find jobs—especially with their "non-formal" training, while "formally educated" technicians and professionals are unemployed. But it is within the mandate of a Training and Employment Scheme to establish linkages for further employment of volunteers, especially by creating new jobs.

New job areas include:

1. Settlement of small farmers on under-utilized land; the Clubs 4-D in Benin estimate that $500 in revolving funds are needed to settle one small farmer.

2. Self-employment in rural trades and services require output linkages in three directions: (1) to institutions responsible for trade and commercial licensing, and for trade tariffs to encourage the production and use of local goods; (2) to the local market/community using the goods and services; (3) to

governmental agencies and businesses to purchase products and services of the self-employed former volunteers.

3. Development of rural cooperatives both for production support and marketing

4. Employment arrangements in rural public works and administrative functions; for example, former KNYS volunteers can provide a staffing pool for rural public works overseers, rural work artisans can be recruited from Village Polytechnics; semi-technical and record keeping roles can be filled by former volunteers from Training and Employment Schemes; rural works assistants can be stationed with District Planning Offices.

In addition, job placements may be promoted through direct contracts with industry, local government or continuing educational institutions (example, Malaysia). It is important, however, to stress that the linkage to job creation deserves preference, before former volunteers compete for existing jobs. The above four examples of new avenues for using former volunteers in productive employment were taken from evaluation materials and were confirmed by an extremely useful ILO/UNDP study conducted in various countries on strategies for increasing productive employment[140].

All Training and Employment Schemes have stated their strong desire to strengthen these linkages with the employment sector. So far, the Malaysia Youth Corps is the only service in this category which has a Youth Guidance Bureau to deal specifically with assisting youth in self-employment. An overall discussion of the issue of employment of former volunteers is contained in Chapter 8.

6. Costs and Funds

In principle, the funds for Training and Employment Schemes are integrated into the budgets of the respective governmental agencies responsible for the service. Depending upon the legal and organizational structure, the budgets for these services either include or disregard the administrative overhead costs for the central administration of the service. Consequently, the total budgets displayed in individual Compendia differ largely between services.

The unit costs for a Development Service are expressed in costs per volunteer man-year, i.e. total costs for one volunteer serving for 11 months (1 month vacation) full-time. These unit costs for Training and Employment Schemes are displayed and explained in Table 8, column 7. As is evident, the figures are not comparable because their budgeting and cost reporting procedures differ. Apart from these budgeting differences that affect the unit costs, their amount depends largely on three factors: (1) recurrent costs for staff; (2) recurrent costs for facilities and equipment; and (3) number of volunteers serving. Low recurrent costs and large numbers of volunteers in service reduce unit costs and permit a Training and Employment Scheme "to stretch available funds further" and reach more people. The earlier reported staff: volunteer ratio indicates that recurrent costs for staff of some services are too high. In other words, small Development Services which emphasize central administration, and do not use available facilities and local support structures are expensive.

For comparison, the following public education expenditures per pupil are listed in "Education Sector Working Paper", a recent World Bank publication[134]:

Countries by per capita GNP	1970 Expenditures per Pupil US$
I – up to $120.- (Benin, Indonesia)	18.-
II – $121.- to $250.- (Kenya, Thailand)	49.-
III – $251.- to $750.- (Costa Rica, Malaysia, Panama)	57.-

Of course these figures cannot be compared directly, since most services provide food, lodging and clothing to the volunteers. In contrast, the public education costs are comprised only of instruction costs, facilities and administrative overhead. However, the lower costs for the operations of Training and Employment Schemes, compared to equivalent results in school education, are extremely important for justification of these services. With this in mind, two services stand out in their cost per volunteer man-year:

TABLE 17. UNIT COSTS IN TRAINING AND EMPLOYMENT SCHEMES VERSUS PUBLIC EDUCATION

Organizations	Costs per volunteer man-year 1973 $	Expenditures per pupil per year 1970 $
Kenya Village Polytechnics, Kenya:	16.60*	49.-
Farm Youth Project, Malaysia:	29.60	57.-

(*) Public funding only

Taking into consideration that: (1) the data stem from different years and report current costs; (2) the costs per pupil apply to various levels of education; and (3) the expenditure per pupil involves a high portion (50% and more) of repeaters and non-completers, one can safely deduce that about 2 – 3 volunteers can be trained and prepared for employment in these organizations for the cost of 1 pupil in school. This ratio is confirmed by a 1967 ISVS staff study on "Volunteer Services and Human Resources Development" for the Young Pioneers in Malawi where a cost of $19 per volunteer per year compared to $38 per primary pupil per year[96]. A conclusion that there is greater efficiency in Training and Employment Schemes is based on the notion that an important goal of service programs is to train and achieve employable skills and work experience, including a degree of literacy, as contrasted to the certification of a school examination. In other words, the quality of the Training and Employment Schemes is expressed in skill competency "certified" by actual employment, whereas the quality of a comparable school education in the primary and lower secondary level is expressed by certification of exit examinations regardless of whether the student is ready for work. If this trade-off in quality between the "formal" and the Development Services "non-formal" education can be accepted, then these services are 2-3 times more efficient in reaching uneducated youth for employment preparation. Efficiency, it may be recalled, is established

by comparing output with costs (see Diagram 2). The later analysis of the achievements of these services will further explain under what conditions these conclusions can be maintained. For the present, it is important to note that compatible training costs per unit in comparision to formal schooling can be achieved.

Finally, a brief review of the budget and funding pattern of Training and Employment Schemes will help to determine the overall support of these services.

TABLE 18. BUDGET SOURCES OF FUNDING OF TRAINING AND EMPLOYMENT SCEMES

Organization	Annual Budget	FUNDING in Cash and Kind			
		Government	Local Community	Earnings	Foreign
BENIN: Club. 4-D	n.a. (National Budget)	$41.606.- cash $74.416.- kind both UNDP matching funds	Land for Club Farming Projects	Selling cash crops for financing Club work	UNDP $350,000 (4 years) for overall rural extension including Clubs FAO Food & farming supplies; Dutch Volunteer Service training materials; Peace Corps: silos
KENYA: –National Youth Service	1974 $105,705	$105,705	no projects	ca. $6,500 (6%) from work projects	AID: $3½ million soft loan to replace heavy work equipment, 57 foreign volunteer training staff
–Village Polytechnics	1974 $62,400	$62,400	Land for V.P. site, construction training facilities, voluntary instructors, ca Ksh. 200 per trainee	–	1973-75 $829,400.- NORAD Norway for V.P. expansions curric. developm.; UNICEF revolving loan for self-employm. of trainees; 98 foreign vol train. staff
MALAYSIA: –All Youth Services Division of Youth	1974 $1,376,324	$1,376,324	Provisions of room & board by during work assignments	–	UNICEF $25,000.- for Workshop training; 12 foreign volunteer trainers
–Farm Youth Project	$74,964	$74,964	Land for projects from farmers/local communities	?	–
THAILAND: Rural Youth Leadership	n.a. (National Budget)	n.a.	Land, club facilities, etc.	?	1971-75 UNICEF $205,000.- training equipm. & supplies, 1 foreign volunteer trainer.
COSTA RICA: National Youth Movement	1973 $94,803	$90,634	Provides facility for Youth Centers & funds for local activities; $4,169 contribution to national budget	–	UNICEF $10,000.- for 2 buses and training materials; 2 foreign expert advisers
PANAMA: National Volun. Service	1969 $172,750	$86,000	Work project supervision	–	AID: $86,750.-
USA: ACTION –Youth Challenge Projects –Program for Local Services	implementation states 1974 $4,475,000	1974 Award of 19 local planning grants $4,430,250	Project Agencies: staffing, project supervision $44,750 (10% per volunteer); project supervision		

All Training and Employment Schemes are integrated into the budgets of their respective governmental departments—but to varying degrees. The following services receive major support from outside the government:

- Clubs 4-D in Benin are to a large extent foreign sponsored and receive support from local communities
- Village Polytechnics in Kenya are village based and receive major payments in kind and cash; foreign support is used to expand the program, fill skill gaps of trainers, and improve the quality of training
- National Volunteer Service in Panama: the data stem from 1969 before the disolution in 1972 and re-institution in 1974; there is currently no AID funding involved.

The foreign sources of funding both in cash and kind are analyzed further in Chapter 9. With the exception of Benin, they play no significant role in financing the regular operations on current strength.

Two funding sources deserve more attention in the future, especially if one considers that unit costs per volunteer should be reduced in order to reach more young people within the budget limitations:

1. Local community support
2. Earnings from volunteer work projects.

Local community support should be expanded both for provisions in kind and cash; the Village Polytechnics offer a good example in this respect.

Earnings from volunteer work projects definitely deserve more attention. Volunteers produce goods and services both in workshops and by providing manpower to community or national development projects. This important aspect of earning, or paying, for goods and services received is not merely to increase the efficiency of the service. It is also an expression of the value and appreciation for the services or products received. The old adage that things which do not cost anything are worth nothing is still valid today. It is also in this area that a Development Service would break away from the old schooling pattern: the public has to pay for it. Through service earnings individual involvement is encouraged. It is estimated, in fact, that the educational value is even higher than the cash value.

This concludes the analysis and assessment of Program Inputs to Training and Employment Schemes. The next step is to evaluate the task in which these inputs have been transformed to

TASKS

Program Tasks of Training and Employment Schemes include:

1. Recruiting and Selection of volunteers
2. Training
3. Work programs
4. Citizen mobilization

No. 19 provides a review of these tasks:

TABLE 19. REVIEW OF PROGRAM TASKS

Training and Employment Schemes	Service		Training		Work Programs		Citizen Mobilization & Participation
	Duration	Geographical Coverage	Time	Areas	Time	Areas	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
BENIN: Clubs 4-D	3-4 years up to 6 years full-time	nationwide goal 1 club per village	About 2 hrs. a day	• literacy • civics • hygiene • sports	Average 5 hrs. a day	• farming • house const. • crafts • food preser.	Local community based
KENYA: – National Youth Service	2 years full-time	nationwide rural	10 months	• basic literacy • science • technical	14 months	• bush clearing • road constr. • disease control	Centralized; No community based
– Village Polytechnics	2 years full-time	9 provinces rural	full-time courses combining class-room instruction and practical work in farming, trades, commerce, plumbing, motor mechanics, electricity				Local community based
MALAYSIA: – National Youth Pioneer Corps	18 months full-time	Recruitment in all 13 States	3 to 9 months	• literacy • civics • general vocational • special technical	6 months	Work assignments in industry, trades	Centralized; local volunteer recruitment
– National Youth Development Corps	3 months full-time	n.a.	3 months training: new attitudes, history, physical, agriculture, religion; no work programs but employment assistance				
– Farm Youth Project	1 year minimum; full-time	In 10 States (out of 13)	3 weeks to 3 months	Specialized agriculture, veterinary; group	1 year	• crop corps • poultry • cattle • fishing	Local community based

THAILAND: Rural Youth Leadership Training	4 years and 3 months;	All 4 regions	2 times 3 months	40% literacy 11% civics, culture, 49% agriculture, crafts health	3 months	• agriculture • crops • home making	Centralized training; local community work
COSTA RICA: National Youth Movement: A Uneducated Youth	Summer vacation full-time otherwise part-time	nationwide 60 regional Centers	80 hrs. 160 hrs.	• literacy • civics • technical/ vocational	3 months full-time later part-time	• community development • construction • social service	Centralized training; local community work
B Secondary students unfinished			n.a.	• history • civics(b) • technical			
PANAMA: National Volunteer Service	1 year full-time others, 2 months minimum	n.a.; volunteers serve in their villages	n.a. full-time	• general C.D. • technical	n.a. full-time	• construction • trades • agriculture • C.D.	Centralized training; local community work
USA: ACTION – Youth Challenge Projects(c)	varying length; full-time	17 States	n.a. full-time	service for credit at educational institutions	n.a. full-time	poverty-related projects in local communities	Local community
– Program for Local Service(c)	minimum 15 months full-time	8 States	n.a.	in-service training	full-time 15 mo.	career development; civic responsibility through poverty-related community service	

Explanations for Table 19:

(a) Only 290 (out of 2,530) volunteers participated in special training: members of local farm youth clubs are selected for training with the expectation they will multiply the training effect when they return to their villages and to farm youth teams to carry out the work projects.

(b) Volunteers come from rural communities to which they are expected to return for community development (C.D.) service upon completion of training.

1. Recruitment and Selection of Volunteers

Recruitment of candidates is most often carried out through existing local or district structures, such as governmental administration, youth clubs, agricultural organizations or village authorities, like headmen or religious leaders. Eligibility for service varies.

Organization	Recruitment Criteria
BENIN Clubs 4-D	No criteria; all uneducated children of villages are accepted (they serve in their home villages)
KENYA – National Youth Service	Candidates must be unemployed; no educational requirements; must be medically fit and without dependents
– Village Polytechnics	No criteria; anyone unemployed and unskilled can join; must have some primary education
MALAYSIA - National Youth Pioneer Corps and - National Youth Development Corps	Anyone who is uneducated; unemployed, between 16-25 years old, may join
Farm Youth Project	No educational requirements; must be interested in becoming a farmer
THAILAND Rural Youth Leadership Training	Eligible are single rural youth between 16-25 years of age who completed 4th grade elementary education; no opportunity or intention to continue education; residence in rural areas
COSTA RICA National Youth Movement	(a) Uneducated youth and drop-outs (b) Secondary School pupils
PANAMA National Volunteer Service	Minimum age of 16 years; willing to return to their villages after training to serve community
USA ACTION – Youth Challenge Projects	Youth 14-21 years of age; no educational requirements; willing to learn and serve in poverty-related projects; service must be recognized by educational institutions
– Program for Local Services	Volunteers 18 years and over; unemployed and in need of work experience for enhancement of career.

None of the services reported difficulty in recruiting candidates. The Kenya National Youth Service has 50 applications for each service vacancy. Openings are equally allocated to all provinces. The Malaysia National Youth Corps also reports long waiting lists of applicants. The services in the US are part of ACTION's experimental programs and currently concern only a limited number of local projects.

Selection procedures of candidates are chiefly related to verifying whether the recruitment criteria have been met, and whether there is a balanced representation from all regions or tribes (Kenya National Youth Service, Malaysia Youth Corps). Most services conduct interviews with candidates through local committees to determine their eligibility and qualifications. Only the Malaysia National Youth Pioneer Corps and the Thailand Rural Youth Leadership Training Center administer an aptitude test, not to select "out" but "in", to determine the volunteer's vocational/technical capabilities and interests. The Malaysia Farm Youth Project, 4-H Clubs 4-D and the Kenya Village Polytechnics—all local programs where volunteers work in their home villages—have no screening procedures whatsoever and everybody can join.

In principle, the **policy for recruitment and selection of volunteers** is an important indication of the philosophy of a service: is "the right of every citizen to serve" the guiding principle for recruitment? The "right of service" implies that this is a service **of** people in contrast to a service for people. If mobilization and participation of citizens is a major goal of a service then the entry policy represents a first crucial step toward achievement of this goal. Open Training and Employment Schemes - that everybody lacking skills and employment can join—point in the right direction; however, none of the services evaluated in this category yet has promoted a policy of "the right to serve."

"Why do volunteers participate in this service?" Answers to this question were obtained in interviews with the following results:

Priorities of Reasons Why Volunteers Joined Service

National Responses (Sample 27)	Foreign Responses (Sample 17)
1. Opportunity for service; promotion of philosophy of service	1. Prospect of Employment
2. Youth is civic minded and self-reliant; wants to participate in development; fulfillment	2. To learn skills and trades; no place to go
3. To learn skills and trades; nowhere else to go, and Prospect of employment and economic benefit	3. Friendship, sociability, creativity
4. Serve the nation; help others	4. Youth civic minded and self-reliant; wants to participate in development; fulfillment
5. Friendship, sociability, creativity	5. Opportunity for service; promotion of philosophy of service
6. Prestige, novelty, snobishness	6. Serve the nation; help others
7. Get food and be cared for.	

It should be noted that the majority of opinions are voiced by staff, supervisors, village chiefs and foreigners about volunteers; only a small sample of 4 volunteers gave their own reasons for participation. All respondents cite more than one motivation why volunteers joined. This is not unusual; there is always "a mixed bag" of reasons why the final decision is made. National respondents emphasize service and civic contribution over the personal needs for skills and employment, whereas foreign respondents are more cautious–or–realistic and give higher priority to personal needs. Priority 5 and 6 of national responses concern only Latin American Services, whereas priority 3 of the foreign and 7 of the national responses refer to African and Asian services. The latter indicates basically a negative attitude–the service is not perceived as a program for mobilization of citizens but as a social welfare program for the poor. The reasons for the misconception are the provision of food and clothing through foreign assistance agencies (See also Chapter 11).

2 Training

The goals of volunteer training in Training and Employment Schemes in all regions are very similar. In this study, goals are defined as the *"preferred outcome of a program or program sector of an institution in terms of targets to be achieved in a specified period of time."*

They include:

1 Attaining technical/vocational skills to an employable level of proficiency

2 Acquiring social skills to communicate easily and to be able to exercise responsible citizen roles in local communities; leadership roles are mentioned only by the Malaysia Farm Youth Project, the Thailand Rural Youth Training and the Panama National Volunteer Service

3 Acquiring a new attitude towards:

- Work and workmanship: responsibility, punctuality and commitment to schedules, accuracy, awareness of and pride in quality of work, respect and care for tools, equipment and materials

- The improvement of life in the local community, both the life of the individual family and the community as a whole

- Other tribes, sub-cultures and the country as a whole; this latter aspect is especially emphasized in programs with volunteers not serving in their home community.

Table 19, columns 4 and 5 review training schedules and areas. The following listing summarizes the Training curriculum and related proficiency targets:

Organization	Curriculum	Proficiency Goal
BENIN: – Clubs 4-D	• Literacy: reading, writing, counting	• Able to read agricultural instrutions, account for production
	• Civic information: taxes, administrative structure of government, I.D. cards; how to arrange club work	• Self-administration of Club; able to meet civic obligation as a self-employed farmer
	• Farm work and home-making, work scheduling and training during work programs	• Learn how to work; able to settle as farmers or in trades
	• Hygiene; sanitation of drinking water, personal health, sports	
KENYA: – National Youth Service	• Centralized basic training: discipline, group organization, drill; no weapons training	• Able to work in large groups in public works projects; be available for national emergencies and perform on national holidays as a civil labor force
	• Centralized Literacy: English, Swahili, basic science, civics	• Lower secondary level (equivalent); knowledge of country
	• Centralized vocational training: agriculture, masonry, carpentry, fitting, twining, vehicle mechanics, electrical work	• Crash courses to reach standards of government Grade III Trade Test (qualification to enter employment as laborer)
	• Continuing education in vocational skills for those interested	• Standards of Government Grade II Trade Test; Special Farming Certificate
– Village Polytechnic	• Vocational training, commercial, agricultural, technical, domestic science	• Employable skills, i.e. self-employment in trades services and farming in rural areas

MALAYSIA: - National Youth Pioneer Corps	• Basic training: civics, literacy, general vocational skills, physical discipline	• Discipline; work attitude; basic literacy and vocational skills; knowledge of country and government
	• Special vocational/ technical training: agriculture, motor mechanics, construction work, radio and TV servicing, welding, land surveying	• Certificate of National Industrial Training and Trade Certification Board (Entry examination for employment)
- National Youth Development Corps	• Basic training similar to NYPC; basic farming skills	• Equivalency of basic training NYPC; employable in farming or police force
- Farm Youth Project	• Farming and Leadership training	• Farming and Leadership skills; able to spread their learning in farm clubs and projects
THAILAND: - Rural Youth Leadership Training	• Basic training: literacy	• Remove secondary illiteracy; Able to take leadership roles in homes villages
	• Leadership Training: civics, local language and culture	• Equivalency of secondary technical education
	• Vocational/technical: agriculture, crafts, home science, health	
COSTA RICA: - National Youth Movement	• Basic training: history, culture, civics	• To know and love their country
	• Skill training: crafts, farming, community development, construction, social work, etc.	• Employable skills in agriculture, public works or trades
PANAMA: - National Volunteer Service	• General training for community development work	• Social skills for community work
	• Vocational/technical skills: construction, carpentry, cooperatives, plumbing, etc.	• Employable in rural trades, construction work or community development

No details on volunteer training were available for the experimental local programs supported by ACTION, USA.

The curricula comparison between Training and Employment Schemes indicates a high degree of similarity in training content. The Kenya National Youth Service, the Malaysia Young Pioneers and the Thailand Rural Youth Leadership Training have the most structured proficiency goals: equivalency of lower secondary and/or technical certification. All others train for employable skills in the informal sector of the economy.

All services link their training with the work programs – which are described in the next Sub-Chapter–and consider the latter as an experiential learning opportunity or a more structured on-the-job training. This linkage of learning to work and service, i.e. to the benefit of others, is of course one of the prime specialties of any Development Service.

Differences in training programs among Training and Employment Schemes do not occur so much in the area of curriculum content or proficiency goals as in **scheduling and methodology.** Four major types can be recognized:

1. Low key formal training, emphasis on on-the-job training, self-administration of groups, involvement of volunteers in their own work scheduling

   Examples include the Benin Clubs 4-D and the Malaysia Farm Youth Project. This approach is preferred by agricultural services. None of these services aims at training for certification.

2. "Sandwich Courses", i.e. formal centralized training "sandwiched" between program assignments

   Examples include the Kenya National Youth Service and the Thailand Rural Youth Leadership Training. Both services aim at delivering an equivalent training for secondary technical certification.

3. Centralized training with a low key work program in workshops and industry

   The emphasis is on structured form of training, and less on work assignments. These programs are ego-oriented, tend toward individuals learning than toward service for others. Examples include the Kenya Village Polytechnics and the two Malaysia Youth Corps. Certification of training is granted in Malaysia National Youth Pioneer Corps which aims at employment in trades and industry. The focus of the other Malaysian service is on employable skills in the informal rural sector, or preparation for police cadets (National Youth Development Corps).

4. A "fifty-fifty approach", focusing equally on training and work programs but not in the structured form of a sandwich course, is pursued by the Costa Rican and Panamanian Services. Both provide training in centers away from the local community at the beginning of service and continue some learning support during work programs at home or in other communities. Both services also combine part-time and full-time programs and do not aim at certification of training.

Three aspects of **training methodology** deserve further detailed discussion: volunteer participation in the administration of training, classroom instruction and discipline training.

First, volunteer participation in the administration of training programs is a methodology applied in the Benin Clubs 4-D, Kenya National Youth Service, Malaysia Farm Youth Project, Thailand Rural Youth Leadership Training and the services in Costa Rica and Panama. All services perceive this approach as experiential learning and part of their civic leadership training: participation in group decisions, leadership roles, delegations of responsibilities, administration of group functions, such as: treasurer, record keeping, materials administration, etc. For example:

- The Benin 4-D Clubs elect their chairman, vice-chairman and treasurer, establish their own club rules and manage their affairs, including their small budget. They develop their own work schedule jointly with their supervisor and carry it on during the week with limited actual supervision.

- Participants of the Kenya National Youth Service during the final quarter of their two years of service (phase 6) manage and administer the various activities in camps instead of hired personnel, and servicemen and women alike can achieve staff ranks of:

  - Lance Corporals (28 per each 500 members)
  - Corporals (26 per each 500 members)
  - Sergeants (12 per each 500 members)

  This hierarchy concurs with the military-type set-up of the service and its promotion system.

- Leadership Training in Thailand and the Malaysia Farm Youth Project are very similar: they provide training in group dynamics and practical group work and request the participants to administer their own affairs during their stay in training centers and later in work programs in their home villages.

Second, "classroom instruction", or the lecture type of methodology, is clearly a problem area of Training and Employment Schemes. Of course, with the strong emphasis on training there is need for simply transferring information and skills. But **how** this transfer is achieved is the problem. Shall it be a return to the old instructional approach and memorizing instead of investigative learning? The image of schooling is still strong, as the "formal" system draws much higher prestige. It is tempting for the "non-formal" services to copy schooling in this respect—and by doing so self-defeat one of the purposes for which they were created in the first place: to provide alternative learning for those who were disenchanted with schooling and dropped out. The staffing problem of many services tends to enhance the formal method of instruction, since many trainers are former teachers or officers, accustomed to an authoritarian classroom style. A participatory role of volunteers in the classroom requires special staff qualifications normally not acquired through current training of teachers.

The Kenya Villge Polytechnics, the Kenya National Youth Service, the Malaysia Youth Corps and the Thailand Rural Leadership Training have reported this type of methodology and the problems connected with it.

Third, the discipline type of training is reported by some Training and Employment Schemes It is foremost a style, a methodology of training, applying military-type hierarchical order and command (including punishment) into the relationship between trainers and volunteers. Discipline training as a field of instruction includes: Physical education, first aid, marching, etc Only the Malaysia Youth Development Corps incorporates weapons training with a view to the follow-up employment of a large portion of participants in the Police Cadet Corps. Apart from the latter, the Kenya National Youth Service, Malaysia National Youth Pioneer Corps and the Costa Rica National Youth Movement provide discipline training. From a foreigner's point of view this is probably the most controversial field of instruction and methodology applied in Training and Employment Schemes, and in some instances (Malaysia, Zambia) has led to the withdrawal of foreign volunteers as instructors. However, since the early days, it became apparent to many observers that discipline training is strongly influenced by culture and religion, both as a field and a methodology of training, and it is deeply linked to the history of a country. For example, discipline training has a different significance in an Islamic society such as Malaysia than it has for, say German Volunteers (see also discussion on Foreign Assistance, Chapter 11.)

What is meant by the discipline approach is best described by the following quote from the Kenya National Youth Service:

> *"IV. What sort of discipline is recommended?*
>
> 8. *If the work and training programs of a National Youth Service are to justify its costs, they must be efficient. If efficiency is to be achieved there must be discipline. A permissive approach to hundreds, perhaps thousands, of young people living en masse under camp conditions for long periods of time is useless, and could be dangerous.*
>
> 9. *Having regard to this, the Kenya National Youth Service sought to design a system which would achieve discipline without destroying the voluntary nature of the service. The solution, which has now worked satisfactorily for five years, is as follows:*
>
> i. *The service is uniformed, and has a clearly defined rank structure.*
>
> ii. *All recruits are required to undergo two months basic-training on joining the service. This is designed to inform them about the Service's aim and organizations, give them the basic skills in such matters as comcraft and first-aid; and, above all, to accustom them to accept constituted authority. As in army basic-training, there is an emphasis on foot-drill; but no arms training is given.*
>
> iii. *The N.Y.S. Act and Regulations provide for offenders to be charged and punished under similar procedures to those used in the armed forces, punishments varying from an official warning through fatigues, fines and confinements for not more than 14 days, to dismissal from the service. However, desertion carries* **no** *penal sanction; so that punishments are accepted in a voluntary spirit since, in the last analysis, a person can always leave the Service rather than undergo them.*

iv. It is made very clear to Members that the Discharge Certificate given to them when they leave the Service will truly accurately reflect their disciplinary record; and also the Service will **not** *recommend them for outside employment unless their record is good.*

10. It is vital, of course, that officers set the best example at all times. Officers who fail to reach the standard required should be disciplined without hesitation—and, if necessary, be removed from their posts."

In all, this review of training methodology indicates that both partnership and authoritarian styles are applied simultaneously in one service. Whether this is a part of policy or reflects the ongoing growth of the service to develop its own and consistent style is not yet clear.

The overall achievements of training are dependent upon two major linkages, whether:

1. together with work programs it produces an employed citizen and
2. it is part of the life long or recurrent education system permitting continuing education later in life when desired.

3. Work programs

It is important for the understanding of this Sub-Chapter to recall the definitions of work and service for this analyses:

> "**Work** *is a physical, mental, moral and purposeful effort in response to a structured demand for action, determined by cultural, religious, philosophical and economic standards resulting in specified achievements and personal satisfaction."*

> "**Service** *is work done for others with attention and devotion, in response to needs and to the benefit of others, and not entailing financial gains for those who serve."*

This characteristic of work-service distinguishes all Development Services from other programs. The emphasis is not on direct, individual economic gain but upon:

- involving the effort of the whole person in work activity
- responding seriously to needs: personal, family, community and national needs
- being governed by a continuum of commitment to schedules and performance standards in order to achieve program goals
- serving for the benefit of others
- and for personal satisfaction.

In other words, work-service differs from "learning by doing" and from youth work that focusses on occasional activities like sports, recreation and leisure projects. An incident from Thailand's experience underscores the value of work in contrast to recreational and leisure activities. National officials judged that recreational activities would be a good take-off for local youth projects to achieve immediate rapport with youth. However, this notion was rejected by the villagers who did not find it useful; they preferred work assignments instead. Obviously, the national officials applied a westernized perception whereby work is second to leisure in desirability, whereas the villagers perceived the value of work in their traditional "eastern" way. As E. F. Schuhmacher explains so eloquently in his book *"Small is beautiful, Economics as if people mattered"*[109]: *"The Buddhist point of view takes the function of work to be at least threefold: to give man a chance to utilize and develop his faculties; to enable him to overcome his egocentredness by joining with other people in a common task; and to bring forth the goods and services needed for a becoming existence."* This is exactly what Development Services want to achieve with their work programs.

The **goals** of volunteer work programs in Training and Employment Schemes are closely linked to those of training:

- to acquire technical (vocational) skills and experience in actual work-service situations under performance standard conditions
- to obtain social skills and understanding for: working in groups, under employment conditions in development work, etc.
- to gain new attitudes toward workmanship, local community and national needs, other sub cultures, tribes and traditions, etc.
- to contribute volunteer manpower to development projects of community and/or national importance.

Reference is made to Table 19 which reviews duration of service, geographical coverage and time spent in major program areas including: small scale agricultural, vocational or technical work assignments and community development. The exception is the Kenya National Youth Service involving volunteer manpower in large scale public works projects in remote rural areas where they neither compete with private business (because it is too remote) nor with local community self-help schemes (which are small scale).

Opinions about the performance of work programs were obtained in interviews with both nationals and foreigners. They reveal an interesting emphasis on major work program areas, preference for work program design, and a broad spectrum of observations and experience.

To the question: *"What do you consider the* **best type of volunteer work projects,** *and why?"* both nationals and foreigners (sample 46) assigned the following priorities to:

Major Program Areas:

1. Local community development and community organization, because it helps to improve the life of people, involves new ways of doing things and therefore change of attitudes, leads to self-realization and mutual sharing (33%)

2. Agriculture on the village level linked to settlement of small farms and cooperative farming, because it creates jobs in self-employment and reduces migration to cities (17%)

3. Learning-earning schemes: those projects which are employment oriented, like: craftsmen, small farming, foresting (lumbering), tourist services, because it prepares for self-employment (17%)

4. Rural infrastructure development (4%), small industry (2%), and projects directed toward continuing education (6%), all have low priority

5. Construction and reforestation have low preferences (2% each) and seem to be controversial work areas:

   - those in favour of construction work argue it betters the life of people (communities); those against say it requires excessive funds and logistics and does not develop the people themselves

   - those in favour of reforestation point to the educational value of becoming aware of national problems, whereas those against say it takes place in remote areas and does not include an encounter with people.

me of the respondents referred to the **work program design** and indicated that hte best work ograms are those which:

- have goals which can be achieved during the volunteer's work assignnment (identification of short-term goals)

- are carried out on a medium or long-term basis because only they permit the volunteer to identify with a problem, work for a certain time span to help solve it, and get a satisfaction from his/her contribution

- have a broad spectrum of work activities permitting the volunteer to engage in work according to his qualifications and interests

- combine learning with productive work and engage other people for mutual benefit (like volunteer work camps)

- require a change of life style because this is the best way to change attitudes.

Finally, to get a clear negative opinion on work project types, the question was asked:

"In your opinion, what types of projects should be excluded from volunteer work assignments?" Both national and foreign responses are of interest:

National Responses (Sample 27)	Foreign Responses (Sample 19)
Excluded should be those volunteer work projects which:	
• do not serve the development of the local community and do exclude encounter with people (19%)	• the volunteer is not able to handle, considering his entry qualifications (work with tools rather than machines) (16%)
• use volunteers as cheap physical labor (response only from Latin America) (19%)	• emphasize para-military training, because it distracts from development needs (16%)
• do not actively involve members of the local community, because otherwise they do not value the work of volunteers, (15%)	• involve private business and require outside material or equipment support not locally available (11% each)
• do not involve motivation and attitudinal change, and those which continue paternalistic styles (7% each)	• involve large scale industry, office work, large scale farming, farming on marginal locations and do not lead directly to the betterment of life of local people, (5% each)
• are not developed with volunteers' participation; do not lead to self-reliance; do not combine learning and actual working; produce no results (agriculture or poor locations for example) or require too high material investments (construction) (4% each)	• no answer (21%)
• no answer, (11%)	

These responses reflect opinion grown from practical experience with problems of volunteer work programs. Though they represent a small sample of respondents, they point in the right directions. In general, large scale projects are not favored and emphasis is given to local community projects and small scale self-employment programs. The sensitivity of foreigners towards the para-military aspects of some Training and Employment Schemes accompanies the whole history of relations between Foreign and Domestic Development Services in this category. The reasons for this negative opinion are not related to a questioning of national defense or preparedness, but to a serious doubt of the educational value of military orientation for

youth, who need to personally grow and become skilled citizens before returning to their communities to become involved in local development.

Nationals do not share this view, or at least they do not mention it as important. There are examples where the introduction of para-military programs has destroyed the development orientation of a service (Zambia). On the other hand, in Kenya and Malawi, the initial para-military emphasis shifted to development orientation, to employment preparation and job creation in accordance with the increasing needs.

The importance of the work-service aspect of the overall program, in comparison with pure training instruction, is reflected in the proportion of time spent for these activities, and the location where they are carried out. In principle, four major types of work program emphasis or importance can be defined:

First, **Work programs in the home community** are most often related to farming, cooperative work, rural trades and home science. As instances, in the Benin Clubs 4-D and the Malaysia Farm Youth Project, work programs by far dominate the small amount of time set aside for formal training. In both cases the total service is home community bound. If one would like to assign a ration of time and program effort between work program vis-a-vis training, the relationship would be about 80:20. For example, in Benin the rural Clubs receive about 5 hectar from the village, i.e., the volunteers' parents. Often this land is not cleared and requires improvement for agricultural production. By working the land every day during the week, the volunteers meet with all the necessary skills and knowledge for successful farming. Apart from subsistence agriculture they learn cash crop production, including that for industrial commodities. The latter provide the funds for the local Clubs to purchase seeds, tools, fertilizers, etc., above that received through FAO assistance. Cash crop production is new for many small farmers and many Clubs have not yet used this potential to its fullest extent. All reports indicate, however, a better workmanship, improved yields in comparison with those of villagers, so that the parents become interested to learn from their children. As an elderly farmer from the Allada region explained (Clubs 4-D information):

> *"I saw our children start their farming here. At first, I did not believe much in it, and I remember having told a friend one day who was talking about it: Oh, let the kids have fun! Now, my little Assobga who is a Club member has become my master in agriculture; he teaches my friend and me with much pride to sow the corn in straight lines and to spread fertilizer. The Club's work is a model that everyone copies because it is done right there by our children and the results are excellent".*

Somewhat different is the second group; here **centralized training is combined with work programs in local communities.** In other words, the importance of work service is somewhat minimized in the overall program effort to favor a centralized and more "formal" training program. The Thailand Rural Youth Leadership Training, the Costa Rica and Panamanian services for uneducated youth belong to this group. In these instances, the ratio of program effort between work and training is estimated at 60:40.

The third group clearly has **less emphasis on work-service programs.** Here volunteers either work in the workshop of the training center (Malaysia National Youth Development Corps), local trades, services or small scale industry (Kenya Village Polytechnics) or industry and commerce (Malaysia National Youth Pioneers Corps). The Programs often afford individual employment assignment, in contrast to work in groups. These services, with their heavy

emphasis on training rather than the work-service, at the same time are the ones most often tempted to copy standards and status symbols of "formal" schooling. Obviously, their difference from "formal schooling" is less unique and they do not offer as clear an alternative to the traditional education system as do those with clear work-service assignments. This is a serious problem which deserves attention because it can result in the self-defeat of curing the reasons why these services exist at all. In this third group the ratio of program effort between work:training is estimated at 20:80 (reverse to the first group).

The fourth alternative comprises the **large scale work programs in remote rural areas,** clearly not community based, of the Kenya National Youth Service. In this case the ratio between work: training effort is 50:50.

In the first, second and fourth groups, work-service is considered a crucial learning environment, in terms of personal growths, skills and changed attitudes. Most services also take advantage of this special environment in the design of work procedure and permit volunteers to participate not only in the actual work but also in certain management and group functions. The latter is crucial, because the use of volunteers simply as "cheap labor" reduces the educational value and the advantage with which these services are endowed by their very design. It is believed that greater adoption of the Training and Employment Schemes characteristic of work and service in the third group described above would improve the quality of their contribution to society and their impact on the individual volunteer.

Work Technology is an important aspect of the work program design of Training and Employment Schemes—if the reasons for their very existence and their objectives are taken seriously. Preparation for self reliance, self-employment, development in rural areas, clearly requires the application of labor-intensive, local and intermediate technology. There are fine and imaginatives examples of how local technologies are applied in many of the Training and Employment Schemes. It would appear that this is a specific strength which should be nourished—especially in the light of the re-discovery and new importance gained by those forms of technology[109]. Again the Kenya National Youth Service is an exception in this area. Employing the heavy equipment required for large scale public work projects, it stands out from all other services in this category. Indeed, it is an interesting example. The overall national acceptance and respect for the Kenya National Youth Service is clearly linked to the results achieved with this heavy technology: clearing land for farm settlements, fighting breeding places for diseases, building roads and air strips, helping in heavy earthworks in national parks and river banks. Yet, these work programs do not prepare the individual for follow-up employment. For the individual volunteer, it is the training program within the Kenya National Youth Service which is employment oriented and responds to primary needs of youth in Kenya.

In principle, reports from most Development Services indicate that the advise against work programs that require investment in heavy materials and equipment. The logistics are difficult to manage—especially for short-term programs, and they are expensive.

Finally, the impact of foreign technology on Training and Employment Schemes can create problems. This is true not only for work with highly specialized machinery—which affects only a few services in this category—but also for the import of simple tools. In the case of the Benin Clubs 4-D, some hand tools for farm work supplied by the FAO did not prove to be helpful and were rejected by local Clubs. Says one supervisor, *"We received hoes, knives, rakes, long shovels, sprinklers, saws, hammers, planes, etc. We never use them, because none can use them. I can't use them myself. When we have extra funds (in the Club treasury from the sale*

of cash products) we buy our own knives, hoes, etc." (For more on this subject see Chapter 11 on Foreign Assistance).

The most important contribution foreigners can make to work technology are in two areas: improvement of workmanship and introduction of new skills using local materials for creation of new jobs.

The kind of **supervision** a work program receives also determines its effectiveness:

- Work supervision of volunteer projects by the local communities provides the best oversight for programs carried out in their spheres. A certain autonomy on the part of the local community is important to keep the work responsive to needs and fence off unnecessary bureaucratization through centralization and standardization.

- Part-time supervision by officials from agricultural or community development agencies is helpful for technical/professional advice, but it always competes with other commitments these officials have, and a service should not completely depend upon them. Often, too, more than one agency is involved in work programs and they compete for influence on the action as a whole. This kind of competition does not aspire to higher effectiveness but aims rather for administrative power, and, in effect, hampers the service. In other words, using available governmental channels for work supervision instead of helping, may become part of the problem.

- Work supervision in industry, commerce or workshop employment is conducted on an individual basis by various businesses employing volunteers. They emphasize employment conditions and workmanship, and—of course—provide valuable linkages to later employment, but they are less local community-oriented.

- As explained earlier, the Kenya National Youth Service has developed an "in-house" supervisory structure with their staff ranks, drawing on no outside resources for these functions.

Finally, opinions about the **success of work programs** in Training and Employment Schemes were expressed during interviews in replies to the question:

"In your judgment, which factors contribute most to the success of volunteer work projects?" (For rating options see Appendix A-4, Card No. 3). Table 20 gives the percentage of respondents who assigned first, second or third priority to factors for success. The national responses are based on a sample of 27 respondents, the foreign results on a sample of 19.

TABLE 20. RANKING OF FACTORS FOR WORK PROJECT SUCCESS

Factors for Project Success	National Response Priorities			Foreign Response Priorities		
	1. %	2. %	3. %	1. %	2. %	3. %
• Local community related	70	7	–	21	42	10
• Acceptance of volunteers by local community	22	7	4	26	10	21
• Volunteer participation in management of their work	14	7	7	–	21	5
• Social development related	11	25	4	5	5	5
• Rural/agricultural develop ment related	11	22	18	47	10	–
• Leadership and understanding of supervisors	–	4	7	21	10	–
• Sufficient financial resources	11	11	–	5	10	10
• Quality of equipment and tools for work	4	7	11	–	10	–

This review indicates that both nationals and foreigners assign highest third and better priorities (out of 19 options) to local community and rural/agricultural development projects which ensure the success of volunteer work. Foreigners differ slightly in emphasis by assigning higher first preference to the agricultural production aspect. Both also assign high priority to the factor of volunteer acceptance on the part of the local community, and volunteer participation in the managment of their own work. There is wider difference of opinion concerning the influence of leadership of supervisors, sufficient financial resources and the quality of equipment and tools. Foreigners assign the leadership qualities of supervisors a higher importance, whereas nationals emphasize the availability of funds, tools and equipment. National and regional officials stress the quality of equipment and tools more than local people do.

In conclusion, the assesment of work programs of Training and Employment Schemes reveal the following important factors for success in comparison with the objectives of the services and the problems to be solved:

1. Clear distinction of a work-service effort from other parts of program tasks enhances the uniqueness and acceptability of services and offers a certain alternative to schooling and other forms of training/instruction.

2. Local community based programs are generally preferred to large scale work projects, because they represent realistic environment and learning through people to people encounter.

3. Learning-earning schemes preparing volunteers for employment, preferably self-employment, in agriculture, rural trades and services are considered the most effective types of projects.

4. Work technology should be locally based and provision of outside materials, tools or equipment should be avoided, or supplied only on the basis of genuine local requests after careful evaluation.

5. Villagers and volunteers should actively participate in the work and management of their projects.

4. Mobilization of Citizens

Mobilization of citizens is a major reason why Training and Employment Schemes were established at all. Most services address three groups of people in an attempt to get them involved:

1. the potential volunteer

2. the parents and local community to permit the volunteer to participate in the service; and

3. the citizens of the community who receive the service for:

   a) acceptance of the volunteers and the service idea, and
   b) active participation in the program.

The decision on the part of the volunteer to leave the confinement and support of the family, local community or tribe and to participate in a Development Service is in itself an act of mobilization; whatever the motivations may be, it already represents a change of attitude. A first step in self-development has been taken, by extending the range of communications beyond the familiar group of people, to people from other backgrounds. The families and communities the volunteers leave behind are affected too. Their range of communications is suddenly extended beyond their immediate local concerns to their sons or daughters serving in other locations. But even if volunteers do not leave their villages but serve at home, their work is directed from the outside, their communication range is expanded, and their traditional perceptions and attitudes are challenged. In other words, mobilization begins through communication with a wider spectrum of people and ideas, with acceptance of these people and their message.

Opinions about the **acceptance of the service on the part of family and home community** were obtained in interviews from both nationals and foreigners (total sample 46):

"In your opinion, what do volunteers' families and communities think about their serving?"

- 67% approve, because the service:

  – Offers an opportunity for education, new experience
  – helps to find a job afterwards
  – provides para-military training which is good for discipline
  – gets parents actively involved, learn also
  – keeps youth occupied and busy
  – provides more status
  – aids youth with food and clothing
  – teaches responsibility and
  – removes youth from dangers of society.

- 24% Satisfactory, but depends on whether:

  – there is a good community organization
  – volunteer is not used as cheap labor but community gets actively involved
  – the service encourages running away from home.

- 2% Think it is a waste of time, nothing serious.

- 3% Dont' know.

To the follow-up question: *"How often did you encounter resistance against this service?"* The respondents replied:

5% Frequently
17% Occasionally
41% Rarely
15% Never
22% N.A.

Answering to: *"Who resisted the participation in the service?"* the respondents indicated the following frequency:

– Fathers (40%)
– Mothers (18%)
– Volunteers themselves (18%)
– Community and other family members (12%)

When asked why they encountered resistance "frequently or occasionally", respondents replied that resistance from communities and families was due to:

– Misunderstanding of concept and objective of service
– Youth is needed for farmwork at home
– Youth serves in other villages and not at home
Son or daughter could earn more elsewhere

- Service is multitribal
- Son would try to marry woman outside the village while, traditionally, families arrange marriages
- Fear that service in another community is not safe and secure for their youth
- Concern that children will be lonely in another community.

Volunteers resist because:

- they never receive clear explanation of the service's policies
- governmental materials for projects are promised but are not forthcoming
- drill and para-military training;
- no communication with staff.

These opinions point to important areas affecting the acceptance and support on the part of the volunteers and their families. Acceptance and support are hindered further by:

1. Lack of communication concerning objectives, policies, arrangements for volunteers, etc.

2. Lack of opportunity to become involved; volunteers and communities are "recipients" of drill or services rather than accepted as participants

3. Tribalism and consequent barriers of cross-cultural understanding and communication.

The **acceptance and participation on the part of community receiving the project** is another area of concern. In many instances Training and Employment Schemes carry out their projects in other than the volunteer's home community. The following five factors were identified by national and foreign interview respondents (sample 46) as contributing most to the acceptance of a development service:

1. Results, effectiveness of service concerning employment of youth, settlement of young farmers, youth involvement, discipline etc., (42%)

2. Solves community problems, integrates volunteers into community and permits community participation (19%)

3. Contact with other youth organizations and youth's understanding of the service (11%)

4. Solves youth problems, educates them, effectiveness of training (7%)

5. Public information, positive press and mass media (6%)

6. Others (15%)

Table 21 specifies the **areas of participation** in Training and Employment Schemes on the part of local communities and individual citizens outside the service.

TABLE 21. CITIZEN PARTICIPATION IN TRAINING AND EMPLOYMENT SCHEMES

Organization	Citizen/Community Participation						Supervisory/Advisory Board of Organization
	Volunteer Recruitment	Training		Work Programs			
		Location	Trainers	Planning	Joint Work	Supervision	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
BENIN: Clubs 4-D	Yes	Yes Village	-	Yes	Sometimes parents help	Yes	-
KENYA: -National Youth Service	–	--	–	–	–	–	–
-Village Polytechnics	Yes	Yes Village	Yes	Yes	–	Yes	Yes Local V.P.
MALAYSIA: -National Youth Pioneer Corps	Yes	-	-	Yes Industry, business	--	Yes Industry, business	Yes Industry, business
-National Youth Development Corps	Yes	–	–	–	–	–	–
-Farm Youth Project	Yes	–	–	Yes	Yes	–	Yes Farmers Associations
THAILAND: Rural Youth Leadership Training	Yes	–	–	Yes	Yes Sometimes	–	--
COSTA RICA: National Youth Movement	Yes	--	Yes	Yes	Yes Sometimes	Yes Sometimes	Yes
PANAMA: National Volunteer Service	Yes	–	–	Yes	Yes	Yes Sometimes	Yes
USA ACTION Youth Challenge Projects	Yes	Yes Loc	Yes	Yes	Not Neces-sarily	Yes	Yes

As could be expected the easiest way of participation is in recruiting and preselecting candidates (column 2); this requires only part-time involvement and concerns only key persons of a community such as: village chiefs, religious leaders, heads of farmers associations, local government officials.

A higher degree of participation is achieved in areas like: joint work projects (column 6), supervision of work projects (column 7), and participation on supervisory or advisory boards of the whole volunteer service (column 8). All three involve some form of participation in decision making most often related to the management of the program and less to the policies. Also, as described earlier, local communities contribute—most often in kind—to the cost of the service and manage local earnings from project activities (Benin Club 4-D). However, none of the services provides participation in the financial management of funds for a local project, an aspect many professionals consider crucial for serious participation.

Training is an area with a low degree of community or individual citizen participation (columns 3 & 4). This is often due to the location of training in centers rather than in local communities. However, the participation of citizens as trainers in transmitting special skills and experience to volunteers is on the increase with all Domestic Development Services. Many of these services appreciate the lifelong experience of these citizens, in contrast to the formally educated, as a special asset for involving volunteers in a learning process. However, this does not effect those services aiming at a certification of their training program which requires certified trainers. Often a larger degree of community participation is prevented by current educational regulations. Again, this is an area where the procedures and standards of current "formal" education, not yet opened to a lifelong education system, deter the development of alternatives and the participation of citizens.

"In your opinion, **who in the local community** *are the key persons in support of and cooperation with volunteers?"* National and foreign respondents (sample 46) most often named:

1. Village chiefs, headmen (24%)
2. Local community councils (19%)
3. Religious leaders (13%)
4. Local administration, municipalities (10%)
5. District officers (including youth officers) and teachers (7% each)
6. Parents of potential or actual volunteers (6%)
7. Others (16%)

These replies are, of course, influenced by local cultures and traditions. Village chiefs received especially high ratings from African and Asian respondents, whereas municipalities were rated higher in Latin America. Equally strong in all regions is the ranking of community councils, religious leaders, teachers and District officers. The sixth ranking refers to the case of the Benin Clubs 4-D which gives parents an equally high importance as the village chiefs.

Further, to the question *"Who exhibited the least understanding and support for volunteers working in the village and why?"* respondents (Sample 46) cited:

1. None (15%)
2. Youth of the same age, because they do not understand purpose of the service, voluntarism (13%)
3. The poor and illiterate, because they do not understand the service and are anyway dependent upon the community (9% each)

4. The literate and the rich, because they think volunteers are a threat to their positions and holdings (7% each, replies came only from Latin America)
5. Younger women (6%), younger men, older men and women (4% each), because it is difficult for them to understand the concept of economic self-reliance
6. Others (9%)
7. No opinion (13%)

Lack of information and misunderstanding are obviously the main reasons why the lack of support is fairly widespread.

To the question: *"In your opinion, which* **factors most helped the cooperation** *between this service and the local community?"* both nationals (Sample 26) and foreigners (Sample 19) ranked factors as is shown in Table 22. (For choice of factors see Appendix A-4 rating Card No. 7).

TABLE 22. FACTORS HELPING COMMUNITY COOPERATION

Factors helping most:	National Respondent Priorities: 1. %	2. %	3. %	Totals %	Foreign Respondent Priorities: 1. %	2. %	3. %	Totals %
1. Belief of the local community that the service will change their situation	27	19	4	50	32	21	5	58
2. Work project was requested by local community	27	12	8	47	21	10	16	47
3. Strong leadership in community	12	19	12	43	5	10	16	31
4. Villagers participated in supervision of volunteer projects	–	12	19	31	5	16	26	47
5. Volunteers came from local communities	8	8	12	28	16	5	5	26

The data in Table 22 confirm that the hope for changing conditions in the local community is a high factor aiding cooperation. Also, active community participation in planning and supervision are crucial for obtaining local support. Finally, it is noteworthy that:

- both nationals and foreigners give about equal total ranking to factors Nos. 2 and 5;
- factor 1 is rated of slightly higher importance by foreigners; and

- factors 3 and 4 are assigned opposite priorities, with the foreigners preferring villagers' participation over strong leadership in the community.

Table 23 lists the factors hindering community cooperation:

TABLE 23. FACTORS HINDERING COMMUNITY COOPERATION

Factors hindering most	National Respondents Priorities: (sample 17)				Foreign Respondents Priorities: (sample 9)			
	1. %	2. %	3. %	Total %	1. %	2. %	3. %	Total %
1 Cultural and religious traditions	18	29	29	76	22	44	33	99
2 Conflicts with other agencies assisting the local community	12	41	23	76	22	33	22	77
3 Conflicts among villagers	41	5	5	51	44	11	–	55
4 Work project was assigned by national development plan	5	–	12	17	–	–	–	–
5 Level of literacy, general education of community	5	5	5	15	11	11	11	33

The samples of this ranking are very small since fewer respondents took an affirmative position on hindering factors. However, as an aid to improve local acceptance, knowledge of these hindering factors is more important than of the elements which help cooperation. The outstanding hindering factor, given highest priority by both nationals and foreigners, is the conflict among villagers. This is a very human problem, occuring in all closely knit communities where social control plays an important role in day-to-day life. Only the opening to the outside world, new ideas, higher education and higher incomes—and, perhaps, fair local leadership—can change this situation and overcome this hinderance. In total ranking, of third and higher priorities, the cultural and religious traditions, and the conflicts among agencies, are ranked first and second. This should not be a surprise:

- The need for change of attitudes was one of the reasons why these services were established, and it is here in the local community cooperation that this challenge for change begins. In other words, all services which do not plan to involve local communities in their project, do not honestly tackle the problem of attitudinal changes.

- The problem of effective administration and management coordination again is pointed out as a concern, this time on the village level, hindering what is one of the most important aspects of success, the participation of the individual citizen and the community.

Also, not suprisingly, the foreigners believe more in the importance of literacy and "formal" education affecting cooperation with local communities, in contrast to the more cautious position of nationals. However, surprising is the hinderance factor attributed to work projects of National Development Plans. It seems in general that foreigners overrate the importance of national development projects, whereas nationals are more cautious and clearly give significant higher rating to work projects from local communities (see No. 2 helping factors Table 22).

In **conclusion**, this analysis explains that citizen participation in Training and Employment Schemes is not an end in itself, but a decisive means to achieve the objectives and eliminate or modify problems because:

1. the needed change of attitudes requires the local encounter between the service and the community

2. the environment for experiential learning of skills and civic roles is most real —and least contrived—in the local community where the volunteer is is expected to return and perform upon completing service

3. jobs for these volunteers are created on the local community level and not on the overall national scene.

ACHIEVEMENTS

The achievements of a Development Service are indicated by the total program output. The effectiveness is established in a comparison of program outputs with the objectives, needs and the reasons for its very creation. **The extent to which the problems have been eliminated or modified indicates the effectiveness.**

The Program Output (see also Diagram No. 2) is described in terms of:

1. Quantitative achievements (coverage) which represent the number of volunteers participating and training and work projects completed, in comparison to the needs in terms of geographical and population distribution.

2. Qualitative achievements (volume) which represent the level of performance of program activities (inputs and tasks) in comparison with the reasons for the establishment of the service; whether the problems have been eliminated or modified. It indicates the services' overall effectiveness.

Quantitative Achievements

The quantitative achievements of Training and Employment Schemes concerning the number of volunteers, geographical and age group coverage are displayed in Tables 8 and 19 and were discussed in previous Chapters. It would be redundant to repeat the discussion at this point but the following summary will help to recall the findings:

1. Training and Employment Schemes reach only a small portion of young people in comparison to the age group in need of such services. Most are still

in the process of expanding the service to all geographical areas of their country.

2. Increased numbers of volunteers and communities involved is necessary if the coverage of the service is to be improved.

3. Expansion to a larger size of service without risking the program quality depends on the following factors:

   - reduction of costs per volunteer man-year, especially administrative overhead for central administration
   - decentralization of organizational structure, management decision-making and supervisory functions
   - improvement of field staffing
   - local community participation in funding (provisions in kind, contributions in cash if possible) and in program execution
   - strengthening of linkages to resources (policy, education, training, finance) and to those using the output (employment, local economy).

In general, the quantitative and qualitative achievements are interlinked and the expansion in size requires changes in qualitative arrangements—the famous Hegelian principle applies here too.

Qualitative Achievements

As in any learning activity, qualitative program outputs are not easily identified or assessed. In fact, most of the important achievements will come to light not via quantifiable facts in a certain present time span, but at a much later period, when it is impossible to trace the influence of the service on such an individual performance. But even now some general indicators of qualitative achievements are discerned, including:

- New skills or improved working methods
- Development work project completed with the help of volunteer manpower
- New jobs or employment entry created for volunteers and maintained
- Linkages to continuing education established, education system changed
- Extent of citizen and local community participation in overall service activities and local development projects.

Following is a summary description of achievements of each Training and Employment Scheme:

BENIN Clubs 4-D: improved methods of farming, crafts, home science have been learned and demonstrated by volunteers according to all reports received. The farm production of the Club

is superior to those of most villages. There are instances reported where village farmers accept the better farming methods from the volunteers; a number of these farmers are parents whose children participate in the full-time service. There is no participation in Club activities other than by villagers; the acceptance and support by the village chief and parents is crucial for the Service. Villagers participate by providing the land for the Club activities and farming project. The Clubs 4-D have not yet been able to set a time frame to later settle the over 1000 young men and women in small farms and trades and thus the duration of service is indeterminate. This fact accounts for many young volunteers departing with disappointment, with a resulting reduction in strength of the overall Service. The linkage to continuing self-employment is now the crucial test whether the Clubs will succed or fail. While it is not known whether the Clubs serve all areas of Benin; it is planned ultimately to have one Club per village (total 2000).

KENYA National Youth Service: Achievements related to the individual volunteer include:

- Between 80-90% of the volunteers participating in a 12-months vocational training course graduate with a Grade III Trade Test (recognized worker qualification for industrial employment)

- A limited number of volunteers extend their services for another year (total 3 years) continuing their vocational training at the Service's central workshop or other training facilities to complete the Grade II Trade Test (next higher level of qualifications for industrial employment) or the Special Earning Certificate leading to an agricultural career

- Increasingly, industry and business place their manpower demands with KNYS and prefer direct hire of volunteers (Grade II and III), after completion of service, to hiring from the open labor market; about 8,000 (out of 20,000) former volunteers have been placed in direct employment;

- About one third of former servicemen and women enter urban employment in the private and public sectors,whereas two-thirds remain in rural areas, most of them in self-employment either in farming (including land settlement) and/or small business and trade.

The Kenya NYS is designed to carry out large scale public works projects in remote areas, of which the following have been completed:

- 405 miles of road construction

- Bush clearing, especially to combat tsetse fly infestations

- land clearing and construction for two agricultural settlements

- access road construction to three agricultural settlements

- demonstration projects for low cost housing

- river embankment construction for flood control

- 100,000 trees planted

- access road, dams and irrigation construction in 4 National Parks

There is no local citizen participation in the service but NYS is well accepted by the general public as a program which helps youth. Families support their sons and daughters if they wish to serve, and the participation of NYS in the celebration of national holidays is a matter of pride to Kenyans. The Service operates in all Districts of the country and has a recruitment policy which ensures participation from all regions.

KENYA **Village Polytechnics**: It is difficult to assess the achievements of this three year old program. The evaluation mission conducted jointly by the Kenya Government and the Norwegian Development Agency (NORAD) made these observations on V.P. achievements[63]:

- About 50-60% of V.P. completers found paid work or self-employment in their home areas
- Only 33% of female V.P.'s found paid work or self-employment
- V.P.s more readily gained employment in comparison to other young people with equivalent schooling, and even in comparison with secondary school leavers
- Achievement of self-employment strongly depends on local markets, and opportunities to link farming or trades to more central markets (the assistance given by German volunteers (DED) in setting up local cooperatives and strengthening them through a Union of Cooperatives is important in achieving self-employment);
- New emphasis on farming on their own land not only increases agricultural production but also expands the variety of products for local consumption (nutrition) and marketing.

Community participation is strong. Village Polytechnics are self-help schemes at the local level operating with outside support: the local community runs the V.P. through a Management Committee; there are also local sponsors, e.g. churches, who support the program. The Management Committee organizes local support, supervises a survey of the community, raises funds, appoints managers and instructors, educates the community, and makes all vital decisions concerning the V.P. operations. V.P.'s enjoy wide public acceptance and support by the government and the private sector.

MALAYSIA **National Youth Pioneer Corps**: Local communities participate in the recruitment of pioneers. The vocational/technical training and ensuing employment are supported by business and industry, the MARA Institute of Technology and the Industrial Training Institute. They participate in curriculum design for skill training, conduct on-the-job training for pioneers, assist in providing apprenticeship places or scholarships for further education of pioneers after completion of service, and assist in providing jobs for pioneers as semi-skilled workers.

The extent of achievements of the employment objectives is reflected in the following employment statistics (period 1966-1971):

Field of Employment		Number of Former Pioneers	%
• Agriculture (mostly at home)		333	14.7
• Land settlement		233	10.3
• Craftsmen, industry – hired	176		
– self-employed	8	184	8.1
• Government – Federal	473		
– State	99		
– City	6	578	25.5
• Public administration			
– National Electricity Board	3		
– Harbour Administration	13		
– Others	62	78	3.4
• Military Force		186	8.2
• Police Force		407	17.9
• Continuing education (MARA Institute of Technology)		94	4.2
• Unemployed, drop-outs		175	7.7
	Total number	2,268	100.0%

MALAYSIA National Youth Development Corps: Local communities participate in the recruitment of volunteers. Farmers' organizations, private business and police cooperate to find employment for volunteers when service has been completed.

Following statistics (period 1969-1973) indicate to what extent the NYDC experience carries weight in employment opportunities for the semi-skilled:

Field of Employment	Percentage of Former volunteers
• Agriculture and land settlement	45%
• Police volunteer reserve, police cadets	35%
• Further vocational training (NYPC)	10%
• Private industry and business	3%
• Self-employment	2%
• Unemployed	6%

MALAYSIA Farm Youth Program: No complete report of the three year old program is available: The following data reflect its expansion:

	1971	1972	1973
Number of Participants:	343	344	2,530
Number of Projects:	80	131	353

The projects are supported by farmers' organizations on all levels. These individual examples of achievement were cited in reports:

- establishment of local cooperatives for crop production and marketing
- intergrated cattle breeding project on State level carried out by youth
- fishery projects expanded after initial project was successfully completed by youth.

In general, the following achievements were most often cited in various reports:

- job creation in rural areas in: agriculture, infrastructure improvements and trades
- helping to solve the problem of under employment of rural youth through introduction of new crops and increase in yields (expansion of volume of agricultural production creates jobs).

Rural Youth Leadership Training in THAILAND: The village tambon committee, headmen, and other village authorities (religious leaders) participate in the recruitment of qualified candidates, and later cooperate in the establishment of youth clubs. Youth organizations, especially student groups have supported the program since the October 1973 student riots. In a few cases villages as a whole have worked in projects of the service. In one instance, a village gave support to a cooperative established by a youth club under the leadership of a volunteer in the program.

In 1975 the first group of participants graduated. They achieved the equivalent of a secondary technical education and are eligible for examination to receive certification as secondary school graduates. During their four years' training/work project assignments, volunteers have established youth clubs in their home villages and carried out agricultural projects, but no data are as yet available concerning the extent of achievement. The indications from interviews are that technical skill training has been attained quite satisfactorily, but the transfer of leadership qualities was difficult to assess, especially since volunteers were still under the constant guidance of supervisors during their work programs.

COSTA RICA National Youth Movement: Two programs of this combined service, one for uneducated youth and one for secondary pupils, belong in this category of Training and Employment Schemes. Unfortunately the reports on the achievements are not very detailed and do not make distinction between the various programs. For the overall movement the following employment of former volunteers in 1974 was reported:

Field of Employment	Number of Former Volunteers
• Agriculture at home or land settlements	3,500
• Craftsmen or technicians	25
• Public works construction	40
• Public transportation	200
• Public administration	500
• Education (teachers)	250
Total:	4,515

It is unknown whether these employment figures concern the volunteer enrollment of only one year or more. Therefore, an assessment of the employment achievement in comparison with the total number of volunteers is not possible. It is assumed that employment figures in the first four areas concern the training and employment programs since they are compatible with the volunteers' skill level. Generally speaking, various sources mention the increased awareness of youth concerning national development efforts and their obligation as citizens in building the nation through service in local communities.

PANAMA National Volunteer Service: For this combined service the reports also do not distinguish between achievements of the training and employment program and other branches of the service. A 1970 evaluation (Evaluación del Servicio Nacional de Voluntarios, DIGEDECOM, Panama) came to various conclusions concerning the overall service. Listed here are those applying to the Training and Employment branch of the service:

"1. The Panamanian communities are aware (in a positive manner) of the work of the National Service of Volunteers.

2. It is difficult to measure the type of assistance provided by the program and it seems to require long periods of application before it can be accepted as part of the life of the community.

3. In general, the majority of the communities that have had SNV programs (on a continuing basis) regard them as a helpful and useful experience to the community.

4. The activities of the SNV are probably not being coordinated as well as they could be with other community development efforts.

10. The volunteers require a lot of guidance and direction for the SNV administration. This aspect will be more critical and evident when the program expands.

11. Full-time volunteers have a more positive impact in the communities than the summer ones (Study-Service branch), and are viewed by the communities in a more positive way.

14. The concept of recruiting volunteers from the same communities where they will serve is probably a new and efficient approach which has assured SNV of an almost immediate success. On the other hand, summer volunteers who generally come from outside the communities where they serve, have certain difficulties in achieving the objectives outlined for their respective programs. A combination of a person from outside and a member of the community, both volunteers, would form a dynamic team with great possibilities of success.

15. The supervisors feel confused as to their role. It is necessary to clarify to them the objectives of the program and the duties assigned to them.

18. The experience of SNV has a significantly positive impact on the attitudes of the young people who become volunteers. It is a good way to expand the horizons of young people, develop leadership, particularly at the community level as well as to help communities' efforts to help themselves."

No data are available as to what extent these volunteers, who served in their home villages, found employment after completion of their service. It seems that the service is conceived as much an end in itself than as a means to achieve certain objectives and solve societal problems.

As pointed out earlier, the two programs of ACTION, USA that fall in this category are experimental programs in the early stage of development and no achievement information is yet available.

CONCLUSIONS ON EFFECTIVENESS

The comparison of program activities and output of Development Services with their objectives, needs and the original problems (reasons) which caused their establishment indicates the extent of effectiveness of a service. In other words, Development Services are only as effective as they are able to change, i.e. modify or eliminate, the conditions which caused their establishment. Any change in the conditions of the original problem in terms of numbers of youth trained, geographical area of population covered, skill level or employment attained in a specified time frame indicates the extent of effectiveness. Only this comparison of achievements with objectives, needs and original reasons provides the insight and appreciation of the current situation concerning the effectiveness of Training and Employment Schemes.

These **indicators of effectiveness** of the societal role of Training and Employment Schemes can be derived from this assessment:

The extent to which:

1. . . . a sizeable number of youth, belonging to the marginal group is reached by the Service in comparison with the total age group in all regions of the country;

2. . . . training of a service, linked to "formal" education is:
   (a) meeting the actual needs of youth for skill training as an alternative approach to schooling, and
   (b) moving the closed "formal" education system to an open lifelong (recurrent) education system.

   For example, the programs of all Training and Employment Schemes were effective in varying degrees in (a), but with the creditation of their training programs, the Kenya National Youth Service, the Malaysia Young Pioneers and the Thailand Rural Youth Leadership Training went further and changed the system, achieving a modification of causes (b).

3. . . . volunteers having obtained useful employment following completion of service, and over a longer period of time, indicates the level of the service's effectiveness in:
   (a) meeting the employment needs of youth by linking the service to the existing job market, and
   (b) altering the employment system, especially the informal sector, by creating jobs through small farmers' settlements, agricultural infrastructure development, production and marketing (cooperatives, irrigation, drain-

age, savings and loan institutions, etc.), and self-employment in rural trades and services.

Cases in point are the Kenya National Youth Service and Village Polytechnics, Malaysia's National Youth Pioneer Corps and Farm Youth Project and Costa Rica's National Youth Movement.

4. . . . local communities or individual citizens participate in the service and mobilize citizens, concerning:
   (a) meeting needs for actual involvement in self and local community development, and
   (b) changing the attitudes towards the nation as a whole and the country's development of self-reliance.

STUDY-SERVICES 5

This Chapter reviews in depth the Study-Services in Nigeria, Thailand, Costa Rica, Panama and the United States which provided data for this evaluation. Detailed descriptions of individual services are contained in Volume II, Compendia Nos. 9, 10, 18, 19 and 20/3. Also Study-Services operating in Columbia, Ethiopia, Indonesia, Nepal, Malaysia, Thailand and the United Kingdom are taken into account (see Table 1).

The technique to analyze Study-Services is similar to the one used to assess Training and Employment Schemes (Chapter 4). However, in order to avoid redundancy, definitions and principle features will not be repeated here. Cross-references will indicate relevant paragraphs in other parts of this report for easy comparison.

Study-Services comprise the service of students who are enrolled in educational institutions. Sometimes the service is titled "University-Service" or "Service-Learning". While service-learning is a feature of all categories of Development Services, the term Study-Service implies that the program is:

1. an intentional educational effort linked to educational institutions at various levels, and

2. is development and work/service oriented as defined in this study.

"University-Services", on the other hand, exclude by terminology, the services rendered by students from educational institutions other than universities. While student involvement in service is nothing new, growing out of the special educational environment and the initiative of the students themselves, the concept of Study-Service is unique as it links the curricula with development work/service. As Alec Dickson pointed out in his article, "Linking Study with Service"[29], the disenchantment with schooling is not solved by *"establishing a separate organization—often at enormous expense—devoted in part to undoing the attitudinal influence of the educational system. . . The adjustment that is proposed is not a revolutionary one. . . In academic language, it might be called the curricular approach to community service."* As an experiential learning program, Study-Services may or may not be for credit integrated into academic learning.

Today, many Study-Services exist, especially in Third World Countries:

Africa: Ethiopia (founded 1964, obligatory service), Ghana (1973, obligatory) Nigeria (1973, obligatory), Tanzania (1968, obligatory).

Asia: Indonesia (1973), Iran (1963, alternative to military service), Nepal (1973, obligatory), Pakistan (1953, obligatory), Philippines (1968; 1972), Thailand (1969).

Caribbean and Latin America: Bolivia, Brazil, Colombia, Costa Rica (1970), Jamaica, Mexico, Panama (1970), Peru.

Europe: United Kingdom: Community Service Volunteers is the only volunteer service providing Study-Service to secondary students for credit.

North America: Canada: World University Service Canada (1957), domestic program; Frontiers College, Toronto, providing Study-Service opportunities to develop the northern regions of Canada and assist minorities.

USA: University Year for ACTION (1971, governmental), the only nationally organized service; there are a large variety of local and non-governmental Study-Services organized by universities and colleges, the first in 1910 by Antioch College in Yellow Springs, Ohio.

WHY STUDY-SERVICES?

As several times earlier, again the question is raised: Why at all? Three major causes can be identified:

1. Limitations of current higher educational system
2. Lack of skills and social/technical services in rural areas
3. Cultural, racial and social gaps among people of one nation and the need to develop self-reliance and learn to jointly solve societal problems

These three reasons are, of course, interrelated.

Limitations of Higher Education

In project countries only a very small portion of the school age youth has the opportunity and privilege to attend tertiary educational institutions as Table 24 reveals:

TABLE 24. THIRD LEVEL EDUCATION IN PROJECT COUNTRIES*

Country	Year	Third level School enrollment (percentage of 20-24 age group)
Africa:		
Dahomey	1970	0.14 MF a)
Kenya	1970	–
Nigeria	1970	0.30 MF
Asia:		
Indonesia	1970	2.21 MF
Malaysia – Sarawak		0.49 MF
Malaysia – West	1970	2.03 MF
Thailand	1965	1.64 MF
Latin America:		
Costa Rica	1970	10.41 MF
Panama	1970	6.58 MF
For comparison tertiary enrollment in volunteer-sending countries is:		
North America:		
Canada	1970	26.61 MF b)
USA	1970	49.23 MF b)
Europe:		
Denmark	1970	17.95 MF
Germany	1970	14.05 MF
Netherlands	1970	19.61 MF
U.K.	1970	n.a.
	(1965)	(8.71) MF

( ) UNESCO Statistical Yearbook, 1972

a) MF = Male and Female students

b) includes undergraduate students who in Europe, if they attend technical colleges, are accounted for under post secondary education, i.e. second level enrollment (see Table 6 for Third World Countries).

This Table demonstrates that especially in Africa and Asia few students have the opportunity to continue from second level to third level education, whereas Latin American countries enroll three to five times more students in higher education. In Europe and North America virtually all—who are capable and desire it—have access to this level of education. While some European countries currently are encountering an acute shortage of student places in comparison to student applications, it turns out this is not so much a question of absolute places available but rather a question of management of classroom space and faculty time[37].

Considering the limited number of students in developing countries higher education is even more a privilege and the question of quality and relevancy of it for employment needs becomes crucial. But also industrialized countries are deeply concerned with the same questions: How useful is higher education for employment? Does it provide a meaningful learning and growth experience for the individual to prepare him for life as a responsible citizen?

Developed and developing countries alike are struggling with the limitations of higher education in preparing students for life. Most developing countries inherited the higher educational systems from their former colonial powers and are concerned with developing workable systems of their own. Industrialized countries have discovered that needs are not easily determined and moreover change faster than the educational system is willing or able to accommodate. It would be beyond the scope of this study to analyze in detail the problems of higher education. They are complex, and are related, for example, to confining learning to disciplinary approaches rather than opening education to problem solving learning. In other words, we have lost the ability to comprehend the "wholeness", the transdisciplinary nature of concepts, systems and processes, and instead, deal with the parts (the disciplines) and have elevated them to represent the total. But the sum of the parts does not make a total. Therefore, new "whole" or transdisciplinary learning in real life situations becomes important. Other limitations of higher education are related to accreditation and certification policies, learning opportunities later in life, organizational and financial structure of educational institutions, the type of work ethics, as well as a certain academic "code of conduct", ("Publish or Perish"), and the overall status of higher education in society.

Such "status symbols" are forceful cues which dominate decision-making in all societies and consequently influence the individual's decision – whether we like it or not. For example: certain disciplines e.g. Law, Medicine, Philosophy or Arts, carry a higher status in most societies than Engineering, Social Work or Agriculture. And who would long for the lower status if he has access to the "higher respectability?"

Further, the structure of higher education, whether organized on two levels (undergraduate and graduate) or on one tier also affects its status, perception and relevancy: university education provides higher status than college or secondary education; Ph.D. examinations provide higher status than professional experience in the same field. All of this is reflected in the modus operandi at universities, criteria for employment in civil service, business and private industry, international organizations and multinational corporations. These status symbols force the individual to strive for them in order "to make it in life." Only new societal ethic priorities, can change this situation and can lead to a new value system accepted by the overall society—and this is a slow process.

Finally, universities cannot be viewed only in economic terms as establishments of higher learning "to produce an employable output, the graduate." As cultural institutions they are also an end in themselves to express and stimulate the growth of a nation's culture and civilization. They are a "national asset" as William R. Herman describes it in a recent Change Magazine article[56].

Today, the capability of institutions of higher learning to produce employable graduates in areas of needs and to be a national asset in the cultural life of a country is in question both in industrialized and developing countries. But what new overall direction can be envisaged beyond local experiments? It seems clear today that many developing countries have moved more decisively to remove the limitations from higher education and make them responsive to their own national needs. Tanzania's "Education for Self-Reliance" proclaimed by President Nyerere in 1967[89], is an early and well-known example that combines education with national service.

In Indonesia, Dr. Soedjatmoko outlined eloquently "Some Thoughts on Higher Education"[114] which confirm the problems described earlier. He emphasizes the role of higher education in the development of a country as: to eliminate inequities, increase employability of graduates, *to strengthen what might be called the learning capacity of the nation,*" and develop the nation's capabilities in international competition and interdependence. In his paper he refers to a Latin American experience encountered by Michael P. Todaro and some colleagues who *"put the task of identifying and solving developmental problems at the center of university work".* Todaro's model of a "university for national development"[119] restructures the university around the major problem areas of agriculture, economic and social affairs, social services (health, education, cultural development and identity), and relates university divisions to each problem area. This approach cuts across the traditional disciplines, but enables the university to become problem and development oriented.

"Finally," Dr. Soedjatmoko argues, *"development is not merely an economic process. The improvement of living conditions as a goal has to make sense in terms of the broader purposes of society, if motivations for development are to be maintained. Almost all developmental decisions have ethical implications which in the longer run will be of great importance . . . This means, in short, the need to strengthen the national capacity for moral reasoning in relation to the development effort . . . the viability of many developing nations on the road of development, as well as their capacity for increased self-reliance will, to a large extent, depend on the nation's capacity to provide for a meaningful and culturally satisfactory life at what for a long period inevitably will have to be a relatively low level of per capita income.*" This is a strong call for moral leadership on the part of the university to provide new priorities and direction for the nation's development, and it confirms the notion of the university as a cultural institution and end in itself.

In Indonesia, the creation of Kuliah Kerja Nyata (KKN) as a compulsory Study-Service linked the university with the nation's five-year development plans and introduced the development issue into the curriculum of the university.

But Study-Service is not automatically a panacea to the limitations of higher education. Learning through service is one way to bring real life situations into an individual's education. But, as Dr. Soedjatmoko points out, the Study-Service by itself has little impact on curriculum and organizational reform. A feedback mechanism from the student-volunteers on their field experience to the university plus an adversary role of the Study-Service is essential to change the institution of higher education.

By establishing Study-Services, many developing and a few industrialized countries responded to this need to change higher education. But Study-Services differ from Training and Employment Schemes: they are not an alternative to the "formal" education system, but a part of it.

With the exception of a few early attempts, for example, in Germany, Kerschensteiner's Arbeits-Schule (Work School) before World War I, and since the 1920's, in the United States, the cooperative work programs at Antioch, Bennington, Goddard and Sarah Lawrence colleges[105, 117], developing countries took the lead in establishing Study-Services on a broad scale. Even today, in industrialized countries—and especially in Europe—institutions of higher learning are reluctant to include community services in their academic program.

Finally, all educational institutions are reluctant to change. Therefore, the "point of entry", how Study-Services become established—and thereby change the system—is of interest to others. The most convincing approach is the demonstration of potential results. For example: The Indonesian Study-Service KKN established after BUTSI volunteers, who are university graduates, received re-training during service and successfully demonstrated their usefulness in village development. Accordingly, the question arose: Why not avoid the need to re-train graduates, to make them useful for national development, by properly preparing students in the first place through service during study?[30,86] Thus, BUTSI's success led to introducing the remedial measure—the Development Service—into the "previous system", in this case the university.

Similarly, the Thailand Thammasat University Service started in a small way in the economics department and later spread to other universities. In the U.K. the Community Service Volunteers, whose programs in many fields received the respect of educational institutions, finally achieved the inclusion of service in the curriculum in schools. The demonstration of successful results as an agent for change in education is supported by A. M. Huberman in his study on: "Understanding Change in Education: An Introduction"[58].

Development Problems

The major development problem which influenced the creation of Study-Services in developing countries is the lack of skilled manpower and social/technical services in rural areas. By involving students in work in local communities, learning receives another dimension:

- it is conducted as a response to social and economic needs of others, and
- it is governed by work—and not by "doing"—conditions, as explained earlier.

The skills and services required in rural areas, and which are compatible with student qualifications, include the following: teaching in primary and secondary schools, health, nutrition and social services, community development, assistance to farmers, and to the local administration of governmental development programs. As will be seen later on, most Study-Services fill actual manpower gaps and thereby provide a service otherwise not available.

In the United States, poverty-related causes were instrumental in creating the University Year for ACTION. It is fair to say that the few Study-Services in Europe and North America which focus on the community, respond to many of the social ills and inequities caused by an industrial mass-society.

National Building and Self-Reliance

In developing countries Study-Services are part of the nation-building effort, to inspire patriotism and change the attitude of the young educated toward other tribes, sub-cultures, the uneducated, and the rural population. They are called into service as part of a large citizen mobilization movement and help the nation to achieve self-reliance. Here the causes for the establishment of Study-Services and Training and Employment Schemes overlap (see Chapter 4).

In Nigeria, for example, the National Youth Service Corps (NYSC) was a response against sectionalism and regionalism after the civil war, as then Lt. Col. Dr. A. A. Ali, Director of NYSC explained in an address to undergraduates:

> *"After independence, we (the elites) drove the nation into a political quagmire. Sectionalism and regionalism became the order of the day. The ethnocentrism engendered by this misdirection plunged the nation into the 1967-1970 holocaust. This is why a scheme as laudable as the National Youth Services Corps should be embraced with both arms. This scheme is our insurance against disintegration as a nation. It is the sheet anchor of our existence."*

The importance of cultural differences which have to be overcome should not be underestimated. In Nigeria, the population is composed of 250 tribes which speak 250 different languages.

All Study-Services evaluated in developing countries respond to these national causes.

WHAT ARE THE OBJECTIVES?

If true to their creation, the objectives of Study-Service should respond to the reasons and needs described in the previous paragraphs. The objectives should aim at changing higher education, bridging cultural differences within the nation and providing professional services to the development of other people. Take as example the objectives of these three Study-Services in developing countries:

Graduate Volunteer Certificate Programme, Thammasat University, THAILAND, a voluntary service:

> *"1. To train the graduates to sacrifice and work for the public benefits*
>
> *2. To give the graduates the opportunity to be involved in field work in rural areas and to encourage their interest in this*
>
> *3. To encourage them to use their initiative and their human relations skills that will be beneficial for the community in which they live."*

NIGERIAN National Youth Service Corps, an obligatory service: (summary quote from the Decree No. 24 of May 22, 1973):

"1. *To inculcate in the Nigerian youth, discipline, industry at work and patriotic and loyal service to the nation*

2. *To raise their morale through learning opportunities*

3. *To develop attitudes, through shared experience, for mobilization in the national interest*

4. *To develop common ties and promote national unity*

5. *To encourage career employment all over the country for free movement of labor*

6. *To induce employers to more readily employ Nigerians, irrespective of their States of origin*

7. *To enable Nigerian youth to acquire self-reliance."*

For comparison, the objectives of the **University Year for ACTION (UYA) USA** set forth in the Domestic Volunteer Service Act of 1973 (P.L. 93-113), Section III Service-Learning Programs, are described as follows (summary quote):

"• *To strengthen and supplement efforts to eliminate poverty and poverty-related human, social and environmental problems enabling students at such cooperating institutions to perform meaningful and constructive volunteer service*

• *To satisfy student course work while attending institutions of higher education through their period of service in agencies, institutions and situations where the application of human talent and dedication may assist in the solution of poverty and poverty-related problems*

• *To secure and exploit opportunities for self-advancement by persons afflicted with such problems*

• *To encourage other students and faculty members to engage, on a part-time self-supporting basis, in such volunteer service and work along with volunteers serving under this pact*

• *To promote participation by institutions of higher education in meeting the needs of the poor in the surrounding community through expansion of service-learning or otherwise"*

These examples indicate that the stated objectives among Study-Services are very similar– even though one service is obligatory (Nigeria). They respond to reasons in a general terminology and emphasize **two common objectives**:

1. personal learning: skills, attitudes, self-reliance of the student in preparation for his employment/career

2. service to the nation/community to alleviate underdevelopment and poverty.

The UYA specifies three additional objectives which—no doubt—also would be relevant to Study Services in developing countries:

3. secure self-advancement in the receiving community

4. encourage participation of other students and faculty

5. promote participation of the institution of higher education in community service.

These additional objectives of UYA aim at the integration of Study-Service, that is the change of the system of higher education, and at the establishment of institutional linkages with the surrounding local communities.

PROGRAM ACTIVITIES

The review of Program Activities follows the assessment outline in Diagram 2 and is concerned with Program Inputs and Tasks of Study-Services.

PROGRAM INPUTS

As in Chapter 4, the analysis concerns:

1. Legislation, Supervision and Leadership

2. Volunteers

3. Staff

4. Organization and Management

5. Costs and Funds.

Table 25 gives a brief review of the major aspects of Program Inputs of Study-Services:

TABLE 25. PROGRAM INPUTS OF STUDY-SERVICES

Organizations	Establishment/ Legislation	Volunteers				Staffing Number/Type	Costs per Volunteer man-year 1974 (a)
		Number man-years 1974[a]	Total since establish-ment	Age range years	Educational Background		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
NIGERIA: National Youth Service Corps	1973 by NYSC Decree No. 24 (obligatory)	(b) 2,271 (14% F)	First year	up to 31 years	Completed first university degree requirements; before graduation	HQ: 2 Chief Inspectors, 3 other operational Staff; 12 State Committees each: 1 Principle, 2 Inspectors.	$4,065[c]
THAILAND: Graduate Volunteer Certificate Programme	1969 by University Decision & Inter-University Agreements	43 (51% F)	130	21-25	4 years university above secondary education; undergraduates	HQ management: 5; Operating Group: 2 faculty from each discipline participating	$610[d]
COSTA RICA: National Youth Movement (Study-Service branch)	1966 by Law No. 3674 of the Republic of Costa Rica	1973 ca. 300 (43% F)	?	21-25	4-5 years University above secondary ed.; undergraduates	Faculties participate in recruitment & training, not work; Staff part of Combined Service	$105[e]
PANAMA: National Volunteer Service (Study-Service branch)	1967 [f] by Presidential Decree: Decreto de Cabinete No. 105	1971 ca. 185	?	16-25	Secondary & University students (undergraduates)	Faculty participates in recruitment Selection, not work; Staff part of Combined Service	1969 $606[g]
USA: University Year for ACTION	1971 Experimental 1973 by Domestic Volunteer Service Act. (P.L. 93-113)	1,600 (52.8% F)	1,805	18- over 55; Majority: 20-24	High School 6.5%; 1-3 years university 79.9%; 12.5% graduates; 1.1% Technical Schools	HQ management: 7; 4-5 faculty members per university	$4,601[h]

Explanations for Table 25:

(a) Note that statistical and budget years differ from organization to organization; for example Nigeria and USA reflect data from July 1973-June 1974, whereas others report according to calendar years.

(b) 310 or 14% of total are female volunteers (F).

(c) Including administrative overhead for total expenditures at Headquarters and in 12 States.

(d) Including administrative overhead at Thammasat University but without estimate of services free of charge provided by faculty (faculty time is allocated to the service).

(e) Costs per volunteer man-year for overall combined service, and without administrative overhead.

(f) Dissolved in Summer 1972 and re-instituted early in 1974.

(g) Cost per volunteer man-year for overall combined service, including administrative overhead but without part-time staff.

(h) Represents 90% of total costs per volunteer man-year paid by ACTION to universities plus ACTION administrative overhead for this program.

1. Legislation, Supervision Leadership

While some Study-Services have voluntary enrollment, in developing countries most of them are obligatory and derive their authority either from the legislative branch via public laws, or the executive branch via Presidential Decrees. The obligatory nature of these nationwide services is enforced by credit requirements for the certification of graduation at an institution of higher education. In fact, most Study-Services view this obligation as no different than any other credit course required in a curriculum. The enforcement of the obligation of Nigerian students to serve in the National Youth Service Corps is described later on under Program Tasks, recruitment procedures.

ACTION's UYA, the Costa Rica and Panama branches of Study-Service are all governmental services by legislation, but voluntary by the nature of the recruitment and participation of volunteers.

The Thailand Graduate Volunteer Certificate Programme is the only voluntary and non-governmental service evaluated in this category that derives its authority from decisions of the faculty and university administration. Many of the Latin American services belong in this group as do the majority in North America.

Finally, the Study-Service branch of the Community Service Volunteers (CSV) in the United Kingdom provides a different non-governmental approach: it derives its authority from contracts between CSV and institutions of secondary and tertiary education. Secondary schools and universities credit the student for the service performed in the actual Study-Service programs administered or supported by CSV.

The **Supervision** of Study-Services reflects the different approaches of legislation and delegation of authority:

Organization	Supervised by
Nigeria National Youth Service Corps:	• Directorate of NYSC established in Cabinet Office; the Federal Commissioner of Economic Development and Reconstruction is Chairman; • Members from: Universities, Government, Armed Forces, Police, Business, 3 independent persons (2 women); • Functions include: policy, programming, State coordination, review and evaluation. In 1975, after the change of Government, a new Ministry of Youth and Sports was established which has integrated the Directorate and supervises NYSC.
Thailand Graduate Volunteer Certificate Programme:	• Project Committee, consisting of faculty and outside members, for project guidance and funding; • Advisory Group: Members from government, Juvenile Court, business, World University Service, Asian Institute for Economic Development Planning, for overall advice and funding.
Costa Rica National Youth Movement:	• Executive Council, consisting of Ministries of Education, Work, and Social Welfare, 3 representatives from political parties; • Vice Minister of Youth, Ministry of Culture, Youth and Sports.
Panama National Volunteer Service:	• Governing Board (Patronato) directs the affairs of SNV and raises funds; • Junta Directiva (Executive Committee) acts on behalf of Patronato; Members: Ministries of Agriculture, Commerce and Industry (President of Junta), Labor, Social Welfare, Public Health Education; Comptroller General; Churches; 2 private organizations.
USA University Year for ACTION:	• US Congress (the Senate and the House of Representatives); • Comptroller General of the U.S. • National Voluntary Advisory Council (for overall ACTION operations) for advice, review of effectiveness, recommendations for change to the President; 22 appointed members from public and private institutions and individuals (8 women).

This supervisory/advisory structure indicates a wider participation of government, the private sector, and individuals in the affairs of Study-Services, wider in comparison with Training and Employment Schemes. Although the obligatory Nigerian NYSC differs from other Study-Services because of the participation of the police and armed forces in supervision, the involvement of universities, employers' associations and individuals (including one woman!) indicate the attempt to involve both the public and private sector in national service.

The **Leadership** of the Study-Services is specified by legislation and policy:

Organization	Leadership
Nigerian National Youth Service Corps:	• Chairman of the Directorate: policy, programming, coordination; • Director of NYSC, Chief Executive appointed by the Head of Government.
Thailand Graduate Volunteer Certificate Programme:	• Directors are faculty members of Thammasat University appointed by the Project Committee for a one-year term.
Costa Rica National Youth Movement:	• Director General of Youth, Ministry of Culture, Youth and Sports, appointed; • Executive Director of MNJ, Head of this Department within Youth Directorate, civil servant.
Panama National Volunteer Service:	• Technical Director, DIGEDECOM, appointed; • Director, Volunteer Department, DIGEDECOM, civil servant.
USA, University Year for ACTION:	• Director of ACTION, appointed by the President with advice and consent of the Senate; • Associate Director for Domestic Anti-Poverty Operations, appointed; • Deputy Associate Director, Education Programs, civil servant.

Leadership authority is delegated in all Study-Services by the respective governing bodies, via appointments of directors and the employment of chief executives, thus reflecting the hierarchy of organizational structure. The Thailand non-governmental service—also small in size—takes a simpler approach by appointing one faculty member as director. It should be noted that this service of Thammasat University is the only known Study-Service which had a woman appointed as director (Mrs. Jamliang, 1971-1972).

Opinions about the leadership role of Study-Service directors were obtained in a small sample (8 nationals, 4 foreigners) of interviews. A statistical breakdown of these opinions is not very useful because of the small sample. However, the responses, and their priorities, give a lively description of the realities of these services.

"In your opinion, what are the major achievements of the director?" Replies from both nationals and foreigners are listed according to priorities:

"• *got the service established;*

- *received institutional approval and backing from university;*
- *achieved approval and backing from governmental agencies;*
- *expanded the program to other universities and nourished (improved) it;*
- *showed flexibility to adjust to every situation and change."*

And to a follow-up question: *"What do you consider the major problem areas for directing this service successfully?"*

- planning to develop work programs that receive sufficient understanding and support from the local community;
- training volunteers at universities in a way that has meaning and prepares for the service in local communities;
- finding sufficient funding and adequate staffing.

According to all respondents, the influence of the director affects all areas of the Study-Service, especially the performance and spirit of staff and volunteers. The responses to these questions are similar to findings in other reports, especially the "Evaluation of the University Year for ACTION Program"[4]. Thus, the following **areas of leadership of Study-Services** appear important:

1. The establishment of linkages, for institutionalization of the service, with respect to:
   - the academic community and university structure
   - the local community as recipient of student services
   - the supervising boards and supporting governmental agencies that provide funding, and the accreditation of the program for later employment of graduates.
2. Improvement of program quality so that the service becomes an integral part of academic learning, produces employable graduates and is meaningful for the personal growth of the student-volunteers themselves.

Finally, the question was asked in interviews: *"In your judgment, which factors are most important for successful leadership of the director?"* Respondents ranked the following factors as they judged their importance.

TABLE 26. RANKING OF FACTORS FOR LEADERSHIP SUCCESS IN STUDY-SERVICES

Factors	Priorities assigned from National Responses (Sample 7)	Priorities assigned from Foreign Responses (Sample 4)
1. Understanding of people of different background and culture	85%	75%
2. Administrative/managerial proficiency	71%	50%
3. Flexibility to adjust policy and programs to changing needs	71%	100%
4. Partnership style, staff and volunteer participation in decision-making	57%	50%
5. Technical/professional proficiency	42%	25%
6. Emphasis of leadership on philosophy and concept of service	28%	75%
7. Authoritarian style, decision-making by director	28%	–
8. Strong backing of supervising bodies	28%	25%

Both nationals and foreigners ranked the eight factors listed as highest in their importance out of a total of fourteen options (see Appendix A-4). Proportionally, nationals gave the possession of knowledge and skills (administrative/managerial and technical/professional) higher importance than foreigners, with the latter emphasizing personality traits (flexibility to adjust and charisma, leadership emphasis on philosophy and concept of serving). Both agree on the high importance of understanding people from different backgrounds and partnership-styles. Surprising were the responses in favor of authoritarian style—both coming from Thai volunteers. It may be that this ranking is related either to the more paternalistic traditions or they may reflect the call for strong leadership and guidance—or both.

2. Volunteers

The **number of volunteers** (Table 25, column 3) participating in the Study-Services evaluated differ largely. Reaching a large portion of students, the obligatory services have the favorable edge, as they involve all of those eligible for service. Many professionals believe that this fact alone is an asset for obligatory Study-Services in developing countries because it actually involves the total target group in the work/service and exposes them to their country's development problems. Voluntary services reach smaller portions of the relevant age group population. But, as explained in previous Chapters, the size of a service is but one aspect affecting the quality and effectiveness of an organization.

All Study-Services report female student participation without designing special programs fc them. It seems that once they have decided to study there are no significant cultural barrie which would prevent them from joining a Study-Service.

The **educational background** (Table 25, column 6) of volunteers is important, as qualifications largely determine what type of work programs they are capable of carrying out. From the Study-Services evaluated, students in the Nigerian NYSC and the Thailand GVCP have probably—on the average—the highest and most homogeneous qualifications since their services occur at the close of undergraduate study and are linked with graduation examinations and certification. The Costa Rica, Panama, and USA services have volunteers with differing qualifications, depending upon whether secondary, undergraduate or graduate students are participating. Available information indicates the USA's UYA is the only service involving graduate students in service.

3. Staff

The staffing pattern in Study-Services differs in that it is largely determined by the degree of integration into the larger service institution, be it in the university, a governmental agency or a Domestic Development Service. In cases of Study-Service for credit, the question of the role of the faculty and the extent of their involvement in the service becomes crucial. Study-Services evaluated here have the following staffing pattern:

TABLE 27. STAFF IN STUDY-SERVICES

Organization	STAFF			TOTAL[a] (Estimates)
	Headquarters/ Management	Training/University	Work Programs	
1	2	3	4	5
NIGERIA: National Youth Service Corps	2 Chief Inspectors 3 administrative staff	Faculty at universities in each Region	12 State Committees (8 persons each, part-time) 1 Principal Inspector, 2 Inspectors and administrative staff	220
THAILAND: Graduate Volunteer Certificate Programme	5 professionals 3 administrative staff	Operating group: 2 Faculty Members each from various disciplines; Additional faculty for training	None full-time	7 full-time, 15 part-time
COSTA RICA: National Youth Movement; Staff for combined Service:	14 professionals 8 administrative	Training in Centers; some faculty in credit programs	24 Field Staff	61[b]
PANAMA: National Youth Service; Staff for combined Service:	8 professionals 3 administrative	No training; selection only	166 part-time from DIGEDECOM's other Department	173[c]
USA: University Year for ACTION	7 professionals & admin. staff for contract management	Approx. 275 faculty on regular basis; Part-time faculty for preparation	550 community organizations receiving volunteers[d]	282 full-time

Explanations for Table 27:

(a) All totals are estimates, based on reports of overall operations and some factual information on staff; therefore, the establishment of a staff: volunteer ratio is not possible.

(b) Total staff reported for combined service, not only Study-Services branch; in addition to the 61 staff members hired by the service there is regional staff hired by the 60 Regional Youth Centers.

(c) Total staff reported for this combined service; the 3 months Study-Service branch carried out during the summer has the smallest portion of staff time.

(d) The extent of supervision on the part of the receiving 550 community organizations is not known.

The staffing pattern is less homogeneous than in other categories of services. With the exception of Costa Rica, a large portion of part-time staff is involved, either faculty (Thailand, USA) or personnel from other governmental agencies (Nigeria, Panama). Only the Thai and US services are operated out of a university and involve faculty to a significant degree. Most of the professional management staff of the services in Thailand are graduates and former volunteers themselves; the same is true, though to a lesser degree, for the Costa Rica National Youth Movement.

"Why do professionals join as staff members?" a small sample of nationals and foreigners (9) gave the following opinions:

"• *Staff are former volunteers, love the work, have 'esprit de corps'*

• *They are challenged by the idea of addressing themselves to important problems of the country*

• *Have some gain for themselves; like to show they are devoted to service; the 'in' thing to do*

• *Like to exercise their profession in staff assignment."*

The cooperation between staff and volunteers, and staff and directors, is reported in most instances as satisfactory. However, some volunteer respondents indicate a *"not very satisfactory"* cooperation between staff and volunteers, because *"the faculty does not understand the work of volunteers."*

This last opinion is supported by answers to the question: *"Would you consider the* **quality of staff** *adequate for the jobs to be accomplished?"* Out of the 9 respondents, 6 replied "no" or "with modification" because:

"• *Staff faculty does not understand the nature of volunteer service and the work done by volunteers*

• *They (the staff) are not interested in field work*

• *They do not give enough time to it*

• *They need more technical skills for their job assignments."*

And to the follow-up question: *"Which program areas need improvement?"* The respondents gave the following priorities:

• Field support of volunteers

• Training of volunteers in skill areas needed in work assignments, for example teachers training

• Better planning of the service, especially work projects."

To clarify: *"Why that improvement?"* Because, the respondents answered:

"• *Faculty has insufficient background and perspective of rural areas and their development*

- *Faculty lacks understanding for the roles of villagers and towns people*
- *Disciplinary background of faculty*
- *Do not seem to have time for it."*

To the question *"What measures would you suggest to improve the quality of staff?"* respondents gave the following priorities:

"• *Should be obliged to visit rural areas and stay with volunteers*
- *Better selection of staff*
- *Staff training needs improvement*
- *Increase full-time staff, i.e. funding."*

These opinions, which concern Study-Services in developing countries are also supported by the USA University Year for ACTION, which emphasizes this role by faculty in the objectives of the service: *"to encourage . . . faculty members to engage . . . in such volunteer service and work along with volunteers serving under this pact."* A 1975 evaluation of the UYA program[4] confirms that the allocation of faculty time, and subsequent participation in the service-learning activity, as an indicator of the institutionalization of Study-Service into a university. This is not easily achieved and requires changes of curriculum priorities, of organizational structure and of the administrative procedures of a university.

Dr. Alec Dickson in his "Proposal for Nigerian National Service Corps"[27] also underlines this need for faculty involvement: *"the involvement of the whole University in National Service, rather than of students only, is likely to ensure the success of the scheme, rather than its failure."*

Concerning the **quantity of staff** 5 out of 9 respondents indicated insufficient number of staff, especially field staff to support volunteer work programs. They called for more full-time staff, and special skill areas for the training/preparation of volunteers.

Opinions were also solicited concerning a **foreign staff role**: *"In your opinion, how can foreign staff (both volunteers and experts) assigned on a long-term basis best contribute to the program?"*

"• *In technical areas to support the actual work of volunteers, help teach technology, but in well defined jobs*
- *Foreign experts yes, but no foreign volunteers in a staff capacity*
- *Help plan for the future; joint sharing of ideas to continue youth development*
- *Not long-term; should be available for seminars, staff training in a third country*
- *Stay away from it, no foreign staff."*

Finally, opinions on the factors for the success of national and foreign staff were obtained: *"In your judgment which factors are most important to the success of national staff?"* Out of 14 factors nationals and foreigners (total sample 9) selected the following five factors with a ranking of three or better in their priority:

TABLE 28. FACTORS AFFECTING NATIONAL STAFF SUCCESS

National Responses	Foreign Responses
1. Leadership and understanding for people of different background and culture	1. Administrative/managerial proficiency
2. Administrative/managerial proficiency	2. Leadership and understanding for people of different background and culture
3. Technical/professional proficiency	3. Flexibility to adjust to changing conditions
4. Staff preparation and training	4. Speak local language
5. Flexibility to adjust to changing conditions	5. Know villagers, come from same local background

TABLE 29. FACTORS AFFECTING FOREIGN STAFF SUCCESS

National Responses	Foreign Responses
1. Leadership and understanding for people of different background and culture	1. Leadership and understanding for people of different background and culture
2. Technical/professional proficiency	2. Speak local language
3. Flexibility to adjust to changing conditions	3. Flexibility to adjust to changing conditions
4. Staff preparation and training	4. Staff preparation and training
5. Administrative/managerial proficiency	5. Administrative/managerial proficiency

A comparison of the rankings given to success factors for national and foreign staff does not indicate significant differences in opinions between national and foreign respondents, with the following exceptions:

- foreigners rank high the speaking of the local language as a skill nationals possess and foreigners need to obtain; this is understandable since language is often a profound barrier to any useful foreign staff performance;

- the absence of "technical/professional proficiency" in the first five priority rankings on the part of foreigners is surprising, and various explanations come to mind ranging from unclear perception of staff roles (in contrast to directors) to error because of the small sample of respondents;

- the absence of "speaking the local language" for foreign staff on the part of the national respondents indicates that they underestimate the difficulty a foreigner encounters when communicating in another language.

Admittedly, the sample of interviews related to this category is small (9) and therefore opinions on the various aspects should be cautiously assessed. However, if one considers the responses in the context of the factual information available on Study-Services, certain problem areas and trends can be identified which, it is believed, have significance beyond the limited cases of Study-Services evaluated here.

Conclusions concerning staffing of Study-Services:

1. It appears, for management operations, the most successful approach is the hiring of qualified former volunteers, to serve as professional staff.

2. The involvement of faculty in both training and work programs is crucial if the Study-Service is to succeed as a part of higher learning.

3. Four preconditions for faculty involvement are especially important:

   - Sufficient faculty time allocated by the university to be devoted to Study-Services;

   - Interest and ability on the part of faculty to train student-volunteers for experiential learning and guide the development work programs;

   - Willingness to go into the field to support and work with volunteers in local communities;

   - Development of a credit system for experiential learning which reflects the gains both during training and work/service assignments in the field.

4. The reasons for current limitations in faculty involvement seem to be related to the fact that they themselves are the product of the higher education system which they are requested to change. It requires more than good will to introduce a new university program which happens to be a Study-Service. It requires the same change of priorities and attitudes as requested from volunteers.

5. Thus the change in higher education through Study-Service not only addresses the volunteers, but the faculty as well. Instruction along disciplinary lines and the preparation for problem solving roles "in the real world" are the two approaches which must be reconciled—and it is here that Study-Services provide the challenge to the university, as an institution, and to faculty, as persons wielding power.

6. To reconcile these two approaches and conduct a successful service, it is submitted that faculty participation, their "experiential learning" in actual work programs—and not merely in the training of volunteers—as part of their faculty time assignment is crucial.

7. Concerning a foreign staff role in Study-Services the following conclusions can be drawn from field responses:

   - Foreign volunteers are not acceptable in a staff capacity, presumably because both the student and the foreign volunteer are more alike than different in their capabilities;

   - Foreign staff may be helpful in areas like the transfer of technological skills, in support of work programs, and planning, but jobs must be well defined;

   - Some feel that foreign staff should be available only for short-term support: staff training, joint sessions and seminars;

   - Both foreign staff and volunteers would be acceptable if the focus were the joint sharing of ideas for future youth development.

4. Organization and Management

Study-Services organize and manage their programs through the following structure:

TABLE 30. ORGANIZATION AND MANAGEMENT OF STUDY-SERVICES

Organization	Management Functions		
	Headquarters	Regional	Local
NIGERIA: National Youth Service Corps	Directorate: Programming, enforcement of schedules, assignment of members, coordination of States, review of program; Director: Call and registration of corps members; day to day management	State Committees in 12 States: Providing accommodations, transportation introduction and closing exercises; report on corps members performance; help later employment; deploy corpsmembers	Community development work jointly with villagers during Christmas & Easter vacation; Most recently more local projects & business involvement is encouraged
THAILAND: Graduate Volunteer Certificate Programme	Thammasat University Project Committee: Project planning, creditation, certification, fund raising; Operating Committee: Guidance, Volunteers' field work; Office: Day to day management	None	All projects carried out with local community support: provision of volunteer housing, work supervision
COSTA RICA: National Youth Movement	National Youth Movement Department within Directorate: Policy, planning, staff hire, volunteer assignment, evaluation, funding	60 Regional Youth Centers; training of volunteers; direction of regional work programs	Recruitment & selection of volunteers at universities & colleges; Local community work program planning, participation and/or supervision
PANAMA: National Volunteer Service	Department within DIGEDECOM: Policy, planning of operations; staff hire, volunteer placement, funding	Regional Offices (DIGEDECOM): training of volunteers, supervision of local work projects	Universities & Colleges: Recruitment and selection of volunteers; Local cooperation and/or supervision of projects
USA: University Year for ACTION	ACTION provides grants and contracts to universities for conduct of UYA programs; approves volunteer selection and program	Few regional inter-university service-learning projects	Universities manage all aspects of program & assign volunteers to surrounding communities/ organizations

Basically, there are three approaches to organization and management of Study-Services:

- **Government-centered:** using government agencies to conduct volunteer recruitment and work programs (Nigeria).

- **University-centered:** It is from the university base that a Study-Service is implemented and spreads to regional application (Indonesia, Thailand, USA), either under a national policy (Indonesia, UYA/USA), or as a locally initiated service (Thailand, some universities USA).

- **Development Service-centered:** Here the service assumes the role of a facilitator, making the service of students possible on behalf of the educational institution, and in response to local community needs (Costa Rica, Panama, United Kingdom).

These three approaches not only represent different solutions to the organizational design of Study-Services, they also differ with respect to the delegation of authority and the mobilization of citizens, and therefore permit different **quality** of effectiveness:

1. A Study-Service that is university-centered but based on a nationwide educational policy and has government coordination will embrace many or all universities in the land. Such a combination ensures decentralization of authority, leadership and program management to the university by, at the same time, affecting changes in the overall higher educational system.

2. The university-centered initiative, organization, management, and funding of a Study-Service provides the best structure to enhance the objectives of relevant learning. The mobilization and participation of students, faculty and community are a precondition to get the service off the ground. But the university-centered service has no impact to challenge or change the overall educational system as long as there is no national coordination.

3. Facilitating Study-Service through existing Development Services or through other governmental agencies challenges the educational system only if credit is provided for work/service and not merely for academic learning. Being apart from the university or college such an organizational structure involves only the students, but the faculty and the educational institution itself remain unaffected.

As discussed earlier, the **size of voluntary service** is also influenced by the organizational structure. The size of obligatory services is, of course, determined by the legislation, covering all those legally obliged to serve. In the case of voluntary services, and in order to actively involve as many as possible of the student population, effect changes in the overall system of higher education, and still manage the service efficiently and effectively, the actual operational and management units should be small. To achieve smallness of management units and at the same time reach most of the students, the University-centered organizational structure under national policy and program coordination seems to be the optimal solution for effective Study-Services. The University Year for ACTION, USA, and the Colombia University Services are examples of such university-centered voluntary Study-Services under a national policy which reach a larger portion of students than local university efforts.

Functional Linkages to other institutions are another important aspect of the organizational structure. Without a sufficient network of linkages any Development Service exists in isolation, will be ineffective and unable to achieve its objectives. Input linkages to Study-Service can be change of regulations (service for credit), supply of staff, assistance in project planning and supervision, funding, etc. Output linkages are foremost related to:

- the supply of volunteer manpower in national or community development projects, and
- the employment of former volunteers in areas where their professional services are needed.

The most important functional linkages for Study-Services include:

First, linkages to the university and faculties or relevant educational boards as necessary for the integration of the service into the curriculum. The creditation of service, some or all funding, and allocation of faculty time depend upon this linkage. At the same time, having obtained acceptance in an educational institution represents a first achievement for Study-Services–a change in the higher education system. The University Year for ACTION applies the specification of this linkage as an indicator for the institutionalization of the service within the university[4]. The integration of service into the university system on a large scale is not easy for reasons explained earlier. But even those faculty members, who react positively to the service idea, admit the difficulty of translating work experience into credit hours. Yet, from the viewpoint of societal and educational needs this formal linkage is essential if Study-Services are to achieve their objectives and justify the public expenses for it.

Second, linkages to community organizations, government agencies or other Development Services are important both for providing inputs and using the volunteer manpower (tasks). This is especially true for work project planning, and sometimes the technical training of volunteers, work project supervision and funding. Universities by themselves are not well equipped to handle the work aspects of the service, especially if the program serves others (as it should!) and goes beyond laboratory practice or field surveys. Most services try to establish those linkages either via their national coordination bodies or directly with neighboring communities. Again, UYA in the USA applies the linkage to community organizations as an indicator of institutionalization of the service.

Third, the linkage to employment is crucial in order that former volunteers may become available for professional service in areas which do not have them. Various approaches are used to establish these linkages:

- In Nigeria, prospective employers are required by law (National Youth Service Corps Decree) *"to demand and obtain the discharge certificate from any job applicant who falls in the service category"*; employers' representatives also participate in the Directorate and the 12 State Committees of NYSC.
- In Thailand, the linkage to employment is established through the participation of business in the Advisory Group, and the recognition of the service certificate by the Civil Service Commission to upgrade the entry level for former volunteers.

TABLE 31. BUDGET AND SOURCES OF FUNDING OF STUDY-SERVICES

Organization	Annual Budget U.S. $	Funding Sources in Cash and in Kind			
		Government	University	Local Community/ Volunteer "User"	Foreign
1	2	3	4	5	6
NIGERIA. National Youth Service Corps	1973/74 (a) $9,239,770	$9,239,770	–	–	–
THAILAND: Graduate Volunteer Certificate Programme	1974: (b) $26,230	–	$20,000(c) Provision of faculty	Volunteer housing provided, estimated value $175 per volunteer per year; total $7,525	CUSO(d): 1973 $3,400 1974 $4,000 CIDA(e): 1974 $2,300 Ford Foundation 1973 $2,000(f)
COSTA RICA: National Youth Movement; Study-Service branch only	1973: (g) $94,803 $31,500 (estimate)	$90,634	Providing recruitment and selection of volunteers.	$4,169 (municipalities)	2 foreign advisors.
PANAMA: National Volunteer Service; Study-branch only	1969: $172,750(h) 1971: $112,110 (estimate)	$86,000	Providing recruitment and selection of volunteers.	n.a.	AID, U.S., 1969: $86,750
USA: ACTION, UYA	1974: $9,544,104(i)	$8,590,067 (90%)	$954,037 (10%)	Provides local project supervision, transportation on the job	

None of the Study-Services evaluated in Costa Rica, Panama and the United States has established linkages to guide the student-volunteer into employment.

5. Costs and Funds

Table 31 provides a review of the budget and funding structure of the Study-Services under evaluation.

Explanations for Table 31:

(a) First year of operations; part of national budget; includes all administrative overhead costs.

(b) Budget for volunteer costs, including administrative overhead, but without part-time faculty service.

(c) Funds raised through Economic Department of Thammasat University.

(d) Canadian University Service Overseas provided funds to the regular budget to support 6 volunteers during 1973 and 1974.

(e) Canadian International Development Agency supported 4 volunteers in 1974.

(f) Ford Foundation provided funds in 1973 for special program extension of GVCP.

(g) Total annual budget for the Costa Rica combined service without administrative overhead at Headquarters; estimate for Study-Services branch calculated on the basis of costs per volunteer man-year and the total number of volunteer man-years serving in Study-Service.

(h) Total annual budget for the Panamanian combined service, costs for Volunteer Department only; estimate for Study-Service branch calculated on the basis of costs per volunteer man-year.

(i) Total cost for University Year for ACTION, including portion of ACTION overhead costs, calculated on the basis of the costs per UYA volunteer man-year and the required 10% university participation for a duration of 5 years.

This review indicates significant differences in costs between various Study-Services caused by two major factors:

- the amount of payments to individual volunteers (living allowance), and
- the amount of overhead costs as Table 32 below will explain.

The funding structure also differs considerably and no optimal pattern has evolved so far. It appears that in the future the partial funding of student-volunteers by the users of this manpower deserves more attention, as does the restructuring of university budgets to include Study-Service as a regular budget item.

While the Ethiopian University Service, for example, receives payment from the Ministry of Education for volunteers serving as full-time teachers in rural areas, apparently Thammasat University Service in Thailand has no such arrangement. The reimbursement for service represents another form of output linkages, as it indicates acceptance and institutional integration on the part of the user of the service. Expecially the living costs of the volunteer—and the loss of tuition in the case of the UYA/USA—are an additional burden on the university if no outside financing can be arranged. In the USA, for example, the reduction of tuition requirement for students who participate in service for one year so far has not been achieved[4]. The latter is a stipulation of section 113 of the Domestic Volunteer Service Act which is the basis for all ACTION programs in the United States. For most students, the reduction of tuition during service is necessary before they can volunteer their service. This is especially true for those who have to work to pay for their university education.

The total costs per volunteer man-year and the breakdown of payments for the volunteer give a better insight into the various cost structures of Study-Services.

TABLE 32. COSTS PER VOLUNTEER IN STUDY-SERVICES

Organizations	Costs per Volunteer man-year (a) U.S. $	of which per month(b):			
		Living Allowance U.S. $	Housing U.S. $	Health Care	Insurance
1	2	3	4	5	6
NIGERIA: National Youth Service Corps	1974: (c) 4,065.-	1974: 180.- 1975: 230.-		provided nationally	covered
THAILAND: Graduate Volunteer Certificate Programme	1974: (d) 650.-	30.- (training) 40.- (work program)	about (e) $15.-	n.a.	n.a.
COSTA RICA: National Youth Movement	1973: (f) 105.-	pocket money & living allowance	room & board provided	provided nationally	provided covered
PANAMA: National Volunteer Service	1969: (g) 606.-	pocket money or living allowance	provided by communities	nationally covered	n.a.
USA: University Year for ACTION	1974: (h) 5,965.-	$35.- (i) $50.- stipend	food & lodging 150.- average	provided through ACTION legislation	

Explanations for Table 32:

(a) Total costs of service per one adult volunteer serving for one year (11 months plus 1 month vacation).

(b) Monthly costs per volunteer are examples, other volunteer costs are: transportation, work materials and equipment, recruitment and selection costs, costs of training.

(c) Including administrative overhead costs.

(d) Including administrative overhead costs.

(e) Provided by local communities in kind.

(f) Operational Costs of Volunteer Department only, administrative staff costs.

(g) Including administrative overhead costs, without planning and evaluation services provided by DIGEDECOM.

(h) Consists of $5,369 ACTION costs and $596 University Costs.

(i) $35 per month for miscellaneous expenses; $50 per month stipend to be paid after completion of service; $150 per month national average food and lodging allowance (ranges from $80 to $220).

The review in Table 32 confirms the differences in cost structures between the Study-Services evaluated:

- The Nigerian NYSC provides high allowances for monthly living expenses to its members. Originally a payment of about $45.- was planned but this met strong resistance from students. NYSC has a "subsequent" schedule, that is requiring service at the end of the university education (and before certification of the Graduation) at a time when students expect to enter employment and earn their first living. This timing of service seems to be the basic cause for student resistance to the low living allowances and it may be the reason why officials felt that a payment somewhat equivalent to the lowest civil service salary is justified. About 68% of the total budget is spent on immediate volunteer costs (excluding transportation, insurance and health service).

- In contrast, the USA University Year for ACTION with somewhat higher unit costs than NYSC, seems to spend proportionally less funds on payment to individual volunteers and more on payments to the university for overhead costs to institutionalize the service in higher education (faculty costs, UYA office, etc.).

- The Thailand GVCP operates on a very tight budget; 69% of the total goes directly to the volunteers for living allowances, the remaining 31% must cover transportation, health care, insurance and administrative personnel; obviously faculty time is provided without reimbursement.

- The Costa Rican and Panamanian services report only total costs for all branches of their service. Therefore, the specific costs for Study-Service branches are not available for comparison.

- Reports from other Study-Services give the following monthly living allowances for student-volunteers:

– Ethiopia, University Service	U.S. $85.00[144]
– National Development Service, Nepal	U.S. $24.00[46]
– Kuliah Kerja Nyata, Indonesia	U.S. $12.50[30]

The analysis of costs per volunteer is important not only for determining the efficiency of a service, but these payments also indicate policies and philosophy of the service as it reflects upon the volunteer's lifestyle[97]. Any consideration of cooperation among various Study-Services in the future must pay attention to these differences because inequality in treatment of volunteers gravely affects any potential cooperation.

The efficiency of Study-Services, comparing program output with costs, is not as easy to determine as for Training and Employment Schemes. What are possible indicators of efficiency?

First, since Study-Services are designed to remedy the limitations of higher education and to prepare an immediately employable graduate to be useful in areas of national needs, the following indicators of efficiency can be considered:

- costs per volunteer man-year (minus expenditure for room and board) compared to costs per student in regular higher education;

- costs per volunteer man-year compared to the average national re-training and repeater costs per graduate to make him employable;

- costs per volunteer man-year compared to the annual GNP loss resulting from unemployment of graduates.

In the United States, Leon M. Keyserling, the former Chairman of the Council of Economic Advisers under President Truman, estimated recently at a conference on National Service that the annual Gross National Product (GNP) loss amounts to about $20,000 per unemployed teenager[65].

Combined, the three indicators provide an insight from different angles to assess the efficiency of Study-Services in helping to overcome the limitations of higher education. The program costs for Study-Service, i.e. the costs to prepare a usefully employed graduate, should not be higher—preferably lower—than the average cost per student in traditional higher education. For calculation of these costs it is not justifiable to include proportional university overhead expenses, based on classroom teaching, into the overall Study-Service costs. Neither seems it justified to require the student-volunteer to pay regular tuition while serving in communities and not attending classes. Doing so supports the traditional structure the very service tries to change. The overall Study-Service expenditures should include proportional overhead for faculty time and the actual costs incurred for use of university facilities. In many cases—if Study-Services need university facilities—they are used at times when they otherwise would be idle and thus only minor costs are incurred. Foremost, the local community is the classroom and the villagers are the teachers for Study-Services—and these facts should be reflected in costs as well.

It seems that this cost relation to the university is a sensitive area especially for those Study-Services which are managed by them. For example, the high costs per volunteer man-year of UYA/ACTION are directly related to the high university overhead costs which thus reduce the efficiency of the service. Unfortunately no specific data from project countries are available to follow through with a comparison of the efficiency of their approaches to higher learning.

Second, Study-Services respond to the need for professional services in rural areas or urban slums. Volunteers work as teachers, in health care, community development, etc. The efficiency of the services, in providing development assistance until permanent professional services can be installed, is indicated, for example, by the costs per volunteer man-year as compared to costs per primary or secondary school teacher. As long as Study-Services satisfactorily fill actual skill gaps in areas where no professional services are available, the student-volunteer can be considered equivalent to the entry level of regular professionals—and therefore their unit costs are comparable. For example, the Ethiopian University Service (EUS) reported at the 1973 "Seminar on University Study-Service Schemes"[144], that the costs for EUS volunteers, regularly assigned to teaching positions, were exactly half the minimum salary for teachers, while their qualifications were equivalent to those of teachers. Until early 1973 a total of 2,378 volunteer teachers were assigned for a 10-months period, each helping to staff the fast expanding school system and saving the Ministry of Education a total of Eth. $4,161,500 or Eth. $1,750 per volunteer teacher. Apart from enabling the school system to expand faster at less cost the service provided practice-oriented higher learning more efficiently than classroom teaching could achieve.

The limitations of this evaluation does not permit further exploration of the efficiency of Study-Services, but in the light of the current tremendous costs of higher education, the inequality of educational opportunity and the problems of educating employable graduates, it is crucial that Study-Services produce equivalent results with less costs than classroom teaching. It is hoped that other studies will focus on this aspect of the efficiency of Study-Services and provide more detail for planning and management decisions.

PROGRAM TASKS

Like other Development Services, the Program Tasks of Study-Services comprise:

1. Schedules
2. Recruitment and Selection of Volunteers
3. Training for Work Programs
4. Work Programs
5. Credit for Study-Service
6. Citizen Mobilization for Development Participation.

Table 33 summarizes these Tasks:

TABLE 33. PROGRAM TASKS OF STUDY-SERVICE

Organizations	Service		Training		Work Programs	
	Duration	Coverage[a]	Time	Areas	Time	Areas
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
NIGERIA National Youth Service Corps	1 year, full-time	Nationwide; all graduating students; 12 States; For certification	5 weeks full-time	• Local language • Citizenship • History/culture • Leadership/personality (Outward Bound School concept)	10 months	• Hospitals • Farming • Rural infrasturcture, roads, water schemes, etc. • Surveys • Surveying & Mapping • Service to disabled and destitute • Development Admin.
THAILAND: Graduate Volunteer Certificate Programme	1 year, full-time	7 universities, 3 colleges participating, Work in 20 Provinces; Small portion of student population, For credit	3 months; 480 hrs. equals 40 credit hrs.	• Social orders • Human learning • Social organization • Rural & urban society • Community Devel. • Social research methods • Evaluation of Work Program • Reporting of social problems	6 months 3 months	• Teaching primary schools • Teaching secondary schools • Rural health services • Community Devel. • Seminar and Report writing (thesis)
			60 hrs no credit	• Technical field work		
COSTA RICA: National Youth Movement	3 months, full & part-time, varying length[b]	Nationwide, Proportion of student population not available; Some for credit	50 hrs 64 hrs	Basic: • Culture, history • Civics • Youth work • Community Devel. • Teacher training on-the-job	Total 15 credit hrs. for 3 mos. 30 hrs. week; otherwise 8 hrs week	• Health services • Teaching primary education • Farming extension • Community devel. • Adult education • Youth work, sports
PANAMA: National Volunteer Service	3 months, full-time[c]	Nationwide; Proportion of student population n.a., credit n.a.	n.a.	• Community devel. methodology • History/culture • Social issues • Adult education	n.a.	• Farming extension • Community devel. • Adult education • Club work
USA: University Year for ACTION	1 year full-time; 40 hrs. per week	Nationwide: 55 universities, 2 colleges, 550 community organizations	n.a.	Preparation during regular courses at universities; Individual guidance by faculty	1 year full-time, 40 hrs per week	35% Community, social legal services; 23% Health, 19% Education & Manpower; 11% Community organiz. 8% Econom./Business 4% Housing

Explanations for Table 33:

(a) Coverage includes: geographical distribution of service, proportion of student-volunteers compared to student population; proportion of credit for service compared to overall educational requirements; only limited factual information is available for column 3.

(b) Study-Services in Costa Rica serve full-time during Summer months and part-time during the rest of the year; training and work programs are conducted from the 60 Regional Youth Centers.

(c) Data from the Panamanian service stem from 1972, before dissolution of the service and its re-institution in 1974.

1. Schedules

Scheduling Study-Services within the academic term is not only a matter of practicability, it also reflects to what degree the service idea has been integrated into the educational institution.

The following major groups of Study-Service schedules describe various alternative approaches. The terms describing them were first used by Diana Fussel and Andrew Quarmby in a 1974 survey for the International Development Research Center in Canada[45].

- *"Intervening"* Schedules: Full-time service is sandwiched between course work at the educational institution, most often after 2 or 3 years of study: Costa Rica, Ethiopia, Indonesia, Nepal, Panama, University Year for ACTION/USA.

- *"Interwoven"* Schedules: Part-time service interwoven with course work: Costa Rica, Community Service Volunteers, U.K., various universities in Latin America and the USA.

- *"Subsequent"* Schedules. Full-time service at the close of studies and before attaining graduation: Nigeria, Thailand.

- *"Parallel"* Schedules: Usually part-time service parallel to studies but not linked to them: many services established by students themselves, National Service Scheme in India.

With the exception of the *"Parallel"* Schedules, academic studies are required to a varying degree before service assignment. Educators commonly feel that students should complete at least two years of classroom study before their service can become useful to the community, and they can employ experiential learning successfully. Other educators prefer the completion of the first level of academic studies (or undergraduate) and schedule the service before graduation (*"Subsequent"* Schedules). In such cases, service becomes a bridge between the academic institution and employment, i.e. job-entry preparation. The University Year for ACTION reports[4] that a full-time service requiring 40 hours per week with an *"Intervening"* Schedule can create problems in various respects:

(a) some academic programs do not permit full-time leave for service, for example nurses and other laboratory work related studies

(b) students who must work during summer to pay for tuition cannot afford to participate in service

(c) experiential learning in service would be enhanced if the required 40 hours per week of full-time work would be reduced somewhat permitting part-time attendance in classes that are relevant to the work.

Fussel and Quarmby, however, argue that *"Interwoven"* Schedules require significant changes in the academic instruction at the university and many faculty members are reluctant to accept that change. They feel that, at the outset, *"Intervening"* Schedules are more easily introduced because they leave classroom instruction virtually untouched.

From the information available to this study it seems that schedules of Study-Services are determined by the following factors:

- Organizational Structure: Whether the service is part of a national program outside the university or is university-centered
- The service-learning concept: Whether it is part of academic learning or an appendix to it
- The costs and funding structure in terms of amount and regular availability.

2. Recruitment and Selection of Volunteers

Recruitment and selection procedures are determined by the nature of the Study-Services, voluntary or obligatory ("call-up").

Voluntary Study-Services normally recruit and select candidates through faculty members who ostensibly are responsible for the service:

- Costa Rica requires written applications. Candidates are recruited and placed by the university and the National Youth Movement acting jointly.
- Panama's National Volunteer Service recruits and selects candidates via a Joint Selection Committee comprised of faculty, student body and the service; the Committee selects and places student-volunteers on the basis of: (a) vocational skills and/or field of studies, and (b) personal qualifications (emotional stability, initiative, positive attitude toward work and people of other cultures). Applicants must provide references from their professors.
- The Thai and US Study-Services do not report specific criteria for selection except the voluntary application by students for service.

Rightly so, voluntary Study-Services do not apply a "de-selection" approach to recruitment and placement of volunteers as, for example, Foreign Volunteer Services do. There are some indications that the comprehensive Peace Corps recruitment and selection procedure initially

influenced some Study-Services as well as Social and Technical Development Services, but it seems now that all have found their own styles and reduced procedure to essentials that are most useful to their purpose.

"Why do student-volunteers participate in service?" The replies from a small sample (9) that was interviewed give insight into the motivations of volunteers, according to priority.

> *"1. To go out, help others, do something useful in the village; before settling down this will be the only opportunity*
>
> *2. Opportunity to learn many things about oneself and others; to define for oneself what to do in the future; seek meaning in life*
>
> *3. Get away from the sterile atmosphere of the university*
>
> *4. Challenged by the idea, adventure."*

These motivations to go out, help, learn, experience, have adventure, are not surprising—they are similar to those of volunteers in the Social and Technical Development Services and Foreign Volunteer Services which also involve educated youth. Most important for a Study-Service is the response: *"To define for oneself what to do in the future."* This indicates reconsideration of study and career choices and underscores a very important reason why Study-Services exist: to help channel career selection to areas where professional skills are needed. The evaluation of the University Year for ACTION[4] confirms the importance of Study-Service experience for career choices for UYA volunteers. Further, Dorothea Woods, in her publication, "The University and Voluntary Service", reports similar experience by the United Community Service of Milwaukee[129].

As explained earlier, most Study-Services in developing countries are obligatory, but the manner of enforcement differs and is reflected in recruitment procedures:

- University-centered services, as Indonesia, Ethiopia or Nepal, conceive obligatory service as no different from any other required credit course for graduation. In other words, regular "formal" education procedures are imposed on the service idea, and students sign up as for other courses.

- Government-centered services recruit through a nationwide "call-up", as the Nigerian National Youth Service Corps refers to its recruitment. Final year students receive the call-up letter before the term ends, informing them as to date and place of registration. Corpsmembers are allocated to the States on the basis of their demands for the specific professional/technical qualifications the students can meet. Because of the need to build the nation, and bridge the cultural and tribal differences among Nigerians, Corpsmembers are not assigned to their home States. This policy has been successful: 62% of the corpsmembers never previously visited the State to which they were assigned; this percentage is even higher for the North Western (83%) and South Eastern States (91%).

  Students who receive a "call-up" but refuse to make themselves available, are guilty of an offense according to the National Youth Service Corps Decree. They are then liable to a penalty of N 200 (U.S. $307) or 12 months imprisonment or both.

Starting with the academic year 1974-75, Nigerian students who graduate abroad are also eligible for service upon returning home, if they were up to 31 years of age at the time they obtained their degree. As indicated earlier this rule is enforced by requiring employers to demand the discharge certificate from graduates who apply for jobs.

Kenya's approach for service of domestic students is similar to Nigeria's and is outlined in the 1972 ILO/UNDP Inter-Agency Mission's proposal, "A Strategy for Increasing Productive Employment in Kenya"[140]. One year of obligatory community service at the completion of upper secondary education, and one year at completion of tertiary education are recommended as part of a long-term and fundamental reconstruction of the whole education system. The proposal is tailored to population growth on the one hand, and need for employment opportunities on the other.

The **recruitment of foreign students** and their participation is a somewhat neglected area of most Study-Services, yet it is one of the most promising aspects for a global education and future international cooperation. As far as could be identified, the recruitment of foreign students for Study-Services follows three different approaches:

- excluded from service because they are not citizens of the country (Nigeria);
- obliged to serve because they are students at the university in a country with obligatory Study-Service (Nepal);
- permitted to serve on the basis of voluntary application (Ethiopia, Thailand, UYA/USA).

3. Training

Training volunteers for Work Programs is one of the major problem areas in directing Study-Services. Yet this is the point where the whole question of development orientation of the university comes to focus. In student-volunteer preparation for work assignments the hard questions of change in the concept and practice of academic learning cannot be evaded.

Table 34 illustrates three examples of Study-Services' volunteer training:

TABLE 34 TRAINING FOR STUDY-SERVICES

Organization:	Type of Training	Duration	Major Topics
NIGERIA: National Youth Service Corps	– Intensive orientation on university or college campuses in the various regions for men & women	5 weeks	– Citizenship; national and local issues, history, culture, local customs, service idea – Local language training – Physical education and drill training – Leadership and personality training along the concept of "Outward Bound Schools" including: Expeditions, rock climbing, initiative tests, first aid
	– State tour of all administrative Divisions to familiarize themselves with people & their problems where the State Corps members will work		
THAILAND: Graduate Volunteer Certificate Programme	– Basic training: classroom	480 hours, equivalent to 40 credit hours	Social orders, politics of society; principles of human learning both in school & community; rural and urban society; social organization structure of societies; economics and community development; human relations and leadership; social research methods; reporting of social problems
	– Technical Instruction, field work	69 hours; no credit	Teaching in primary and secondary schools; community development, health service, etc.
	Total duration	3 months	
USA: University Year for	Pre-Service Training: (a) Initial Orientation	2-4 weeks	– Introduction into ACTION – Complexity of poverty problems – Strategies for Community organization for change and growth, – resource development – Programming by objectives – Mobilizing other volunteers
	(b) On-the-job Training		– Job planning for volunteer assignment in local community – Planning future in-service skill training – Work experience & skill training – Locating adequate housing – De-briefing
	In-Service Training	Part-time during year of work assignment	– Skill training as required on the job

The **Nigerian** national agency-centered service conducts centralized training on the regional level at designated universities. Male and female corpsmembers, who will work later in the same region report for training after their registration in the State Capitals. The training period is the only time the university has direct contact with the members of this Study-Service. Other involvement of the university is restricted to participation in the Directorate (supervision), and issuance of the degree certificate after service. Apart from lesson-type instruction, personality training along the Outward Bound School concept opens up the training to a group dynamics approach. At present, NYSC focuses on the student-volunteer, providing him with additional instruction and experiential learning. A change of higher education itself through this Study-Service is not attempted.

Training in the **Thailand** Study-Service offers a different example. It takes place in the familiar environment of the university. The curriculum concentrates on social studies, some process training (surveying, report writing, etc.) and teachers' training in a field assignment. Student-volunteers receive—proportionally—a large amount of academic training in preparation for practical field work. The reason is, of course, that this is a certificate program, not merely for credit, but also for the final examination thesis on the Study-Service experience. Only the academic part of the training and the thesis work based on field assignment are credited, whereas the practical skill training is not assessed in terms of academic learning. This conclusion is underlined by interviews with students which indicated that faculty "does not understand the volunteers' work." But interviews also indicated that Thai service officials themselves are dissatisfied with the lecture type of training and plan to change to experiential learning approaches during the preparation period.

The problem of translating work experience into learning with academic credit is also reported from the **University Year for ACTION**[4]. By designing three smaller units—initial orientation, on-the-job-training, and in-service training—ACTION emphasizes a work orientation of training, in contrast to other Study-Services. Differing from the Thammasat University Service, UYA does not give credit for the training of student-volunteers but does credit their actual work programs as will be explained later on.

None of the Study-Services evaluated applies what one would like to regard as social-involvement-training, a role-oriented approach that prepares the student for his total involvement in a community in terms of technical skills, cultural awareness, communication, and community organization skills. Perhaps Study-Services can build on the experience of Foreign Volunteer Services—after all, both are placed in different cultural settings and in roles not previously experienced. In their "Preparation for Encounter" handbook, for example, Phillips Ruopp and Paul Wrobel[106] describe Peace Corps volunteer training for community involvement through community exploration. The core of their training concept is to give the volunteer an opportunity "to learn how to learn" as both an emotional and intellectual experience. I believe that such a role-centered approach to volunteer preparation is of value for both domestic and foreign volunteers who enter a different cultural environment during their service period. Together, both Domestic and Foreign Volunteer Services have accumulated a significant volume of volunteer training concepts, methodology and experience which can help to integrate training for work into an academic learning concept.

4. Work Programs

Most Study-Services assign volunteers to local communities. The exception among those reviewed is the Nigerian National Youth Service Corps (NYSC) which chiefly assigns volunteers to regional and district governmental agencies. More recently also NYSC includes local community and non-governmental projects in its work program.

Volunteers are placed in jobs related to their field of studies or career interests—if their skills meet needs of local communities or of agencies under which they will serve. Otherwise, if the field of study does not offer employment, student-volunteers are placed as "generalists" in roles which draw upon their general education and common sense. The latter is most often the case in primary teaching assignments and general community development. I do not belive that the argument prevailing among some experts concerning so called "specialists" versus "generalists" volunteer placement is important for either the learning experience of the individual or the effectiveness of a service. It is not a question of principle but of practicality and usefulness —and both types of placement occur in most Study-Services. Experiential learning in work/service assignments always has more than one component:

- skill application and gain of experience—if possible related to field of study or career interest;
- personal growth through service for others;
- emotional satisfaction through being needed and being able to contribute.

The UYA Study in the USA[4] confirms that students gave highest importance to reasons why they became volunteers:

- *"To gain some practical experience in my chosen college major or probably career (76%)*
- To develop some desired skills and abilities (66%)."

Concerning the benefit of UYA experience, the same report finds:

- 75% strongly agree: *"I feel I am learning more practical or applied knowledge than I would in a comparable period in the classroom."*
- 54% strongly agree: "I have a better idea of my career goals."
- 46% strongly agree: *"I am learning more about myself than anticipated."*

The graduate Volunteer Certificate Programme in Thailand reports a similar response from volunteers concerning their job placement and work experience. Work was most worthwhile for them in the following respects:

"• *First, all acquired teaching experience and skills.*

- *Second, being change agents they brought about some changes to their students. Generally, new teachers are more active and pay more attention to students thus motivating them to learn.*

- *Third, volunteers are more mature, tolerant, self-confident and responsible after working for a period of time in the field.*

- *Fourth, all volunteers seem to have better understanding of rural people and their problems."*

These feedbacks from volunteers confirm that the requirement of accomplishment of serious work is a most important factor for volunteer placement. Therefore:

- First the needs of the community or project agency "to do a job" have highest priority as a criteria for placement.

- Second, the field of study and/or career interests of volunteers determine placement, since Study-Service is part of a program of higher education.

- Third, the job must give volunteers a full work load and responsibility in which they can grow—they should not be misused in "cheap labor" that is not compatible with their skills.

Table 33, columns 6 and 7, reviewed the **Work Program Schedule and Areas of Assignments** of the Study-Services under evaluation. They concern three priorities of major work areas:

First, **teaching in primary and secondary education** is the major work assignment of student-volunteers. This is not only true for the Thailand university service but also for those in Ethiopia, Nepal, and many other developing countries. The school system seems to provide an easy entry for programming volunteer work projects because there is already an existing structure that is familiar to the volunteer and is similar to the university. But more important, many countries admit that they need the volunteer teachers to keep up with their plans to expand elementary education in rural areas. This would not be possible without the student-volunteers, because of the lack of teachers with adequate training.

A second major work program area concerns the **social conditions in a community:** health and nutrition services; adult education and literacy; work with minorities, with the underprivileged, the disabled and delinquent; general youth work.

The third area concerns **economic development:** improvement of agriculture, food storage, rural services, marketing (cooperatives), rural trades.

In interviews, most respondents (sample of 9) agreed that the overall goals of work programs were achieved. Some responded *"with modification"* because:

- the gap between urban students and rural people still exists, and communication was not always achieved

- some jobs placements were inappropriate; volunteers were not needed.

To the question: *"What do you consider the best type of student-volunteer work projects?"* the respondents gave the following priorities:

1. *"Formal and non-formal education, because then people are able to help themselves.*

2. *Elementary education and public health, because the many children in rural areas need help; exclude secondary education, because there is not so great a need.*

3. *Projects should fulfill educational needs of the recipients: the presence of the volunteers motivates the teachers in rural areas to work, and volunteers mobilize support from the community for the school.*

4. *Community development (literacy, health, work with minorities); move away from educational projects, because education is traditional and within the volunteers' experience; they should gain new experience with problems of inequality."*

Work Program Organization and Methodology is at least equally important to successful volunteer assignments as the selection of types of projects.

The **Thailand Graduate Certificate Programme** reports the following methodology for work programs:

Following completion of training at the university and the brief technical instruction in the field, volunteers are assigned to villages in 20 provinces. Their primary task is teaching in schools for a six-month period. As a secondary task, volunteers are required to conduct a community survey and collect data concerning their village for the thesis they are later to produce for their examination. As a third mandate, volunteers are encouraged to devote their spare time to help the people to organize school or community activities and assist villagers in matters of health, nutrition, adult education. During their stay in villages volunteers are only occasionally visited by faculty members designated to supervise their work assignments. In general, volunteers are on their own.

In the final three months, volunteers return to the university, participate in an evaluation seminar and write the report about their assignment and experience. The equivalent of 15 credit hours is granted for the work assignment, seminar and report. After completion of the final examination volunteers receive a "Diploma for Volunteer Graduates". The Civil Service Commission of Thailand ensures that former volunteers, on the basis of the Diploma, "are entitled to receive a proper salary as a sanction of high morale upon their hard work, that is a level higher than a fixed ordinary starting scale." This methodology confirms an earlier observation of the strong emphasis put on the academic part of Study-Service. Work itself is reduced to 50% of the total time of service, and even then the community work seems to come in conflict with preparation for the examination that leads to a Diploma. Even though all reports give highest priority to the teaching assignments, the fact that the community surveys and data collection provide the basis for the graduation thesis must create a conflict for the volunteer.

In contrast, the **Education Corps in Iran**—which provided some reports for this evaluation (see Table 1.)—involves the villagers to assess the performance of the volunteers. In this case,

the citizens of the local community who are the recipients of the service by volunteers are invited to rank their performance. This rating enters the volunteer's records at the Service's Headquarters and at the university for final examinations if he is a registered student (in Iran the study concurrent to service is voluntary). No doubt such an arrangement enhances the volunteer's interest in his work assignment, avoids conflicts with other examination work, and may be even one approach to translate community service into academic learning credits.

As Compendium No. 9 (Volume II) explains, **Nigerian students** are assigned in more or less equal strength to governmental agencies in 11 States and provide supportive manpower to development projects. No information is available on the extent of volunteers' responsibilities during work assignments. The respective governmental agencies supervise corpsmembers and report about their performance to the NYSC Headquarters. When service has been completed, corpsmembers receive a discharge certificate attesting to their satisfactory performance. This certificate is required for later employment in Nigeria, both within the government and private sectors. In 1975, a *"Certificate of Honour"* was introduced *"to be awarded at the end of each term of service to those corpsmembers who during orientation and service maintained exemplary personal comportment, sense of discipline, selflessness and dedication to duty."*

The high ranking of volunteer recruitment and selection by both nationals and foreigners comes as a surprise. It indicates that Study-Service is not yet integrated as a regular learning mode where everybody is accepted—and therefore no selection is necessary. It seems also, that the strong image of Foreign Volunteer Services (where recruitment and selection has high importance to successfully perform in a foreign culture and country) has rubbed off on this Domestic Development Service. All others indicate preference for factors which are important for furthering the professionalism of work, volunteer personal growth and career. They correspond with those identified earlier in the UYA evaluation[4].

In conclusion, comparing work programs with the objectives of Study-Services the following factors will most influence their effectiveness:

1. The successful merger of work-learning and academic-learning into one concept is at the core of a successful program. If this is achieved, the university has changed and the individual volunteer will have gained an opportunity for experiential learning through real work situations.

2. Local community basis for volunteer work projects.

3. Professional and career oriented job assignments, providing responsibility and sufficient work load for the volunteer.

5. Credit for Study-Service

Here the question is "How" to give credit for work/service and not "Why at all?" As Peter Meyer points out in his book "Awarding College Credit for Non-College Learning"[82], the access to credit "in our credentialing society" is still the door to satisfying employment—whether we like it or not. To accept non-academic work experience for credit, the education system must reorient it's attention from teaching to learning. In other words, it is not the attendance at a session of instruction, but what has been learned, that is credited. For Study-Services it implies that it is not the attendance at the work/service assignment but what has been learned through work that should be credited. Most universities have difficulty assessing the work experience as a recognized input into the learning achievement.

Thammasat University Service credits only the academic achievements, the attendance at training and the report or thesis evaluating the work assignment. In contrast, the Nigerian NYSC does not credit the service as such but postpones the certification of the first degree university examination - which took place just prior to service—after completion of the work assignment.

UYA reports three stages for developing credit procedures for Study-Service[4]:

- In the first year of a new UYA program at a university, student-volunteers apply existing credit procedures such as independent study courses, practicum courses, or obtain special permission from instructors for infrequent attendance, but nevertheless receive credit.

- In the second year of the UYA program at a university the feedback from student-volunteers regarding their problems of scheduling and meeting academic demands while serving as full time volunteers provides a basis for crediting Study-Service. In a response to this feedback, specific seminars or in-service courses are arranged for the student-volunteer, but they must be *"housed in some existing academic unit, faculty time must be assigned and the program must be discussed and approved through the usual university channels."*

Both national and foreign responses are displayed together since they gave identical priorities to the various factors, with one exception of emphasis. They agree that local community based projects are most important to ensure success for volunteer work programs in Study-Services. As for the type of projects, rural/agricultural and social development projects are clearly preferred. Both nationals and foreigners also agree on the importance of the leadership qualifications of the supervisors and volunteer participation in decision-making. However, nationals emphasize the importance of leadership whereas foreigners give higher preference to volunteer participation.

For comparison, the question of overall volunteer performance was raised: *"In your opinion, which of the following factors contribute to the volunteers' performance?"* Out of 14 options both nationals and foreigners (sample 10) gave third or better preference to six factors that affect volunteer performance:

TABLE 35. FACTORS CONTRIBUTING TO VOLUNTEER PERFORMANCE IN STUDY-SERVICES

Factors for Volunteers' Success	Respondents' Priorities 1. %	2. %	3. %
1. Quality of volunteer recruitment and selection	70	20	10
2. Quality of volunteers' training/ education	10	50	20
3. Responsibility on the job	20	30	30
4. Needed on the job (sufficient workload)	10	30	10
5. Work assignment in line with education and interest	10	20	20
6. Prospect of employment after completion of service	20	–	20

The **University Year for ACTION, USA**, has a different approach to work programs: volunteers work with local community organizations in a variety of assignments such as teaching, in special education, probation, legal defense for minorities, para-legal work in consumer affairs, health education in schools, health services, community organizers, low-cost housing. It is ACTION policy that a minimum of two-thirds of volunteer assignments should comprise groups of at least four. But according to the UYA evaluation[4] the majority of directors disregarded this policy indicating that the number of volunteers should be determined solely by the requirements of the project. ACTION policy includes the requirement that students give full-time to the community (40 hours per week) for one year without attending traditional structured classes at the university and that the volunteer live in the poverty community. As to the latter, experiences are mixed depending on whether adequate housing could be found, whether the students themselves came from low income groups, and what kind of projects were carried out. The requirement of full-time work without any academic studies was questioned by the majority of directors of UYA programs: Apart from full-time service *"an academic component is necessary to relate service to learning."* Others comment that the full-time requirement is sound, otherwise the university would never examine its academic structure and change. The overall experience points in the direction of a compromise that full-time work of about 30 hours per week should be combined with some 10 hours of academic studies in order to establish this linkage between service and learning. This, of course, is only possible if students work in communities surrounding the university—which they do in the case of UYA.

Opinions on the **success of work programs** were obtained in interviews: *"In your judgment, which factors contribute most to the success of volunteer work projects?"* Out of 19 options, the national and foreign respondents (sample 10) gave a third or better priority to the following factors

TABLE 36. FACTORS FOR WORK PROJECT SUCCESS IN STUDY-SERVICES

Factors for Project Success	Respondents' Priorities 1. %	2. %	3. %
1 Local community related projects	70	20	–
2 Acceptance of volunteers by the local community receiving them	50	10	–
3 Rural and agricultural development projects	20	30	10
4 Social development projects	30	10	10
5 Leadership and understanding of supervisors	10	20	–
6 Volunteer participation in administration/management of their work	10	–	20

- This process takes time up to the third year of the program at a university, but the UYA report states: *"Unless the project succeeds in establishing some officially recognized courses, course numbers, seminars, modules, majors, or supervising procedures which provide clear credit granting mechanism for service-learning, the project has not institutionalized one major component of the UYA program."*

This is an example on how a Study Service is molded to accommodate traditional teaching requirements, instead of affecting change to develop new ways of work/learning assessment and attribution.

A different approach of establishing credit for Study-Service has been developed by the National Development Service (NDS) in Nepal, as Diana Fussell and Andrew Quarmby report in their "Study-Service Newsletter" of December 1975[46].

> *"The grading system is based on making available a total of 80 marks or eight credits that can be earned by NDS participants if they devote themselves to their work and do not break the scheme's various rules.*

The 80 marks are divided up and allocated to various kinds of work and to various aspects of the student's performance whilst undertaking this work as follows:

	Maximum marks
School teaching:	
– *attendance at school*	10
– *teaching the minimum of two periods per day (12 periods per week)*	4
– *teaching up to a maximum of a further 4 periods per day*	6
– *sincerity and interest*	
– *influence on the children*	4
– *improvements to the school*	3
	3
Work other than school teaching:	
– *creation of a village (or school) library, or improvement of an existing library*	2
– *quiz contest (as an educational technique) and cultural programmes*	2
– *games, physical training, scouting*	
– *adult education (including literacy teaching)*	2
– *reforestation and conservation*	4
– *agricultural extension*	3
– *health and hygiene*	3
– *family welfare*	3
– *construction work (irrigation canals, latrines, drinking water supplies, roads, etc.)*	3
	3
General:	
– *attendance at training*	
– *presence at village*	5
– *relationship with villagers*	10
– *adaptation to village life (i.e. living simply, eating local foods, etc.)*	3
– *discipline and moral behaviour*	2
	5

"Besides stipulating the maximum marks available for each of these points, the grading system in some cases lays down the way marks will be awarded up to that maximum.

"For example, students will normally be expected to be present in their villages for a total of 300 days, and the headmaster of the school will record their presence, turning this role over to the pradham pancha (village head) during school holidays. Students staying in the village for the full 300 days can earn 10 marks, 290-299 days 9 marks and 280-289 days 8 marks. Less than 280 days means the student will later have to return to the village, without a living allowance, to make up the days missed before being allowed to begin the next semester of academic work.

"In addition to these 80 marks or eight credits, 20 marks or two credits are available for satisfactory completion of the village survey and the ten credits are added to the 80 credits already required for a degree.

"Students who are granted less than 50 of the available 100 marks will fail the NDS requirement and will have to complete another year of service satisfactorily if they wish to continue their academic studies. 50-69 marks gains a Pass grade, 70-79 a Merit grade and 80-100 a Distinction grade. The highest scoring male and female students will each receive an NDS medal and Rs. 500 in cash.

"An analysis of the marking system outlined above shows that although it would be possible for students to gain a Pass or even Merit grade by undertaking only teaching and the village survey, to make really sure of a good grade they need to be active in several other activities too. Thus the grading system helps ensure that the students will work to some extent as generalists, and not just as teachers, as happened in 1974-75. In fact, based on that year's experience, many students will welcome the opportunity to do work other than school teaching and the wide variety of technical support booklets they have been given will help give them the confidence to tackle such activities as reforestation and health education."

The Nepalese National Development Service provides credit along three basic indicators:

- presence at work
- behavior at work and personal life style (based on villagers' feedback)
- work achievements and other community involvement.

Currently it is the most comprehensive example to assess learning in community service for academic credit.

Finally it should be noted that in the United States, some credit is also accorded for Peace Corps or VISTA service after volunteers have completed their assignments as teachers, and wish to continue as certified teachers at home. This issue is discussed in Chapter 7, "Feedback at Home".

Thus, four forms of crediting approaches can be identified in Study-Services:

1. Certification of study after service is completed (Nigeria)
2. Creditation of the academic component of the overall Study-Service program according to current teaching requirements (Thailand, UYA/USA)
3. Implementation of a new credit system for work/learning, based on type and intensity of work, performance and individual student behavior (Nepal)
4. Assesment of work performance on the part of the recipient villagers combined with academic correspondence courses (Iran).

There is no doubt that creditation of Study-Service is one of the most important indicators as to whether higher education has in fact changed, and the university become responsive, to learning and development needs.

6. Citizen Mobilization for Development Participation

Closest to the student-volunteer are the members of his **family and the home communi** Their acceptance—or support—is an important aspect for mobilizing citizens from all wal of life for development participation. In interviews the question was raised: *"In your opinio what do the volunteers' families and communities think about their serving?"* Both nation and foreigners (sample 9) gave the following answers:

56% say that the majority of family members disagree with Study-Service because they feel it is dangerous and they worry about their children; also the distance from home is a factor

22% believe that family members approve of the service because student-volunteers acquire new experience, and it is accepted as a patriotic idea

22% feel that the home community of volunteers approve of the service, whereas

11% have the impression that the home community thinks "they are mad."

Actual resistance against the Study-Service was rarely encountered by 44%; frequently, b 11% and never by 33%.

To the follow-up question: *"Who resisted the participation of the volunteer in service?"* th respondents (sample 9) gave the following replies according to priority of incidents:

Father	(56%)
Mother	(44%)
Other family members	(22%)
Volunteers themselves	(11%)
Community	(11%)

These replies indicate that Study-Services seem to be less acceptable to the volunteers' familie than to their home communities. It may well be that this resistance results not so much from this new concept of higher learning as from lack of information about the purpose, value anc actual projects of Study-Service. No doubt, more information about the service program tc families can help to close this resistance gap and broaden the support basis of Study-Service on the part of the general public.

Another area of concern is the **acceptance** *of a collaboration with Study-Services* by the **general public and local community.**

Interviews with officials and student-volunteers—even though only a small sample could be obtained—give a lively insight into the possibilities and constraints of citizen participation in Study-Services: *"In your opinion, which factors contribute most to the acceptance and appreciation of this service by the general public?"*

- *"Volunteer work, showing good motivation by their work for others" (38%)*
- *Favorable press, public relations (25%)*
- *Projects that contribute to the overall development of the country (13%)*

- *The philosophy of service behind the volunteers' work (13%)*

- *Favorable comments by the royal family (Thailand, 13%)."*

And further: *"In your opinion,* **who in the local community** *are the key persons in support of cooperation with volunteers?"*

• Village Headman	(75%)
• Village Headmaster (School)	(63%)
• Monk (Asia)	(50%)
• Teachers	(25%)
• Youth leaders	(25%)
• Community Development Workers (Latin America)	(13%)

And in contrast: *"Which groups exhibited the least understanding and support for volunteers working in their village?"*

- *"The illiterate because they do not understand volunteer work and the difference between a volunteer and a teacher.*

- *Depends on the project; for example in family planning it would be the older women.*

- *The richest, because they feel threatened in their positions and holdings." (Latin America)."*

The interview respondents gave the following good examples of local community collaboration:

- *"Building of a school together with village people—because villagers could see what they can do by themselves.*

- *Immunization and family planning from a local health centre—because the doctor was well integrated in the local community.*

- *Students' road constructi n in a village, bringing together 3 cliques of the village for participation and cooperation—because the students were sincere and interested, and to that the villagers responded.*

- *Community assistance by a group of volunteers—because the volunteers became part of the community."*

Examples of failure of cooperation, resistance or ignorance, included:

- *"When the volunteer could not get support of the headman she tried to organize the villagers for her project against him and failed.—Because the village headman is really an influential person and the volunteer failed to recognize it.*

- *When villagers refused to participate in building a library—because they did not see the use for it and the volunteer was unable to adequately explain the need to them.*

- *The illiterate people in the village confused me with a teacher; it's not exactly resistance, but is difficult—because I would like them to know what a volunteer is. We will have to work harder to communicate the concept of being a volunteer which is something new.*

- *Construction project where volunteers worked alone, without help from villagers, they (the volunteers) became not integrated into the community.*

- *Projects in remote areas where elders don't like to have boys and girls working together—because of cultural traditions; but this can be resolved and is now more generally accepted."*

Apart from these opinions voiced in interviews, evaluation materials indicated two other problem areas, resulting from ignorance in the local community:

- Student-volunteers were received with reluctance because villagers thought they were school drop-outs and less qualified. It has been the tradition all along that qualified people remain in the cities and only those who otherwise cannot find jobs go to rural areas.

- In Islamic societies, the male volunteer not only will often be treated differently from the female volunteers, but he encounters difficulties in training women for employment roles in services or home industries. Some reports indicate that male volunteers enjoyed special treatment and fell back into their old supremacy roles. Here the attempt to change the community backfired and the volunteer complied.

These two instances indicate community cooperation as such might be obtained, but the attitudes underlying cooperation are equally important. In other words, the need for changed attitudes is a desideratum for both the student-volunteer and the cooperating community.

Finally, the respondents were asked to rank factors affecting the participation of communities: *"In your opinion, which factors helped or hindered most the cooperation between this service and the local community?"* Both national and foreign respondents (sample 10) gave third or better priority to the following factors:

TABLE 37. FACTORS HELPING COMMUNITY COOPERATION IN STUDY-SERVICES

Helping Factors	National & Foreign Respondents' Priorities 1. %	2. %	3. %
1. Belief of the community that the service will change their situation	30	30	–
2. Villagers participated in supervision of volunteers' projects	10	10	30
3. Work Project was requested by local community	30	–	10
4. Strong leadership in community	10	10	10
5. Cultural and religious traditions	10	–	10
6. Volunteers living with local families	10	–	10

TABLE 38. FACTORS HINDERING COMMUNITY COOPERATION

Hindering Factors	National & Foreign Respondents' Priorities 1. %	2. %	3. %
1. Conflicts among villagers	40	10	10
2. Conflicts with other agencies assisting the local community	20	30	–
3. Level of literacy and general education of local community	10	–	10
4. Cultural and religious traditions	–	20	–
5. Belief of the community that service will change their situation	10	–	–
6. Work Project was assigned by National Development Plan	–	10	–

What do opinions reveal about citizen cooperation with Study-Services?

1. Information and communication of purpose and program facts are crucial for all services and without them no citizen mobilization or participation can be achieved. Such communication should specifically address different groups: the volunteers themselves, their families and home communities, the communities which receive volunteers in work projects, and the public at large.

2. Selection of work projects that villagers feel are needed; i.e. community participation in project identification. An outside—academic—imposition of "what they need" leads to failure of projects.

3. Support of the Study-Service by key persons is most important to achieve involvement of the larger community in the execution of the project. Obviously, students from urban areas, serving in rural villages, encounter problems of cross-cultural communications that are similar to those of foreign volunteers serving in other countries. These problems embrace not only understanding of local languages but also knowledge of social strata and decision-making processes in villages, as well as other cultural traditions.

4. The actual participation of citizens of the project community in functions of the Study-Service, such as supervision of joint work, has a two-way positive effect: It ensures the success and effectiveness of the service and it advances the people of the community through participation. Also, spreading the idea of voluntarism as a concept of self-reliance and democratic participation, requires the actual involvement of the residents of the community in order to permit them to experience the idea and judge its value. The example of the volunteer-teacher who could not convey this idea through his one-sided teaching assignment, in contrast to volunteers who built the school jointly with the villagers and thus were able to achieve cooperation and appreciation of the service idea, confirms this conclusion.

5. Finally, the factors most hindering any citizen mobilization and participation are the conflicts among citizens and among agencies designated to help local communities. That was true also for Training and Employment Schemes (see Table 23) and it is reported by respondents from all regions. One respondent indicated from his Study-Service, that the involvement of all factions (cliques) of the village with the outside volunteers in joint work projects helped to overcome local conflicts—at least for the duration of the project. The outsiders, the student-volunteers, became the catalyst, and the joint work projects became the vehicles to facilitate both a change in attitudes and a development that improved the community and benefitted its people. Peace between the conflicting cliques may not last long after the volunteers have left the community, but their achievement represented a small step forward. Better communications to the outside world and better education and community leadership will further help to resolve the local conflicts which hinder citizen participation.

What then are the **areas of citizen participation in Study-Services?** Table 39 displays the involvement of citizens' groups and functions they perform with Study-Services.

TABLE 39. AREAS OF CITIZEN PARTICIPATION IN STUDY-SERVICE

Organization	Citizen/Community Participation in:						
	Volunteer Recruitment	Training Location	Training Trainers	Work Programs Planning	Work Programs Joint Work	Work Programs Supervision	Supervisory/Advisory Board of Organization
NIGERIA: National Youth Service Corps	–	– (university)	–	Majority of projects not community based, but community projects on the increase. Joint projects during Christmas/Easter vacation			Yes; private citizens and business
THAILAND: Graduate Volunteer Certificate Programme	–	Yes during field training only	Yes during field training only	–	Yes sometimes	Yes sometimes	Yes; business & private organizations
COSTA RICA: National Youth Movement	–	Yes during on-the-job training only	Yes during on-the-job training only	Yes	Yes sometimes	Yes sometimes	Yes; political parties
PANAMA: National Volunteer Service	Yes	–	–	Yes	Yes rarely	–	Yes; private organizations
USA: University Year for ACTION	–	Yes during on-the-job and in-service training	Yes during on-the-job and in-service training	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes; private citizens

The participation of citizens and local community groups in the various program areas o Study-Services differ in value and intensity of mobilization and commitment.

Participation in volunteer **recruitment**, for example, requires only low key and part-time involvement.

Work programs offer the broadest opportunities for an in-depth encounter between volunteers and local citizens, especially when it involves joint work projects and the supervision of volunteers. Joint work projects do not only represent a higher degree of citizen involvement but they also ensure better project success than the "we are teaching them" approach—as the examples described on previous pages reveal. With the exception of UYA/ACTION—which has work project participation on the part of citizens firmly established—all other Study-Services evaluated have no clear policy in this respect and achieve collaboration only occasionally. In this connection it is worthwhile to cite the example of the Indonesian Kuliah Kerja Nyata (KKN). Here student-volunteers are assigned as "cross-section community development workers" to provide extension service to villages for all governmental agencies combined and involved in local development programs. Volunteers are directed to the village headman and work under his supervision. This approach assures community involvement and at the same time reduces—or even eliminates—the conflicts between different agencies.

The **training** of student-volunteers is another area where—so far—citizen participation is limited and often not encouraged. Volunteer training is under the supervision of the university and conducted by faculty. Only on-the-job-training or field training of volunteers involves local community technicians, teachers or other professionals related to the project. Somewhat different is the University Year for ACTION approach with a three step field training which enables broad community participation.

For most Study-Services, citizen participation from local communities in the academic part of volunteer training clearly poses a problem which, of course, is related to the earlier discussed difficulty of credit for Study-Service. However, it is believed that participation of experienced professionals from local project communities in the academic part of volunteer training will be a definite asset for all partners: the university, the local community and the student-volunteer. Thus citizen participation in academic training of Study-Service volunteers becomes an important indicator of the overall performance and effectiveness of the organization, and of the development orientation of the university.

As a final point, all Study-Services that were evaluated involve individual citizens or citizen groups in **supervisory or advisory roles**, although the available materials do not provide an insight into the efficacy of their functions. The participation of citizens in supervisory roles has more impact on the Study-Services which have work programs that are well integrated into the local community. The stronger the national centralization, the more important it becomes that citizen organizations participate in the decision-making, in contrast to the individual citizen whose voice may be easily lost among governmental agencies. Interestingly enough, citizen participation on the boards of the Thai, Costa Rican and Panamian Study-Services is fairly strong, whereas it has less impact on the Nigerian and USA programs.

ACHIEVEMENTS

Both coverage and volume of achievements in Study Services are strongly influenced by their different structures, the obligatory or voluntary nature of service and the service schedule during the course of the academic study.

Consistent with the reasons and needs for the establishment of Study-Services, the program output can be recorded along the following **quantitative performance indicators:**

- coverage of student population through participation in Study-Service
- coverage of the geographical area of the country to ensure student work assignments in different cultural settings and to guarantee that people in remote rural areas receive the needed professional services
- coverage of all areas of curriculum study to ensure that all students have access to Study Service and all faculties are affected by this directional change in higher education.

The **coverage** of obligatory Study Services is more or less complete; they reach the total **student population** eligible for service. And because of their total outreach, most of them cover all geographical areas of the country with their work program assignments. These quantitative achievements are, of course, not due only to effective management of the organization, but result from the legal regulations of the service. Study-Services in Nigeria, Indonesia, Nepal, and Ethiopia are examples of service obligation reaching the total student population. The Nigerian National Service Corps covers not only students at universities in Nigeria, but also those Nigerians who matriculated abroad. The Nepalese National Development Service also reaches foreign students studying at Tribhuvan University in Nepal.

As expected, the voluntary Study-Services, such as the Graduate Volunteer Certificate Programme in Thailand, the University Year for ACTION, USA and the services for students in Costa Rica and Panama reach only a limited portion of the student population. This limitation is due not only to a lack of motivation for volunteer service, but also to the availability of sufficient funding, as is evident, for example, in the Thailand Study-Service (see Table 31).

With the restricted outreach to the total student population there is often a restricted **coverage of geographical area** within the country. There are simply not enough student-volunteers to provide the needed services in all regions or districts. In the case of UYA/USA, volunteers are assigned to local communities immediately surrounding the university and only if more universities would participate could the geographical coverage be expanded.

The third indicator of **curriculum coverage** concerns the outreach of Study-Service within the university to change the limitations of the system of higher education.

Now the question is raised: What has been achieved to reach all areas of studies offered at institutions of higher learning? In other words, to what extent has Study-Service become part of the curriculum in all departments and faculties? Probably the Nepalese National Development Service comes closest to a comprehensive curriculum coverage which affects all areas of study.

In general, Study-Services with a *"subsequent"* or *"parallel"* schedule of service during university education have a low or no curriculum coverage. They leave the existing curriculum unchallenged and do not attempt to integrate academic and work/service learning. For

example, the Nigerian Study-Service, with a *"subsequent"* schedule, though reaching all students and all geographical areas, leaves the universities virtually untouched and does not affect changes in curricula or learning objectives. Similarly, the *"parallel"* scheme of Panama does not report any changes of curriculum. Costa Rica, however, has achieved creditation of its Study-Service branch and—even though a *"parallel"* scheme this very fact indicates some curriculum coverage.

But, also those Study-Services which have their service *"sandwiched"* between academic studies (*"intervening"* schemes) indicate limited curriculum coverage. The evaluation of the University Year for ACTION[4] reports that current study regulations prevent students in various fields of studies from volunteering for service because their presence is required at the university (nursing, dentistry, etc.).

To sum up, if Study-Services are to be a vehicle for a different form of higher learning, they must effect changes within the educational institution and cover all curriculum areas.

The **Volume** of Study-Services, as in all learning processes, is not easily ident fied or assessed. Volume represents qualitative achievements as compared to the objectives an d reasons for the establishment of the service. Therefore, **qualitative performance indicators** are:

- the proportion of student-volunteers who return to the university after service and actually graduate;
- the extent of employment of former student-volunteers in areas where their professional services are needed, be it the rural areas or special employment fields such as social service;
- the acceptance of former volunteers in civil service careers to change the nature and spirit of civil service;
- the degree of the institutionalization of Study-Services within the higher education system, including faculty participation and citizen participation in academic training,
- the degree of institutionalization of the role of Study-Services in local communities and their contribution in providing needed professional services;
- the degree of local citizen participation in Study-Services activities.

Examples of qualitative achievements of the Study-Services evaluated follow:

Thailand: Graduate Volunteer Certificate Programme (Voluntary service, *"subsequent"* schedule)

Reports stress foremost the value of work and the changing behavior of students toward work, especially their teaching experience in single assignments. They are described as more mature, self-confident and responsible after completion of field assignments. Finally, they are described as having obtained a better understanding of rural people and their problems. The following facts seem to support this notion of achievements:

- Employment of former volunteer-graduates after completion of service (130 former volunteers as of December 1973)

  - 44% returned to rural areas as teachers;
  - 10% hired by Civil Service Commission for public administration assignments;
  - 10% entered private business;
  - 7% continued their own education;
  - 4% became staff members of GVCP;
  - 3% entered Community Development Programs in rural areas;
  - 2% became members of the Social Welfare Administration;
  - 20% were reported as unemployed.

  The high return rate to rural areas (47%) of graduates is significant because it is contrary to tradition and status of the academic . It is one of the major objectives of GVCP to change attitudes toward professional assignments in rural areas, and it has been achieved to a significant extent. Also, 53% of the former volunteers entered social-science-oriented professions which traditionally do not carry high status and acceptance in the academic world.

- The recognition of GVCP diploma by the Civil Service Commission accompanied by an upgrading of the entry level into civil service for former volunteers;

- Local citizen participation and acceptance by the general public are indicated by the fact that communities provide housing to volunteers and thereby help to finance the service in the equivalent of $7,525 or 22% of the total costs. Volunteers are generally well accepted in local communities and the high return rate of 47% is an indication not only of a change of attitude on the part of the students but also acceptance by villagers. The participation of private organizations and business on the Advisory Committee and in providing some financing shows that increasingly the service is accepted by the general public. There is no doubt that the achievements of the Thammasat University Service and the outreach to the overall student population is solely dependent on leadership and the extent to which continued support can be mustered from the university and the general public. It is still an uphill fight to integrate the service more broadly in the university and society, and secure sufficient financing.

USA: University Year for ACTION (Voluntary, *"intervening"* schedule)

In line with the objectives of UYA, set forth in the Domestic Development Service Act, the following achievement indicators were identified in the UYA study[4]:

- the extent of institutionalization of the UYA within the university
- the extent of incorporation of UYA activities into the community organizations receiving volunteers
- the impact on the student-volunteer.

1. Institutionalization of UYA in the university is expressed in the following terms:

   - all universities evaluated have established a mechanism for volunteer coordination and an administration for experimental education
   - volunteers are not funded out of regular college funds and most do not allow for reduction in tuition during service
   - more than half have advisory committees to coordinate service-learning activities
   - 12 regional inter-university service-learning programs evolved from the 27 evaluated
   - more than half allow only minimal faculty time compensation for supervision of volunteers
   - all changed their official statements concerning the role of service-learning.

2. Incorporation of UYA in Community Organizations.

   - 49 of the 66 community organizations indicated that the relationship between community organizations and universities has expanded especially in the following areas: more assistance from faculty in form of consultations; cooperative classes with the university (research projects summer programs for children, adult education); increased use of university resources; faculty on their advisory boards, etc.
   - What will remain of the UYA service after volunteers have left? 43 of 66 organizations indicated that services would be diminished because replacement of staff would require budget increase; 39 reported that volunteers effected changes in the recipients of services rather than in the agency itself; 10 reported that the project improvements will continue after the volunteers have left. All agreed that it will be difficult to replace the volunteers because their substitution would require para-professional, professional or managerial skilled people on a full-time basis.

3. Impact on the Volunteer:

   33% of the former volunteers evaluated continued in a part-time volunteer service. All volunteers evaluated reported the following benefits:

- gain of skills and abilities (priorities); working with other people, legal skills, teaching, planning, organizing, report and proposal writing, research skills;
- compared to normal curriculum they learned more practical skills;
- they were better able to apply classroom materials to the "real world";
- they cited greater personal development.

Volunteers gave the following reasons for participating in UYA (priorities):

- to gain some practical experience;
- to develop some desired skills and abilities;
- to provide needed services in poverty related areas.

Finally, problems related to the current UYA policy were reported in the following areas:

- The requirement of full-time service (40 hours per week) prevents some students from participation because their academic program does not permit full-time leave (for example, nurses) or students must work during summer to pay for the tuition.
- Requiring the volunteer to live in the poverty community should be handled flexibly, depending upon whether the surrounding community approves of such a solution, and whether students are able to commute to the campus; also many students belong to poverty groups themselves;
- Requirement to the volunteer to be full-time in the community and not attend courses at the university: Most support such a policy because otherwise the academic program at the university will not change. However, they feel it is necessary to introduce an academic component to relate the service to learning and identify the gain. A combination of full-time work (30 hours) and a related academic program (10 hours) is suggested.

Costa Rica: National Youth Movement (Voluntary, *"parallel"* schedule)

Unfortunately no specific reports on the achievements of the Study-Service branch of this combined service were available. However, the following listing indicates service accomplishments by students:

- provision of medical services to remote rural communities
- practical work orientation of the service as a supplement to the theory-oriented education in schools and universities
- increase of awareness on the part of youth concerning their participation in national development efforts, especially provision of social services and economic assistance to the underprivileged
- increased awareness on the part of youth concerning their role as citizens in building their nation through volunteer service in local communities.

As indicated earlier, as a "parallel" scheme to the regular education year, NYM has a very limited impact on eliminating or modifying the shortcomings of higher education and making universities more responsive to development needs.

Nigeria: National Youth Service Corps (Obligatory, *"subsequent"* schedule)

At the time of this survey the Nigerian Service had just completed its first year of operation and no feedback was available as to what extent locally assigned corpsmembers have found and encouraged local participation. It is also not possible to identify the achievements in terms of professional services provided in the various Regions so soon after inception.

NYSC evaluated the first year of its program especially through questionnaires mailed to the corpsmen. Many of their recommendations were integrated into the 1974-75 program. These recommendations resulted in a broadening of the work program scope to include local community development projects, small scale rural industries and mobile health units. This made NYSC more responsive to local citizens' needs and at the same time resulted in greater satisfaction for the individual corps-members.

As pointed out earlier, the service achieved a comprehensive cross-cultural experience for its members to overcome the tribal differences in Nigeria: sixty-two per cent of the corpsmen previously had not even visited the State to which they were assigned for work-service; the percentage was even higher for the North Western Region (83%) and the South Eastern States (91%). Recalling that one of the reasons for the establishment of NYSC was *"to bridge the gaps between cultures, tribes and religions, and to instill patriotism, dedication and consciousness . . ."* this one year work-service in areas and with people never visited before is a crucial first step. It is, of course, achieved through the obligatory nature of the service.

Another aspect of achievement is the enforcement of the service obligation with those Nigerians who study abroad—mostly in industrialized countries. The Directors of NYSC took great care, and still do, to explain and discuss the service obligation with those students. In extensive travel they met with them at their places of study and had an open discussion on the practice and principles of this national service. Observers who had the privilege of attending such meetings reported that they were impressed by the openess and sophistication of the discussions. So far, there are no indications that Nigerian students have refrained from returning home, after completion of their studies abroad, because of the one year service obligation.

A word concerning the impact of the Nigerian Study-Service on the university: With a *"subsequent"* schedule, i.e. service after completion of all course work, a challenge to the higher education system has been avoided and a change of curriculum or educational methodology has not been attempted.

Finally, it should be noted that none of the Study-Services evaluated has bridged the gap between teaching and work/service learning, nor developed one unique crediting approach encompassing both aspects of higher education. Only the Study-Service in Nepal has developed a new creditation system attempting to comprehend both sectors.

Also, none of the Study-Services has consciously developed a cultural learning concept and program which would include immersion into different subcultures and a systematic observation and evaluation of the differences jointly with the people from the respective communities. So far, cross-cultural experiences are restricted to work assignments in culturally dissimilar

communities and the comprehension and resolution of the problems encountered are left to the individual volunteer.

CONCLUSIONS ON EFFECTIVENESS

Study-Services are effective only as they are able to effect educational change, in other words, to modify or to eliminate the problems which caused their establishment. Effectiveness would be made evident by any change in the conditions of the:

- limitations of higher education in terms of experiential learning, employment and development orientation
- needs for professional services especially in rural and poverty areas
- necessity to bridge cultural and societal gaps between tribes, the educated and uneducated, the urban and rural, and develop a common identity as a self-reliant nation.

Consequently, an effective Study-Service is indicated by the following program features:

1. University-oriented organization and management that enables linkages between academic and work/service learning and thus altering the perimeters of higher education.
2. Nationwide Study-Service concept and policy that ensures coverage of both a large portion of student population and outreach to all geographical areas.
3. Institutionalization of work/service as a learning program of higher education that is indicated by:
   - official educational policy to that effect
   - policy for faculty participation and allocation of adequate faculty time for involvement in the work/service program
   - citizen participation in the academic part of volunteer training for Study-Services
   - establishment for both the training and work portion of the service
   - creditation for both the training and work portion of the service
   - integration of Study-Service into the regular budget for higher education.
4. Institutionalization of Study-Service within the local community as a mode to provide professional services and mobilize citizens, indicated by:

- participation of citizens in all program areas of Study-Service in advisory and planning roles, as trainers, supervisors, or participants of work programs

- provision of professional services, such as education, health, legal, community development, as long as regular employment of professionals is not available

- continuation of requests for student-volunteer assignments.

5. Employment of former student-volunteers in rural areas and in jobs where regular professional services are required.

6. Linkage of Study-Services with other private and governmental institutions which ensure resources (financial, planning, program support) and use of the student-volunteers in areas where they are needed.

7. Training and work program design that enables not only technical or social services but also cultural learning by integrating the student-volunteer into the local community and providing him with a means to analyze his reactions to different ways of life, social patterns, and values.

Again, Study-Services as such are not a panacea for the limitations of higher education or the ills of a society. Only if the "HOW" of the service is executed along the lines indicated can Study-Services become a vehicle for change that will solve some of the problems of development.

SOCIAL AND TECHNICAL DEVELOPMENT SERVICES 6

As the term implies, people involved in Social and Technical Development Services (STD Services), the third category of the Domestic group, perform in social and technical development work. They provide such assistance because their educational backgrounds and skills qualify them for the required duties. In the mandate given, and in the capabilities expected of the personnel, STD Services are similar to Foreign Volunteer Services. The main difference is that their volunteers serve at home, whereas the latter serve in a foreign country.

This Chapter reviews in depth Social and Technical Development Services in Canada*, Indonesia, Kenya, Thailand, United Kingdom, and the United States. Table 1 lists the organizations evaluated here. They include the services by university graduates, the elderly, businessmen and women, villagers, community leaders, and nationals whose education stems from the experiences of life rather than from formal schooling. The individual Social and Technical Development Services are described in Volume II, Compendia Nos. 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 19, 20, and 20/2.

WHY SOCIAL AND TECHNICAL DEVELOPMENT SERVICES?

As with other categories, a combination of various reasons caused the establishment of these services.

Lack of Skilled Manpower, Unemployment and Underinvolvement.

Imbalances in the employment structure have been—and are still—occurring in developing countries as a result of the limitations in the education system, as was discussed earlier. Insufficient numbers of qualified professionals and technically skilled people were—and are—serving rural areas, while—at the same time—unemployment of university graduates in the cities was increasing. More recently a lack of professional help is also reported for the increasing number of underprivileged in urban slum areas. For example when BUTSI was established in Indonesia in 1968, there were more than 6,000 unemployed university graduates in Jakarta alone, and the number was rapidly increasing. Similar situations prevailed in most countries.

*While this report was written the Canadian Parliament decided to dissolve the Company of Young Candians by the end of the Budget Year on March 31, 1976. Lack of government funds were reported as the reason for termination.

There were two major reasons for the unemployment of professionals in the cities:

1. They were unemployable because their fields of study and their theory-oriented education did not give them the knowledge and practical skills that were actually needed. There were too many lawyers, art graduates, and not enough engineers, nurses, social workers, agriculturists, etc.

2. The tradition and social status attached to employment in cities, the "white collar syndrome," left only "the failures" to seek employment in remote areas.

These two factors, together with the limited amount of trained and educated manpower available to start with resulted, in most developing countries, in a significant shortage of professional services in rural areas. Local communities especially lacked teachers, agricultural advisors, community development organizers to take advantage of national development programs, the health and nutritional services and others which would improve the rural infrastructure.

Thailand's Volunteer Leaders for Community Development (VLCD) cited another reason, in addition to unemployment or underemployment, for the establishment of the service: the idle people in the communities.

"• *In villages today—even though there may be various organizations both public and private involving people according to their interests—there are a great number of idle people who do not concern themselves with any group working for the common good; it is regrettable to see this waste of energy and capability;*

- *The idea of community development is to form a community-based force and apply it to the development of the very community. If all these forces would be left idle it would be a great loss to the community and the country;*

- *If then opportunities are offered to the people to unite in helping themselves for their common good it will lead not only to progress in the local community but to the country as a whole;*

- *In addition, these self-help forces will help to develop the mind, teach people to sacrifice for the common good, protect and relieve hardships in emergency and natural disasters and build local progress."*

Hence, VLCD responds not to the unemployment of the educated but to that of the villagers themselves—whether or not they are formally educated.

In industrialized countries, the **lack of social service manpower**, the needs for care of the sick, the handicapped, the underprivileged, offenders, and those lost in poverty, was a major cause for the establishment of Social and Technical Development Services. Often called "Community Services," they responded to help cure the ills created by industrial mass-societies.

Thus, whether in developing or industrialized countries, these services are a response to **employment problems**, helping to solve them in their special way.

But not only societal problems caused the founders of these services to act. The importance they gave to these problems and their determination to change the situations that created

them, were a strong force in the establishment of their STD Services. In short, it was a question of values and priorities. The underlying philosophy, ethic or political program, played a significant role in the initiation of these services—whether it was revival of the "Spirit of gotong-royong" (tradition of cooperation and mutual assistance in villages) in Indonesia, or the concept of voluntary service as an expression of a democratic way of life in Canada, the UK and the USA.

Along this line, in the United States the ACTION agency addresses the problem of **involvement opportunities** for all population groups:

> *"America is a nation unique in the political history of the world. More than any other nation, it is the sum of the energies and efforts of all its people. The American tradition of voluntary involvement—of freely committing one's time and talents in the search for civic improvement and social progress—gives an extra dimension to the meaning of democracy."*

And:

> *"We cannot afford to misuse or ignore the considerable talents and energies of our people. In the coming years, the continued progress of our society is going to depend increasingly upon the willingness of more Americans to participate in voluntary service and upon our ability to channel their service effectively." (from the President's message to the US Congress of March 24, 1971).*

In the United Kingdom, the Community Service Volunteers, speak about *"the right to serve"* by every citizen.

In industrialized countries, the ever increasing number of retired people require special attention and new involvement opportunities. Since the 1960's the retirement age has been constantly reduced, while at the same time life expectancy is increasing. For many, this leaves a period of 15-20 years available for useful employment and involvement—but with no outlet for useful activity. I believe that STD Services have a special obligation to make use of this manpower and create involvement opportunities. They can take over functions in many social services which now overburden local and federal governmental programs and thus bring them back into the hands of community members. With the exception of the US and some efforts in the UK, most industrialized countries have not yet responded to this cause.

Nation-building and Self-reliance

In developing countries, the societal problems are aggravated by the need to build one self-reliant nation. This is a recurrent theme for all Domestic Development Services. The need to bridge cultural, educational, geographical gaps and bring that necessary outside impulse to the closed-in local communities was very instrumental in establishing STD Services.

For example, in Indonesia 83% of the population lives in remote rural areas on the more than 30,000 islands in about 56,000 villages which are still administered in the traditional honorary form by the village head. All too often these villages were not reached, and did not participate either in their own nor in the national development effort. People were needed to bridge these gaps, to reach and involve the population. Thus BUTSI, the Indonesian STD Service, was created to do just that.

As pointed out earlier, Nation-building requires not only learning how to communicate across tribal or sub-cultural borders, learning how to change attitudes and respect others, but also learning how to develop new priorities, values and traditions. Achieving that through work/service in local communities is probably one of the most realistic, most daring and most rewarding attempts. The need to **change attitudes** and to **develop new values** was described in detail in Chapter 4 (Training and Employment Schemes). It is a common theme for all Development Services.

In summary, the internal reasons for the creation of Social and Technical Development Services are:

- re-training and job-entry training of the educated through work/service for development of technical, managerial and problem solving skills;
- providing much needed professional services in rural and urban areas, and to provide involvement opportunities for those who are unemployed, or are idle;
- learning to contribute to the betterment of people and gain satisfaction from it; to communicate across cultural, educational and social status borderlines and thus change attitudes toward each other.

International Trends Establishing Development Services

There is no doubt that the creation of Social and Technical Development Services in both developing and industrialized countries after World War II was influenced by the workcamp movement, church world services, the various youth and adult services in Israel, and the creation of Voluntary Service Overseas (VSO) in the UK and the Peace Corps in the USA. The International Conference on "Volunteer Middle Level Manpower," held in October 1962, in Puerto Rico which resulted in the creation of the International Secretariat for Volunteer Service (ISVS), was instrumental in initiating discussions in various countries regarding the desirability of service by educated people at home. The Arsa Pattana movement in Thailand, BUTSI in Indonesia through ISVS, the Kenya Voluntary Development Association through ecumenical work-camps, the Panama National Volunteer Service through the Peace Corps, the Costa Rica National Youth Movement through the Israeli Jadna Youth Corps and the Community Service Volunteers through VSO in the UK then were established.

To be sure, the general international trends of these volunteer service ideas never would have resulted in actual implementation if the earlier described causes, and the service traditions of the countries themselves, had not provided the unique national basis demanding action. This association with the international trend for Development Services—and this is true for all categories covered in this study—represents a belonging to a "family of organizations" of a specific nature. Their interrelationships by concept, design and cooperation transcend national borders.

WHAT OBJECTIVES?

The review of the objectives of Social and Technical Development Services confirms that they have similar aims, and respond to the development needs especially of rural communities to assist them in self-help projects.

The **Rural Development Volunteers Program in Thailand** stated its objectives (of 1965):

"1. *To provide the opportunities for the volunteers to help the villagers in developing local leadership and expanding their public facilities.*

2. *To develop manpower resources which will be useful in the future development of the country.*

3. *To enable the volunteers to increase their knowledge of their country and gain experience in economics and public administration by working in rural villages.*

4. *To promote better understanding between villages and the government."*

In a similar approach, with objectives defined in 1962, the **Kenya Voluntary Development Association** (KVDA):

"• *Aims at bringing people together from various Districts, racial groups and educational backgrounds to bridge the gaps between them;*

• *Brings young and old people together in voluntary development camps from different parts of Kenya or from abroad to accomplish concrete tasks in a specific community;*

• *Endeavors to keep volunteering within the African context by basing volunteer services on traditional African volunteer concepts;*

• *Encourages every member of the society to take part and to show deep concern in every national or international effort or scheme designed to improve the lives of the less fortunate members of society."*

From an industrialized country, the **Community Service Volunteers** in the **United Kingdom**, stressed its objectives in 1962:

"a) *to provide further education for young men and women by encouraging and enabling them to undertake voluntary work in education, social service or similar activities in various parts of the world and in particular in the United Kingdom;*

b) *to give publicity to and to recruit for any similar programme in other countries and to receive volunteers from them;*

c) *by participation in such activities, to enable young people to relate the Christian Gospel to the needs of the community."*

A more recent example (1973) from an industrialized country are the objectives defined by **ACTION, USA**, for its various types of domestic STD Services (according to the Domestic Volunteer Service Act, Section 101):

> *". . . to strengthen and supplement efforts to eliminate proverty-related human, social and environmental problems in the U.S.*
>
> - *by encouraging and enabling persons from all walks of life and all age groups, including elderly and retired Americans,*
> - *to perform meaningful and constructive volunteer service in agencies, institutions, and situations where the application of human talent and dedication may assist in the solution of poverty and poverty-related problems, and*
> - *secure and exploit opportunities for self-advancement by persons afflicted with such problems."*

In sum, all Social and Technical Development Services have these objectives in common:

1. To engage volunteers in community development service by working with local agencies, extending governmental development programs to local communities and providing much needed social, health and technical services
2. To involve local citizens in activities for their self advancement
3. To provide a learning experience through work/service to the volunteer for his personal gain and satisfaction, and so that eventually he becomes a part of employable, educated manpower.

Some services in this category have additional objectives:

4. Service in foreign countries or inclusion of volunteers from foreign countries is an aim of BUTSI/Indonesia, KVDA/Kenya, and CSV/United Kingdom.
5. While most services address the young, the domestic program of ACTION/USA mentions specifically the objective of opening up service opportunities for the elderly.

In general, the objectives of STD Services are couched in broad terms which permit shifting of emphasis and modifications as needs change, without violating the legislation or decrees which established the Service. But, as planning for individual programs gets underway, specific targets require definement - otherwise no effective "management for results" would be possible. This interrelationship of overall organizational objectives and specific program targets receives further attention when the various program tasks are evaluated.

PROGRAM ACTIVITIES

Diagram 2 conveys the analysis of the Program Activities of Social and Technical Development Services. Like others, they have two main sections: Program Inputs and Tasks.

Program Inputs

The Inputs into STD Services indicate both their abilities and limitations to fulfill their mandate, achieve their objectives, and solve some of the societal problems which caused their creation. Inputs include:

1. Legislation, Supervision and Leadership
2. The Background of Volunteers and the Participation of Women
3. Staff
4. Organization and Management
5. Costs and Funds

Table 40 reviews the Program Inputs.

TABLE 40. PROGRAM INPUTS OF STD SERVICES

Organizations	Establishment Legislation	VOLUNTEERS Number 1973	Total since established	Age Range Years	Educational Background	Costs per Volunteer Man-Year 1973 U.S. $ (a)
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
KENYA: Voluntary Development Association (KVDA)	1960 movement by National Christian Council and Quakers; 1962 Charter, non profit, non-denominational	435 (including foreign volunteers & females)	3,112	Majority school age; no upper age limit	High School, Secondary and lower tertiary education	n.a.; Room, board and project materials provided by local communities
INDONESIA: Badan Urusan Tenaga Kerdja Sukarela Indonesia (BUTSI)	1968 by Ministerial Order No. 99/Kpts/68 of Ministry of Manpower, Jakarta	1973: 500 (421 male, 79 female); 1974: 770	976 (as of 1974)	22-30. 294 volunteers; above 30: 56 volunteers	1974. 650 volunteers with bachelors degree; 100 volunteers with masters degree	1973: $401.- (b)
THAILAND: Arsa Pattana: Rural Development Volunteer Program (RDVP)	1965 by Cabinet Resolution in the Community Development Department, Ministry of Interior	67 (47 male, 20 female)	224	21-25	Bachelor or masters degree or equivalent technical school, 3 years study after high school; mostly agricultural/technical education	1973: $920.- (c)
Arsa Pattana: Youth Development Volunteer Project (YDVP)	1966 by Resolution of Council of Ministries in C.D. Department, Ministry of Interior	215 (110 male, 105 female)	310	18-25	Completion of secondary education or equivalent	1973: $360.- (average) (d)
Arsa Pattana: Volunteer Leaders for Community Development (VLCD)	1972 by Regulation of Ministry of Interior in the Community Development Department	1974: 288	n.a.	21-45	Minimum 4th grade primary school, ability to read and write well	1974: $250.- (Average) (e)
PANAMA: Servicio Nacional De Voluntarios (SNV) –Professional Volunteers branch	1967 via Presidential Decree; Decreto de Cabinete No. 105	1971: 80	n.a.	16-27	Completed Post-Secondary or University education	1969: $606.- (f)

CANADA: Company of Young Canadians (CYC)	1966-69 by "An act to provide for the establishment of the Company of Young Canadians," Chapter 26, Public Service	1973-74: 315 (189 male, 126 female, 110 with dependents)	n.a.	18-28: 81% 29-62: 62%	Primary Ed.: 5.3% Secondary Ed.: 59.4% University Ed.: 35.3%	1973-74: CDN $9,181.- (g)
UNITED KINGDOM: Community Service Volunteers (CSV)	1962 invorporated as a charity organization by Charity Commission	25,000 (751 volunteer man-years)	n.a.	16-22	Majority completed High School; 20% handicapped; 25% police cadets	1973: $5,261.- (h)
USA: ACTION: Domestic Operations: 1. Volunteers in Service to America (VISTA)	1964: Economic opportunity Act, Title VIII; 1971 transferred to ACTION via Executive Order of Presidents; 1973: Domestic Volunteer Service Act (P.L. 93-113 Section 603)	4,398 (1,733 male, 2,665 female)	n.a.	18-21: 9.9% 22-24: 38.3% 25-34: 28.3% 35-44: 8.1% 45-64: 10.0% 65 + : 5.4%	High School: 26.4% Attended College: 17.8% Graduates: 55.8%	1976: $6,758.- (i)
2. Cooperative Volunteer Program (ACVP)	1974: Special Program, Title I Part C of Domestic Volunteer Service Act	1974: 224	n.a.	Similar to VISTA	Similar to VISTA	1974: $4,000.- (j)
3. Retired Senior Volunteer Program (RSVP) Foster Grand Parents (FGP) and Senior Companions (SCP)	1965 by Older Americans Act; 1971 transferred to ACTION via Executive Order of President; 1973: Title II of Domestic Volunteer Service Act	1974: 116,971 12,676 799	n.a.	60 and over 60 + 60 +	Retired Low Income	1974: $326.- (k)
4. Service Corps of Retired Executives (SCORE) – Active Corps of Executives (ACE)	1964: Economic Opportunity Act & Small Business Act; 1976 Presidential Executive Order; 1973: Title III of Domestic Volunteer Services Act	1974: 5,220 2,523	n.a. n.a.	Retired n.a.	Business experience	1974: $26.60 (l)

Explanations for Table 40:

a) Total costs of service per volunteer serving one full year

b) Including portion of administrative overhead per volunteer man-year

c) Average costs for volunteer support, consisting of:

Payments to volunteers per year	$675.--
Resettlement allowance paid after 1 year of service	$245.--
	$920.--

d) Average costs for volunteer support, consisting of monthly payments:

Living allowance	$24.50
Travel allowance not to exceed	$ 5.--
Total monthly	$29.50

e) Volunteers are expected to live at home and support themselves; annual average costs per volunteer:

Training, health care	$200.--
Reward after 1 year of satisfactory service	$ 50.--
	$250.--

f) Average costs per volunteer man-year for all three branches of SNV's combined service.

g) Including administrative overhead and remuneration to Council Members

h) Including administrative overhead for overall service

i) Costs per volunteer man-year, including ACTION administrative share

j) Calculated costs of direct volunteer support per year incurred by ACTION and reimbursed by the sponsoring local community organization which actually pays for the costs of the assigned volunteer (cost sharing)

k) Average costs per older American volunteer incurred by ACTION including grants to local community organizations to cover meals, health care, accident insurance, annual physical examination, and reimbursed transportation and out-of-pocket expenses to older volunteers; costs exclude ACTION cost share for program support.

l) Average costs per volunteer per year for out-of-pocket and transportation expenses, without cost share for overall ACTION program support.

1. Legislation, Supervision, and Leadership

Social and Technical Development Services derive their legal basis and consequent authority from three major sources:

- the legislative branch of government (Canada, USA)
- the executive branch via presidential or ministerial decrees (Indonesia, Thailand, Panama)
- civil codes that allow for non-governmental, non-profit, social or educational organizations (Kenya, United Kingdom).

STD Services—on a world wide basis—comprise a stronger voluntary and non-governmental effort, in comparison with the earlier described Training and Employment Schemes and Study-Services. This is not surprising since the voluntary commitment—the participation expressed by a free will to serve for others—requires a capability to analyze the alternatives of available choices and make a personal decision.

The authority in Social and Technical Development Services is delegated to membership bodies (if applicable), the supervising bodies, the Directors' leadership and, in a number of cases, to the volunteers themselves who participate in elections and policy and management decision. When the legislation permits the delegation of authority to the volunteers themselves, the Service becomes an organization of volunteers rather than for them—an indication, of course, of a high degree of participatory democratic structure. Table 41 displays the delegation of authority for the Social and Technical Development Services that are under evaluation.

One aspect of the delegation of authority is immediately apparent, only the non-governmental services of Kenya and the United Kingdom include the volunteers themselves and allow them to participate in policy decisions, elections, and supervisory functions. These certainly constitute services of volunteers rather than for them.

Interestingly enough, only the Canadian CYC and the UK/CSV have a membership structure with volunteers making up the main body of members. The governmental CYC does not provide a role for volunteer members in functions that derive from legislative authority. In contrast, CSV in the United Kingdom places authority on its volunteer members, including the election of the supervisory General Committee.

In all other cases, STD Services maintain their authority through supervisory bodies and their appointed executives.

The leadership functions bestowed upon the chief executives are similar among Social and Technical Development Services. They always include the direction of the overall operation of the services, the hiring of staff (except for those appointed), and fund raising. In addition, in taking up the earlier needs for involvement opportunities for all population groups, ACTION/USA requests the Director (Section 410 of the Domestic Volunteer Service Act of 1973): *". . . to coordinate with other community action programs and related Federal, State and local programs . . . encouraging greater use of volunteer services in those programs."* Most of the Executive Directors are appointed and are ex officio members of their supervisory or advisory councils.

TABLE 41 AUTHORITY IN STD SERVICES

Organizations	Functions of Authority			Volunteer Participation in Decision-Making
	Supervisory	Advisory	Executive Leadership	
1	2	3	4	5
KENYA: Voluntary Development Association	Executive Board (20 members, serve voluntarily as staff	–	One Director, only full-time paid executive	Establishing rules and regulations for work program jointly with villagers
INDONESIA: BUTSI	Board of 20 members, Minister of Manpower, Chairman; other governmental Departments are members	–	Director is also official of Ministry of Manpower & Ministry of Education; appointed by Minister of Manpower	–
THAILAND: Arsa Pattana –Rural Development Volunteers (RDVP) –Youth Development Volunteers (YDVP) –Volunteer Leaders for Community Development (VLCD)	Rural Development Volunteers Directing Committee, appointed by Cabinet; Chairman: Deputy Minister of Interior; Members are various governmental Ministries	–	Director General, Community Development Department; Chief, Office of Rural Development Volunteers	–
PANAMA: National Volunteer Service (SNV)	1. Governing Board (Patronato) 2. Junta Directiva (Exec. Committee) President: Minister of Agriculture, Commerce and Industry; Members: other Ministries and Churches	–	Technical Director, Direccion General para el Desarollo de la Comunidad (DIGEDECOM)	–

CANADA: Company of Young Canadians (CYC)	Council, appointed by Governor General in Council; Secretary of State (in charge of internal affairs is designated authority for supervision	–	One Director, appointed by the Secretary of State	–
UNITED KINGDOM: Community Service Volunteers (CSV)	General Committee elected at Annual General Meeting of Volunteer-Members; 14 persons, of which 9 are former volunteers	Advisory Council of 16 appointed public personalities who act as patrons of CSV	–Honorary Director (without remuneration); –Executive Director both appointed by General Committee	–Members of CSV: Annual General Meeting; –Election of General Committee –9 former volunteers sit on General Committee
USA: ACTION, Domestic Services	–U.S. Congress –Comptroller General of the U.S.	National Voluntary Advisory Council: 22 appointed members, private citizens	–Director of ACTION –Associate Director of Domestic & Anti-Poverty Operations –Deputy Associate Directors for VISTA, SCORE/ACE and Older Americans Programs	–

In a small sample of ten structured interviews, the question was raised: *"In your judgement, which factors are most important for a successful leadership of the director?"* (see Appendix A.-4, Card No. 6). Responses are related to services in developing and industrialized countries and give priority to the factors shown in Table 42:

TABLE 42. FACTORS FOR LEADERSHIP SUCCESS

Social and Technical Development Services in: Developing Countries: National Responses Priorities	Developing Countries: Foreign Responses Priorities	Industrialized Countries: National Responses Only Priorities
1. Administrative/managerial proficiency	1. Emphasis on program implementation, field work	1. —Administrative/managerial proficiency —Participation of staff/volunteers in decision-making, partnership style
2. —Participation of staff/volunteers in decision-making, partnership style —Emphasis on cooperation with other institutions	2. —Administrative/managerial proficiency —Strong backing from supervising governmental agency or Board —Emphasis on objectives, philosophy, concept of service —Flexibility to adjust policy & programs to changing needs	2. —Flexibility to adjust policy and programs to changing needs —Emphasis on cooperation with other institutions
3. Understanding of people with different backgrounds and culture	3. —Understanding of people with different background and culture —Emphasis on cooperation with other institutions	3. Emphasis on objectives, philosophy, concept of service
4. —Technical/professional proficiency —Strong backing of supervising governmental agency or Board —Emphasis on objectives, philosophy, concept of service		

Listing of more than one factor indicates equal level of priority under any one number.

Out of a choice of fourteen factors the "insiders" (nationals) in STD Services, in developing and industrialized countries alike, gave a surprisingly similar ranking of priority factors affecting the success of leadership. The high priority given by both groups to *"staff and volunteer participation in decision-making, partnership style,"* is of special interest because the replies in developing countries come from governmental services, whereas those from industrial countries refer to non-governmental programs. The foreigners—foreign assistance experts who are knowledgeable of Domestic Development Services—differ in their priority ranking. As outsiders, they perceive leadership factors in a more technical/organizational sense. The partnership style, staff/volunteer participation in decision-making, does not impress foreigners as affecting the leadership success of the director. While the replies come from a small sample, they nevertheless indicate that leadership, irrespective of whether the Service operates in a developing or industrialized country, or is governmental or non-governmental, is perceived similarly by the knowledgeable insiders. In contrast, the technical assistance outsiders emphasize leadership conditions that are important from a technical assistance aspect.

In related questions: *"In your opinion, what are the major achievements of the director?"* and *"What do you consider the major problem areas for directing this service successfully?"* the respondents (sample 10) gave the following priorities:

Major Achievements of Directors in STD Services

In Developing Countries		In Industrialized Countries
Opinions of Nationals	Opinions of Foreigners	Opinions of Nationals
- Established organization	– Proper use of volunteers	– Established organization
- Innovative, established new programs & policies	– Decentralization of service	– Creative, new approaches for volunteer service
- Educational impact on superiors, staff & volunteers	– Self-help mobilization	– Receptive to ideas of others
- Leadership in very human, cordial way	– Inspires volunteers to work at grass roots	– Practical, down to earth
- Linkage to follow-up employment	– A wise politician, "sells" organization well	– Callousness, knows how to "sell" organization

Opinions among nationals and foreigners in both developing and industrialized countries concerning the major achievements of directors and problems in directing the service show no specific pattern. Rather, they seem to reflect individual experiences. All groups of respondents agree that "selling" the service idea to supervisors, governmental agencies and the general public is of great importance for both governmental and non-governmental programs. As expected, the non-governmental services list fund raising as a major problem area.

Finally, opinions from all respondents indicate that the cooperation between the directors and the supervising agencies or boards is satisfactory.

Major Problem Areas in Directing STD Services

In Developing Countries		In Industrialized Countries
Opinions of Nationals	Opinions of Foreigners	Opinions of Nationals
– Development of permanent staff (current staff on loan from other departments)	– Administration of Headquarters	– Fund raising, "Selling" the service
– Political problem of pushing quantity of volunteers rather than quality of service	– Fast expansion in size of services	– Independence from government influences
– Communicate the socio-cultural importance of the service, in contrast to technical advantages, to superiors and public	– Low pay for civil servants, therefore no staff	– Overidentification with service, paternalism
	– Political problems arising from using service for indoctrination, resulted in closing of program	– Cooperation with other volunteer organizations
	– Centralistic management approach, not enough partnership and decentralization	

2. Background of Volunteers and Women's Participation

Table 40, columns 3-6, sets forth the numbers and background of volunteers participating in Social and Technical Development Services.

The **number of volunteers** reflects to some extent the attraction the service was able to transmit to the public, since all participate on the basis of voluntary application and commitment. The number of volunteers also reflects limitations in funding that restrict expansion. Judging from the date of establishment, and some evaluation materials, BUTSI in Indonesia and the Volunteer Leaders for Community Development in Thailand are still in a stage of building up the organization and expansion. Indonesia had planned to field 4,000 volunteers by 1976. All other STD Services seem to have reached their full strength, considering their current organizational structure, management and funding. Compared to the original reasons for the establishment of the service and the resulting objectives, the impact of most of them is limited. Only BUTSI in Indonesia and ACTION in the USA involve enough volunteers to reach out to large portions of the population.

There is little difference in the **age range** of volunteers in STD Services, which for the most part involve young adults. Only three services designedly employ older citizens: Arsa Pattana: Volunteer Leaders for Community Development in Thailand; Company of Young Canadians in Canada; and the Older American and Retired Executive Programs of ACTION in the USA. This involvement of older citizens in community service as a deliberate effort constitutes an area which deserves more attention, and its importance will increase in the future. In developing countries, the majority of older citizens are, of course, less formally educated, and even illiterate, but they represent a vast resource of life experience, and as experientially learned, should be provided with opportunities to participate in development. Excluding them means wasting valuable human effort and manpower. This applies also to industrialized countries, but for reasons of early retirement age, as was explained earlier.

The **educational background** of volunteers obtained "formally" or "nonformally," provides the backbone for the capabilities of Social and Technical Development Services. In principle, the educational requirements abide by three principles:

- Completed post-secondary or tertiary education: BUTSI/Indonesia, Rural Development Volunteer Program/Thailand, National Volunteer Service/ Panama.

- High School, secondary or university education: Voluntary Development Association/Kenya, Youth Development Volunteer Project/Thailand, Community Service Volunteers/U.K., VISTA and Cooperative Volunteer Program/ACTION/USA.

- Primary school/literacy or no formal educational requirement but life experience: Volunteer Leaders for Community Development/Thailand, Company of Young Canadians/Canada, Older American and Business Service Programs/ ACTION/USA.

The Community Service Volunteers (CSV) in the U.K. add one specific feature concerning the background requirements of volunteers: they deliberately include the handicapped and juvenile delinquent in community service. The participation of volunteers from these "outsider" groups of society is the result of the major principle of CSV that *"everybody who applies has a right to serve."*

Finally, and most importantly, it is the dedication and attitude of the individual which makes the "volunteer input" so important. As the BUTSI, Indonesia, Article 1 of the Order of Establishment describes it:

> *"What is meant by volunteer manpower that is to be mobilized by the INDONESIAN VOLUNTEER SERVICE is a person who possesses education/expertise which is needed for social/economic development, and who has a strong sense of service (dedication and devotion) which will enable him to become a pioneer in social renovation and construction and who possesses a working relation that is of temporary nature."*

Participation of Women

In principle, the higher the formal education of volunteers the more the cultural barriers are removed to the participation of women in Social and Technical Development Services. This is the reason why most STD Services report equal or nearly equal strength for female volunteers (See Table 40, column 3).

Fewer female participants are reported only from special technical services (Rural Development Volunteer Program, Thailand) or where local cultural traditions play a restrictive role (Volunteer Leaders for Community Development, Thailand).

A higher portion of women's participation is reported from STD programs which have a heavy emphasis on health, child care, education (VISTA, Older American Programs/ACTION, USA).

In general, no STD Service reports restrictions on the participation of women in any field of work. Markedly, in developing countries female volunteers enjoy the opportunity to be employed in roles that are not traditionally opened to women.

3. Staff

As in the other categories of Domestic Development Services, adequate staffing is a major concern for STD Services in developing countries, as is indicated in Table 43.

TABLE 43. STAFF IN STD SERVICES

Organization	Headquarters	Field	Total	Staff Background	Staff : Volunteer Ratio
KENYA: Voluntary Development Association	1 full time (Director) 20 part time	(a)	1 +20	n.a.	1 : 39.5[b]
INDONESIA: BUTSI	n.a.	n.a.	115 (3 women)	Majority have master degrees and are former BUTSI volunteers (hired as civil servants by Ministry of Manpower)	1 : 6.7
THAILAND: Arsa Pattana: –Rural Development Volunteers Program –Youth Development Volunteer Project –Volunteer Leaders for Community Development	17 (full time)	80[c] (part-time)	17 +80	Bachelor's or Master's degree or 13 years secondary technical education; Fields: Social science, humanities, social work, agriculture, engineering, craftsmanship	1 : 15.4[d]
PANAMA: National Volunteer Service	7 (full time)	166 (part-time)	7[e] +166	n.a. Headquarters staff are civil servants at DIGEDECOM; Field staff are community development workers of DIGEDECOM, Department of Agriculture, etc.	n.a.
CANADA: Company of Young Canadians	42	58	100	Staff are government employees of various backgrounds; majority have volunteer experience	1 : 3.2

UNITED KINGDOM Community Service Volunteers	39 (full time) 3 (part-time)	(f) 4	43 (34 women) + 3	Secondary education bachelor's degrees; 1 master's degree; most are former volunteers 1 professor, 3 registry clerks	1 : 17.5
USA: ACTION Domestic Operations	(g) 126 officers (46 women) 618 support staff	167(h)	911	Majority are university graduates (bachelor's degrees, some master's degrees); about 30% are former volunteers	1 : 93.2(i)

Explanations for Table 43:

a) Field supervision of volunteers is in the hands of the villagers they serve.

b) 20 part-time staff are the board members who help operate the program during short-term service periods (2-3 weeks). It is estimated that they spend 50% of their time for KVDA during this period.

c) Provincial and district community development officials supervise the work program of all three services carried out by the Community Development Department.

d) It is estimated that about 25% of the time of the community development officials in the field is spent with all three services.

e) Staff is reported only for the overall combined National Volunteer Service and not separately for the STD Service branch. Also civil servants from various governmental agencies are involved in field supervision on a part time basis. Therefore, an estimate of the Staff:Volunteer Ratio is not possible.

f) CSV maintains only a small full-time staff in four regional offices: Scotland, Northern Ireland, Leeds and Oldham. Volunteer part-time staff supports the regional offices but is not accounted for in this listing. There is no staff for supervision of volunteers during work programs, which is the responsibility of project agencies and community organizations.

g) Staff listed concerns overall domestic operation of ACTION, including the University Year for ACTION and the central administrative staff which also manages Peace Corps. 126 officers have executive positions, whereas 618 have supporting administrative and secretarial assignments.

h) 167 staff members are assigned to ACTION offices in 10 regions and 41 States (sub-regional offices).

i) Staff:Volunteer Ratio for overall ACTION operations, including Peace Corps. Ratio is based only on full-time staff employed by ACTION and does not include the staff members of the many community organizations who supervise ACTION volunteers in the field. Inclusion of this staff would, of course, reduce the ratio considerably.

The most outstanding feature of the staffing pattern of Social and Technical Development Services is the fact that they can draw on their educated volunteers after they complete their service. Thus they have a distinct advantage over the Training and Employment Schemes and the Study-Services which are handicapped by staff resources. Perhaps other Domestic Development Services in developing countries could alleviate their staffing problems by adopting the STD Services' use of experienced volunteers as staff members.

The Staff:Volunteer Ratio is not immediately comparable from service to service as the explanations have indicated. It is dependent upon the number of volunteeers and staff serving, and therefore is an indication of the effective management of a service. Low ratio is due to overstaffing, or to specific features in work programs and field conditons, for example CYC in Canada (see Volume II, Compendium No. 16) and BUTSI, Indonesia (Compendium No. 12). The higher Staff:Volunteer Ratio for STD Services has two reasons:

- Field staff seconded from other governmental agencies: Thailand and Panama
- Field staff supplied by local communities: Kenya, UK and USA.

In answers to the question: *"Why have staff joined this Service?"* the three groups of respondents (sample 10) listed the following reasons:

STD Services in:		
Developing Countries		Industrialized Countries
Opinions of Nationals	Opinions of Foreigners	Opinions of Nationals
1. Civil service assignments; had no choice	1. Unemployment	1. Interest in young people and community development
2. Dedication for volunteer idea	2. Assigned as career professionals (civil service)	2. Concept of service to not reject applicants
3. Positive experience as volunteers	3. Challenged by service idea; for personal development	3. Misconception that there is more freedom in NGO organizations and that one is more likely to achieve what one wants to achieve

These replies indicate that Social and Technical Development Services in developing countries—even though they increasingly draw their own staff pool from former volunteers—are still largely dependent upon routine civil service assignments. This situation is not considered ideal—especially if staff is available from the services' own resources. Another problem that hinders adequate staffing is the low remuneration for staff positions which for governmental services are tied to the civil service pay scale. Nevertheless, with more former volunteers entering the civil service at large—as is the case in Indonesia—the staffing situation for those services will improve.

Finally, the reasons given for staff joining a service in industrialized countries indicate a strong interest in the principles these services pursue and the independence NGO's seem to have. However, in retrospect, some questioned those reasons; they became disappointed when ideals clashed with the reality of day-to-day organizational operations.

Most respondents reported that the **quality of staff** is sufficient. Those who recorded staff quality "**with modification**" (40%) indicated the following areas which need improvement for services in developing countries:

- Administration; knowledge of governmental procedures and regulations (public administration)
- Field support and supervision of volunteers; better team leaders who can face up to local bureaucracies;
- Programming for different project areas (agriculture, health and nutrition, community development, etc.)
- Liaison and coordination with other agencies which work in the same communities and compete.

Suggestions for staffing improvement in industrialized countries included:

- Reduction of high turnover to improve continuum of staff performance and maintainence of knowledge of organizational experience
- Improvement of job specification and structure; "diffuse" responsibilities
- Better knowledge of and contracts with project institutions and agencies to improve placement and support of volunteers.

A large percentage of respondents (70%) felt that the **quantity of staff** was insufficient for effective performance:

- No permanent service staff; so far only assignments of civil servants from other governmental departments
- Fast expansion of service
- No professional staff for special project development and support.

The reasons for insufficiency of STD staff in industrialized countries included:

- Too many project areas require staff to do too many things at the same time
- Too many volunteers (70-100) for staff member to look after.

These opinions from interviews indicate that no principal difference in quality or quantity of staff results from the fact that the Social and Technical Development Service operates in either a developing or industrialized country, but rather that staff quality and quantity are affected by continuity of funding and the stage of the overall development (institutionalization) of the organization.

To the question as to HOW the staff of STD Services could be improved the only suggestion was that staff be trained. This is a surprise, since other evaluation materials indicate that the lack of adequate career provisions is a major bottleneck for the development of a satisfactory staffing pattern. As far as training is concerned, the services in Indonesia, Thailand, Panama, Canada and the US report the following staff preparation or in-service-training:

Indonesia: (BUTSI)	In-house staff training, starting with foreign expert tutelage; participation in international staff training seminars
Thailand: (Arsa Pattana)	Participation in international seminars
Panama: (SNV)	Participation in international staff seminars
Canada: (CYC)	3-4 days for every 3 months assignment are set aside for staff training; staff receives $500.-- per person per year for training at any institution and in any field relevant to the assignment
USA: (ACTION)	In-house staff training

From these responses and other evaluation materials, it is clear that international (regional or sub-regional) training seminars are employed as an important measure to improve the quality of staff in STD Services in developing countries. Most services do not employ selection or training procedure for staff with the same care they use for volunteers.

Finally, the development of **adequate career provisions** is a crucial aspect for improvement and continuity of staff. The service assignment must be linked to the personal career of an individual staff member, including opportunities for promotion, attainment of pension and other social benefits. If this is not achieved, employment in an STD Service will always remain a second choice for the qualified professionals, as was the case for Training and Employment Schemes. Here, Study-Services are better off since career provisions for faculty are part of the university structure.

As to **foreign staff participation** in Social and Technical Development Services, only four organizations report foreign staff involvement either on a long-term (2 years) or shorter term (4 weeks up to 6 months) basis: BUTSI in Indonesia, the National Volunteer Service in Panama, Company of Young Canadians,and the Community Service Volunteers in the UK In interviews, the **role of foreign staff** was described by respondents in both developing and industrialized countries as:

- Challenger role, no boss
- Any regular assignment, equal work load to national staff
- No special position, under nation/local guidance in clearly defined jobs, no superior role

- Special technical contribution as teachers/trainers, programming assistants
- "Impartial evaluators," research, monitoring, feedback
- Generator of new ideas, transfer and exchange of experience.

Problem areas of foreign staff assignments were indicated as:

- Misunderstanding of their role; this applied to both the foreigners and their national counterparts
- Lack of imagination, qualifications
- Unable to understand a different society and culture and to adjust to it
- Language limitations, reducing level of communications, "difficult to get in line"
- Domination of advisory role, "bossy."

While listings indicate that foreigners are more suitable than nationals for certain roles, in developing as well as industrialized countries, it is clear that there is no longer a place for a special or superior foreign role. Knowledge of and understanding for the host's society and language are required, as well as a deep seated sense of equality with the people the foreigner is serving.

Finally, the question was raised in interviews: *"In your judgment, which factors are most important to the success of both national and foreign staff assignments?"* The three groups of respondents (sample 10) gave third or better priority to the factors listed in Tables 44 and 45.

TABLE 44. FACTORS FOR NATIONAL STAFF SUCCESS

Social and Technical Development Services in: Developing Countries		Industrialized Countries
Nationals' Opinions	Foreigners' Opinions	Nationals' Opinions
1. Leadership & understanding for people of different background & culture	1. —Leadership & understanding for people of different background & culture —Flexible to adjust to changing conditions —Technical/professional proficiency	1. Partner to volunteers, partnership style
2. Flexible to adjust to changing conditions	2. Speaks local language	2. Flexible to adjust to changing conditions
3. Administrative/managerial proficiency	3. Partner to volunteers, partnership style	3. Leadership & understanding for people of different background and culture
4. Staff preparation & training	4. —Administrative/managerial proficiency —Strong backing from supervisors, influence	4. Strong backing from supervisors, influence
5. Technical/professional proficiency		
6. Partner to volunteers, partnership style		
7. Speaks local language		

Listing of more than one factor under any one number indicates equal level of priority of factors.

Out of fourteen choices of factors affecting staff success, all respondents selected similar factors irrespective of whether they addressed STD Services in developing or industrialized countries, or national or foreign staff success. They differed to some extent in priorities that reflect different conditions of staff assignments rather than dissimilar policies:

- National respondents in STD Services in developing countries gave higher importance to proper staff training and managerial skills than did foreign respondents, whereas foreigners stressed for national staff their technical/professional proficiency and ability to communicate in local languages (a shortcoming which often hampers foreigners).
- National respondents for STD Services in industrialized countries stressed certain personality traits rather than professional or managerial skills.
- Foreign staff success in STD Services in developing countries, according to nationals, depends primarily upon their professional qualifications and ability to communicate in the local language; being foreign is also mentioned as an asset. In contrast, foreigners emphasize their leadership role and flexibility to adjust to changing conditions. Professional qualifications and speaking the local language received a surprisingly low third and fourth

TABLE 45. FACTORS FOR FOREIGN STAFF SUCCESS

STD Services in Developing Countries	
Opinions of Nationals	Opinions of Foreigners
1. Technical/professional proficiency	1. –Leadership & understanding for people of different backgrounds & cultures –Flexible to adjust to changing conditions
2. Speaks local language	2. Technical/professional proficiency
3. Leadership & understanding for people of different backgrounds & cultures	3. Speaks local language
4. Flexible to adjust to changing conditions	4. Administrative/managerial proficiency
5. Partner to volunteers, partnership style	5. Partner to volunteers, partnership style
6. –Comes from other region or foreign country –Administrative/managerial proficiency	

Listing of more than one factor under any one number indicated equal level of priority of factors.

priority. This ranking may be accidental because of the small sample, but it also could be an indication that foreigners still perceive themselves in a somewhat superior leadership role.

To sum up the Staff Input in Social and Technical Development Services:

- There are no principal differences in staffing patterns between STD Services in developing or industrialized countries
- These services have a better chance to develop their own staff capability from volunteers who have completed an assignment than other categories of Domestic Development Services
- Governmental services still can be hurt by routine civil servant assignments as staff for these voluntary organizations
- Career provisions, including promotion and social benefits, are still lacking or are not adequate in many STD Services, leaving staff positions to the highly motivated, to those who have some independent income, or to second choice employment applicants.
- Foreign staff is welcome in STD Services in both developing and industrialized countries in specific roles and on an equal basis with national staff.

4. Organization and Management

The overall organizational structure and delegation of management functions in Social and Technical Development Services is displayed in Table 46. Organizational Diagrams for the individual services are contained in the various Compendia in Volume II.

TABLE 46. ORGANIZATION AND MANAGEMENT FUNCTIONS IN STD SERVICES

Organization	Management Functions		
	Headquarters	Regional	Local
KENYA: Voluntary Development Association	Project identification, volunteer recruitment & placement, overall administration	–	Community: Project programming, volunteer preparation, supervision and support
INDONESIA: BUTSI	Office in Ministry of Manpower: Recruitment & selection of volunteers, training & volunteer placement arrangements; "consumer" education of officials and villagers; placement of field staff on Province level	Provinces, Districts, Sub-Districts Administrations: Participation in volunteer training, planning volunteer work programs; BUTSI Field Staff on Province level: Supervision of work programs	Community: Volunteer training; local work project planning joint work; supervision of volunteer work
THAILAND: Arsa Pattana –Rural Development Volunteer Program –Youth Development Volunteer Project –Volunteer Leaders for Community Development	Office in Rural Development Division, Community Development Department in Ministry of Interior: Overall management of all three volunteer programs	Provinces & Rural Districts (Tambons): Community Development officials supervise volunteer work, also field training	Community: Joint work projects with volunteers within Community Development plans; Volunteers are liaison between villagers and Community Development officials
PANAMA: National Volunteer Service	Department within DIGEDECOM: Policy, planning of operations, funding, staffing, general management support	9 Regional DIGEDECOM offices: Recruitment & training of volunteers	Community: Work projects conducted locally, volunteers act as extension to Community Development workers

Organization	Management Functions		
	Headquarters	Regional	Local
CANADA: Company of Young Canadians	Overall management of organization, funding, public liaison	Field Staff in 13 Provinces: Project development and local recruitment of volunteers	Community: Project development, 95% of volunteers are locally recruited in the villages they serve; local project supervision
UNITED KINGDOM: Community Service Volunteers	Overall management, fund-raising, volunteer placement advisory services, international assistance, liaison to sponsors	Regional Office in Scotland, Northern Ireland, Leeds, Oldham: Liaison to project institutions	Local project institutions: Supervision of volunteers, provision of room & board
USA: ACTION —Domestic Operation, overall	Overall management, policy, planning, program support, recruitment & selection of volunteers, placement, liaison to government & public	10 Regional Offices 41 State (sub-regional) Offices 27 Recruitment Offices Liaison for project development, volunteer placement, training	Project development; local volunteer recruitment, training, work supervision; often joint work with local citizens
—SCORE/ACE, only		—265 Chapters in 53 States & Territories	

Comparisons confirm that STD Services not only provide skilled manpower to governmental programs or local community projects, but also delegate management functions to them. Thus, decentralization of organization and management, and integration into project agencies, are more common than for Training and Employment Schemes and even Study Services. In other words, in STD Services the organizational structure is best prepared to allow—and encourage—a wide range of citizen participation. In the delegation of management functions to local communities, they differ only in degree. While in the main, governmental services use the existing regional structure to maintain some supervisory function over local volunteer activities, both non-governmental programs in Kenya and the UK delegate all of them to the local community. Because of its size, the larger CSV in the UK needs some regional offices for liaison to project agencies, but they do not impair or reduce the responsibilities of the local community project institutions.

As with all Development Services, the **functional linkages**, ensuring necessary resources, and/or using the output, are crucial for the overall performance of the service. In many instances the same institution provides, for example, funding support because it is interested in the "output", i.e. the service by volunteers. Table 46 reflects major functional linkages to:

- Governmental agencies for development of work programs, use of volunteer manpower in extension of government officials, funding, use of former volunteers as resource to build a conscientious civil service

- Educational institutions to use volunteer teachers to expand learning opportunities, change the style of teaching, and employ former volunteers later on in regular teaching positions

- Community organizations to employ volunteers in local services, supervise their work, mobilize citizens to join in community work projects and provide housing and board to volunteers

- Other foreign or international organizations to participate in staff training, staff exchange, idea seminars, exchange experience.

Beyond functional linkages, some Social and Technical Development Services have developed **normative relationships** affecting the norms and values of other institutions which are relevant to the philosophy of the service[31,42]. This is a response to the earlier described problem of underinvolvement and the need for more service opportunities for all population groups. The attempt to affect changes in other institutions to conform to the voluntary service concept and philosophy is a more aggressive organizational behavior than the establishment of functional linkages. Examples of normative relationships include:

- Kenya Voluntary Development Association: linkages with other Kenyan and African organizations *"to keep volunteering within the African context by basing its volunteer services on traditional African volunteer concepts;"*

- Indonesia, BUTSI: linkages with the Ministry of Education to integrate Study-Service into higher education and establish KKN;

- United Kingdom, CSV: linkages with

  – educational institutions to include community service into curriculum

– police force to include community service in police cadet training

– court system to rehabilitate convicts through community service rather than sentence to prison terms;

- USA, ACTION: linkages to;

  – higher educational institutions to integrate Study-Service in curricula

  – governmental agencies to integrate voluntary service as a component of a program

  – community councils and State governors to foster public support of voluntary community services.

  ACTION awards grants and contracts to States and local communities, public, non-profit and private organizations to enable them to develop new ways of volunteer service.

Such normative linkages indicate, of course, that these services are not only determined to survive as organizations, but feel they can effectively respond to the needs for institutional changes and thereby broaden the opportunities for service.

5. Costs and Funds

There are wide differences in costs and funding of Social and Technical Development Services due to

- Overall living costs in any given country and purchasing power of currencies
- Type of volunteer assignment and funding—paid in cash or provided in kind
- Full-time service at home or in other communities, the latter increasing the living costs of volunteers.

While costs do not necessarily vary between governmental and non-governmental STD Services, there is a decided difference between the funding structure of the two groups, as seen in Table 47.

TABLE 47. BUDGET AND SOURCES OF FUNDING OF STD SERVICES

Organization	Annual Budget U.S. $	Funding in Cash and Kind			
		Government	Local Community/Earnings	Non-governmental Sources	Foreign
KENYA: Voluntary Development Association	unknown	Kenya Government $180.-- per year	Room and board, construction materials and tools by local project community. Small cash contributions by local groups and individuals	National Christian Council of Kenya, Quakers	$1,000.-- per year from Danish Sutter Church AID $18.-- Registration Fee from Foreign Volunteers World Council of Churches & other National Council of Churches
INDONESIA: BUTSI	1973: $200,500.--	$200,500.-- (National Development Plan)	–	–	1968-70: $45,500 (Rockefeller 3rd Fund through ISVS) 1970-72: $50,000. UNICEF 1974: $2,450.-- (ISVS/OXFAM) for Village Technology Handbook
THAILAND: –Rural Development Volunteers (RDVP) –Youth Development Volunteers (YDVP) –Volunteer Leaders for Community Development (VLCD)	Total for all 3 programs: $195,600.-- for volunteer support	$195,600.-- (National Budget)	–RDVP: No participation –YDVP: Housing provided in communities –VLCD: Volunteers live at home and are expected to pay for their own living	–	–

PANAMA: National Volunteer Service	1969: $172,750.-- (Total combined Service)	$86,000.-- (DIGEDECOM Budget)	–	--	1969: $86,750.-- (AID/USA) 1970: Staff training through OAS
CANADA: Company of Young Canadians	4/1973-3/1974: $2,925,179.-- Actual Expenses: $2,891,895.-	$2,925,179.--	–	–	–
UNITED KINGDOM: Community Service	1973: $390,149.-- (Expenditures) Total Income: $391,188.--	Amount unknown: Grants from Departments of: Education, Health, Environment, Foreign Office; Northern Ireland Community Relations Commission; British Council	$136,133.-- of total income (=34.8%) are volunteer earnings paid by community organizations; Earnings from special Advisory Services (Education, Police Cadet Training)	Membership dues; Donations from Foundations, firms, individuals	–German Volunteer Service; –U.S. Peace Corps; for short-term consultations with Honorary Director
USA:ACTION –VISTA/ACV –Older American Volunteer Programs –Business Volunteers –Program Support* (Domestic Programs)	1973/74: $21,955,000.- $42,559,000.- $ 206,000.- $16,219,000.-	1973/74: –Domestic Volunteer Services Act: $94,000,000.-* –Small Business Administration Supervision of volunteers –Cost sharing for environmental services	–ACV: $4,000.-- per volunteer year from sponsoring community organization –Most local community projects are supervised by members of local organizations; some require local matching funds in cash or kind	–	–

*Includes expenses for Study-Services and Special Programs not reported here;

The funding provides some interesting points:

- As expected, the non-governmental services of Kenya and the UK have a broader funding structure than do governmental programs. This is significant for citizen-mobilization and participation. Indeed, some experts feel that participation in funding and financial decision-making by citizens' groups represents the highest form of participatory democracy in such services.

- In contrast, governmental services, because of the reliability of governmental resources, may not even attempt citizen participation in funding—and thus lose an opportunity for public involvement and expression of appreciation for what the services provide. The old German proverb: "Things which cost nothing carry no value," applies.

- Different in this respect are the domestic programs of ACTION/USA. Though governmental programs, they require a large variety of cost sharing features, matching funds or provisions in kind from local communities in return for the assignment of volunteers or the awarding of grants or contracts. Without doubt, the provision of community cost sharing enabled ACTION to largely expand its programs both in terms of numbers and variety of services.

- Services by older citizens, assigned to their home communities, such as the Volunteer Leaders for Community Development in Thailand and the Older American Programs of ACTION, have specific funding advantages: Actual volunteer costs are low and enable the service to involve larger numbers of citizens since much of the volunteer support (health, transportation) can be furnished in kind.

- But it must be pointed out that the earnings of volunteer services is a neglected feature of funding. The Community Service Volunteers offers an inspiring example to broaden public involvement by accepting a limited amount of pay from the community in return for the service that is received. These "volunteers earnings" are not paid to the individual volunteer but to the service organization.

The **unit costs** per volunteer man-year are set forth in Table 40, column 7. They differ largely between the various Social and Technical Development Services since all do not cover identical cost items. The differences in unit costs are largely dependent upon two major factors: the payments made to volunteers and the costs of staff. The latter is affected not only by pay scale and career provisions for staff, but primarily by the staff:volunteer ratio. A comparison between the Canadian and US services which have a similar cost of living base confirms this conclusion.

	Costs per Volunteer Man-year (in U.S. $)	Staff: Volunteer Ratio
- Company of Young Canadians (CYC)	9,181.-	1 : 3.2
- VISTA/ACTION	6,758.-	1: 93.2*
- Average Domestic Programs, ACTION	560.-	1 : 93.2

*Average staff: volunteer ratio for domestic programs

VISTA and CYC assign volunteers in similar fashion and pay for them—therefore their unit costs are comparable. The high unit costs of CYC clearly result from the unfavorable staff: volunteer ratio as discussed earlier. The low average costs per volunteer for domestic operations of ACTION result from the low costs for the Older American and Business Programs, combined with a high number of volunteers involved. These examples demonstrate the efficiency of STD Services, the program output compared with costs. Again, the crucial aspects to maintain efficient Social and Technical Development Services are: the number of volunteers, payments to volunteers, and the number of staff in comparison to volunteers.

Finally, the payments made to volunteers by STD Services is important for assessment of the overall performance, and comparison with Foreign Volunteer Services, for arrangements of partnership cooperation. Table 48 reviews the payments and living arrangements for volunteers.

TABLE 48 PAYMENTS TO VOLUNTEERS IN STD SERVICES

Organization	Volunteer Payments and Living Arrangements:							
	Living Allowance Per Volunteer U.S. $	Housing Allowance	Board	Health Care	Insurance:			Other
					Accident	Life	Liability	
KENYA: Voluntary Development Association	None	Room and Board Provided by Project Community		n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	Transportation to Project Community
INDONESIA: BUTSI	1973[a] $13.40 per month; $160.80 per year	Volunteers pay rent for room to village head from living allowance	–	Provided	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	–$32.40 readjustment allowance[a] –free work clothing and transportation
THAILAND: Arsa Pattana –Rural Development Volunteer Program	1973: $24.50 per month	$7.30 per month	–	Provided like civil service	Provided like civil service	n.a.	n.a.	Travel allowance $24.50 per month; Resettlement allowance after 1 year service $245.--
–Youth Development Volunteer Project	$24.50 per month	Provided by local communities	–	Provided like civil service	Provided like civil service	n.a.	n.a.	Travel allowance $5.-- per month, stipend to participate in Teachers' Training & certification after completion of service[b]
–Volunteer Leaders for Community Development	–	Volunteers live at home		Training & Health Care $200.-- per volunteer per year	–	–	–	Reward after 1 year service $50.--
PANAMA: National Volunteer Service Professional Volunteer Branch	Amount unlow "salary"	Provided by community	–	Provided by DIGEDECOM	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.

CANADA: Company of Young Canadians	1973-74: (c) $365.-- per month $4,373.-- per year	To be paid from living allowance		Provided	Provided	Provided	Covered because gov-mental	Honorarium at completion of service (c)
UNITED KINGDOM: Community Service Volunteers	$28.80 per month	Provided, (If not, allowance is paid)	Provided, (If not, allowance is paid)	National Health Service	Provided	–	Provided	Reimbursement of travel expenses to volunteers
USA: ACTION –VISTA	$75.-- per month	Provided, (If not, allowance is paid)	Provided, (If not, allowance is paid)	Provided	Provided	Provided	Provided	$150.00 settling in allowance $10.-- per vacation day (up to 7 days & weekend) $50.-- stipend per month of service after completion
–Older American Programs	Reimbursement of out-of-pocket expenses	Volunteers live at home	Free meals	Free health examinations	(d) Arranged	–	(d)	Free transportation
–Business Volunteers	Reimbursement of out-of-pocket expenses	Volunteers live at home		–	–	–	Provided	Reimbursement of transportation

Explanations for Table 48:

a) Monthly living allowance of Rp. 5,000 (about $13.40), which is adequate for simple lifestyle in rural Indonesia. Rp. 1,000 per month (about $2.70) are paid for satisfactory service, after completion of 1 year's service.

b) The stipend is paid to volunteers after successful completion of service if they choose to become professional teachers and complete creditation for a professional career. In 1973, 5% of the volunteers made use of this option. This opportunity is provided instead of readjustment allowances other services pay.

c) Allowances and benefits per volunteer, including honorarium at completion of service.

d) Local public, non-profit and private community organizations are most often recipients of grants or contracts from ACTION to carry out the Older American Program. They are not required by the "Domestic" Volunteer Service Act of 1973" to arrange for insurance but it is assumed that these organizations are insured against accidents and liability for their operations.

The principle patterns of payments and living arrangements for volunteers in Social and Technical Development Services are very similar, and—as will be explained later on—comparable with those for foreign volunteers. They are determined by various factors, including:

- What is considered a simple lifestyle in a country taking into account the purchasing power of currency and overall living standards, i.e. all STD Services adhere to simple and equal living conditions for their volunteers

- The availability of payments in kind instead of cash (room, board, transportation) to relieve budgets, provide opportunities for matching funds and mobilization of local communities

- The health care and social benefits (insurance and social security) arrangements prevailing in the various societies. In principle, if the volunteer already is insured or has a pension, costs covering these items do not occur, as for example, for the Volunteer Leaders in Thailand, and the ACTION Older Americans and Business Volunteer's Programs. But it should be noted also that insurance for accident, life, liability and social security, as in the case of VISTA or CYC, is typical for industrial mass-societies. In contrast, in developing countries—at least in the agrarian sector of society—the "social security" traditions and arrangements within the clan, tribe or village are still intact or—at least—dominant and cover mishaps. Therefore, for the time being, and until these societies become more urbanized, STD Services are much better off with traditional community care and security.

It is in social benefits that we find the principle distinction between the living arrangements that STD Services make available to their volunteers. Considering that the purchasing power of currencies vary, as does the cost of living, differences in living allowances paid to volunteers are minor. From all the materials available to this evaluation the impression is clear that the simple living standard is close to equal among volunteers irrespective of whether they operate in developing or industrialized countries. This is an important aspect for the later considerations of partnership-cooperation among services which is based on equal treatment of volunteers.

PROGRAM TASKS

The Program Tasks of Social and Technical Development Services are similar to those of other services:

1. Recruitment, Selection and Placement of Volunteers
2. Training for Service
3. "Receiver" Training
4. Work Programs
5. Foreign Volunteer Service Provisions
6. Citizen Mobilization and Participation

Table 49 reviews these Program Tasks.

TABLE 49. PROGRAM TASKS OF STD SERVICES

Organizations	Service		Training		Work Programs		Citizen Mobilization
	Duration	Geographical Coverage	Time	Areas	Time	Areas	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
KENYA: Voluntary Development Association	2-4 weeks full-time	Principally nationwide	3 days	Developing work-rules, 3 plans	2-4 weeks	Construction of schools health centers, housing, rural infrastructure	Villagers' participation in all aspects of Program
INDONESIA: BUTSI	2 years full-time (minimum 1 year)	Nationwide 2,225 villages (out of 56,000)	2 months	–Briefing in Provinces –Survey of village –Practical training –Development of work plans	22 months	Cross-sectional Community Development/ extension: –agriculture –health/nutrition –education –cooperatives –construction	–Supervision by Village Headman –Joint work with villagers –Participation in Volunteer placement & training
THAILAND: Arsa Pattana: –Rural Development Volunteers Program	1 year full-time	In 30 C.D. Administrative regions; 801 villages	2 months	–Community Dev. Principles –Skill training –First-Aid –Field Work	10 months	–Agriculture –Infrastructure construction –Vocational training –Village administration support	–Self help project of villagers supported by volunteers –Supervision by Village Headman
–Youth Development Volunteer Project	1 year full-time	Some Community Development Administrative Regions	2 months	–Teachers training –Teaching practice	10 months	–Assistant Teachers in Primary Ed. –C.D. work secondary activity	–Participation in C.D. activities
–Volunteer Leaders for Community Development	1 year full-time	Some Community Development Administrative Regions	5 days	–Basics of C.D. –Field trip	12 months	Ombudsman's role: –encourage C.D. work –assist villagers –coordinate C.D.	Self help projects of villagers assisted by volunteers
PANAMA: National Volunteer Service –Professional Volunteers branch	1 year full-time (extension possible)	Some regions	n.a.	–Cultural studies –C.D. work –Adult Ed. –Social issues	Estimate 11 months	–Agricultural extension –Home economics –Literacy –Health –Cooperatives	Support of village self help projects

CANADA: Company of Young Canadians	1 year full-time (extension up to 3 years)	13 Provinces	n.a.	–Action research –Community or Organization	1-3 years	–Agriculture –Handicraft –Technical training –Cooperatives –Housing –Social services –Regional Development –Community Organization	Volunteers assist self-help projects & community organization
UNITED KINGDOM: Community Service Volunteers	4-12 months full-time	Nationwide	No training, introduction to job		4-12 months	3.6% Education 0.4% Public Admin. 28.0% Health Services 68.0% Social Service, Community Development	Volunteers integrate into local institutions or support community groups
USA: ACTION –VISTA/ACV	1 year full-time up to 2 years	Nationwide	VISTA: 2-4 weeks ACV: up to 2 weeks	–Introduction to ACTION –Mobilization of local resources –In-service skill training	11 months	38.5% Social Services 15.7% Education 13.8% Housing 11.7% Health 10.5% Com. Planning 9.8% Economic Development	Volunteers work jointly and are assigned to local community groups
–Older American Programs	Full-time or part-time long-term commitments	Nationwide	Introductory training by project organizations Pre-service and in-service training by project agency (if necessary)		Depends on commitment 4 hours per day 5 days per week	CORE: –Day Care Centers –Nursing Homes –Schools, etc. FGP –Person-to-person service to children SCP: –Person-to-person service to senior citizens	Community Organizations supervise and jointly work with volunteers
–Business Volunteers	Part-time with long-term commitment	Nationwide 265 Chapters in 53 States and Territories	No training		Depends on commitment	–Professional advice –Management & Financial Counseling to small business	Involvement of small business, especially of minorities

1. Recruitment, Selection and Placement of Volunteers

Recruitment criteria and selection procedure of Social and Technical Development Services are determined by the principles of the service and the programs they undertake.

Organization	Recruitment Criteria
KENYA: Voluntary Development Association	• No age limitations • No formal educational requirements, but most volunteers are high school students
INDONESIA: BUTSI	• University graduates • Unmarried (if already married BUTSI treats them as singles but assigns spouses to same village) • Prepared to live in any rural area of Indonesia on low living allowance • Must agree that BUTSI has no obligation to provide employment, and that all money received is paid back to BUTSI if volunteer terminates early
THAILAND: Arsa Pattana: —Rural Development Volunteers Program	• Bachelors or masters degree or equivalent technical education • Record of good behavior (from educational institution) • Good health • Service-oriented, motivated to serve the country • Skills as required by project
—Youth Development Volunteer Project	• Completed secondary education • Urban Youth not over 25 years old • Good health and conduct • Willing to serve for 1 year as Assistant Teacher in rural areas
—Volunteer Leaders for Community Development	• 4th grade primary education, literate • Between 21 - 45 years of age • Good health and behavior • Financially secure (can be retired from military service) • Resident of District of Assignment • Willingness to work for common good; to sacrifice; clever; belief in government • Not a government official
PANAMA: National Volunteer Service (professional services branch)	• Completed post-secondary or university education • Tolerance toward other people and cultures • Leadership qualities

CANADA: Company of Young Canadian	• Completed primary, secondary or tertiary education • Local competitive recruitment opened to all interested
UNITED KINGDOM: Community Service Volunteers	• Minimum age 16 years • No educational requirements.
USA: ACTION: -VISTA/ACV:	• Possession of necessary skills or equivalent education or equivalent job experience • Exhibition of maturity, initiative, stability • Ability to work in unstructured situations and get along well with others.
-Older Americans Programs	• 60 years or over • Retired • Resident of community serviced or nearby
-Business Volunteers	• Business experience • Retired (SCORE) • Active businessmen and women (ACE)

This listing indicates that some services address rather specific population groups (i.e. Thailand, Older Americans and Business Volunteers), while others are opened to a broad range of people –as long as they are educated and have some skills to offer (Canada, United Kingdom, VISTA/USA). Thailand gives an interesting example in the three services carried out by the Community Development Department. Their different recruitment criteria indicate that the services aim at distinct functions that supplement each other, and thereby support a broad range of community development activities.

Addressing recruitment to a specific population group forms an interesting policy, if it is followed through and leads to a special program and identity of service, as for example, the Older Americans or Business Programs. Such a distinct service profile–along with name identification–is likely to attract more people to volunteer than one combined service with different branches for the young, the educated or unskilled, where the applicant has difficulty in identifying peer groups (Panama; also the earlier described combined service of Costa Rica is an example).

Different from other STD Services are the Community Service Volunteers (CSV) in the UK which follows the principle that **every citizen has a right to serve.** This is an important distinction because the capabilities of the applicant is the determining factor for locating a job in a project. In other words, "the right slot" in community projects must be found in order to make service worthwhile. Underlying this approach is, of course, the belief that any human being has a potential for giving and it is merely a matter of finding the "right" slot" for qualifications. These are the reasons why CSV has neither recruitment requirements (except minimum age) nor selection procedure. After written application volunteers are invited for a 1-2 hour placement interview to discuss possible job assignments. If agreement is reached, applicants receive letters of assignment which, after acceptance, represent their contracts.

To the question: *"In your opinion, why do volunteers join this service?"* a small sample (10) of respondents gave the following reasons (priority listing):

Developing Countries (National and Foreign Respondents)	Industrialized Countries (National Respondents)
1. Unemployment, hope for job after service	1. Lack of direction in life; dissatisfaction with their perceived role; no clear idea of alternatives; allows real experiment without commitment on a permanent basis
2. Gain experience by working in rural areas; further career	2. Social pressures from peer groups; because friends have done it
3. Spirit of helping; dedication; help rural people and the poor	3. Urge to help others; desire to change world
4. Something new; adventure	4. Personal problems, chance to get away; change their situation.

As with volunteers in other services there is usually more than a single motivation for joining. While volunteers in developing countries are primarily motivated by their limited employment and career prospects, those applying in industrialized countries indicate causes related to the complexity of life in those societies. Thus, the volunteer's causes and those that created the service itself have much in common.

Most Social and Technical Development Services recruit their volunteers nationally, sometimes with the assistance of regional offices. Local recruitment—and service—is reported from:

- Volunteer Leaders for Community Development (VLCD) in Thailand
- Company of Young Canadians (95% of volunteers recruited locally)
- VISTA/ACV, ACTION, USA: 56.4% of volunteers are recruited locally by sponsoring community organizations; 43.6% nationally from the thousands of applications received annually by ACTION
- Older Americans Programs of ACTION, USA.

There is another important aspect of recruitment and the consequent **selection procedures** in STD Services that reflects the underlying philosophy of a service, and affects the role of the volunteer. The *"What?"* (nationally or locally) is not as important as the *"How?"*: Whether the local community has a say in the selection or appointments. For example in Thailand, two VLCD volunteer candidates are preselected by the village and proposed to the Development Coordinating Committee of the County, which selects the more qualified candidate and proposes him for appointment to the Governor of the Province.

In other cases, the STD Services themselves, after receiving applications, initiate in-house selection procedures which "de-select" those less qualified and choose those considered best able to fill the jobs. Here, in contrast to the earlier mentioned principle acceptance of CSV/UK, the skill/job needs in the community determine the selection of volunteers.

Most STD Services have established selection committees in which all parties concerned participate and which are responsible for the final choice of applicants. Especially members of local communities where volunteers will serve, participate at some stage of the selection process. In CYC/Canada, for example, local communities select the volunteers and the national office confirms their acceptance. This ensures the acceptance of the volunteer in the local community, and placement in a needed job. Apart from written applications, most services conduct individual interviews and emphasize the **placement** and development of the right job assignment. VISTA/ACV in ACTION in the US calls this process "staging" which, at the same time, is a preparation for service. Thus, the placement emphasis in compatible jobs, in contrast to "de-selection" of candidates, is a better and more appropriate approach for STD Services. This too, is along the lines of CSV's "right to serve" philosophy, and it is hoped that more STD Services will adopt these principles. After all, their common mandate is to involve more citizens in service for the benefit of others.

2. Training for Service

Training of volunteers differs in STD Services from a 3 day introductory period up to 2 months (see Table 49, columns 4 and 5). CSV in the UK, the Older Americans and Business Volunteers in the USA schedule no training, but project agencies introduce volunteers to their assignments and, if necessary, provide in-service training to obtain necessary skills.

Training Goals of individual STD Services aim more precisely than the overall Services' objectives at specific qualifications necessary to respond to manpower needs. To illustrate:

- BUTSI, INDONESIA:
  (a) to provide knowledge of existing development resources and obstacles
  (b) to develop an attitude for community development
  (c) to learn some useful skills for village improvement

- Rural Development Volunteers, THAILAND: to equip the volunteer, prior to assignment, with appropriate technical, communications, teaching and administrative skills; to learn about the needs of villages.

- Youth Development Volunteer Project, THAILAND: to prepare the volunteer to perform as assistant teacher in primary schools in villages.

These examples from stated training goals of other STD Services confirm that they plan to respond not only to the cause and need for skilled manpower but also to provide a job-entry-training or reeducational opportunity. None of the services specifies a certain proficiency goal for skill training.

As Table 49 explains, those STD Services which assign young educated volunteers for one year full-time service, schedule a longer training period to prepare them for a professional role to fill manpower gaps in local communities. Here volunteer preparation is conducted as job-entry-training, developing knowledge and skills needed in employment that are not learned during "formal" higher education.

Following are three **examples of volunteer training** in STD Services tailored to the specific needs of programs.

- KENYA: The Voluntary Development Association (short-term full-time work camps) designates a three day "Confusion Period" after volunteers

arrive in the village of assignment. There are no topics scheduled, nor rigid rules applied. Villagers and volunteers live together as best as they can and get acquainted with each other and the work to be done. After 3 days they meet to discuss their observations and jointly develop work plans, a way of living for volunteers, timetables and other necessary arrangements to conduct effective work during the forthcoming weeks.

- INDONESIA: BUTSI is a good example for a long-term, full-time service preparing volunteers for professional assignments during a two-month training. There are three principle segments:

  1. General Introduction (1 week) at Provincial Capitals including briefings about development programs and the overall situation in Province, Districts and Sub-Districts, including introductions to the Village Chiefs

  2. Village Observations (3 weeks): Survey of village of assignment and preliminary plan development for volunteer work to help the Village Chief

  3. Training at Provincial Capital:

     – One week of theoretical instruction on how to implement development projects in villages;

     – Three weeks of practical skill training in village technology (bridge building, fish ponds, vegetable gardening, nutrition, water supplies, toilet construction, etc.)

     – Final discussion of village surveys and work plans.

- USA: The ACTION Cooperative Volunteer Program (ACV), which employs locally recruited and sponsored volunteers, applies the earlier mentioned "staging" which is interlinked with training or orientation:

  1. Pre-Training Staging (regional) consists of a one day meeting between sponsoring community organizations and volunteers for introduction into the project; individual volunteer interviews preliminary to agreement on a project assignment. If no agreement or assignment is reached, volunteers receive a Pre-Service Orientation. If agreement is reached they enter a 3-10 day training period before starting their assignments.

  2. Pre-Service Orientation (regional) is a 2 1/2 day session between sponsoring organizations and volunteer applicants with no committed assignments, one month prior to the Integrated ACTION Training. Here sponsoring organizations present their projects; ACTION introduces its service concept and program, and volunteers discuss the assignments which are best suited to them. Sponsors participate in all discussions except for the small applicant-group sessions. If both partners agree on an assignment, the volunteer will report to the project a month later following ACTION training. For those who cannot agree to an assignment, other volunteer positions are available through overall national assignments. Pre-Service Orientation is a costly process which is only applied to unusual or complicated projects.

3. VISTA does not allow for the participation of the project agencies in the placement process, but does in the Pre-Service Phase after the volunteer assignment is accepted.

4. Volunteer Training/Orientation for both ACV and VISTA occurs either after completion of stage 1 or 2 or within VISTA's Pre-Service Phase (3). ACTION has an Integrated Training System which is conducted by its regional training staff. Length of training varies: for ACV volunteers up to 2 weeks; for VISTA volunteers between 2-4 weeks. The basic curriculum includes:

   – Introduction to ACTION's concepts, objectives, programs and volunteers' rights and obligations

   – Resource mobilization in local communities (part-time volunteers, financial assistance)

5. In-Service-Training is the responsibility of local sponsoring agencies – to strengthen the volunteer's capabilities to work in a particular project. Therefore, it primarily concerns skill training, and ACTION regional training staff is advised to assist where necessary.

3. "Receiver" Training

This idea was first developed and propagated by the Community Service Volunteers (CSV) in the United Kingdom. It is the outgrowth of the "right to serve" policy, which places emphasis on careful placement in a project agency and its capability to use the skills and talents of volunteers effectively. Thus, CSV introduced "users" or "receivers" training in preparing the volunteer supervisors within project institutions for their role. The attempt here is not to gain special treatment for volunteers, as compared to hired manpower, but rather, to make use of the individual's motivation and dedication to the advantage of all partners concerned. This preparation includes the discussion of "typical" volunteer roles (small scale, person-to-person encounter), problems of certain job regulations (working hours, who is permitted to do what, hierarchy of work/structure, etc.). No doubt this "user" preparation has helped to reduce problems during work assignments and has encouraged more effective volunteer contributions.

BUTSI in Indonesia is the first STD Service in a developing country which has evolved a separate "consumer education" program. Like CSV, it aims to improve the use of the volunteer's skills, knowledge and motivation in the village of assignment. Therefore, BUTSI conducts "consumer education" for those who plan and supervise volunteer assignments: the Province and District officials and the village heads.

"Receiver" training no doubt improves the effectiveness of STD Services and deserves more attention especially by Study- and Foreign Volunteer Services.

4. Work Programs

The Conference of Latin American Directors of Volunteer Service Organizations, held in San José, Costa Rica in 1972 gave the following definition of work/service[111] which is relevant to all STD Services:

"Voluntary service is a methodical instrument of social action oriented to incite participation of all social groups in an integral development process, by actions that eliminate marginality and dependence."

Work Programs of Social and Technical Development Services are reviewed in Table 49, columns 6 and 7. Various services specify the following **Work Program Goals**:

- INDONESIA, BUTSI:

  (a) to induce among villagers and local officials the attitudinal change necessary for development

  (b) to draw existing governmental development programs down to the village level

  (c) to re-educate young university graduates toward real needs of employment performance, especially in rural areas.

- THAILAND:

  – Rural Development Volunteers: To help villagers to initiate projects to improve life in their community

  – Youth Development Volunteers: To alleviate teacher shortage in rural areas.

- UNITED KINGDOM, Community Service Volunteers (Principles):

  "To care for others, involve others and work for change."

While most STD Services in developing countries that were evaluated specify definite work program goals in response to causes and needs, those in industrialized countries remain vague. None of the STD Services cite specific targets in terms of coverage of population groups, number of villages or health cases needed to be reached for instance. Only BUTSI indicates the goal to operate in all Provinces.

Work Program Assignments in STD Services cover a broad range of community needs including: construction work and improvement of infrastructure, support for agriculture and vegetable gardening, education, health, nutrition, youth work, adult education of women, child care, community organizing and leadership development, legal services, assistance to the handicapped.

Most volunteers are assigned to work jointly with villagers in local development projects. As the Rural Development Volunteer Program in Thailand describes it (from a report by the Director):

"– The volunteers are not regular governmental officials but the citizens like villagers.

– The volunteers are not those who come to aid anyone, but are advisors to help the villagers decide by themselves what to do and how.

– *The volunteers are not those who come to do things for villagers, but will work together with them in what they need."*

Somewhat different is the work program for the Thailand Volunteer Leaders for Community Development (VLCD). Volunteers are not assigned to work projects in villages rather, they are sent to mobilize two kinds of village volunteers for self-help projects:

- Volunteers for special skill jobs: carpentry, masonry, animal husbandry, co-op production, etc.
- Volunteers for general relief work: Mother & child relief, family planning, relief to needy & poor, victims of accidents or natural disasters; provision of relief through land distribution, savings schemes or governmental fund distribution; theft protection and assistance in court cases.

Villagers receive skill training in District Development Centres and register in the village Operating Center to "invest" a certain amount of volunteer manhours ("labor bank"). When a village has a project or relief need, it can call on the local operating center to request specific volunteer skills for help. The project can then be implemented after the "financing", i.e. the volunteer labor investment, is secured in the account. Volunteers are then called upon to "expend" their "banked labor hours" according to the project plan. This is a very interesting approach for projects with uneven financing from cash funds and provisions in kind.

Coming from the same District, VLCD's mobilize these village volunteers, coordinate and supervise their activities and link them with those carried out by C. D. officials in the District and Province. This is what, in an old Danish tradition, is called an "Ombudsman," a person trusted by the community and by the government officials who bridges communication gaps in order to help solve community and individual problems.

By aiming at **volunteer assignments in all regions** of Indonesia, BUTSI in fact initiates an **inter-cultural exchange program within** the country in response to the need for changing attitudes among its citizens. Evaluation materials indicate that BUTSI volunteers encounter cross-cultural communication problems that are similar to those reported by foreign volunteers. The Thailand Rural Development Volunteers also report cultural adaption problems when assigning volunteers to remote rural areas. It is important that such a cross-cultural encounter is not overlooked, since it requires adequate preparation. In both cases cited, villagers are involved in the volunteer training, and volunteers have a chance to discuss their initial encounter, learn of the reasons for differences before taking up their work assignment. BUTSI's "consumer training" is an important feature for developing cross-cultural understanding from both directions.

In interviews the question was raised: *"What do you consider the* **best type of volunteer work** *projects?"* Respondents from both developing and industrialized countries (sample 10) listed the following priorities.

Developing Countries		Industrialized Countries
Nationals' Opinions	**Foreigners' Opinions**	**Nationals' Opinions**
1. Any project tnat serves the need of local people and enables community participation, because "it educates people and helps them to solve their problems"	1. Where a catalyst role of volunteers is possible, i.e. skill competence is ensured, and the community is ready to accept outsider – the type of project does not matter	1. Any project which matches qualifications of volunteers and jobs
2. Community development because "the uplift of the status of villagers is paramount"	2. Those which improve food supplies, nutrition and cash income from local production.	2. Group assignments, because volunteers have some allies
3. Cross-sectoral community projects, because it is the best way to get local participation.		3. Face to face contact with human needs
		4. Clear plan and receiving agency must be involved, because it secures continuity of project.

It is interesting to note that respondents to this question describe, with one exception, conditions of work projects rather than types by program area.

It appears that for the educated and/or experienced volunteer of STD Services **any type of work program area is appropriate** if:

1. a real need exists
2. the volunteers' capabilities match the job, and
3. the citizens of the local community are willing and able to participate.

From evaluation materials, a few experiences with various work project types can be cited.

- VISTA/ACTION in the USA reports that educational projects are an easy "point of entry" for first-time volunteer assignments in communities, because here a well-known project structure exists. As community and volunteers become acquainted with their respective roles the more developmental community and health services increase and education assignments are reduced. Community and health services require more sophistication in terms of planning, volunteer selection and community work supervision.

- CSV in the U.K. reports that because of the "right to serve" policy and the consequent acceptance of all applicants, a new range of project alliances has been opened up for service with hospitals, the prison system, police (cadet-training through service), halfway houses by offering young offenders opportunity to serve the handicapped and disadvantaged. The CSV operation shows that any project type is possible if the service conditions for the individual volunteer are "right."

- BUTSI in Indonesia emphasizes a cross-sectoral volunteer assignment that does not focus on specific work program areas or on single governmental development programs, but on groups of people in the village. For example, with regard to youth unemployment, any work area—business, construction, production or public services—which can create jobs is applied. In the main, the service is addressed to communities and their needs, especially their betterment of life which includes improvement of nutrition and health. For example, by trying to eliminate the causes of the nutrition problem, i.e. the lack of protein and vitamins, volunteers apply problem solving approaches which cut across disciplines of societal structures. They introduced vegetable and egg production by linking it with local market sales for cash income for families—and only as this was achieved did the villagers change their own eating habits and consume vegetables and eggs themselves. As everybody knows, these approaches are not easy—and successful results are possible because the effort is conducted on a small scale rather than operated from the upper echelon of bureaucratic hierarchies.

To identify the limitations of project conditions the question was raised: *"In your opinion, what type of projects should be excluded for volunteer work assignments?"* The respondents replied

Developing Countries		Industrialized Countries
Nationals' Opinions	Foreigners' Opinions	Nationals' Opinions
1. None	1. None, except if not community based or community not "ready"	1. Any project which had volunteers for 5 years
2. Where money is the main objective, because it defeats objective of service	2. Not as teachers in elite schools	2. No assignments where volunteers become staff substitutes.
	3. Not in urban areas, except slums	

These responses confirm that it is the project conditions and not a specific development work area which should limit the volunteer assignment.

Other conditions for volunteer project assignments are contained in the **Work Program Policies and Guidelines** most STD Services have devised. Examples include:

- The Volunteer Leaders for Community Development (VLCD), THAILAND act as Secretaries of the Village and District Community Development Committees and carry out tasks assigned by the local Committees. Their functions include, according to the overall Regulations of the Ministry of the Interior:

  - Encouragement of Community Development (C.D.) work in accordance with the policy and programs of the C.D. Department and the needs of the people

  - Coordination of C.D. work in a district carried out by different groups

- Liaison between the people in the villages and government officials

- Assistance to district and village chiefs in their C.D. activities

- Advice to youth groups concerning C.D.

- Information to local officials concerning safety and potential unrest in local communities

- Disbursement of funds for local C.D. projects in accordance with regulations; keeping financial records.

- BUTSI, INDONESIA:

  - One volunteer is assigned to one village; there will be no second assignment to the same village

  - Villages should not be located near a large city and must be in need of development

  - If possible, villages should be participating in projects sponsored by other governmental departments (Applied Nutrition Programme, Local Work Unit or Transmigration and Cooperative Projects).

- Company of Young Canadians, CANADA:

  - Action research: assist local people to identify their needs, form local reference groups and assist in project proposal preparation

  - Local level organizing: establish priorities, develop strategies, locate resources, hire effective personnel without destroying the role of the group, initiate administration, review objectives regularly, aim for autonomy of local projects

- VISTA/ACTION, USA: The Domestic Volunteer Service Act of 1973 stipulates in Section 102(a) that volunteers are assigned to appropriate projects:

  "1) in meeting the health, education, welfare or related needs of Indians living on reservations or Federal trust lands, of migratory and seasonal farm workers and their families, and of residents of the District of Columbia, the Commonwealth of Puerto Rico, Guam, American Samoa, or the Virgin Islands;

  2) in the care of the mentally ill, developmental disabled, and other handicapped individuals, especially those with severe handicaps, under the supervision of nonprofit institutions or facilities. . . "

  - Volunteer assignments require the approval of the Governor of the State in which the volunteer is to serve

  - Whenever possible, nationally recruited "specialist" volunteers and low-income local volunteers should serve jointly

– Prior to such assignment of local low-income volunteers, plans must be submitted indicating the opportunity for job advancement and transition to gainful employment

– To the extent practical, nationally recruited volunteers should live among and at the economic level of the people served in local communities.

The comparison of major program areas and the policies and methods of work program assignments indicates that STD Services apply **two distinct volunteer roles**:

1. **Manpower extension** of professional personnel to reach groups of the population which, so far, have not received adequate attention or care, because of lack of qualified manpower or insufficient interest to work in rural areas (Rural Development and Youth Development Volunteers/Thailand; CSV/UK; ACV, Older Americans and Business Volunteers/ACTION/USA).

2. **Community ombudsmen** – cross-sectoral community workers and organizers, who help to bridge the communication gap between villagers and officials, and who assist communities to take advantage of governmental programs that are available for local development projects (BUTSI/Indonesia; Volunteer Leaders for Community Development (VLCD)/Thailand; Company of Young Canadians (CYC)/Canada; VISTA/ACTION/USA).

In principle, ombudsmen positions require community participation in the selection or election of the person who will serve or represent the populace in dealing with outside officials. This is true in the case of VLCD/Thailand, CYC/Canada and to some extent in BUTSI/Indonesia. In the latter case, village heads participate in the selection and placement of the volunteer who will be assigned to their village. In some instances volunteers have a combined role of both Manpower Extension and Ombudsman—Often depending upon the situation in the community and the qualifications of the volunteer. By concept and design, the Ombudsman role provides for a most intensive interfacing between villagers and volunteers, requires the development of a high degree of understanding and potentially increases cross-cultural learning and a consequent change of attitudes toward each other.

Thus, while the manpower extension role of volunteers primarily fills gaps and provides needed services, the Ombudsman role carries a higher potential for changing the conditions or causes for which STD Services were established.

In interviews, both nationals and foreigners (sample 10) responded to the question: *"In your opinion, which of the following factors contribute to the* **volunteer's performance?"** Out of a choice of fourteen factors the respondents ranked performance factors third and better according to priorities, as listed in Table 50.

TABLE 50. FACTORS CONTRIBUTING TO VOLUNTEERS' PERFORMANCE IN STD SERVICES

In Developing Countries		In Industrialized Countries
Nationals' Opinions	Foreigners' Opinions	Nationals' Opinions
1. Quality of volunteer recruitment & selection	1. Quality of volunteer training/education	1. Needed on the job
2. Quality of volunteer training/education	2. –Work assignment in line with education & interest –Prospect of employment after completion of service	2. Responsibilities on the job –Work assignments in line with education & interests
3. Public acceptance & appreciation of service	3. Responsibilities on the job	3. –Prospect of employment after completion of service –Quality of supervision & cooperation between supervisors
4. Exposure to people from other regions, cultures	4. –Public acceptance of appreciation of service –Quality of supervision & cooperation between supervisors	
5. Responsibilities on the job	5. Needed on the job	
6. Quality of supervision & cooperation between supervisors		
7. –Needed on the job –Amount of payments (volunteer allowances)		

Listing of more than one factor indicates equal level of priority under any one number

This ranking results from experiences with specific volunteer roles and approaches to placement in projects:

- In the services of the industrialized countries, volunteer selection and training are insignificant, but the importance of the job is crucial: being needed and having responsibility makes the volunteer succeed (responses come from CSV which has "the right to serve" policy).

- In developing countries, nationals rank the classical manpower placement considerations (selection and training) highest, while public support and the cross-cultural encounter are next in importance to help the volunteer succeed in the role assigned to him.

- Foreigners differ in regard to factors contributing to domestic volunteers' performance. They disregard volunteer selection—obviously adhering to the principle that everyone who applies should be afforded a project assignment ("right to serve" approach). But they do feel that training is necessary to make them useful on the job. Obviously, these foreigners view the service primarily as employment preparation."

Another aspect of STD Services' work programs is the **supervision of volunteers** on the job. Most Services have delegated this function to the local community organizations or to field officials of governmental agencies in charge of community development. In addition, most STD Services have some field staff to coordinate and support the local supervision of volunteers. For example, BUTSI in Indonesia applies a combined system: While volunteers are assigned under the supervision of the village headmen, the Service has a field staff in 20 of the 26 Provinces assigned to the Department of Manpower Provincial Offices. They have some function in coordinating and supervising volunteer work programs but do not concern themselves full-time with it (they are also in charge of coordination of volunteer training and "consumer education" both conducted on Province levels).

A final aspect of Work Program organization and management concerns the technology applied by volunteers. Most STD Services report the use of local materials and tools. Increasingly though, those who assign volunteers for local community improvement must determine an **intermediate and appropriate technology**. Both terms imply that the technology used is neither the continuation of insufficient techniques nor the import of highly sophisticated mass producing technology, but rather one which is appropriate in both technical and social terms for improving living conditions and production to serve the social needs of the people. This is a common problem for Social and Technical Development and Foreign Volunteer Services[94] and, principally for all rural developing societies as E. F. Schumacher so eloquently explains in his book: "Small is Beautiful: Economics As If People Mattered"[109]. While most STD Services adhere to the technologies used by their community development or agricultural departments BUTSI in Indonesia has created its own **Village Technology Unit**. The term "village technology" was chosen deliberately to indicate the level at which the Unit's work is aimed. *"The Unit is seeking village technology ideas from within and from outside Indonesia, testing them in practice, and then preparing simple technical booklets in the Indonesian language for distribution through BUTSI volunteers . . ."* (from BUTSI leaflet). These booklets feature compost making, simple methods of maintaining a level when making irrigation ditches, measuring water flow before installing a hydraulic rain pump in a stream, construction of simple treadle-operated scrapers for coconut oil extraction, etc. While volunteers in STD Services are in need of appropriate technology—and often devise solutions themselves—most services lack the information linkages to relevant sources which have the knowhow, and the financial resources, to develop and test such technology on their own. No doubt the STD Volunteers represent an excellent pool of qualified manpower to introduce such intermediate and appropriate technology on the local level. Clearly, these resources have so far not been used sufficiently because of lack of linkages to Intermediate Technology Centers and planning on the part of project agencies.

"In your judgment, have the overall goals of volunteer work programs been achieved as set by the organization?" 60% of the small sample of respondents (10) replied affirmatively. The 40% who indicated a goal achievement *"with modification"* gave the following reasons according to priority:

1. Organization and management of service not goal-oriented; do not maximize on contributions volunteers can make
2. Technical work achievement, yes; but less involvement on the part of the community than was aimed for
3. Only half of the volunteers seem to be able to cooperate with officials and villagers involved in community development; volunteers are sometimes too young for these assignments.

These replies are not surprising. They confirm earlier findings:

- that organization and "management for results" are a weak spot for all Development services;
- that technical assistance performance is more easily achieved than changing people's behavior and involving them;
- that the placement of volunteers in adequate jobs they can master is a precondition for their success.

Finally, the question was raised: *"In your judgment, which factors contribute to the* **success of the volunteer work projects?"** Foreign and national respondents (sample 10) gave third and better preference to the success factors listed in Table 51.

TABLE 51. FACTORS FOR WORK PROJECT SUCCESS IN STD SERVICES

In Developing Countries		In Industrialized Countries
Nationals' Opinions	Foreigners' Opinions	Nationals' Opinions
1. Local community-related projects, in contrast to large scale projects	1. Acceptance of volunteers by local community	1. Clearly defined job assignment for each volunteer in relation to colleagues, supervisors, subordinates
2. –Acceptance of volunteers by the local community –Sufficient financial resources	2. Local community-related projects, in contrast to large scale projects	2. Acceptance of volunteers by local communities
3. Rural and agricultural projects, in contrast to urban projects	3. Leadership & understanding of supervisors	3. –Local community-related projects, in contrast to large scale projects –Leadership & understanding of supervisors
4. –Clearly defined job assignments for each volunteer in relation to colleagues, supervisors, subordinates –Support from supervising governmental agency or Board	4. Sufficient financial resources	4. Cooperation with future employers of volunteers after they complete service.
5. Leadership & understanding of supervisors	5. –Support from supervising governmental agency or Board –Volunteer participation in administration/management of their work –Public works/service projects, in contrast to business & industry	

If more than one factor is listed under any one number they received equal priority ranking.

This ranking of success factors confirms earlier opinions regarding the best types of volunteer projects: The community basis and citizens' preparedness to receive volunteers is most important for project success. Another important success factor is the clearly defined job assign-

ment for the volunteers within the hierarchy of the project structure. Here, experiences from STD Services and Foreign Volunteer Services are identical: a clearly defined volunteer assignment avoids a lot of inefficiency, suspicion and hampering competition. Also mentioned again are the importance of leadership and functional linkages to both resources (funds) and potential employers of volunteers (use of output).

Relating these priorities of success factors for work programs to the previously linked problems of achieving the goals, it becomes apparent that the keys to an effective work program design and management in Social and Technical Development Services are:

1. the community basis of the volunteer project
2. the community capability to make use of the volunteers assigned to them, and consequently
3. "consumer training" to prepare members of the community to work most effectively with volunteers.

5. Foreign Volunteer Service Provisions

A surprising number of Social and Technical Development Services provide for assigning their volunteers in a foreign country, or for receiving foreign volunteers for assignment in their programs. The following list gives a review of the range of such provisions:

Organization	Foreign Volunteer Service Provisions
KENYA: Voluntary Development Association	Foreign volunteers are invited and serve regularly as members in the work camps in Kenya.
INDONESIA: BUTSI	As the Indonesian Board for Volunteer Service BUTSI: • assigns Indonesian volunteers abroad, and • coordinates the service by foreign volunteers within Indonesia. There are no limitations in principle for assignment of foreign volunteers jointly with BUTSI volunteers.
THAILAND: Arsa Pattana, all three services	No provisions for Foreign Volunteer Service, but no principle restriction either.
PANAMA: National Volunteer Service –Professional Volunteers branch	Foreign volunteers can serve with SNVs on the basis of sending organization's contract with DIGEDECOM.
CANADA: Company of Young Canadians	No provisions for service abroad or service by non-citizens.
UNITED KINGDOM: Community Service Volunteers	The objectives of CSV stipulate community service "in various parts of the world and in particular in the United Kingdom." Foreign volunteers are not excluded from service if they apply.

USA: ACTION
—Domestic Programs

ACTION domestic programs are carried out within the 50 States and the Territories of the USA, but not in foreign countries, except through Peace Corps assignments. Foreign volunteers are, in principle, accepted for service within the USA on the basis of individual applications.

The experiences with Foreign Volunteer Service assignment are, however, slight and in many instances a "happening" rather than a full-fledged program sector. For example:

- Kenya's KVDA has regular foreign volunteer participation on the basis of individual applications in their 2-4 weeks full-time work camps.

- BUTSI has an ongoing Foreign Volunteer Service program with New Zealand. Though very small in size, volunteers are assigned for 1 year, full-time, to (a) secondary schools to teach social and culture studies on Indonesia, and (b) play centres to develop educational materials for children.

- VISTA/USA and CSV/UK both report the acceptance of foreign volunteers for service on the basis of individual applications. In both cases it was a "happening" and no use was made of the foreigners to facilitate any international learning, neither with the local community nor with the domestic volunteer colleagues.

Finally, it should be noted that since the establishment of the United Nations Volunteers in 1971, Social and Technical Development Services have increasingly proposed their former domestic volunteers as candidates for assignment in this multinational service.

Thus, STD Services have a potential for international cooperation with other Development Services which permits a two-way-street format of sending and receiving volunteers.

6. Citizen Mobilization and Participation

In several ways, Social and Technical Development Services are vehicles for citizen mobilization.

First of all, potential volunteers are addressed, and the extent of their participation and success represents a primary area of citizen mobilization.

Second, the citizens of the community receiving the service are a target group for mobilization. They become involved in joint work programs with volunteers or community self-help projects, and thus actively participate in the advancement of the people in the community and the betterment of their living conditions.

Third, citizens of both the local community and the country at large are addressed in varying degrees to participate in certain management and supervisory functions.

Table 52 reviews those areas of citizen involvement.

TABLE 52. AREAS OF CITIZEN PARTICIPATION IN STD SERVICES

Organization	Citizen/Community Participation in:					
	Volunteer Recruitment/ Selection	Volunteer Training	Planning	Work Programs Joint Work	Supervision	Supervisory/ Advisory Board of Service
KENYA: Voluntary Development Association	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes (Supervisory)
INDONESIA: BUTSI	Yes (Village Chiefs)	Yes Local Community/ Village Chiefs	Yes	Yes	Yes	–
THAILAND: Arsa Pattana: –Rural Development Volunteers	–	–	Yes	Yes	–	–
–Youth Development of Volunteers	–	Yes	–	– Only for C.D. work as secondary activity	–	–
–Volunteer Leaders for Community Development	Yes	–	Yes	Yes	–	–
PANAMA: National Volunteer Service –Professional Volunteers branch	Yes	–	Yes	Yes	Yes (rarely)	Yes
CANADA Company of Young Canadians	Yes	–	Yes	Yes	Yes	–
UNITED KINGDOM: Community Service Volunteers	No selection	Yes (Introduction only)	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes (Supervisory)
USA: ACTION –VISTA	Yes (for 59.3%)	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes (Advisory only)
–ACVP	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	
–Older Americans	Yes	Yes if	Yes	Yes	Yes	
–Business Volunteers	Yes	No training	Yes	Yes	–	

This review shows that STD Services have excellent potential for broad range citizen mobilization. They are not restricted by university structures like Study-Services, or by training and employment requirements like Training and Employment Schemes, that make citizen participation more difficult. On the other hand, the more "free wheeling" opportunity in community action does not commit STD Services as much to attempt to change the institutions they are linked to—as is the case with Study-Services and Training and Employment Schemes. In other words, the broad range involvement of STD Services with citizen mobilization and participation should not prevent them from their other mandate to modify the causes of underdevelopment by changing societal structures or systems. Because the latter is not "built-in" the services as with the other two Domestic Development Services, STD Services must look for areas where their citizen participation helps to change institutions.

For example, when CSV in the UK achieves agreement from the courts to have juvenile delinquents committed to community service instead of to prison terms and the community organizations accept them for service, then citizen mobilization and participation has led to changing one small corner of an increasingly unhumane industrial society.

Thus, citizen mobilization and participation in STD Services is not an end in itself but a mode to make societal systems more responsive to human needs. Again, the "HOW?" for citizens to become involved is most important.

In interviews, both foreigners and nationals cited the following **factors as contributing to the acceptance** and appreciation of STD Services in developing countries by the general public:

- Ability to work, contribute and to provide needed professional services in rural areas
- Volunteers show spirit of voluntarism, idea of volunteer service
- Providing employment to volunteers, saving (paid) manpower, and utilizing youngsters who may otherwise become a problem
- Good public relations not only with governmental ministries but also with the general public.

Respondents from STD Service in an industrialized country emphasized:

- The results of the service, that it can help people in need, contribute primarily to acceptance,
- That the abilities of volunteers match job requirement, i.e. successful placement.

National and Foreign respondents concluded that the **key persons** in local communities who support and enable cooperation with STD Services in developing countries are:

1. The recognized/informal leaders of communities (monk/clergy, teachers, doctors, women groups, etc.)
2. Village Headman

3. Elected leaders, Village Development Committee

4. Government officials

To the question: *"Which groups exhibited the* **least understanding** *and support for volunteers working in their village?"* both national and foreign respondents gave the following priorities:

1. Religious leaders

2. Low level officials (those who fear loss of influence)

3. In the beginning all, until they understand what volunteers are trying to do.

Good examples of participation of local communities in the efforts of the Service included, for both developing and industrialized countries:

- The many self-help activities where volunteers acted as catalysts, and which helped villagers dealing with basic problems like nutrition, food production, marketing crops (cooperatives) to achieve cash income

- Activities where members of local communities joined and carried on as volunteers (multiplier effect)

- When the village or a project agency—for example the inmates of a prison—asked for new volunteers to help them after the term of earlier volunteers expired.

Ignorance, or resistance, against the effort of STD Services was reported:

- If too many projects come up and villagers feel "development" becomes a burden

- If there is a lack of cooperation among local project leaders

- In villages where the traditional cultural values are rigidly applied

- Where there is institutional resistance and prejudice on the part of local project agencies or communities.

To the question: *"In your opinion, which factors helped or hindered most the cooperation between this Service and the local community?"* respondents (sample 10) in both industrialized and developing countries gave third or better preference to the factors listed in Tables 53 and 54.

TABLE 53. FACTORS HELPING COMMUNITY COOPERATION IN STD SERVICES

In Developing Countries		In Industrialized Countries
Nationals' Opinions	Foreigners' Opinions	Nationals' Opinions
1. Work Project requested by local community	1. –Strong leadership in community –Belief of the community that the Service will change its situation	1. Work Project requested by local community
2. Strong leadership in community	2. Villagers participated in supervision of volunteer projects	2. –Belief of the community that the Service will change its situation –Villagers participated in supervision of volunteer projects
3. Volunteers living with local families	3. Work Projects requested by local community	3. –Volunteers living with local families –Certain cultural and religious traditions
4. Villagers participated in supervision of volunteer projects	4. –Volunteers living with local families –Level of literacy and general education of local community	
5. Belief of the community that the Service will change its situation		
6. –Certain cultural and religious traditions –Project supervisors come from other regions		

Listing of more than one factor indicates equal level of priority under any one number.

While nationals, both in developing and industrialized countries, ranked highest the decision by the local community to request a Volunteer Work Project for their community cooperation, foreigners gave it a low fourth preference. Even though from a small sample, it may indicate that foreigners underestimate the community's decision-making role to ensure participation.

Respondents agreed on the importance of volunteers living with local families, and the villagers participating in work supervision. While strong leadership in communities is considered of high importance for community cooperation in developing countries, this is not believed to be true for STD Services in industrialized countries.

The belief of the community that the Service will change its situation was ranked high by "Westerners" and somewhat less important by nationals from developing countries.

Finally, while nationals from both developing and industrialized countries regarded certain cultural and religious traditions as a helping factor in the cooperation STD Services receive from local communities, foreigners alone cited the level of literacy and general education of the local community as important for cooperation.

TABLE 54. FACTORS HINDERING COMMUNITY COOPERATION IN STD SERVICES

In Developing Countries		In Industrialized Countries
Nationals' Opinions	Foreigners' Opinions	Nationals' Opinions
1. Conflicts among villagers	1. Conflicts with other agencies assisting the local community	1. Work Projects assigned by National Development Plan
2. Conflicts with others assisting the local community	2. Conflicts among villagers	2. –Conflicts with other agencies assisting the local community –Cultural and religious traditions
3. Volunteers living together in camps or farms	3. –Volunteers living together in camps or farms –Work Projects assigned by National Development Plan	3. –Volunteers living together in camps or farms –Level of literacy and general education of local community
4. Work Project assigned by National Development Plan		
5. Level of literacy and general education of local community		
6. Cultural and religious traditions		

Listing of more than one factor indicates equal level of priority under any one number

As with other Development Services, conflicts among villagers and assistance agencies rank high in hindering community cooperation with STD Services in developing countries. All agreed that the centralized living conditions of volunteers in camps or farms hinders community cooperation, as do work projects assigned by National Development Plans. Compared with the high ranking of work projects that are decided and requested by local communities (See Table 52), it becomes clear that projects imposed by National Development Plans on local communities are perceived counterproductive to citizen mobilization.

Again, nationals from both developing and industrialized countries gave similar opinions to two factors: the level of literacy and general education, and certain cultural and religious traditions.

In short, citizen mobilization and participation in Social and Technical Development Services can thus be summarized:

1. Mobilization of the population groups addressed to volunteers is highest in the ACTION/USA domestic programs, CSV/UK and more recently in BUTSI/Indonesia. In other countries, STD Services have attracted a lower proportion of the population for volunteer service.

2. STD Services provide the most far reaching opportunities for citizen participation in their various operations in comparison with other categories of Development Services (See Table 51).

3. An exception is the participation of citizens in the supervision of the overall service which is provided for only in the two non-governmental services (Kenya, UK) and the Panamanian governmental program (churches participate in supervision). All other STD Services are governmental and only involve other governmental agencies in this function.

4. Work Project decision and request by the local community is of highest importance for achievement of citizen mobilization and cooperation. Villagers supervising volunteer work projects and volunteers living with local families are also important conditions to achieve citizen participation.

5. As with other Development Services, the conflicts among villagers and among the various assistance agencies working in local communities are the most hindering factors for citizen mobilization and participation. The imposition of work projects from National Development Plans on local communities is also widely considered a factor hindering community mobilization, instead of helping.

ACHIEVEMENTS

Consistent with the causes for establishment of STD Services the **quantitative performance** of program output can be recorded along **coverage indicators:**

- Proportion of different population and age groups attracted for the service
- Percentage of geographical areas reaching people from all cultural/tribal groups in need of this service
- Proportion of technical and social services provided to local communities in comparison with needs in the following major areas:
  - for consumption: to improve nutrition, health, housing, care for the sick, elderly, handicapped, etc.;
  - for production: to improve education and skill training, farming and small business, marketing, transportation, utilities infrastructure.

As is evident from the previous description of the various STD Services the **coverage of different population groups** varies among services. The capability of a service to attract many citizens on a voluntary basis is directly related to the variety of programs offered. For example, the development of three services under the aegis of Arsa Pattana in Thailand, addressing different population groups, has expanded the coverage beyond the initial technical/agricultural volunteers. The same was true for the Panamanian National Service, although it seems a clearer distinction of different service types by design and "label" would have helped to attract more people. The domestic operations of ACTION/USA furnish a good example in this respect. By designing and integrating these services under one roof like: VISTA/ACV, Foster Grandparents, Retired Senior Volunteers, Senior Companion Program, Service Corps of Retired Executives, Active Corps of Executives, Volunteers in Justice, Vetreach (the latter two belong to a variety of special programs), ACTION has been able to involve varied population groups in service and community action. In 1974, one out of every 235 persons of the total US population between 15-74 years of age was an active volunteer in one of the ACTION service programs.

All STD Services evaluated adhere to the principle of **nationwide coverage**. They attempt to serve in all areas of the country and reach all cultural groups or tribes. Of course, the proportion of geographical coverage is not only related to planning and management of project locations, but also depends on size. A small service is not able to reach a sufficient proportion of geographical areas or cultural groups and thus has a limited impact in comparison to the nationwide needs. (See also discussion of size of services in Chapter 2.) In other words, a small quantity (effort) represents limited **quality** of service. This means not necessarily to argue for obligatory services or one large scale program—which of course would cover the whole target population and all geographical areas—but for a pluralistic approach to service programs tailored to population groups and geographical areas. The community services in Thailand and the UK, BUTSI in Indonesia, and ACTION/USA aim at a creative approach along those principles.

Coverage of major areas by technical and social services, in the field of consumption and production, probably is one of the neglected areas of STD Services. That they cover even a limited number of communities with services for consumption and production is reported more as a "happening" than a consciously targeted planned program output. The result is that records are not available as to what needs have been satisfied in various service areas, and, consequently, management decisions in planning new projects and investing resources are based on estimates rather than performance records. There are, of course, some exceptions. For example, BUTSI volunteers at one time supported parts of the national nutrition program, and the Arsa Pattana volunteers in Thailand serve sections of the community development program. Compared to the societal needs which caused their establishment, STD Services in developing and industrialized countries require different approaches to the provision of technical and social services.

In developing countries, while STD Services should not neglect minimum consumption needs, the improvement of production certainly deserves specific attention. Rural communities in these regions, by tradition, are consumption oriented and they can be helped in the long run only if they enter the mainstream of economic development and participate as a productive partner. Thus, coverage of production improvement through professional services has a higher long-term value for elimination of underdevelopment—but it can be emphasized only after a minimum level of living conditions (consumption) of the people is secured and maintained. Both are, of course, interrelated. Often they can be achieved by emphasizing one against the other, as in an earlier described example from BUTSI, when farmers, motivated by the cash received from marketing eggs, improved their protein diet by eating eggs themselves.

In industrialized countries, social services for consumption is the main requirement for STD Service performance. But again, it is a "happening" and not a defined target in terms of overall societal needs. Volunteers support and expand social, health, legal and other services provided by community organizations and local, state or federal government, or they operate new programs in response to needs not yet covered by any social service agency. This supportive or parallel social service role alongside governmental programs deserves more attention in industrialized countries. With the increasing needs and costs of social and health services in industrialized countries and the increased life expectancy of the retired population groups, many governments will not be able in the future to pay the increased social benefits and provide adequate services. It is here, that voluntary STD Services have a potential, not yet used, to provide a better service coverage and relieve governments from onerous social program costs. The idea is **not** to make STD Services subservient or extended arms of government but, rather, reverse an alarming trend to larger government. Through voluntary STD Services, especially by involving the able retired and skilled people, many of the social service programs can be brought back to local communities, while still maintaining nationwide standards and equality

of program effort. CSV in the UK and ACTION/USA currently represent the broadest coverage of different social service areas required in mass-societies.

Further evaluation brought to light the following **indicators of qualitative performance**:

The extent to which:

- the diversity of programs provided an opportunity for service to the unemployed graduates, the elderly, experienced rural people of all ages, businessmen and women, retired executives, the handicapped, offenders, etc.

- volunteers achieved a prescribed level of professional performance in manpower extension roles and thereby reached more people or provided better services

- volunteers were in fact able to carry out ombudsman roles including: community organization, enabling communities to take advantage of available outside aid for self-help projects and to convey community needs to outside assistance institutions and programs

- in their responsiveness to needs, STD Services not only fill gaps in providing skilled manpower and professional services, but also in effecting change in societal institutions or systems, which have impact on peoples' lives

- former volunteers continue employment in civil service in rural regions, education, social services, etc.

- community self-help projects continue as long as they are needed and after the volunteers have completed their assignments

- voluntary STD Services, non-governmental or governmental, continue to receive volunteer requests from communities and financial support from sponsors over a longer time span

Examples of achievements of individual STD Services follow:

KENYA: Voluntary Development Association

As a non-governmental service with short-term full-time work programs, KVDA does not only encourage citizen participation—the service would not exist without it! There is only one full-time director, the staff serves voluntarily and the villages host and provide room and board during work projects. The service also enjoys the support of District Officials, and of the Kenyan government.

- Completed work projects include repair or construction of:

  – schoolhouses and classrooms, teachers' homes, school court yard, etc., including one Village Polytechnic, (in 66 villages)

  – houses for nurseries and kindergarten (10 villages)

– hospitals and health centers (21 villages)

– water supplies, roads, bridges, irrigation, drainage (18 villages)

– community, youth, women's centers (10 villages)

– houses (in 8 villages)

– cattle dips (in 8 villages)

– houses and workshops for craftsmen and fishermen (in 2 villages)

– Church buildings (in 2 villages)

- Achievements in terms of bridging cultural/racial and educational gaps are difficult to assess. One can only assume that those volunteers who participated in work projects in other parts of the country have a better knowledge of the problems and needs of poor people in rural areas. From this knowledge they may have derived a better understanding and change of attitudes toward people from other races, areas, educational level and overall development. An indication that these programs have performed well in this respect is the fact that they still operate after 13 years of service with adequate staff and financial resources.

INDONESIA: BUTSI

One purpose of the assignment of volunteers as cross-sectoral community workers in villages is to engage villagers in self-help projects and induce changes of attitudes to improve their lives. The fast expansion of the program and the increase in volunteer requests indicate that volunteers are well accepted and find the cooperation of villagers.

Achievements of BUTSI are reflected in the following facts:

- Since its beginning in late 1968 to mid 1974 BUTSI volunteers have initiated local community work together with villagers in about **2,225 villages**: they have introduced—by example and often for their own use—vegetable gardening, duck and rabbit raising (much needed protein which villagers can afford); helped villagers to build bridges, roads, school, latrines, etc., in principle involving only local materials and manpower and clearly on a self-help basis. Their work was especially supported by two efforts: a "consumer education program" for all those who work together with volunteers, from provincial and district officials to village heads and the villagers themselves, and regular visits in the village by those officials and the BUTSI staff. To what extent villagers have continued with self-help projects after the volunteers left is not known at this point, but it is certain that many governmental development programs reached the village level only through the ombudsman role volunteers played in their assignments. This role worked also in the opposite direction: volunteers suggested changes in the governmental programs—especially the Applied Nutrition Program—to make them more acceptable to the villagers.

- In total, BUTSI volunteers' work assignments cover 24 of the 26 Provinces in Indonesia.

- The outspokenness, dedication and seriousness of former volunteers gained them the respect of highest government officials and made them a preferred group of professionals for hire in government service. Diana Fussel and Andrew Quarmby report in "BUTSI in 1971," mimeographed paper[44] that the first group of 26 ex-volunteers was received in early 1971 by President Suharto: *"In answer to the President's questions about their experiences, the ex-volunteers spoke up so frankly and with such obvious experience of development problems at the village level that several of the Cabinet Ministers present promptly offered them jobs in their Departments."*

  All former volunteers found employment in the following sectors:

	Forme: Volunteers Employed As Of December 1973	
–Agriculture	63	10%
–Ministry of Interior	189	30%
–Ministry of Manpower	378	60%
TOTAL:	630	100%

  Since the field surveys were taken it became a manpower policy to hire university graduates as junior civil servants only after they have served with BUTSI for 2 years in rural areas as community workers.

- In 1974 the Ministry of Manpower requested the Director of BUTSI to expand the program to 4,000 volunteers in the field by the end of 1975. In accordance with this plan the BUTSI budget in 1974 within the National Development Plan was expanded to 625 billion rupees (approximately U.S. $1,671,120).

- Another fact reflecting achievements is the termination of foreign assistance:

  – in 1972 financial assistance ceased,

  – in 1973 the one overseas volunteer assignment was completed, and

  – in early 1974 the foreign experts providing staff assistance departed.

- Finally, the progress and achievements of BUTSI encouraged the establishment of a National Student-Service Scheme (KULIAH KERJA NYATA) which was proclaimed in 1972 by President Suharto, requiring each student to serve at least 6 months during their summer vacations in local rural development before graduating with Bachelors or Masters degrees. A total of 410 students participated in pilot projects carried out in 1973-74 for an average of 4 months service in about 175 villages. BUTSI provides strong assistance to the planning and implementation of the program.

THAILAND: Arsa Pattana

Three volunteer services are carried out under Arsa Pattana, an office in the Community Development Department. First, the **Rural Development Volunteers Program** is the oldest, and its performance encouraged the establishment of the two other services later on. In principle, all C.D. work is carried out by villagers; the volunteers are not administrators of government programs but support the local self-help projects. The C.D. Department reports that volunteers encountered both a positive attitude by villagers to carry out community projects, but also, resistance against their very presence in the villages.

According to reports received, **five major problem areas** emerged from the volunteer assignments in villages:

- Differences in living conditions: most volunteers have never lived in villages and thus must adjust to the absence of facilities of all kinds. In addition, finding a house and simply living among strangers can be difficult.
- Food problems: Some volunteers from Southern or Central Thailand find it difficult to eat the diet of glutinous rice and pickled raw fish of the Northeast. When such volunteers requested transfer, the program refused and offered them advice on how to adapt instead.
- Language: Differences in dialect or language in different parts of the country force volunteers to adapt first to the language, and then begin their jobs.
- Isolation: Places of assignment are often far removed from towns and cities. Poor communication and transportation systems cause volunteers to feel extremely lonely at times.

Despite these difficulties no resignations of volunteers from field assignments are reported except for health reasons.

The achievements of RDVP are reflected in the following facts:

- From 1966-1972, 801 villages cooperated in community development projects because of the volunteer assignments in their communities, i.e., the local C.D. manpower was expanded;
- According to C.D. Department reports some villages invited the volunteers to remain after completion of service and to work permanently with them;
- Individual projects improved village life, agriculture production, nutrition and education; however, a detailed record is not available;
- The concept of having young professional people working closely with villagers is new for both the government agencies and the villagers; to an extent volunteers have bridged the communication gap between both, and linked government efforts concerning rural development directly with the ultimate recipients;

- The fact that after the initial experience with RDVP volunteers two additional volunteer programs were established by the C.D. Department suggests that the performance of volunteers was sufficiently convincing to further broaden the basis of local volunteer manpower;

- The successful completion of service is credited to volunteers and qualifies them for professional assignments—within civil service—as Community Development Workers, if they pass the examination. It was orally reported at an ISVS seminar that a sizeable number of former volunteers continue with the C.D. Department, but no specific figures have been recorded.

Youth Development Volunteers: Volunteers serve as assistant teachers in villages. In this case an active participation on the part of villagers is difficult to identify. It is assumed that primary teaching in village schools is accepted but no active role from villagers is required. A reflection of the acceptance of volunteer assistant teachers by villagers is the fact that villages have requested increasing numbers of volunteer teachers, both for first-time volunteers, and recurrent assignments.

The Youth Development Volunteer Project is also designed to encourage former volunteers to continue their education and become teachers in rural areas. So far, only about 5% per year has signed up to continue in a teaching career.

Volunteer Leaders for Community Development is the most recent program of Arsa Pattana. Volunteers come from villages and serve within their home districts with minimum reward. If this program succeeds (it was only in its second year in 1974) this in itself will be an expression of local public participation. It will be of interest for others to learn from this experience whether the service of volunteer leaders in their own home areas helps or hinders, the mobilization of local communities.

There are several aspects of this service which are of interest to other countries:

- the Ombudsman role assigned to volunteer leaders as a liaison between the villagers and the governmental administration in Provinces, sub-Provinces and Districts;

- the strong delegation of operational authority to the administrative Districts and local communities;

- the voluntary commitment by villagers from the same District to serve as leaders for one year without pay and minimum reward.

- the volunteer mobilization role to involve villagers to volunteer their time for special skill jobs in community projects and for general relief work ("banking" system for volunteer work).

CANADA: Company of Young Canadians

As a governmental service, CYC applied a long-term development approach for underprivileged groups in Canada by involving them in community self-help projects for their own benefit. The following facts reflect achievements of the service:

- CYC was the only nationwide organization to develop local organizational resources through recruiting, training, and supporting local "reference groups" that carried out 184 projects in 28 different project categories.

- CYC was not a short-term "give-away" program for hardship cases but a long-term developmental effort; all volunteers reached local target groups and all projects were directed by local people—otherwise there was no project.
- CYC was delivering a variety of new resources, previously unknown, to local groups which enabled them to continue self-help projects after the volunteers had departed. This continuity was an indication that community organization had taken place and attitudes toward helping themselves had changed.
- The work of CYC has produced new development models for community participation, especially in the area of regional development, use of community based media, native development, housing.

- CYC has affected governmental policies and financial/material assistance to those reference groups, especially concerning participation in decision-making.

- CYC has attracted international attention in that volunteer services in other countries became interested in learning from this experience through international staff visits.

This work program record speaks of an effective service in comparison with local needs. Yet, CYC was terminated on March 31, 1976, by resolution of the Canadian Parliament. While its field and Headquarters operations were conducted in a flexible volunteer service style, the unit costs of CYC per volunteer man-year (caused by an inefficient staff: volunteer ratio) were very high and their policy decision-making did not differ from any other government bureaucracy; for example did not permit community participation in decision-making. This uneven structure and operations appear to be the reasons for its closure.

UNITED KINGDOM: Community Service Volunteers

As a voluntary non-governmental service, CSV's achievements are reflected in the following facts:

- Steady increase in number of volunteers in service during the past 14 years.

- Expansion of program areas from initial staffing support in hospitals and children's homes to community projects attacking social ills and changing institutions (court system, "formal" education) by involving young offenders and students in service.

- Capability to remain unbureaucratic, flexible, creative and responsive to new needs.

- Development of the new "right to serve" concept which resulted in the acceptance of service opportunities for society's "outsiders" such as the handicapped.

- Broadly based and continuous financial support from both governmental and private sponsors.

- Minimum staff: volunteer ratio and relatively low costs per volunteer man-year indicate efficiency of management.

- Broad public participation in volunteer work design and supervision, financing and institutional supervision—and its duration since 1962—indicate effectiveness in terms of needs of sponsors and members.

USA: ACTION, Domestic Operations

In the four years since its inception, ACTION has broadened volunteer service opportunities for individual citizens. This expanded coverage concerns:

- all age groups: from 14-80 years of age

- all ethnic groups and people from all walks of life: less educated, students, unemployed, professionals, businessmen and women, elderly

- all states and territories of the U.S.

As pointed out earlier, one out of every 235 citizens of the U.S. in the age group of 15-74 years was an active volunteer in 1974 in one of the many ACTION service programs (this figure includes Peace Corps and the University Year for ACTION). But this ratio of 1:235 does not take into account those who have served previously, or are involved as staff, local volunteers, supervisors or the impact on those who are receivers of service.

VISTA

As the oldest STD Service within ACTION, VISTA has during its 12 years of existence—against many odds—continued the mandate to eliminate poverty. It has kept alive the public conscience to become involved and help to eliminate the causes of poverty. It has initiated special services to the poor, such as health and legal services which were not otherwise available to them. Special areas of concern on the performance of VISTA were listed in the 1974 Annual Report of the National Voluntary Service Advisory Council:

- Do projects continue to be poverty-oriented and does ACTION ensure in its project planning the aspect of the "elimination of causes of poverty?"

- Have volunteers an adequate input into the development of new programs and projects?

- Are volunteers assigned to jobs which could be properly filled by paid employees (cheap labor)?

- Are paid volunteers (who receive only a low living allowance) assigned to jobs which would be better left to private non-paid volunteers?

- Is there a need to establish new forms of communication between the volunteers and the staff at ACTION Headquarters in Washington?

his list clearly indicates that the "checks and balances" test of the performance of VISTA—
ıd all services for that matter—in line with the original causes is an important function to
ontrol program outputs. The inference that volunteers could be mistaken for cheap labor and
ıe fact that "paid" volunteers are questioned in their role versus the "un-paid" volunteer indi-
ıte that the principle of service opportunity for all and the manpower extension role (instead
paid manpower) is not yet resolved within ACTION. The latter is, of course, a question
ıich must be resolved with both employers and Labor Unions.

ıe overall ACTION domestic operations were also reviewed by the National Voluntary Ad-
ory Council in its 1974 Annual Report. The following discussion of experience and pro-
m performance is largely based on the Council's Report:

1. The Council is impressed with the quality and enthusiasm of the volunteers and staff members involved in the various programs;

2. On the whole, the programs are well conceived and well executed and provide significant benefits to the communities and to the volunteers themselves;

3. The Council believes the following areas of ACTION policies and programs require further clarification and strengthening:

   (a) There are two schools of thought within ACTION on the **basic philosophy and methodology** underlying ACTION domestic programs, especially those related to poverty. One school of thought believes that the poor can be helped most effectively by increasing their political power; the theory in this case is that the poor are better equipped to help themselves if they join into community power groups. The opposing point of view is that the most effective way of helping the poor is to teach them employable skills so that they can improve their living standard. The theory in this case is that the poor need economic relief and not political agitation. These divergent points of view "slow the forward momentum of many ACTION domestic programs. The Director of ACTION is well aware of this problem, but is not in the best position to deal with it. He takes his direction from Congress and the Administration which are not always of a single mind on the question of ACTION's underlying philosophy" (page 3 of Report).

   It should be noted that the ACTION legislation is broad in this respect and permits different interpretations of the underlying philosophy. One wonders whether these two points of view represent not a basic conflict, borne out of different political opinions, but a dichotomy of needs both of which must be met to solve the problems of poverty ACTION is designed to tackle.

   Related to this different philosophy is the conflict which appears to exist concerning the role of the nationally recruited and sponsored volunteers and staff versus the local volunteers and sponsoring community group. The basic question is: Who should direct the design and administration of the domestic program, the local community volunteers or the outside volunteers and staff who are more knowledgeable and involved with ACTION programs? Local people tend to be suspicious of outsiders and often feel that new ideas and methods are imposed "from

above". On the other hand, outside volunteers are often frustrated by the mistakes and inefficiencies they perceive in local volunteer services. These conflicts appear to be intensified in cases where paid outside volunteers (like VISTA) work together with unpaid local volunteers. Local community groups feel that these paid volunteers do not truly volunteer and should not carry this title but should be referred to as "corpsmen".

(b) **Recruitment and selection of volunteers** is affected by this dichotomy: What type of person should be sought in the nationally recruited volunteer? The altruistic person with a strong social conscience – but perhaps less technically skilled; or the practitioner qualified to teach basic skills? Those in ACTION who believe the primary philosophy for many domestic programs is to politically organize the poor prefer the altruistic applicant; whereas those who emphasize training of the poor prefer the technically skilled volunteer. The policy for this type of program (like VISTA) has been to search for highly qualified volunteers, and that they be proven achievers of competence and maturity. ACTION programs which recruit locally and carry out local programs, or focus on special groups of the population, i.e. the elderly or businessmen, are less affected by this conflict.

(c) The **training** of volunteers in poverty-related programs is also affected by these conflicting points of view in basic philosophy. VISTA volunteer training, for example, is conducted in two centers: one oriented toward preparation for vocational skill training (University of Colorado), the other emphasizing community action techniques (University of Maryland). The Council is convinced that a single approach to training would significantly improve both its quality and efficiency in preparing volunteers for service.

(d) The **design, organization and management** of ACTION domestic programs concerned the Council with regard to the following problem areas:

- the concentration of staff at Headquarters or in Regional Offices rather than in geographical areas where volunteers actually serve;
- the dual sponsorship of SCORE/ACE by ACTION and the Small Business Administration does not permit the service of SCORE/ACE volunteers in projects other than those of small businesses;
- Do volunteers participate in the development and decisions on new service programs?
- The new service programs developed on an experimental or demonstration basis are imaginative and in compliance with the mandate. They are still in their infancy and require further evaluation. One question for example is: the cost-sharing between local communities and ACTION no doubt encourages community participation, however, it should not lead local bodies to adopt new programs which they are unable to continue once the ACTION support is withdrawn. The Council also suggests that the overall new program development should concentrate on fewer types and set clear priorities for new program design, implementation and evaluation.

This concludes the report on Achievements of Social and Technical Development Services. Compared with the indicators for coverage and volume of performance described at the outset of this Sub-Chapter, all services report some achievements in the specific areas listed. With the exception of population coverage, i.e. number of volunteers in certain age groups, and geographical coverage, none of the services reports a proportion of achievements in comparison to needs, or quality of performance level in manpower extension or Ombudsman roles. This is an indication that the services' performance is not perceived in relation to the causes which established it.

CONCLUSIONS ON EFFECTIVENESS

The extent of change in the initial conditions which cause the developmental problems to which STD Services respond indicates the effectiveness of the service. This includes:

- Number of people serviced in local communities
- Improvement of living conditions (consumption), expressed in reduction in morbidity, increase in housing, children's care, education/training
- Improvement in production and marketing, expressed in gross market production and profit, increase in village employment, reduction in underemployment or idleness
- Improvement in community mobilization and organization, expressed in number of self-help projects underway and completed, number of village committees for various purposes, percentages of villagers' participating on a regular basis on committees, voting record, amount of volunteer man-hours for community projects
- Number and type of community projects continued after volunteers have left
- Number of former volunteers employed in rural areas, jobs of social and developmental concern in areas of national needs
- Increase in number of volunteers, requests for services from communities, financial support from supporters, or maintainance of an optimal size of service over a longer period of time.

Thus, an effective Social and Technical Development Service is characterized by the following program features:

1. A service plan spanning the formal national needs and indicating the targets which the service can achieve with available resources, including:

   (a) number and background specification of volunteers

   (b) number and types of communities reached

   (c) geographical areas and cultural groups covered by volunteer assignments

(d) breakdown of program areas to which professional services are provided, including targets for levels of achievement.

2. Diversity of work/service programs offered to attract and involve a variety of population groups, either through one "umbrella" STD Service or via a network of different services.

3. Organizational structures which delegate planning of local volunteer projects, management and supervision to local communities, with coordinating functions at the regional level.

4. Community participation in volunteer selection and/or placement – otherwise no Ombudsman roles can be achieved.

5. Volunteer, staff and community participation in decision-making which affect their livelihood or work assignments.

6. Staffing pattern and career provisions for staff which enables hire of qualified and motivated staff without impairing the efficiency (cost per volunteer man-year) of the service.

7. Regular and two-way communications between field projects, staff and Headquarters, including staff rotation without interruption to the continuity of performance level.

8. Linkages to those institutions and societal systems related to the volunteers' work programs, their further education and later employment, and those which ensure public and financial support.

9. Broad funding basis within the country–irrespective of whether governmental or private–including contributions in cash or kind from local receivers of services.

10. Regular feedback from work projects reporting facts of achievements and problems in comparison with targets rather than general description of work programs.

This concludes the analysis of evaluation materials of the three categories summarized as Domestic Development Services:

- the Training and Employment Schemes (Chapter 4)
- the Study-Services (Chapter 5) and
- the Social and Technical Development Services (Chapter 6).

As an institutional and comparative analysis of these services has not been conducted so far, this represents a first attempt to organize an overwhelming amount of pieces of data in a structured assessment approach to learn more about their mandate, operations, efficiency and effectiveness.

FOREIGN VOLUNTEER SERVICES 7

Foreign Volunteer Services (FV Services) of Canada, Denmark, Germany, Netherlands, United States and the United Nations Volunteers provided data for this evaluation. A detailed description of these services is contained in Volume II, Compendia Nos. 21-26 and 20/1.

Initially, this study focused primarily on the foreign assistance role of Foreign Volunteer Services which provided technical aid to Domestic Development Services in Africa, Asia and Latin America. However, as this evaluation progressed, the interrelationships and common grounds of reason, design and program between FV Services and the domestic services of developing countries became increasingly apparent. Their similarities as Development Services augurs an intensive cooperation on equal terms in the future, whereas the current distinctions of "giving" on the part of FV Services and "receiving" on the part of Domestic Development Services in developing regions will diminish.

WHY FOREIGN VOLUNTEER SERVICES?

As with all Development Services a combination of causes led to the establishment of FV Services.

Lack of Skilled Manpower in Developing Countries

The lack of technically skilled manpower in developing countries, especially on the middle level and in rural areas, was a major reason for the establishment of most FV Services in the late 1950's and early 1960's. Faced with a tremendous need for peaceful development in the post-colonial era, combined with the impact of worldwide mass communication, developing countries required skilled manpower to tackle problems of local underdevelopment on all fronts. Helping to meet these needs and to provide necessary technical/professional services at the "grass-roots" level became a major mandate of FV Services. Foreign volunteers were needed to supplement the work of national officials and foreign experts—mostly operating in cities or at organization headquarters—to the people in communities who urgently needed help. In most cases, foreign volunteers were *not* conceived as a kind of apprentice to the expert—or even a junior expert—but as a clear alternative, providing aid to those not reached by experts, and exhibiting a simple lifestyle closer to the people they served. However, in actually promoting the establishment of FV Services—to obtain necessary legislation and funding—the argument was used to a varying degree, that foreign volunteers could replace, in certain areas, the more expensive expert and could represent a pool for future expert recruit-

ment. Thus was created the image—and often the reality—of the "cheaper expert", which is certainly contradictory to this service idea. The most obvious instance is the United Nations Volunteers (UNV). The debate on the establishment of this multi-national service reflects that, for many delegations, the one-tenth cost of a qualified volunteer versus an expert ($3,000 versus $30,000), and the prospects for employment of jobless graduates, significantly promoted adoption of the program. While bi-lateral FV Services did not apply the "cheap expert" argumentation as a reason for their establishment, the UNV did—and they still suffer from this dichotomous perception.

Admittedly, there often is little difference in practical performance, but there is and should be a difference between the expert and the volunteer in lifestyle, position in the hierarchy of the project and desire to serve the people without monetary gain.

Foreign Volunteer Services and Social and Technical Development Services (STD Services) in developing countries are determined by a common principle cause: The lack of skilled manpower in local communities, especially in rural areas. But there is also a major distinction: While this reason for the creation of STD Services occurs at home, for FV Services it originates in another country, exposing their very existence to the whims of international relations and scrutiny.

Lack of Knowledge and Understanding of Developing Countries

In one form or another, all Foreign Volunteer Services evaluated point to a lack of knowledge and understanding regarding the developing world. There is a need to learn more about developing countries' culture and history, to gain experience in performing in a multi-cultural milieu under strange work conditions, and to develop a deeper common understanding. All of this is clearly another reason why FV Services were created. In providing the opportunity for experience-based learning in a multi-cultural setting through work/service assignments abroad, FV Services become a learning/educational institution of a special nature.

Again, here FV Services have common grounds for existence with the categories of Domestic Development Services which provide learning opportunities through work/service. The common reasons also extend to learning in a different cultural milieu—in the latter case the different sub-cultures and tribes which make up the one nation.

In summation, to learn cross-cultural communication skills and develop tolerance and understanding which permit peaceful relations and cooperation across cultural and national borders, is a common cause for all categories of Development Services.

Value Causes

Most founders of Foreign Volunteer Services not only re-acted to the lack of something, but were driven by an active motivation and obligation. No doubt, christian charity, helping the poor and needy, played a major role in the establishment of FV Services. While all services evaluated adhere to a general moral obligation of helping, they are not necessarily attached to a specific religious or philosophical group. In contrast, the Canadian University Service Overseas and the German Volunteer Service mention as one cause for their establishment the need for a nation-wide, non-denominational service.

Another key factor in creating FV Services was the political philosophy of Service, i.e. the voluntary contribution of time, career advantages, income and work in areas of need for the good of community and society. The transference of service at home onto the international scene added a new dimension: the will to establish and learn peaceful relationships among peoples from different cultures and nations to develop a global society.

Repentence was another cause for a Foreign Volunteer Service established in Germany after the World War II ("Aktion Suehnezeichen") for service in those countries, and to those people, who suffered most under Hitler's aggression.

Here again, the value causes of FV Services overlap those mentioned earlier for all three categories of Domestic Development Services. They may originate from different political systems, religions or philosophies but there is an ecumenical basis of common values: that service to people and local communities is an obligation and reward, and an expression of respect for human dignity.

International Trend

As indicated earlier in Chapter 2, an international trend furthered the creation of Foreign Volunteer Services. While early examples existed in the 1920's, the 1958 founding of Voluntary Service Overseas (VSO) in the United Kingdom by Dr. Alec Dickson clearly represented a new initiative.

In 1961, President Kennedy provided the impulse and obtained congressional support to the volunteer service idea abroad by creating the US Peace Corps. This backing by government policy and resources provided a never before envisaged opportunity to develop concepts, programs, organization and management of large scale volunteer development services. It also ensured broader inputs by professionals who provided the basis for the emergence of new fields such as cross-cultural communication or voluntary/development services as a scholarly "state of the art".

The 1962 International Conference on "Middle Level Manpower" held in Puerto Rico at the invitation of President Kennedy, provided the forum to propel the idea of Foreign Volunteer Services to other countries. There is no doub: that many FV Services in Austria, Australia, Belgium, Canada, Denmark, France, Germany, Japan, Netherlands, Norway, Sweden and Switzerland have been stimulated and influenced by the creation of VSO in the UK and Peace Corps in the US.

As has been pointed out earlier, this international trend affected not only the creation of Foreign Volunteer Services but also Domestic Development Services in developing countries.

Thus, Development Services in all four categories have common or overlapping causes for establishment. This represents a crucial pre-condition for cooperation among services.

WHAT ARE THE NEEDS?

To recapitulate, needs are defined as: A quantitatively and qualitatively structured profile of conditions requiring relief that determine the nature of response. While Domestic Development Services in principle could—but seldom do—quantitatively and qualitatively specify the needs to which they respond, this rationale is not as easy to apply for Foreign Volunteer Services.

First, the need for skilled manpower in developing countries is an alien cause which cannot be taken at face value to determine the necessity for foreign volunteers in terms of numbers and qualifications. The need for FV Services depends on the request of the host countries, the certain skill profiles they prescribe and the numbers they feel are necessary. Clearly, the needs of developing countries have changed in three respects since the inception of Foreign Volunteer Services:

1. The number of requests—or newly initiated requests—has steadily declined to a more realistic size. These requests take into account the number of skilled nationals who are now available to meet the manpower needs previously served only by foreigners.

2. The skill profile of volunteers has changed too. While in the beginning volunteers with simple technical, teaching and communication skills primarily were requested, today, the highly skilled professional—often a specialist—is desired.

3. Finally, the countries of assignments are changing too. Whereas initially foreign volunteers were customarily assigned to countries where ties existed from the past, today all FV Services report preference for the least developed countries regardless of any earlier affiliation. This is, of course, understandable as they are the least likely to have their own skilled manpower available in the near future.

Second, the desire of volunteer sending countries and organizations to provide global learning opportunities for their own people through development work/service abroad originated in industrialized countries. Their learning needs in terms of numbers and types are as large as the population group concerned with international relation and cooperation. Thus, the learning needs of industrialized countries are more or less unlimited. However, their fulfillment is again determined by the willingness of the developing countries to cooperate. In other words, unless FV Services specify their learning desire, and both sending and receiving partners underwrite the same concept of learning through service, these needs of FV Services can be met only to a limited extent.

Third, FV Services were also created to meet a need for global learning at home. In establishing them, industrialized countries hoped that former volunteers returning home from service abroad would feed back to all sectors of society a better understanding of the problems of underdevelopment, and of the people living under those conditions. Again, these needs for development education at home are, in principle, unlimited in terms of numbers, population groups and issues. However, children and youth, parents, businessmen and women, members of parliaments and government officials are the primary target groups for such efforts if learning should lead to change of attitudes and action.

In the past, these common learning needs have not been sufficiently expressed by FV Services, neither in terms of policy nor of program. There are some general statements which refer to these needs, and—moreover—individual volunteers and staff members often emphasize that they "learned more than they gave", but a specific profile of learning needs has not been established.

In the accentuation of the three major needs and the development of specific profiles, Foreign Volunteer Services today are at a crossroad:

- to continue the onesided approach to fill skill gaps and provide technical assistance as long as there are volunteer requests, or
- to develop a second track approach of a joint learning-service for development work and international cooperation with people from developing countries.

As will be pointed out later, it is almost imperative that FV Services develop this second learning-service capability if they are to continue for the long term and not have wasted their previous experience and existing international relationships.

WHAT OBJECTIVES?

Objectives are defined as the preferred out-come of activities of an organization in response to needs without specifying a time-frame[2].

The following objectives of Foreign Volunteer Services demonstrate different approaches in response to the causes and needs described before.

U.S. Peace Corps (Section 2 P.L. 87-293):

"• *To promote world peace and friendship through Peace Corps, which shall make available to interested countries and areas men and women of the United States qualified and willing to serve under conditions of hardship, if necessary,*

- *to help peoples of such countries and areas in meeting their needs for trained man-power, and*
- *to help promote a better understanding of the American people on the part of the peoples served, and a better understanding of other peoples on the part of the American people.*"

While the establishment of peaceful relationships and helpfulness through trained manpower are defined objectives in response to needs, the promotion of better understanding remains vague. At the inception of Peace Corps it was not identified clearly as a learning aim even though it often was interpreted as such in program policies and practice.

Since formation most FV Services have modified their objectives adjusting to changing needs. The Canadian University Service Overseas is a case in point. Since 1970 the new objectives of CUSO are:

> "1. *To initiate and operate alone or in cooperation with other organizations programmes to enable qualified persons to serve in any country which has indicated interest;*
>
> 2. *to cooperate with other agencies in any country engaged in similar activities;*
>
> 3. *to pursue a program of increasing public awareness of issues in international development, Canada's foreign relations, and to pursue programmes encouraging Canadians to act on that awareness;*
>
> 4. *to solicit and administer funds to cover the costs of such programmes and activity ancillary thereto."*

This represents a different approach: no mention is made of manpower or learning needs. These objectives presuppose that service and cooperation are desirable. In other words, CUSO's objectives respond primarily to a value cause, the service philosophy and the need for peaceful relationships. CUSO is also the only overseas service which has clearly directed one objective to the situation at home (No. 3). CUSO members and CUSO as an institution have taken up the task to raise the awareness on the needs of developing countries among their own people. This is an important move, because it strengthens the services mandate and creates a basis at home. The latter is not true for other Foreign Volunteer Services.

The objectives of the German Volunteer Service (DED) provide another example of modified objectives in response to changing needs. According to the amended Contract of Incorporation of December 3, 1973, the objectives are (summary translation):

> "1. *To contribute, through the assignment of volunteers in foreign countries and through the support of domestic youth and development services, to cooperation between the Federal Republic of Germany and the developing countries;*
>
> 2. *To carry out projects in accordance with the mandate and policies of the Federal Government and the guidelines of the Arbeitskreis "Lernen und Helfen in "Übersee" by sending volunteers to developing countries and by supporting domestic youth and development services. The volunteers shall contribute, without special financial remuneration, or professional advantage, to the development of the host country and learn from their own experience.*
>
> 3. *In carrying out its mandate the service shall cooperate closely with other private and public organizations working in the same field."*

DED is the only Foreign Volunteer Service which, in 1973, indicated cooperation with Domestic Youth and Development Services as an added objective.

The only other comparable support for "development of national volunteer services in other countries", as a program provision rather than an objective, is contained in Title III of the US Peace Corps Act.

The DED is also the only known example of a government sponsored service, bound by its objectives to carry out projects in accordance with the Federal Government's foreign policy. Other services have avoided this formal limitation or, as a matter of principle, have insisted on their independence of policy and operation. Of course, one can argue that all government sponsored services will receive funding only for projects supportive of the overall government policy—and this is true for all services. It is however, a different matter to make a service the instrument of such policy. Aware of this overhanging problem and in order to provide guidelines to fulfill its objectives, under the leadership of its Director, Dr. Manfred Kulessa, DED developed socio-political principles for operations which were approved by the Council in March 1971. These principles can be found in Volume 11, pages 218-220. They emphasize the DED's

- role as part of a worldwide peace service,
- striving for the realization of human rights,
- guidelines for volunteer conduct in a foreign country,
- principle of solidarity with people in developing countries.

To summarize the objectives of Foreign Volunteer Services:

- the provision of skilled manpower for technical assistance in areas of needs
- the promotion of understanding or the provision of learning opportunities among peoples from different cultures and nations
- the establishment of peaceful relationships with people of other countries.

These objectives of Foreign Volunteer Services are compatible with those of Study-Services and Social and Technical Development Services. They also demonstrate an overlapping interest with Training and Employment Schemes in cultivating skills in developing countries. Indeed, the similarity of objectives confirms that a successful cooperation between services can be achieved.

PROGRAM ACTIVITIES

As with other Services, Program Activities of Foreign Volunteer Services are analyzed and compared in two sections: Program Inputs and Tasks.

PROGRAM INPUTS

Inputs indicate the resources, provisions and their parameters within which a service can operate and perform. They include:

1. Legislation, Supervision, Leadership
2. Volunteer Resources
3. Staff
4. Organization and Management
5. Costs and Funds

Table 55 reviews these Inputs.

TABLE 55 PROGRAM INPUTS OF FOREIGN VOLUNTEER SERVICES

Organization	Establishment Legislation	Volunteers			Staff/ Staff:Volunteer Ratio	Costs per volunteer man-year 1973; US$
		Number 1973	Age range Years	Educational Background		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
CANADA: —Canadian University Service Overseas (CUSO)	1961; non-governmental, non-profit membership organization.(a)	980	18-80	Majority bachelor degrees; master degrees on increase	1 Director 124 Staff 1:8	$8,200.-(b)
—World University Service (WUSC)	1957. Part II Canadian Companies Act; Corp. without shares, capital or pecuniary gain to members.	50 (800 members)	20-30	Majority undergraduate students	Headquarters 1 Director 11 Staff n.a.	n.a.
DENMARK: Mellemfolkelight Samvirke, Danish Volunteer Service (DUU)	1963 as overseas program (department) of Mellemfolkelight Samvirke; non-governmental, non-profit; 1966 Resolution by Parliament to entrust DUU with government support.	309 (30% female; 38% married)	21 to over 35 Average:26	60% primary & technical/secondary 30% secondary & technical 10% post-secondary & university	1 Director 27 Staff 1:10	$ 8,736.-(c)
GERMANY: Deutscher Entwicklungsdienst (DED)	1963; non-profit public company with limited liability; 2 constituents/share holders.	861 (32% female)	21-41 & above Average: 26.8	33% secondary/ technical 33% post-secondary/ technical	1 Director 233 Staff 1:4	$15,970.-(d)

NETHERLANDS: Stichting Nederlandse Vrijwilligers (SNV)	1963 as Office in Ministry of Foreign Afairs; 1965 formed SNV incorporated as Foundation with 2 constituents	538 (26% female; 10% married)	21-67 Average: 26.2	2% elementary 6% lower tech. 14% secondary/ technical 24% post-second./ technical 24% masters degrees 8% doctoral degrees	1 Director 130 Staff 1:4(e)	$15,750.-(f)
UNITED STATES: Peace Corps (PC)	1961 by Executive order on pilot basis; 1961 by Act of Congress; Public Law 89-293; 1972 by Amendment (P.L. 92-242) merger into ACTION	1974: 6,489 volunteers, 4,887 volunteer-trainees (37.5% female; 24% married)	20-over 50; Average: 27.3	67% Bachelor of Arts 10% Masters of Arts or Science 1% Registered Nurses 2% Associate degrees (Community Colleges) 19% No degree.	1974: 1 Director 570 Staff 1:9	$12,450.-(g)
UNITED NATIONS VOLUNTEERS: (UNV)	1971 by Resolution No. 2659 of the U.N. General Assembly as an Office within the U.N. Development Programme (UNDP).	135 (17% female)	over 21	completed general, technical or professional education.	1 Coordinator 16 Staff 1:10.7(h)	$ 8,111.-(i)

Explanations for Table 55:

a) The French-speaking Foreign Volunteer Service Universitaire Canadien Outre-Mer (SUCO) operates under the same Act of Incorporation, Board of Directors and one overall budget. Each service has an Executive Director appointed by the Board of Directors; the Headquarters of CUSO is in Ottawa, that of SUCO in Montreal.

b) Same as Canadian Dollars; includes 59% cash requirements of which 65.5% are from governmental grants, 4.0% private revenues, and 35.5% host country support, supplies and services provided in kind; included in the total cost per volunteer man-year are also costs for financial projects which make up 10.9% of the total budget.

c) Exchange rate: US$1.- = Dkr 6.05. Budget is based upon the costs of 310 volunteer man-years, funds are provided by the Danish International Development Agency (DANIDA) to Mellemfolkelight Samvirke. Excluded from the budget and costs per volunteer man year are DUU administration and staffing (overhead) which are part of the Mellemfolkelight Samvirke appropriations from the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. Therefore, cost are not comparable with those of CUSO, DED.

d) Exchange rate: US$1.- = DM 2.50; based on total budget of DM 34,376,604 of which 3% are host country contributions and 97% governmental funds from the Ministry of Economic Cooperation (BMZ). In addition, in some cases host countries provide in kind contributions; work equipment, housing, free transportation to work, medical care. Excluded from budget are contributions to UNV Special Voluntary Fund.

e) Estimate, see Volume II Page 239.

f) Exchange rate: US$1.- = F1.2.6; costs exclude contributions to the Special Voluntary Fund of UNV (F1. 300,000.-) and to a Nigerian Hospital (F1. 700,000.-), but otherwise all service costs are included. Contributions of Host Countries are estimated at 1.2% of the total budget, whereas 98.8% of the revenues come from the Ministry of Development Cooperation.

g) All PC Costs, including share of ACTION agency-wide costs and sponsorship of 23 volunteer man-years to UNV (average $3,739 per volunteer). Included also are Title III funds for Special Voluntary Fund of UNV or support of other national or international volunteer programs. 95.1% of revenues are US Congress appropriations, 4.9% represent contributions of host governments.

h) Excluded is field staff from UNDP Representatives Offices which serve on UNV behalf but are not on its payroll.

i) Based on UNV/UNDP approved budget, pro forma volunteer in country costs and volunteer pre-service and return costs reported from sending organizations. Excluded are expenditures which occur in the UNDP Country Representatives Office or the project, such as: project programming, volunteer work supervision and support, project transportation and work equipment.

1. Legislation, Supervision, Leadership

Most Foreign Volunteer Services derive their authority not from one but from a set of legal arrangements which consequently affects the supervisory and leadership functions:

(a) Act of Legislature: US Peace Corps, United Nations Volunteers, Danish Volunteer Service with respect to acceptance as national program

(b) Incorporation as a non-profit institution according to civil codes with participation of the Executive Branch of Government as one of the constituents: DED/Germany, SNV/Netherlands

(c) Incorporation as a non-profit institution according to civil codes with non-governmental constituents only: CUSO and WUSC/Canada, DUU/Denmark. Contracts with the Executive Branch of Government exist for provision of financial support.

Most FV Services are financed from governmental sources either totally or to a significant degree. Exceptions are the non-governmental services in the United States which are sponsored by churches, businesses or private foundations and can afford to send volunteers abroad without governmental help.

Only CUSO, WUSC and DUU have a membership structure and derive their authority from members—they are services of volunteers. All other FV Services are programs for volunteers which derive their authority from supervisory bodies.

As can be expected, this complex legal structure affects the distribution of authority between the supervision and leadership. Table 56 provides a brief review of distribution of authority.

TABLE 56. AUTHORITY IN FOREIGN VOLUNTEER SERVICES

Organization	Distribution of Authority				
	Membership	Supervisory	Advisory	Executive Leadership	Volunteer Participation in Decision-Making
1	2	3	4	5	6
CANADA: –CUSO	–Local Committees at degree granting institutions. –Individual members	–Board of Directors; 10 elected by members, 6 appointed, 1 elected chairman –Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA) Approval of Budget, funding, financial reports.	–	Executive Director appointed by Board of Directors	–Membership: individual & local Committees –2 appointed to Board of Directors by volunteers –Recruitment & training of volunter candidates –Project planning & discretionary financial assistance –Development education in Canada
–WUSC	–Individual members from post secondary educational institution –Institutional members related to post-secondary ed. & international development	–National Committee (Board of Directors) of 16 members elected by Annual National Assembly of members –CIDA: Approval of Project budget, funding, financial reports.	–	General Secretary appointed by National Committee	–Members, National Assembly –Members on National Committee –Development education in Canada –Promote Importation of products from developing countries.
DENMARK DUU	Since 1974 membership open to all who concur with goals of Melemfolkelight Samvirke (MS) Ten members appoint one member to the Council	–Council elected by members, elects Board of Directors of MS –Board of Directors of MS principle legal authority of DUU; –Cooperation Committee. 3 members each from MS Board and Danish International Development Agency (DANIDA) for project policy & financial supervision. –DUU Committee guides general policies & operations of DUU, responsible to Board	–	–Secretary General of MS appointed by Board of Directors –Executive Director of DUU is Head of Department within MS; employed with consent of Board of Directors & Cooperation Committee	–Members of MS –Elect Council –Elect Board of Directors.

GERMANY: DED	–	–Assembly of 2 share holders. Working Group "Learning & Helping Overseas" (NGOs) & German Government represented by Ministry of Economic Cooperation (BMZ) –Council elected by share holders; 4 reps. from Government, 4 reps. from Working Group (NGOs), 3 from political parties, 3 returned volunteers (elected by volunteers) –BMZ approves budget, projects, hiring of top personnel, purchase of equipment.	–	1963-69 2 equal Executive Directors; 1969-74 One Executive Director, one Associate Director; Since 1974 one Executive Director; all appointed by Council with consent of Assembly & Ministry of Economic Cooperation.	–3 members of Council –General Assembly of volunteers & staff in host country –Participation committee in host country –Annual Regional Conference of volunteer & DED representatives –DED General Assembly (Staff Conference) –One member on arbitration Board (of total of 3).
NETHERLANDS: SNV	–	–SNV Bestuur (Board): 6 reps from NGO's; 5 reps from Ministry of Development Cooperation approves project countries, projects, provides funds, contracts volunteers and staff.	–	One Executive Director appointed by Minister of Development Cooperation with consent of SNV Bestuur	–2 members of SNV Bestuur –New regulations for volunteer participation under consideration.
USA: Peace Corps	–	–Foreign Relations Committees of Senate and House: oversight authorization of funds; –Appropriation Committee of Senate & House to appropriate funds –The Secretary of State, responsible for continuous supervision and direction of PC in accordance with Act	National Volunteer Service Advisory Council of ACTION. Sub-Committee on International operations, no volunteer rep., individuals appointed by the President	Peace Corps Directors from 1961-72; Since merger with ACTION, PC Director became Associate Director for International Operations, appointed by the President with consent of Senate.	–
UNITED NATIONS VOLUNTEERS	–	UNDP Governing Council of 48 UN member governments, no volunteer or volunteer service rep. UNDP Governing Council reports via the Economic & Social Council (ECOSOC) and Second Committee to the UN General Assembly	Consideration of in country advisory groups.	–The Administrator of UNDP is also Adm. of UNV; –Coordinator of UNV appointed by the Administrator of UNDP	–

Table 56 reveals some interesting features of **authority, supervision and leadership** in Foreign Volunteer Services which significantly affect the performance and achievements of these organizations:

The Canadian services demonstrate a strong membership basis which is reflected not only in their form of legislation but also in a significant participation by volunteers in decision-making. As all FV Services, they need governmental funds for their overseas program, but CIDA's role is restricted to a low key financial oversight through budget approval and acceptance of annual financial reports, CIDA is not represented on any of the bodies of CUSO or WUSC. The Executive Directors are independent individuals appointed by the Board of Directors. Both Canadian organizations are truly services of volunteers.

The Danish service has—together with its parent organization Mellemfolkelight Samvirke (MS)—changed to a membership organization. So far, the new volunteer/member role affects only the composition of MS supervisory bodies, but not to any significant degree the DUU supervision or other participatory provisions. DUU's supervisory structure is complex. The power that most significantly affects DUU operations is delegated to the Cooperation Committee. Since all funding comes from DANIDA, their Committee representatives have a stronger position than MS members so far as project policies are concerned. While DUU now is legally a service **of** volunteers, because of the supervisory structure, de facto only a service **for** volunteers is permitted.

The German Volunteer Service probably provides the most interesting example of dichotomous authority. The service rests on two—often incompatible—pillars of authority. Legally DED is not a membership organization. However, through a rather lengthy process of policy discussions with volunteers and staff, in 1973 the Executive Director issued regulations for participation in decision-making (see Compendium No. 24, Volume II) which were approved by the Council and de facto assign membership functions for volunteers (see column 6 of Table 56). In this respect DED is a service **of** volunteers. However, strong dependecies exist on the Ministry of Economic Cooperation which finances DED, represents the governmental shareholder in the Assembly and is therefore the most powerful of the four governmental representatives on the Council. The same Ministry, via agreements and financial regulations, not only approves the budget but also the hire of top personnel, individual projects, purchase of equipment, etc. Finally, of the 11 DED Executive Directors between 1963 to 1975, 6 (or more than 50%) were and are permanent civil servants on leave from the same Ministry of Economic Cooperation (BMZ) which has the most supervisory power. This structure of authority renders virtually nil the non governmental role within DED, and de facto makes the service an agency of the BMZ. Regarded from this angle, DED is a governmental program **for** volunteers. In such a situation all depends upon a strong and independent Executive Director who is able to cooperate with both the volunteer decision-making bodies and the Council. Cooperation will also depend on: the composition of the Council, the extent to which the non-governmental representatives keep a balance between those representing governmental agencies, and—last but not least—the relationship with the Chairman of the Council. As will be demonstrated later on, this structure of authority affects all areas of operation of DED and has significant impact on its performance.

The Netherlands volunteer service—though structurally somewhat similar to DED—is, in fact, more clearly a part of the government. This is reflected in the supervisory—and actual executive—functions of the Director General of International Cooperation (column 3), and the absence of a significant participation in decision-making on the part of the volunteers. The Executive Director is a civil servant of the Ministry of Development Cooperation. SNV is also a service **for** volunteers, rather than of them.

The US Peace Corps is a governmental agency by legislation, funding and program execution. There is no participation of volunteers in the decision-making; it is a service for volunteers. The only private participation in some form of authority is through the National Voluntary Service Advisory Council which reports to the President. Individuals serve at the discretion of the President. So far, volunteers have not been appointed to the Advisory Council. The Peace Corps Director is appointed—with advice and consent of the Senate—by the President as Associate Director for International Operations of ACTION. He reports to the Director of ACTION who has the ultimate leadership authority of Peace Corps. This shift of leadership authority from the Peace Corps Director originates in the 1972 Amendment of the Peace Corps Act, which effectd the merger into ACTION. There is no doubt that this shift of authority has weakened the Peace Corps in its independent decision-making and program operations. However, being under one umbrella with a broad range of domestic voluntary services, Peace Corps has also gained opportunities for program cooperation and volunteer exchange with other countries that no other Foreign Volunteer Service can offer. Therefore, the merger of Domestic and Foreign Volunteer Services into ACTION, in principle, is an asset, which makes this organization better prepared to respond to future needs, and better prepared than other Foreign Volunteer Services. The question is, whether the authority between the ACTION Director and his Associates for International and Domestic Operations has been allocated so that each service can develop its own profile and use its full potential in the light of today's and tomorrow's needs. It is too early to give a complete answer to this question but it seems that the more equally the authority is distributed between the Directors for International and Domestic Operations and the ACTION Director—the latter being in fact a "primus inter pares"—the more effectually will all the components of the ACTION agency perform. Some recent studies suggested that Peace Corps be taken out of ACTION and set up again as an independent agency. This, it seems, would be a backward step, an effort to recapture a good past experience. A Peace Corps oriented to the future should remain a part of ACTION, but with a redistribution of equal authority in the leadership.

The United Nations Volunteers is the other example of a solely governmental agency, this time with an international structure. Here the member governments of the United Nations who are the ultimate authority have delegated the supervisory power to the UNDP Governing Council. The Council is composed of U.N. member governments represented by their Ambassadors or designated governmental officials. At UNV hearings there are no experts on voluntary services designated by member governments to serve in their delegations or advise on the issues. Only occasionally it happens—for example with Denmark, the US or UK—that the Ambassador or a member of the delegation is well familiar with volunteer services. Taking into account that the overall time allocated for UNV hearings seldom exceeds 4 hours per year in the UNDP Governing Council, the supervisory functions are reduced to a minimum. Since the consequent hearings on UNV in the Economic and Social Council and the Second Committee of the U.N. General Assembly are more or less reduced to confirming resolutions and reports by the UNDP Governing Council, no additional supervisory function is added. This is no wonder since no new authority is introduced—more or less the same governments (and often the same officials representing their governments) conduct the hearings in all three U.N. bodies. New authority would be introduced into the UNV, if provision were made in the existing or in new bodies for volunteer participation in the UNV decision-making process. The same would be true if advisory councils in project countries and for the overall UNV were established and designated to guide project policies and operations and report annually to the UNDP Governing Council. Thus a new dimension of advice and feedback would be added to the current one-sided reporting from the executive branch to the one UNDP supervisory body.

There is no doubt that the current vacuum of authority and participation is one of the major weaknesses of UNV resulting in disinterest, lack of direction and support. It leaves the UNV

Coordinator largely on his own and the service exposed to the whims of U.N. politics. UNV is the only multi-national service for volunteers rather than of them.

This analysis reveals that the earlier described types of legislation in fact determine authority and leadership in the following manner:

- Governmental FV Services (Peace Corps, UNV) keep their authority and leadership in the excutive branch and have difficulty in permitting citizen volunteer participation in decision-making;

- Non-governmental FV Services in Canada derive their authority from participating members/volunteers and maintain the necessary relationship with governmental authorites in a manner which does not destroy their non-governmental nature and citizen-mobilization. Their leadership is independent of government.

- In contrast, the non-governmental Danish FV Service has currently a relationship with governmental authorities, whereby the latter dominate project policies and operations to such an extent that they—in fact—are governmental by nature. Therefore, volunteer participation has—in praxis—no effect on the decision-making in DUU.

- FV Services with a united legal structure (incorporated non-governmental, with one constituency being the government), i.e. the Dutch and German Volunteer Services, are the most fascinating group. Their success depends upon whether the governmental and non-governmental forces are kept in balance. A tendency on the part of the government to dominate will destroy flexibility of a service, reduce efficiency and endanger citizen/volunteer participation in decision-making. The lack of volunteer participation in decision-making will be self-defeating as it weakens the voluntary service component within government—the value cause—for which many services were established.

2. Volunteer Resources

The profile of volunteer resources is reviewed in Table 55, columns 3-5.

The number of volunteers sent abroad is pretty much established on the basis of available financial support. In other words, the costs per volunteer man-year and the total amount a government will spend on such a service determine the number of volunteers assigned abroad—and not the needs or requests from developing countries. The initial optimism to send as many volunteers as possible to learn, help and demonstrate good will has given way to a more calculated and rational export program of technical assistance.

The United Nations Volunteers which originally planned to place 10,000 volunteers through most U.N. Agencies finds itself limited to a few hundred highly specialized volunteers, widely spread, among U.N. technical assistance projects.

By the end of 1974 approximately 95,000 volunteers had served abroad since FV Services were established in the late 1950's.

The **age range of volunteers** is similar among sending services, with a minimum age of 21 years required for joining the service. Since the earlier years the average age of volunteers has increased from about 23 to an average of 26 years and above, due to the higher professional/technical qualifications.

The **educational and skill background of volunteers** in services evaluated is displayed in column 5 of Table 55. Here too, as indicated earlier, the technical/professional qualifications have changed considerably. In response to specific technical assistance requests the overall educational level of volunteers is higher and more specialized. As long as technical assistance determines the operation of these services, the trend to the older and higher-qualified volunteer will continue, thus excluding many who would be capable of service. This one-sided trend toward the specialized professional volunteer—which is not balanced by other forms of volunteer assignments—increasingly leads Foreign Volunteer Services into junior expert type programs. This direction is furthered by special provisions accorded to volunteers' second term assignments. The Dutch and the German volunteer services pay higher allowances to second term volunteers. In addition, the Dutch SNV awards higher positions as Technical Assistants to second term volunteers. All of these provisions point to career development for international expert positions. But, as is happening with long-term foreign volunteer assignments, the need for the long-term expert also diminishes. Thus, the one-sided trend toward the specialized professional volunteer does not direct FV Services to an adjustment to future needs, but away from them. Volunteer assignments with a broader range of educational and skill qualifications would help to avoid such a dead end street. A shift in priorities of the overall mandate—as discussed earlier—will achieve the broadening of the volunteer resource basis and change the current profile of volunteers.

Participation of Women and Married Couples

In the past, by rule of thumb, about one third of the foreign volunteers were women. With the exception of the United Nations Volunteers, women's participation in the services evaluated ranges from 30-40% of the volunteers.

Women especially fill jobs in the health, education and social services fields. Their average age is slightly higher than that of men—as is also their experience in previous employment.

As far as volunteer assignments are concerned there is no recorded discrimination against women.

Mainly, married couples meet the same conditions as do singles, i.e. both partners must satisfy recruitment and selection standards and must be requested for the project. Occasionally, the professional qualifications of one partner—usually the man—are so important for a project that the wife is accepted even though there is no immediate job for her. The wife must pass the personality qualifications and she often finds satisfying tasks in community development activities. The Danish Volunteer Service and the US Peace Corps report the highest rate of couples: 38% and 24% respectively. For the most part, married couples provide a stabilizing factor to foreign volunteer teams. Also, with the exception of the United Nations Volunteers, FV Services provide to some degree for the care of children. This is especially necessary for the older technicians and specialists who are assigned with their families. However, FV Services can only afford a limited number of volunteer families as the non-working members who must be supported considerably raise the costs per volunteer man-year.

3. Staff

As with Domestic Development Services, adequate staffing is also a problem area for Foreign Volunteer Services. But the reasons why problems occur differ.

In general, countries with FV Services have a sufficient number of qualified professionals available for assignment. Also the career advantages of promotion, social benefits, pensions, etc., are usually compatible with those in other employment areas. The only problem occasionally reported, is related to finding an interesting job after a term with an FV Service. This difficulty, of course, occurs only for those staff members who are not career civil servants. The change back into other sectors of employment is difficult mainly for two reasons:

- Foreign Volunteer Services are still largely perceived, especially in continental Europe, as a "not serious" business, as a nice outsider role, and therefore a staff position is not "serious work" that demands certain standards of professional performance.

- After an exciting assignment with an FV Service which challenged a professional in all his intellectual, mental and emotional capabilities, it is difficult to find an interesting job in a governmental or business bureaucracy.

The first indicates a lack of integration and acceptance of FV Services in the home society and the second confirms personal satisfaction on the job.

Most staff is recruited according to regular civil service procedure and undergoes some form of introductory period. But none of the services calls for the thorough selection procedure for staff as for volunteers. Most staff is hired on the basis of written applications, references and a series of interviews. Peace Corps is the only service which conducts regular training for staff before they take up their assignments. All governmental sponsored FV Services apply civil service regulations and contracts for staff hire, or employ career civil servants or foreign service officers (Dutch SNV, Peace Corps). UNV hires staff according to United Nations regulations. Peace Corps is the only service which maintains a time limit of 5 years for staff assignments. The idea is to permit the influx of new ideas through staff turnover and avoid settling-in a staff career in volunteer service. The negative aspect of this policy is a certain discontinuity of program effort and clearly a loss of memory for the organization of what previously has been done and learned.

Table 57 provides a more detailed review of the staffing pattern of Foreign Volunteer Services.

TABLE 57 STAFF IN FOREIGN VOLUNTEER SERVICES

Organization	Headquarters	Field	Total Staff	Educational Background	Staff: Volunteer Ratio
1	2	3	4	5	6
CANADA: -CUSO	79 (secretarial 37)	45[a] (secretarial 5)	124	University degrees in various disciplines; large portion former volunteers	1:8
-WUSC	12 (secretarial 2)	n.a.	n.a.	University graduates; former volunteers	n.a.
DENMARK: DUU	11[b] (secretarial 3)	20[c] (supporting 7+5)	31[c]	n.a.	1:9.9[c]
GERMANY: DED	157 (54 admin.)	43[d] (+33)	200	Graduates from universities and post-secondary institution; some former volunteers	1:4
NETHERLANDS: SNV	42[e]	88[e]	130[e]	Graduates from universities, post-secondary education; civil servants of Ministry of Development Co-operation; some are former volunteers	1:4[e]
USA: Peace Corps	152[g]	570[f]	722[g]	125 Bachelor degree 126 Master degree 16 Ph.D. 79 less than Bachelor Civil Service 346 Foreign Service 65	1:9[g]
UNITED NATIONS VOLUNTEERS	16 (8 general services)	(h)	16	n.a.	1:10.7[h]

Explanations for Table 57:

a) Of the 45 field staff, 12 serve in Regional Offices in Canada and 33 as CUSO field officers in host countries; 2 of CUSO's Headquarters staff are foreigners.

b) 8 executives with an estimated 3 secretarial staff members.

c) 5 of the field staff are officers in regional offices plus approximately 5 secretarial staff; 8 officers and 7 supporting staff conduct the Training Center in Arusha, Tanzania. Total staff estimated.

d) In addition to the 43 field staff, 33 volunteer-secretaries are assigned; of the total staff 9 are foreigners.

e) Estimates, based on data obtained from SNV.

f) Including 311 host country nationals from 48 countries (Foreign Service Local Staff)

g) Excludes overall ACTION staff involved in Peace Corps recruitment and staging of volunteers, and in financial and personnel administration.

h) Since 1975 UNV has 2 executives assigned in the field. Excluded is field staff provided by UNDP in project countries and overall UNDP staff involved in UNV financial and personnel administration.

From this review two problem areas of staffing patterns in FV Services are immediately apparent:

- the significant number of field staff assignments, and
- the high investment in administrative staff in some services.

First, all FV Services maintain **field staff** in project countries or regions to furnish administrative and professional support to volunteers. In addition, most services provide some portion of volunteer training in host countries that require training staff assignments abroad and the hire of host country staff. However, services differ in intensity and structure of their foreign presence. While the Danish, Dutch, German, and US have completely staffed administrations or representations abroad, which carry out a significant amount of management and administrative functions, the Canadian services maintain a low key staff presence overseas.

Second, the high portion of overall **administrative staff** in some FV Services is directly related to the earlier discussed problems of authority. Complex supervisory or leadership authority normally generates a larger number of guidelines and regulations, the need of clearing decisions with many offices, and complex record keeping and reporting. A significant amount of administrative staff is required to comply with that kind of authority structure. The staff:volunteer ratio and the unit costs per volunteer are directly affected.

The German Volunteer Service is a classical example in this regard since one third of the Headquarters staff is employed in the administrative division. This figure does not take into account administrative staff assigned to field offices and general services and secretarial staff in operational divisions at Headquarters. To boot, the administrative staff is comprised of hard working people—kept busy by regulations which they must enforce.

Another factor of authority which adds to the heavy staff overhead of the German Volunteer Service is the far-reaching and structured procedure of volunteer participation in decision making. While it is crucial for the democratic process within DED it also creates a staff time load which is not directly productive in terms of technical assistance. It should be clearly con-

ceived as staff investment, not in technical assistance but in service-learning and citizen participation.

The Canadian CUSO is a different case. Here, besides the volunteer assignments, the staff manages a fairly large program of financial assistance projects and of development education activities in Canada. Therefore a staff:volunteer ratio does not truly reflect the efficiency of staff investment. The rate would be more favorable if only staff designated for the volunteer program could be accounted.

The pattern of high staff investment in FV Services adds up to a low staff:volunteer ratio, which is one indicator of service efficiency (the other is cost per volunteer man-year). Table 57, column 6, displays this ratio for the services under evaluation and confirms the opinions stated above. Compared to a teacher:student ratio in technical education in Germany(00), FV Services meet workshop training conditions (1:8) or average staffing ratios (1:10.2). Technical education in classrooms is reported with a 1:13 teacher:student pattern—an efficiency currently out of reach for FV Services.

There is a third problem area of staffing pattern which is not immediately apparent from the review of Table 57: the **qualifications of staff.** While their level of formal education and field of study is sufficient and covers a wide range of disciplines, their skills and experience are sometimes not adequate. Among the problems:

- The professional staff hired from universities, NGOs, or business assigned to manage the service program in various sectors often lacks the necessary management skills including efficient budgeting, fund applications, record keeping, financial reporting, etc. As professional staff they need a minimum of management knowledge and skills in order to be effective and efficient. While most of them are excellent in their disciplinary field this lack of management skills has promoted the image that FV Services are haphazardly managed and not "really professional". It also has led to more dependency on governmental authorities than necessary for orderly oversight.

- The other problem concerns the opposite end of the spectrum: the qualifications of the administrative staff to serve in a volunteer service. In FV Services most of the administrative staff come from a civil service career of finance or personnel administration. Some had an earlier distinguished career in other governmental departments and they have administered federal programs before. But most of them had no previous experience with volunteer services, nor with agencies which are legally private, with the government being but one constituent (DED, SNV). Administrative staff in a volunteer service requires—of course—the necessary knowledge and skills to administer governmental programs, and perhaps even more, the conviction and skill to keep the organization flexible, regulated to a minimum and serving the volunteer rather than the bureaucracy. Most important, administrators should have the courage and skill to enforce regulations and laws in favor of peoples' needs.

A fourth problem area of patterns concerns the **participation of women** in responsible roles. While a third or more volunteers are female, often with responsible field assignments, most female staff in FV Services is hired for lower positions. They perform secretarial duties and have lower grade officer assignments. None of the FV Services ever had a female director,

deputy director or country representative. In a very few instances women headed departments or offices within these services or had responsibilities as assistant legal counsels. It is in this area that FV Services deprive themselves of qualified staff and a creative involvement of one sector of society which would have much to give to a volunteer service.

In contrast to the problem areas there are two positive trends in staffing patterns of FV Services:

- the involvement of former volunteers in staff assignments, and
- the participation of foreigners.

Former volunteers are increasingly a well experienced staff pool for FV Services, not because they were volunteers per se, but because of their professional qualifications which have been tested in this specific service environment. They know first hand what is needed. The Dutch SNV went so far as to create special Technical Assistant positions for former volunteers assigned to projects where they could provide a continuum in work performance. But it can be argued that former volunteers are even more needed in policy and administrative positions to strengthen the voice of those who are not "betriebsblind", i.e. blind to the short comings of bureaucratic patterns.

Finally, the involvement of foreign staff as reported by the Candian, Danish, German and US Foreign Volunteer Services is an important move to integrate the service in the host country. Foreign staff is hired for training, volunteer support and administrative positions. Only the German Volunteer Service reports the assignment of a foreigner in a top level position, as a representative in one project country. By opening up the staffing pattern to more nationalities, future cooperation between Foreign and Domestic Development Services will find a new area for partnership.

4. Organization and Management

The merit of organization and management of a Foreign Volunteer Service not only affects the quality of the service output and the costs per unit (volunteer man-years), but also the quality of international relations. How an FV Service presents itself abroad and how it is perceived by the host country is influenced by their organizational structure and management.

Table 58 reviews the organization and designation of management functions in FV Services. Organizational charts of individual services are contained in Volume II, Compendia Nos. 21-26.

Reference to Table 58 indicates three interesting items of organizational structure and delegation of management functions in FV Services:

- the local basis at home
- the field office in project countries in relation to Headquarters' functions
- volunteer participation in management functions in project countries.

The Canadian services are unique in organizational structure and delegation of management functions. They are the only volunteer organizations, serving abroad, that retain a firm basis at home in local committees which participate in the management of the program. As pre-

viously explained, they are composed of members of CUSO or WUSC and—through the Membership Assembly—discharge their authority. This dual role of the Local Committees in constitutional and management functions is a major source of strength of the Canadian Services. It gives them independence and makes them less vulnerable to outside policies which may interfere with their mandate.

The Danish DUU has local members but no organized bodies which could become involved in management functions of the service. Of course, the membership provision was only introduced in 1974; it will be important for DUU's future whether local members can be organized and share the management of the service. Because of this lack of a firm local basis, DUU has not been able to use its capabilities as an NGO but, in fact, remained dependent on governmental policies.

Other FV Services have no basis at home at the local level—neither sending communities nor citizen groups are involved in the service. This lack of a home basis is a major weakness of these services which—for the most part—are heavily dependent on governmental support or are outright governmental agencies. Not only did this federalism result in top heavy management (see discussion on staffing patterns), it prevented the services from fully developing their institutional basis locally. This somewhat "free floating" existence makes it difficult to nurture public understanding of the services and in turn to help them to feed their experiences back to local communities—which is now called "development education at home". Finally, it also exposes FV Services to the whims of national politics, whether for or against their existence. There seems no doubt that organizations like DED, SNV, Peace Corps—and even UNV in host countries—would gain significantly as institutions and in their program activities, if they would establish a home basis in local communities and citizen groups.

Second, as fully as possible all FV Services delegate management functions to the field where decisions can be made closer to the project realities. However, since these services operate under different provisions for decision-making authority and administrative regulations, the principle of "close to field" is executed in varied manner. This is reflected in the staffing pattern for field management functions:

Organizations	Average Number of Staff in Field Offices	Field Staff:Volunteer Ratio
CUSO	1.3	1:29.7
DUU	2.5*	1: 9.6*
DED	3.2	1:11.3
SNV	17.6*	1: 6.1*
PC	8.4	1:11.4
UNV	n.a.	n.a.

*Estimates

TABLE 58. ORGANIZATION AND MANAGEMENT IN FOREIGN VOLUNTEER SERVICES

Organization	Headquarters	Management Functions			
		Regional / Country		Local	
		At Home	Abroad	At Home	Abroad
1	2	3	4	5	6
CANADA: –CUSO	Overall management; final selection & placement of volunteers; volunteer & staff support; direction of financial project abroad; development education at home; fundraising; membership support.	5 Regional Offices to serve Local Committees.	26 Field Offices in project countries: project identification, volunteer support, management of discretionary financial projects.	60 Local Membership Committees: volunteer recruitment, selection preparation; development education, fundraising.	Host country project agency/community supervise volunteers' work.
–WUSC	Membership support; fundraising; management of volunteer projects abroad; development education at home; financial assistance abroad; recruitment & selection of UNV volunteers.	–	–	47 Local Committees on campuses conducting domestic programs; recruitment & selection of volunteers.	Host country project agency/community supervise volunteers' work.
DENMARK: DUU	Division in Mellemfolkelight Samvirke; Public information; volunteer recruitment, preselection, training liaison, management of contracts and finances.	–	4 Regional Offices in East Africa: volunteer placement & support, project identification & planning 1 Training Center in Arusha/Tanzania: training of volunteers.	Local members, no management functions.	Host country project agency/community supervise volunteers' work.
GERMANY: DED	Overall management recruitment, selection, training, placement of volunteers project planning & support, public information; government & international liaison, management of contracts and finances, evaluation.	–Volunteer Training Centers in Wachtersbach and Berlin; –DED General Assembly: 9 field staff, 9 Headquarter staff, 2 volunteers in training, 4 volunteers elected by regions, 3 former volunteers elected by ex-volunteers	–24 Field Offices in project countries: volunteer support, DED field administration; in-country training; –General Assembly of DED volunteers & staff in each host country; –Participation Committees of 4 volunteers & DED representation. –Annual Regional Conference	–	Host country project agency/community supervise volunteers' work.

NETHERLANDS: SNV	Office located within the Ministry of Development Cooperation; Overall management of recruitment, selection, training of volunteers; project policy; programming & support, planning & evaluation, international & financial affairs.	Volunteer training at Tropical Institute, Amsterdam.	–5 Field Offices for project identification & assignment preparation; volunteer support, in-country training & administration; –5 Regional training sites (Benin, Tanzania, Philippines, Bolivia, Brazil).	–	–Host country project agency/community supervise volunteers' work. –Technical Assistants provide project continuity; –Technical experts strengthen administration of project.
USA: PEACE CORPS	Office of International Operations within ACTION	27 Regional Offices for volunteer recruitment for overall ACTION	68 Field Offices in project countries for project identification & placement preparation, in-country training, volunteer support administration; special project support	–	Host country project agency/community supervise volunteers' work.
UNITED NATIONS VOLUNTEERS	Office within UNDP, Geneva, Switzerland volunteer recruitment & pre-selection training arrangements; project approval; liaison to development services, U.N. Agencies	Agreement with development services in U.N. member countries to recruit and preselect volunteer training (industrialized countries only), readjustment support	–UNV Liaison Office at UNDP, New York. –UNDP Country Representatives in project countries; arrange project agreements with host country & final selection of volunteers, supervise in-country training; provide volunteer support –U.N. Specialized Agencies identify volunteer projects & request assignments through host country, participate in volunteer selection & training.	–	U.N. Specialized Agencies supervise volunteer work in project countries.

Taking into account that all volunteers in FV Services are supervised during their work assig ments by host country project agencies or communities, the field staff is primarily concern with an extension of Headquarters' management and administration as they bear on each pr ject country. This is confirmed by the fact that the actual management functions delegated the field differ little among FV Services. The following features stand out:

CUSO's high volunteer ratio per field-staff member indicates that many management functio are either directly carried out between Headquarters and volunteers or are delegated to then This approach avoids a high administrative build-up and permits an effective low key organiz tional profile in the field. Apart from volunteer assignments and support, CUSO volunteers an field staff also have authority to decide and manage discretional financial projects for loc communities up to $500.- per project.

The Danish DUU maintains only minimum functions at Headquarters and has delegate extensive management obligations and decision authority to Regional Offices and the Arush Training Center. However, since DUU operates only in East Africa—and not in other regions o the world as other services do—its less favorable staff:volunteer ratio indicates that manage ment functions and authority remain with the staff and are not delegated to volunteers.

The German DED is the only FV Service which has formally established bodies for participa tion in decision-making in project countries:

- the General Assembly of volunteers and staff in each project country is charged with development of principles for volunteer assignment, project criteria, decisions regarding continuation of DED Program, election and discharge of Participation Committee

- the Participation Committee consisting of up to four volunteers and the DED country representative carry out the task of the General Assembly between meetings

- Annual Regional Conferences with one volunteer delegate and the DED representative from each project country participating are charged with project coordination within the region, project priorities, preparation of topics for the DED General Assembly, election of delegates to this Assembly, and exchange of information between Headquarters and the Regions.

This organizational structure formalizes the delegation of authority and management functions to volunteers and staff—a crucial feature of participation for a service heavily dependent on government. It also requires staff and volunteer time—which is well spent. But, with a rigidly regulated financial administration in the field it produces the unfavorable staff:volunteer ratio—even though DED conducts less in-country training than the Danish or US services.

The high investment of staff functions in the field on the part of the Dutch SNV is related to the upgrading of former volunteers as Technical Assistants to successive volunteer groups to support them and provide continuity in work performance. In addition, Technical Experts are assigned to local projects "to strengthen the administrative and management capacity of projects". Like DED, SNV maintains a Headquarter-centered administration with the field staff an operative arm of this function. All of this is reflected in the narrow staff:volunteer ratio.

The Peace Corps' low staff:volunteer ratio is produced primarily by a larger involvement in volunteer training which is now conducted solely in developing countries. No management functions are delegated to volunteers and—as with others—the field staff is the extended arm of Headquarters' administration. Apart from their management functions and their different levels of dependency on Headquarters' decisions, the field staff:volunteer ratio of DUU, DED, SNV and Peace Corps indicates a strong institutional control equivalent to technical educational programs—where the teacher:student ratio ranges from 1:8-13. It seems that such a staff potential in the field could—without much difficulty be changed from technical assistance to joint service-learning assignments.

However, as it stands now, the current organizational structure and delegation of management functions for all but the Canadian services result in fairly costly operations and hinder more than help the integration of the service in the host country society (see also Chapter 11).

5. Costs and Funds

The Program Inputs of authority, leadership, people (volunteers, staff), organizational structure and management functions finally determine the costs and funding of Foreign Volunteer Services. It is evident from the previous discussion that these services rely on governmental funding. Since they all originate in industrialized countries, the overall living conditions and purchasing power of currencies do not affect their different costs to a significant degree. Rather, costs are determined primarily by:

- differences in policy concerning the living standard afforded to volunteers.
- differences in project policy and programs concerning heavy equipment and financial assistance.
- differences in staffing patterns and consequent staff:volunteer ratio.

Table 59 reviews overall **budgets and sources of funding** of FV Services.

TABLE 59 BUDGET AND FUNDING OF FV SERVICES

Organization	Annual Budget US$	Sources of Funding in Cash and Kind		
		Government US$	Non-government US$	Host Country US$
1	2	3	4	5
CANADA: –CUSO	1973-74[a] 8,037.300	4,861.300 60.5%	324,400 4.0%	2,851,600[b] 35.5%
–WUSC	1973-74:[c] 318,235	240,700 75.6%	77,535 24.4%	–
DENMARK: DUU	1973:[d] 2,699,520	2,699,520 100%	–	n.a.
GERMANY: DED	1973:[e] 13,750,064	13,709,800 99.7%	–	40,264 0.3% Work equipment, housing, transportation, etc. provided in kind in some instances.
NETHERLANDS: SNV	1973[f] 8,512,413	8,501,904 99.8%	–	10,509[g] 0.2%
USA: Peace Corps	FY 1974:[h] 80,792,200	76,865,000 95.1%	(432,526)[i]	3,927-200[j] 4.9%
UNITED NATIONS VOLUNTEERS:	1973:[k] 1,095,000	UNDP: 409,600[l] 37.4%	Volunteer Organizations, Special Voluntary Fund: 280,400[l] 25.6%	IPF/UNDP Programme Reserve: 405,000[l] 37%; of which IPF only approximately 29%

Explanations for Table 59:

a) Budget Year: April 1, 1973-March 31, 1974. Annual Budget includes: $436,100. for discretionary and major financial projects; $51,300.- for Project Contracts from CIDA managed by CUSO.

b) Host countries cash contributions and estimated support in kind (work materials, housing, transportation, etc.).

c) Includes a $255,154 contribution to World University Services' Geneva Headquarters for financial assistance projects to developing countries and Headquarter expenses.

d) Budget Year equivalent to Calendar Year. Exchange rate: US$1.- = DKR 6.05. Annual Budget excludes costs for DUU administration (overhead), including personnel, which is part of the Mellemfolkelight Samvirke Budget and cannot be identified separately.

e) Budget Year equivalent to Calendar year. Exchange rate US$1.- = DM2.50. Annual Budget does not include contribution to UNV Special Voluntary Fund.

f) Budget Year equivalent to Calendar Year. Exchange Rate US$1.- = F1.2.60. Annual Budget includes $115,385 contribution to UNV Special Voluntary Fund, and $269,230 Financial assistance to a Nigerian Hospital.

g) Estimate; some host countries contributions are provided in kind.

h) Fiscal Year 1974: July 1, 1973-June 30, 1974. Amount represents actual expenses, including $100,000 Title III multilateral grants consisting of contributions to UNV Special Voluntary Fund, ISVS multilateral activities, support of Domestic Development Services in developing countries, etc.

i) School partnership program, is not included in Peace Corps Budget. It is a financial assistance program to local communities in which Peace Corps volunteers work; funds are raised from private sources in local communities throughout the U.S. and are transferred directly overseas primarily for building schools.

j) Includes estimates of services provided in kind.

k) Annual Budget excludes expenditure for project programming; volunteer supervision, working equipment and vehicles paid for by U.N. Specialized Agencies or the UNDP Representative's Office in the host country.

l) UNV Sources of funding include:
- UNDP Budget for UNV Offices in Geneva, New York, and field staff
- Volunteer sponsoring organizations in industrialized countries and the UNV Special Voluntary Fund for volunteers from developing countries to pay for volunteer pre-service (recruitment, selection, training, international travel) and return costs (international travel, readjustment allowance)
- Indicative Planning Figure funds and UNDP Programme Reserve (only for least developed countries) pay for volunteer in-country costs.

It is evident from the explanations to Table 59 that the Budgets cover different cost items. Some include only volunteer assignments and related costs (DED), some exclude parts of administrative overhead (DUU, UNV), some also include financial projects (SNV and Peace Corps), and finally some include financial projects and development education at home (CUSO, WUSC). With this in mind, Table 59 portrays a wide variation in budgets which is not due to large deviations in purchasing power of currencies but to differences in policy and efficiency of management. The Table also confirms earlier assessments that the private Canadian services are less dependent on governmental support than the private Danish DUU. Not surprising is the close to 100% governmental funding of DED, SNV and Peace Corps. It is estimated that host country contributions to DED and Peace Corps are about equal, if one takes into account that the higher Peace Corps percentage stems from assigning a cash value to contributions received in kind, which is not the case for DED. On the other hand, the Dutch SNV assigned a cash value to contributions in kind, but their host country participation is still significantly lower.

TABLE 60 VOLUNTEER ALLOWANCES IN FOREIGN VOLUNTEER SERVICES

Organizations	Living Allowance per volunteer US $	Other Volunteer Payments and Living Arrangements					Other Arrangements
		Other Allowances			Health Care	Accident/ Liability Life Insurance	
		Housing US $	Vacation US $	Readjustment US $			
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
CANADA: –CUSO	Equivalent to national counterpart[a]	Sometimes provided by hosts	–	–	Yes	Life only	–
–WUSC	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
DENMARK: DUU	Monthly remuneration adjusted to U.N. schedule of Post Qualifications.[b]	–	3 weeks per year & allowance.	Yes	Yes	Yes, all three	Clothing & settling-in allowances; work equipment; sometimes vehicle[e]
GERMANY: DED	Between S172-S379 per month[c]	Free; sometimes provided by host	2½ days per service month; S180 per year.	S120.- per month of service.[d]	Yes[e]	Yes[e]	S520 settling-in allowance; work equipment; sometimes vehicle[e]

NETHERLANDS: SNV	$165 per month plus cost of living adjustments.	Provided by SNV or hosts	1½ days per service month plus allowance	$135 per month of service.	Yes	Yes	$325 settling-in allowance; work equipment; vehicle.
USA: Peace Corps	Average $152.- per month.	Sometimes provided by host.	2½ days per service month plus average $216 per year.	$75.- per month of service.	Yes(f)	Yes	$171 settling-in allowance; average $119 per volunteer a year for supplies and equipment.
UNITED NATIONS VOLUNTEERS:	Monthly living allowance depending on cost of living index.	Free simple housing.	2½ days per month.	–	Yes	Yes	–Installation grant; –Supplies, work, equipment.

Explanations for Table 60:

a) Major part of volunteer living allowances paid by host country project agencies.

b) Remuneration paid monthly "at a level which will place all DUU volunteers serving abroad on equal footing".

c) Amount depends on the cost of living index of project country issued by the Ministry of Interior for foreign assignments; living allowance is tax free, housing and utilities are provided free of charge.
Volunteers who receive special project assignments as coordinators receive an additional $120 per month above the basic living allowances.

d) Volunteers who have successfully completed one term and are assigned for a second term of service receive $200 re-adjustment allowance per completed service month.
Volunteer coordinators receive $160 re-adjustment allowance per month of service.

e) Volunteer contracts of the DED (and NGO's sending volunteers abroad with governmental support) are regulated by the Volunteer Act (Entwicklungshelfer Gesetz) of June 19, 1969. The law regulates health insurance, liability, disability, life insurance, relief from military service, re-integration at home, etc.

f) Peace Corps maintains own health service while others provide health insurance and/or contract with local or other international doctors.

All FV Services provide international travel and shipment of belongings up to a certain weight free of charge.

CUSO takes in a sizable contribution from host countries, apparently for two reasons:

- Initially CUSO volunteers were assigned only if the host project agency would pay the full volunteer costs at a level equivalent to their own salaries. Only later did CUSO change this policy to pay part of the volunteer in-country costs.

- The living allowances remain low and equivalent to national counterparts even though CUSO is now paying part of the volunteer costs.

The United Nations Volunteers have a complex funding structure which is clearly a compromise between governments and voluntary agencies which were interested in the creation of UNV. This funding structure hampers the growth and the full development of UNV's capabilities in two respects:

1. The fact that sponsoring organizations in industrialized countries finance volunteer pre-service and return costs places recruitment for UNV secondary only to the organization's bi-lateral volunteer assignments. Volunteer sponsoring organizations spend an estimated $4,000.- per UN volunteer competing with about the costs for a half year bi-lateral volunteer assignment.

2. The in-country costs of UN volunteers are financed out of Indicative Planning Figure funds allocated to each country for all U.N. financed projects and based on overall country programmes. The host countries, of course, decide on what portion of the total funds they wish to spend for volunteer manpower. Here the UN volunteer competes with the experts whose average costs are considered ten times higher than those of UNV's ($30,000: $3,000). This is the reason why the argument of the "cheaper expert" played such a role in making UNV acceptable. The other problem is that bi-lateral volunteers are provided free—or almost free—without bearing on IPF funds. Here UNVs compete with bi-lateral foreign volunteers for potential volunteer jobs. Exceptions are assignments to least developed countries. Because of the smaller IPF funds, UNVs are paid for by the UNDP Programme Reserve. But this is no permanent solution and considerations are underway to find other means of financing UNV in-country costs in order to give flexibility to assign volunteers to UN and non-UN projects and give UNV a chance to become a truly voluntary service within the UN devoted to development work.

As indicated earlier, the differences in living allowances and arrangements for volunteers largely affect the overall costs and the efficiency of Foreign Volunteer Services. Table 60 displays these payments.

Table 60 easily reveals that except for CUSO all FV Services endure a complex set of volunteer payments and regulations, and permit wide variations in living standards.

A 1969 detailed study of "Living Allowances and Arrangements for Overseas Volunteers"[97] indicated that "What is necessary?" and "What can be afforded?" are questions which only in part influence living allowances and regulations. More influential is the underlying doctrine or philosophy of a service. The concept of volunteer service does not permit wages, even low enough to meet basic expenses, for such wages would give the impression of cheap labor and

would be in conflict with labor regulations in most countries. Yet, some form of payment is necessary to enable those who are qualified, but not rich enough to pay for their living needs, to participate in service. Hence, the set of regulations and allowances that will ensure that the living style of volunteers remains simple but also healthy and safe.

All of this results in what the 1969 study called the "regulated" volunteer, one who is less free to determine his own life style and who requires a costly administration to pay the many different allowances and enforce regulations.

A different approach is used for what was called the "unregulated" volunteer who receives one simple allowance for all cash expenses and other provisions in kind such as housing, transportation, health care etc. CUSO is an example of this approach and the Swedish Volunteer Service would have been another. Here smaller administrative costs occur to support volunteers in the field.

Whether "regulated" or "unregulated" volunteer living accommodations, the level of living standard per se largely depends on the total amount of cash payments afforded to volunteers through various allowances. Table 60 indicates that the German DED permits the highest living standard to their volunteers closely followed by the Dutch, Danish and U.N. volunteer services. Of this group of "regulated" volunteers Peace Corps pays the lowest amount--only slightly higher than CUSO. To determine the amount of monthly living allowances the Danish DUU applies the UN Schedule of Post Qualifications, whereas Germany and the Netherlands apply their own government's cost of living indices for certain job qualifications. In other words, the level of payment is determined by international or sending government's levels and not by host countries' levels as is the case for CUSO or Peace Corps. Foreign Volunteer Services in the UK, New Zealand and Australia use approaches similar to CUSO and Peace Corps. It seems that the Anglo-Saxon concept of voluntary service plays an important role in determining the living allowances of volunteers, while the continental European services and UNV adhere to the standards drawn from the employment system.

The payments to foreign volunteers and related regulations will affect the possibility of future partnership-cooperation with domestic volunteers of comparable qualifications in developing countries. A comparison with Table 48, for example, reveals that in general the Anglo-Saxon services will find it easier to adjust to STD Service conditions than the continental European services. Overall the adjustment of health care, insurance, vacation or travel regulations will not produce a significant problem, as will the many different cash allowances both in types and in levels. This issue will be taken up again later on when new forms of partnership-cooperation are discussed.

Finally, the **unit costs per volunteer man-year** express the efficiency of a service, as does the staff:volunteer ratio. Following is a comparison of both indicators for the FV Services under evaluation:

	Costs Per Volunteer Man-Year US $	Staff:Volunteer Ratio
Canadian CUSO	8,200	1: 8
Danish DUU	8,736	1: 9.9
German DED	15,870	1: 4
Dutch SNV	15,750	1: 4
US Peace Corps	12,450	1: 9
UNV	8,111	1:10.7

It should be recalled that only the costs from CUSO, SNV and Peace Corps are directly comparable. DED costs do not include financial contributions to the UNV Special Voluntary Fund—which would raise even more the current high costs per volunteer man-year. DUU excludes administrative overhead and staff costs at Headquarters and UNV does not identify administrative overhead in project countries. The staff:volunteer ratio is compatible in all FV Services with the exception of UNV which has no record of staff time for UNV project programming and supervision in host countries.

Considering these factors, CUSO is by far the most efficient service closely followed by DUU and Peace Corps. Costly, and least efficient, is DED—with SNV a runner-up. It is now evident that the staff:volunteer ratio and the allowances paid to volunteers in fact determine the efficiency of FV Services. Both, in turn, are deeply influenced by the supervisory and leadership authority and the delegation of management functions.

PROGRAM TASKS

The Program Tasks of Foreign Volunteer Services are to a large extent similar to those of domestic programs. They include:

1. Recruitment, Selection and Placement of Volunteers
2. Training for Foreign Assistance
3. Foreign Assistance Work Programs
4. Financial Assistance Programs
5. Materials Services
6. Feedback at Home
7. Citizens Mobilization and Participation.

Table 61 provides an overall review of these Program Tasks.

TABLE 61. PROGRAM TASKS OF FV SERVICES

Organization	Service Schedule		Volunteer				Other Programs
	Duration Months	Geographical Coverage	Training		Work Programs		
			Time	Areas	Time	Areas	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
CANADA. –CUSO	27 full-time	42 countries - 22 Africa – 4 Asia - 4 Pacific - 7 Carribean – 5 Latin America	2 month- 1 year, part-time 10 days full-time 10 weeks full-time 11½ weeks full-time	by Local committees. language developemnt cooperation; general training by CUSO In-Country project prep.	24	60% Education(a) 15% Health 10% Crafts, Technical 6% Agriculture 4% Admin./Business 4% Other	–180 financial projects –3 CIDA financial contracts –Development Education in Canada –Support of 60 Local Committees in Canada
–WUSC	1-3 full-time since 1974 1-2 years full-time	9 countries	n.a.	n.a.	1 3 1	- Rural cooperatives –Community develop. –Community surveys	- 7 financial projects –Seminars in Canada & abroad –Marketing of products from developing countries –Scholarships for black students in Rhodesia –UNV recruiting for Canada
DENMARK: DUU	27 full-time	4 countries in East Africa	3 weeks 7 weeks 2 weeks 12 weeks full-time	All in Tanzania: –Intensive language –Main country/ lang. study –Tech. English Instruction Tech.	24	24% Education(b) 24% Crafts 19% Engineering 16% Health 6% Agriculture 6% Administration 5% Social Service	–
GERMANY: DED	28 full-time	24 countries: –14 Africa – 5 Asia – 6 Latin America Carribean	11 weeks(g) 4-8 weeks Total: 13-19 weeks	Basic, Germany: –language –Country study –Cross-cultural In-country: –second lang. –project prep. –special technical skills	24	28% Crafts Engineering/ industry(c) 26% Social Services CD(d) 15% Education(e) 15% Health(f) 9% Agriculture 2% Admin. Business 1% UNV 4% Other	–

TABLE 61. PROGRAM TASKS OF FV SERVICES (Continued)

Organization	Service Schedlue		Volunteer				Other Programs
	Duration Months	Geographical Coverage	Training		Work Programs		
			Time	Areas	Time	Areas	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
NETHERLANDS: SNV	27 full-time	13 countries –8 Africa –2 Asia –3 Latin America	6 weeks 4 weeks 2-3 weeks Total: 12-13 weeks	Basic, Netherlands: –language –country development studies –Suppl tech. skills Regional Tr. same topics as Basic Training –In-country project prep.	24	21% Crafts, Tech, Industry 19% Agriculture 17% Education[h] 14% Health 7% CD[d] 5% Admin. Business 1% UNV 16% Other	1 Financial Project (Hospital in Nigeria)
USA: Peace Corps	27 full-time	69 countries: –26 Africa –21 NANEAS[i] –22 Latin America Caribbean	Total: 12 weeks	In-Country: –350 hrs. language –250 hrs. tech. skills –100 hrs. cross-cultural training	24	45% Education[f] 23% Agriculture, Rural Development 12% Health[k] 5% Urban Development Public Works 5% Business & Public Management 10% Other[l] Special Projects	–Financial Projects School-Partnership Program –Encouragement of Voluntary Service Programs (staff, material assist., no funds) Title III –Multi-national Volunteer Programs (financial assist.) Title III –Resource Materials: development and provision
UNITED NATIONS VOLUNTEERS	25-26 full-time	29 countries[m] –15 Africa –12 Mid East – 5 Asia – 7 Latin America Caribbean	undetermined 4-12 weeks	Sending country In-country by UNV: –language –country/dev. studies –special tech. –cross-cultural	24	UN assisted projects: 31% Agriculture Rural Dev. (FAO) 30% Tech. Skill Training (ILO) 21% Various[m] 9% Public Admin. Housing, Transp., Community Development 9% Teachers training Literacy (UNESCO)	Assistance to U.N. Youth Programmes & Domestic Development Services in developing countries through seminars & consulting on UNDP financial assistance

Explanations for Table 61:

a) Includes all levels of general education plus vocational/technical
b) Includes all levels of general education plus vocational/technical
c) Includes technical education and training
d) CD = Community Development
e) General education at all levels
f) Includes health education and training
g) Regularly 4 weeks; if two languages (one international and one indigenous) must be learned; then 8 weeks
h) Includes vocational/technical training and all levels of general education
i) NANEAP: North Africa, Near East, Asia and Pacific Region
j) Includes all levels of general education and teachers' training
k) Includes health education and training, health statistics, public health infrastructure (sanitation)
l) Includes environmental control and preservation, Sahelian drought relief program, earthquake redevelopment (Peru, Nicaragua), refuge relief (Zaire), linguistic project to preserve 23 major Malayan languages, etc.
m) UNICEF, WFP, WHO, ITU, UNFPA and UNDP assisted Projects

1. Recruitment, Selection, Placement of Volunteers

Volunteers are recruited through advertising in public media, in special professional journals and through personal contacts with friends, colleagues and family members who have served abroad.

Three different **approaches to recruitment** are employed:

First, "**pooling**"—that is accepting applications from candidates to form a pool from which qualified volunteers will be selected and placed on the basis of specific requests from developing countries. The pool approach requires more administrative work to keep a larger portion of dosiers up-to-date, even though many of the candidates may never be placed in projects. For example, in 1974 Peace Corps received 30,159 applications which were to be matched with 6,530 specific volunteer requests from host countries. Needless to say thousands of candidates never entered the selection process. For others, by the time a project request matching the skills of applicants on file came along, many had changed their minds, were committed to employment, or had other reasons to decline the assignment offer. All FV Services started out maintaining such pools of applicants. Today only CUSO, Peace Corps, and to a smaller extent the Danish DUU continue this approach.

It should be noted that pooling has also some very positive features. It provides a broader basis for selecting the best qualified volunteers, and it comes closest to the "right to serve" principle of some STD Services—accepting all volunteer applications for service at home. However, FV Services are meticulous in making a careful selection of volunteers sent abroad. While domestic services can follow a policy of giving everyone opportunity to serve their own country and community, a measure of discrimination must be applied to service in a foreign land. In addition to the necessary skills, the applicant must also display a stable personality. FV Services agree that one should not export volunteers who may be a burden rather than a help.

According to the "Entwicklungshelfer Gesetz" (Volunteer Act) the German DED is required to maintain a special pool of applicants who are permitted to select development instead of

military or alternative civil service at the time they are eligible for the draft. Paragraph 22 of the Volunteer Act of June 18, 1969, provides that those liable for military service will not be drafted if:

a) they have committed themselves to a two year development stint with a registered development service,

b) they prepare themselves adequately for service abroad, and

c) the Minister of Economic Cooperation certifies this continued education.

After two years of successful development service abroad the liability for the military is eliminated. A similar approach is applied for accepted military draft resisters who are liable for alternative civil service and who will not be inducted if they apply for development service abroad.

Since the military draft concerns the 18-19 years old and the service abroad requires a minimum age of 21 years, draftees apply in a lower age bracket and must be—according to the law—recruited and pre-selected by DED. Until they are finally accepted and placed in a project DED is charged with overseeing their educational efforts to prepare themselves for service abroad and report to the selective service system whether liability for military or alternative civil service should be withdrawn. When volunteer candidates in this special pool have reached the minimum age of 21 years and have completed their technical/professional education they enter the normal selection and placement procedure of DED according to volunteer requests from project countries. This means in praxis that DED is charged by law to maintain a special pool of volunteers where candidates may be on call for a period ranging between 3-6 years.

It is DED policy to accept and select up to one third of the total number of volunteer assignments on the basis of the Paragraph 22 provisions of the Volunteer Act. This proportion has never been realized. In practice, not quite 10% of the volunteer assignments abroad are the result of opting for development instead of military service. This indicates that DED has not diminished its selection standards and that there is a disproportion between those who would like to apply Paragraph 22 instead of military draft and those who are in fact qualified to serve abroad.

Second, a different approach is "**job recruiting**" which is determined by the individual openings in projects and based on requests by host countries. In such cases, the applicant is accepted only if a job is already available. The result is that the overall selection basis is narrower. Such recruitment comes closest to the hiring practices that follow regular employment procedures. The German DED and the Dutch SNV follow this approach. In other words, DED combines a special pooling of military eligibles with individual job recruiting for regular volunteer applications. In "job recruiting" administration costs are saved because no pool of files is maintained. But as with the larger pool, strict selection standards are applied even though the basis for choices among candidates is limited.

Third, "**specialist recruiting**" is an approach used by all Foreign Volunteer Services for those volunteer positions which require special skills and are not supplied by the regular influx of applications. Specialized recruiting—mostly through advertising in professional/technical journals—often results in applications for particular job openings. Here a selection between various candidates is often not possible. However, all FV Services adhere to their selection rules and will not place a candidate who may have the technical skills but lacks the personality traits required to perform well in all respects abroad. All services have had their experiences

with failures and adhere to the principle that first the personal and secondly the skill qualifications are important for any overseas assignment.

Peace Corps employs a somewhat unique approach with specialized recruiting. To weed out applicants who do not possess the skills required for the project and at the same time direct recruiting toward those whose skills are rare (agriculturists, nurses, certified teachers of mathematics and science, vocational arts) Peace Corps has developed an Intern Program at universities. Qualified volunteer candidates are given the opportunity to adapt their own schedule of studies to prepare themselves for the overseas assignment. In addition, weekly seminars focus on issues related to the future project and the host country. Most universities allow for academic credit for the Intern Program after successful completion of service with Peace Corps.

Some examples of **recruitment and selection criteria** applied in FV Services follow:

CANADA/CUSO:

- Minimum age 18 years
- Landed immigrants or Canadian citizens
- Good health
- Employable skills
- Minimum functional English
- Qualities of common sense, initiative, sensitivity and ability to relate to different values and conditions.

DENMARK/DUU:

- Minimum age 20 years
- Danish citizen
- At least one year of employment experience after completion of technical/professional education
- Good health
- Mature, emotionally stable
- Some knowledge of English

GERMANY/DED:

- Minimum age 21 years
- Citizen of Federal Republic of Germany
- Good health
- Completed technical/professional education and minimum of 2 years employment experience desired
- Jobs opening in project request from developing country
- Mature, stable, tolerant etc.

NETHERLANDS/SNV:

- Minimum age 21 years
- Dutch citizen
- Must fulfill technical/professional skill requirements
- Prepared to enter contract for 27 months
- No discrimination on grounds of race, religion or political persuasion.

USA/Peace Corps:
(Criteria for "volunter qualification process" which includes "staging" and in-country-training)

- Minimum age 18 years
- U.S. citizen
- Good health
- Competency regarding: technical/professional skills for assignment, local language, knowledge of host country

- Personality attributes such as: motivation which will endure under stress, sufficient intelligence to meet demands of assignment, emotional stability, physical vigor under stress, initiative, determination, friendliness, patience, ability to communicate, respect for others regardless of race, religion, etc.

UNV:

- Minimum age 21 years
- Meet health standards and personal qualifications established by UNV
- Possession of required educational background and professional/technical skills, including ability to transfer skills
- Motivation to serve without regard to financial benefits, to give a period of their lives to service of others, at the same time gaining experience. Prime commitment should be to the philosophy and purpose of development and to the people for whom they work. They are required to pledge themselves to the standards and ideals enunciated in the United Nations Charter.

In general, the Anglo-Saxon FV Services permit a lower entry minimum age than continental European services but in practice most volunteers are by far above 21 years of age. This is reflected in average age of volunteers which ranges between 26-27.3 years (see Table 55, column 4).

A significant recruitment distinction between FV Services is related to educational and skill background:

- completed technical/professional education and employment experience are required by the Danish DUU and the German DED;
- completed technical/professional education only is required by the Dutch SNV and UNV;
- possession of employable skills are required by the Canadian CUSO and US Peace Corps.

Again this reveals a pattern which results from the availability of technically skilled graduates in the majority age group. In other words, the recruitment criteria in FV Services concerning technical/professional skill requirements are tailored to the type of output of the education system available in a society, which differs in Anglo-Saxon countries from those in continental Europe.

Finally, while only the Dutch SNV and Peace Corps list a non-discrimination rule on grounds of race, religion or political pursuasion—women are not listed as a group—all other FV Services give no such criteria. It seems to be their understanding that a discrimination against one or another group of applicants is incompatible with their service principles requiring no specific affirmation. However, no data are available whether the recruitment efforts in FV Services follow the non-discrimination rule.

The acceptance of a volunteer's application initiates various stages of **selection procedure.**

First, all FV Services **screen the written applications** and return those obviously not eligible for service abroad.

In a second stage various forms of **selection meetings** are conducted:

- Danish, Dutch and German volunteers are given tests and personal interviews at headquarters. At the same time they undergo health examinations or are advised to take the examinations at their nearest certified health department. A Selection Committee decides the candidates to be accepted at this stage, which is the decisive step in the selection procedure of these services.

- Local CUSO Committees pre-screen applications and give individual interviews. CUSO headquarters reviews the dosiers and—after preliminary approval—recommends volunteers to the field for final approval.

- Peace Corps conducts two different forms of meetings called "staging":
  a) Medical-administrative staging for medical clearance and necessary administrative routine matters before entering in-country-training. This procedure is applied for most volunteer assignments, in other words the pre-selection on the basis of written application is the decisive step followed by this rather low-keyed staging meeting. No selection tests are administered.

  b) Pre-invitational stagings last 3 days and are conducted only when a more careful screening is required, for example for assignments in new project countries, or in projects which require a specifically selected group of volunteers.

All FV Services provide for a **third stage during or at the end of the training period** when the qualifications of volunteers can be reconsidered and the final selections made before work assignments.

All FV Services adhere to two principles in selecting volunteers:

- The host country must accept the volunteer—either via submission of dosiers (CUSO, DUU, UNV) or summary personnel descriptions (DED, SNV, Peace Corps), and

- the self-selection of volunteers by emphasizing the qualifications necessary for a specific assignment during the second and third stage, in contrast to disqualifying a person. Peace Corps calls this step the "volunteer qualification process".

At the end of the second stage, after or during the meetings, **volunteer placement** is a crucial step which matches available volunteer resources with the specific job requests from developing countries. Increasingly, not only are the volunteers' skills and personal capabilities important but also whether they hold the formal degree the host country requires from their nationals for the assignment.

The compatability of education and degrees between sending and receiving countries' institutions is an important consideration in volunteer placement. But for the many assignments which do not require specific degrees the emphasis is, of course, on skills, experience and overall personality traits. Job recruiting, specialized recruiting and the selection meetings help significantly to reduce the risk of miscalculating volunteer qualifications.

Finally, a special word on the selection and placement of volunteer candidates in UNV which are described in detail in Volume II, Compendium No. 26. Volunteer candidates are preselected by sponsoring volunteer sending organizations, designated agencies in developing countries or by the UNV Recruitment Office which increasingly receives applications directly. Up to five or a minimum of two volunteer candidates per job opening are screened at UNV Headquarters. After review, the dosiers are forwarded to the UNDP Representatives Offices in the project country and to the U.N. Specialized Agency which conducts the project. The final selection of one volunteer out of two to five candidates is in the hands of the host country. Their decision must take into account not only the professional and personal qualifications of the volunteer, but also a balanced geographical compositon of the team, as decreed by the U.N. Resolution enacting UNV (No. 2659 XXV). In all, it is a combersome procedure with great risk to the individual volunteer candidate, who may be personally and professionally qualified, but is turned down because his nationality is rejected for this particular place. This procedure is complex and time consuming. It must be simplified, if UNV is to expand to a service size where it can have an impact on the U.N. system.

All in all there is no doubt that Foreign Volunteer Services in all countries have developed thorough and largely successful recruitment, selection and placement procedures—more thorough, in fact, than are applied to obtain experts for technical assistance assignments.

2. Training for Foreign Assistance

The training curriculum and methods of FV Services also have been creative and have advanced the development of specific fields of skills and knowledge. The preparation of educated and skilled people to perform well, primarily at the grassroots level, in another culture, nation and language had not previously been handled on so broad a scale. The fact that some satisfactory stage of fitness for the jobs was achieved in a limited time span of 8-12 weeks—and not during an endless educational process—is another significant contribution to the "State of Art" of this cross-cultural training. In Canada and the United States, where initially volunteer training was conducted in close cooperation with universities, the traditional disciplinary education in international affairs, languages, cultural psychology, etc., has been significantly altered. Most of the professionals who today are spearheading the efforts of international education, a global perception of the curriculum, and experience based cross-cultural learning were initially trainers of volunteers for service abroad. At that time they became convinced that training for two years of overseas service was more than an ad hoc effort; it was a preparation for coping with new and closer relationships among people and nations on this small globe. As the Dutch SNV explains: *"The educational process begins during the preparatory (training) period, continues during the two years in the field and may go on after his return to the Netherlands".*

While the Canadian and early Peace Corps training largely affected the formal tertiary education system, that is not true for continental Europe. There volunteer training remained separated from the formal education system and, therefore, did not initiate any significant changes. Nevertheless, European training of volunteers for service abroad consciously embraces the importance of the training principles described above.

For instance, the Danish DUU specifically formulates **training goals**:

"• *to enable the volunteer to carry out his job without essential linguistic difficulties*

• *to prepare the volunteer for working and living conditions in the area of service*

• *to give the volunteer a certain understanding of development problems and knowledge of the economic, social, political and cultural conditions in the area of service.*"

Overall, the **training program** of FV Services divides into different phases that lead the volunteer from a general introduction, through mastering certain necessary language, communication and technical skills to specific project preparation. Table 62 displays these program features.

TABLE 62 TRAINING FOR FOREIGN ASSISTANCE

Training Program Phases	CANADA CUSO	DENMARK DUU	GERMANY DED	NETHERLANDS SNV	USA Peace Corps	UNITED NATIONS VOLUNTEERS
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I. Phase Schedule	Preparation: 2-12 months[a]	Preliminary Tr. 3 weeks	Basic Training 11 weeks	Basic Training 6 weeks	12 weeks	depends[f]
Location	Canada: Local committees	Arusha/ Tanzania	Germany	Netherlands	In Project Country	Home Country
Curriculum	–foreign language –development issues –cross-cultural communication	–intensive language in groups according to entry level 90 hours	187 hrs. language; 14 hrs. health[b] 22 hrs. skill transfer; 55 hrs. country studies; 55 hrs. cross-cultural communication; 44 hrs. development policies; 4 hrs. feedback & evaluation practice[c]	–language –cultural communication –skill transfer –supplementary technical[d] –development problems –planning & evaluation (of volunteer work)	350 hrs. language; 250 hrs. technical skills[e] 100 hrs. cross-cultural training	–language[f] –development education –skill training
II. Phase Schedule	10 days	Main Course 7 weeks	In-country-training[g] 4-8 weeks	Foreign Regional Training 4 weeks	Same as above	UNV Training 4-12 weeks
Location	Hq Canada	Arusha	Project countries	5 countries[h]		Project Country
Curriculum	–CUSO introduction –project and pre-departure preparation	60 hrs. local language 50 hrs. country studies –health –cultural communication	–language –cross-cultural communication –technical project preparation	same topics as above; second language		–language –cross-cultural communication –country study –development issues –U.N. System & principles –suppl. technical skills
III. Phase Schedule	In-Country Training 10 weeks	Technical Course 2 weeks	Same as above	In Country Training 2-3 weeks	Same as above	Same as Phase II
Location	Project country	Arusha		Project country		
Curriculum	–language –country study –technical skill adaptation –cross-cultural communication	–technical English –Instruction Techniques		–local language –project preparation		
Total Training Period	11-12 weeks full-time; 2-12 months part-time	12 weeks full-time	15-19 weeks full-time	12-13 weeks full-time	12 weeks full-time	10-14 weeks full-time

Explanations for Table 62:

a) 2-12 months part-time preparation locally.

b) Practical training on how to transfer skills to others; extension education; instructor training.

c) Practice periods include: cooking, sewing, baking bread, drivers training, etc.

d) Special technical/professional skills required for the job in addition to technical qualifications volunteers possess (see educational background of volunteers).

e) Technical skill adaptation includes:
   - for volunteers with no formal technical education (bachelors of arts) basic skill training for their job assignments
   - for technically skilled volunteers special technical training required for job.

   These two approaches result from volunteers' different educational background (generalists versus technically skilled).

f) Volunteer sponsoring organizations in industrialized countries and UNV (for volunteers from developing countries) are obliged to arrange for a pre-service training which produces a volunteer sufficiently skilled to communicate in the language of the project country and to perform well in his technical/professional assignment. Volunteers prepared for UNV assignments are often trained together with bilateral volunteers or, in case of second term assignments, receive only brief orientation from the sponsoring organizations.

g) Regularly 4 weeks; if a local language must be learned in addition to the international language, the in-country-training is extended to 8 weeks

h) Benin, Tanzania, Philippines, Bolivia, Brazil.

Table 62 reveals that the **curriculum content** is very similar among FV Services. According to the curriculum, foreign assistance preparation centers on:

- language, including learning the local language
- transfer of technical skills
- cross-cultural communication skills
- understanding of development issues.

However, not only curriculum content but also **training methology** is emphasized in the foreign assistance learning package FV Services have developed. Most language training is conducted as intensive programmed instruction using language laboratories and native speakers as instructors. In some instances language inversion training is applied using only the foreign language for any form of communication. As much as possible the training is practice oriented and experience is gleaned from many assignments for self-study. To a varying degree volunteer groups govern themselves during training. The methodology for cross-cultural communication skill development differs most among FV Services. Peace Corps is probably the most advanced, taking advantage of the many methods developed and tested during the days when the training was still conducted in the United States and the Virgin Islands. Many publications testify to these efforts, the 1970 "Guidelines for Peace Corps Cross-Cultural Training", Part I-IV[128], published under Peace Corps contract by the Center for Research and Evaluation, Estes Park, Colorado, being the most comprehensive document. The Bibliography, Appendix C-2, cites some literature related to cross-cultural training[53,102,105,106,116].

While all services initially followed a similar format of basic training at home and more specific preparation in the host country they have now tailored their training to different needs. With

the exception of the German DED, all FV Services have reduced the home country training periods and increased those in developing countries—but they have done so to a differing degree:

- In-country training only is conducted by the Danish DUU and Peace Corps; the latter has designed a one-package program.

- The major part of training conducted in developing countries ranges from a home:foreign training ratio of 2:10 weeks (Canada) to 6:7 weeks (Netherlands)

- Only DED continues to give the major portion of training at home, with a significant 11 weeks in Germany, and 4-8 weeks in project countries. DED also conducts the longest training program, and is the only FV Service which has purchased its own training site at home (Berlin). Putting home country training "in concrete" is an unfortunate development for an FV Service which should remain flexible to changing needs and operate closely with the actual volunteer project. Now, that the training site is owned by DED it must, of course, be occupied. Apparently the needs of volunteer training and of project preparation did not command priority in decisions concerning this aspect of DED training.

It should, however, be pointed out that the Danish DUU has now established its own training center in Tanzania. In general, it would seem FV Services are better off and closer to the host country and project needs, if they use existing local facilities on a rental basis for their volunteer training. The training environment, determined by the nature and culture of the host country, is often a stronger educational force than any formal instruction.

FV Services which favor in-country-training argue that the training environment is more realistic, the curriculum content more relevant, host country participation is ensured and, therefore, partnership relations in their various aspects are experienced during training. Proximity to the future work project stimulates responsiveness of the training program to real needs. No adverse effects have been reported because of training conducted close to the project site. And last—but not least—the training costs per volunteer are lower in a project country. For example, Peace Corps estimates that the reduction of costs per volunteer man-year by about $1,000.- is largely due to the staging approach linked to complete transfer of training from the US to the project country.

Finally, the combined efforts of volunteer selection and training result in a prepared and accepted volunteer, ready for work. No tests are conducted during training to formally establish the level of learning. However, various forms of evaluation of their qualifications by the volunteers themselves continue until the end of the training period. For example, volunteers in DED evaluate themselves during the first 9 weeks of the 11-week basic training. In the remaining 2 weeks a selection board takes these results and determines the fitness for service in a foreign country before they leave Germany to begin their in-country-training.

The "volunteer qualification process" of Peace Corps—which begins with the 1-3 days staging—and continues during in-country-training places emphasis on gaining self-awareness. Consequently, self-selection of volunteers means qualifying for service. The trainee completion rate during in-country-training of Peace Corps ranges from 68-100%, with an average of 88%. Up to 32% of the volunteers will return home from the in-country-training because they did not qualify.

These five training components are common to FV Services and STD Services in developing countries:

- local language
- cross-cultural communication
- supplementary skill
- development issues
- health

Of course, the degree and intensity of individual training components will be determined by the educational and skill background of volunteers and the performance needs on the job. But in actual fact, the learning needs of a foreign volunteer from Europe or North America compared to those of a city-bred domestic volunteer in a developing country differ little when both are being prepared for rural communities where they will live with those left aside from the mainstream of development.

3. Foreign Assistance Work Programs

The assignment of volunteers to work programs in developing countries is the most important Program Task of Foreign Volunteer Services. As people to people service organizations they give primary attention to this program sector and its effectiveness.

In this Sub-Chapter the overall foreign assistance work programs are reviewed. Assistance to Domestic Development Services provided by FV Services is discussed separately in Chapter 11 as it is a major concern of this evaluation. Features of foreign assistance work programs include:

- goals and guidelines
- areas of priorities
- regional distribution and preference for project countries
- multinational cooperation of FV Services
- target groups, counterparts, "receiver" training
- work materials and technology
- work environment and experience
- roles of foreign volunteers

Most FV Services have defined **goals** or have issued **guidelines** to direct their work programs. To illustrate:

CANADA/CUSO:

In principle, CUSO perceives its activities as an allocation of resources on the basis of requests

from local communities, either through assignment of volunteers, or provision of funds or both. CUSO encourages innovative, creative and experimental projects, especially for the allocation of funds.

DENMARK/DUU:

In principle, volunteers are assigned to fill a temporary skill gap of technical middle level manpower. DUU does not carry out projects on its own but rather offers volunteer manpower to existing projects (the latter is true for all other FV Services as well).

GERMANY/DED:

Guidelines for Project Assignments (as of March 22, 1974):

- Development Goals:
  - a) to reduce the one-sided socio-economical dependence of developing countries
  - b) to promote their independence through partnership with the host country
  - c) to support the efforts of developing countries through transfer of technical/professional knowledge and change in behavioral patterns
  - d) to contribute in our own society to the process of learning concerning development aid policies furthering equality.

The Guidelines also include specifications for:

- Target Groups: the socially and economically under privileged groups
- Host Countries: preference for least developed countries and those which have declared policies and action programs to narrow the social and economic gaps in their own societies.
- Project Types: preference for social sector (education/training, health, community development); in economic sector: agriculture; project institutions should observe broad distribution of income.
- Project Institutions: preference for those which serve the underprivileged, sound organizational/financial basis, self-help and multiplier effect; goals which can be achieved through volunteer assignments. Assignments to police forces, para-military or military institutions are ruled out.

NETHERLANDS/SNV:

Country and Project Criteria (Recommendations of Field Directors Conference June 14, 1974):

- Country Criteria:
  1. Least developed country (poor)
  2. Social and economic development in process
  3. Efforts toward just distribution of income
  4. Demonstrated effort for self-help
  5. Possibilities for self-financing
- Project Criteria:
  1. Preparednes of project environment to accept volunteers for work
  2. Costs connected with volunteers' assignments
  3. Living standard of target group requesting help
  4. Relationship between need for aid and the possibilities for self help
  5. Possibility for improvement of the local social/economic structure
  6. Facilities to receive volunteers
  7. Clear and concise job descriptions
  8. Integration of SNV into the organization of the local project
  9. Availability of volunteers with qualifications requested
  10. Possibilities to transfer knowledge and achieve learning
  11. Adequacy of local forces to do the work in question.

USA/Peace Corps:

"The Peace Corps is built on the premise that people from different cultures understand each other better when they work side by side for a common purpose. Although individuals volunteer for the Peace Corps for a variety of reasons, volunteers are happiest when they make progress toward a goal which they, the host people and the host government, see as important. A good Peace Corps project, therefore, has a clearly delineated set of objectives and provides maximum contact and cooperation between volunteers and the host country people.

Each volunteer assignment should:

A. Have an official host country request

B. Be compatible with host country development needs, goals, priorities

C. Be developed in conjunction with appropriate host country institutions

D. Be structured through a set of attainable objectives agreed to by the Peace Corps and host country

E. Contribute to development through a demonstrative, catalytic or innovative role of the volunteer

F. Provide ample opportunity for personal and professional cross-cultural exchange through:

—maximum integration into host country institutions

—maximum involvement in local communities through secondary activities

G. Be given priority emphasis when requested to serve outside urban areas

H. Have necessary host country material and/or supervisory support

In addition:

—seek to complement and utilize other available development resources

—involve training of host country manpower towards the goals of self-reliance."

(Peace Corps Manual, Section 302 August 1963)

UNV:

Programming Guidelines and Conditions of Work from Report of the Secretary General to ECOSOC, E/4780, 14 April 1970 and UN General Assembly Resolution No. 2659(XXV):

- UNVs must not, in any way, constitute competition to national personnel in local employment markets
- UNVs would be an addition to existing bi-lateral and non-governmental volunteer schemes
- UNVs should not replace domestic or national volunteers
- The role of the volunteer in UN assisted projects, in particular the relationship of the volunteer to the experts and counterpart personnel, should be clearly defined
- The status and conditions of UNVs should be identical for all volunteers regardless of their nationality and sponsoring organization; in particular, the terms of service and subsistence payments should be uniform.

Program Goals: to assign 500 volunteers to UN assisted projects by June 1976; to recruit 50% of the volunteers from developing countries; to involve domestic volunteers in UNV projects within their own country.

First, this listing indicates that most FV Services pay significant attention to the principles of project policies, and selection criteria for volunteer work projects—more so than Domestic Development Services. This could be expected, since a clear policy—and practice—of prefer-

ence for certain work areas, target groups, and project output is the only way a foreign service can influence the effectiveness of the volunteer's assignment. In other words the selection of projects and identification of individual job assignments is of utmost importance before an agreement with the host agency is reached. Once the volunteer is in the field, the project execution and work supervision is in the hands of the host country project agency.

Second, the listing reflects a significant degree of common experience among the various FV Services:

- the volunteer must be needed and have a full workload
- there must be a formal written request for assignment from the host government or agency
- the project must serve the underprivileged, poor, "grass roots"
- the project should further equal distribution of income, social justice and self-help
- the goals of the project must be achievable through volunteer assignments
- the job description must be specific and concise
- the organizational and financial structure of the project must be sound and the necessary resources available so that the volunteer can be effective.

Third, the comparison of work program goals and guidelines also indicates differences among FV Services:

- CUSO's lack of goal orientation (which is somewhat surprising in view of the efficiency of program inputs)
- Peace Corps's linking volunteer satisfaction to their effectiveness
- DED's socio-political development approach to work programs
- SNV's emphasis on economic factors and integration of the service (in contrast to the volunteer)into the organization of the local project. The latter is unique, but in line with SNV's personnel structure as they assign not only volunteers but also Technical Assistants and Experts to projects (see Program Inputs, discussion of staffing patterns)
- UNV's attempts to define a role rather than goals for achievements; a role in relation to the UN expert, bilateral foreign volunteers, domestic volunteers and labor markets.

While bilateral Foreign Volunteer Services employ their field offices and volunteer-participation-procedures for project identification and planning along these guidelines, the United Nations Volunteers must rely on the UNDP field structure. The early UNV project selection clearly suffered from the rule that volunteers only should be assigned to UN financed projects which are often large scale and highly technical. Also the fact that technical experts who identified the projects were not familiar with volunteer services was not helpful in developing

the unique UNV role within the UN system. This is gradually changing. Now, two former FV Service directors are UNDP Representatives in UNV project countries, and an increasing portion of UN personnel has had previous volunteer service experience. Also UNV has recently assigned three staff members to different regions for project coordination.

As shown in Table 63, the priority given to certain **work program areas** indicates the extent to which FV Services follow their program guidelines:

TABLE 63. WORK PROGRAM PRIORITIES

Work Program Areas	1973 Volunteer Assignments in Percentage of Total:					
	CUSO	DUU	DED	SNV	PC*	UNV
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Education	60	24	15	17	45	9
Health	15	16	15	14	12	–
Social Services/ Comm. Devel.	–	5	26	7	5	9
Agriculture	6	6	9	19	23	31
Engineering Crafts/Industry	10	43	28	21	–	30
Admin./Business	4	6	2	5	5	–
UNV	n.a.	n.a.	1	1	(0.4)	–
Others	4	–	4	16	10	21
Total Volunteers:	980= 100%	309= 100%	861= 100%	538= 100%	6,489= 100%	135= 100%

*1974

The program area "education" covers all types and levels of general and technical education and training, with the exception of DED. In column 4, DED's technical training is accounted for under "Engineering, Crafts and Industry".

Bearing in mind that about 50% of DED volunteers assigned to technical/industrial projects are active in education/training, we find emphasis on work program areas among FV Services in:

- Social Development (education, health, community development) with 62-75% of total volunteer assignments: CUSO, DED, PC.
- Economic/Technical Development (agriculture, engineering, crafts, industry) with 40-61% of assignments: DUU, SNV, UNV.

These preferences for specific areas of project involvement are in line with the work program goals and guidelines of the individual services. They demonstrate the ability of FV Services to change from an initial "shotgun" approach to a targeted assignment of limited volunteer resources.

A second indicator of work program priorities is related to **project countries.** All FV Services evidence certain preference for the least developed, poor countries. Appendix B·4 contains indicators and a list of least developed countries as defined by the United Nations.

In principle, all FV Services—with the exception of the Danish DUU—assign volunteers to all developing regions of the world. DUU follows a policy, imposed by DANIDA, to assign volunteers only to East Africa which is the preferred region for receiving Danish governmental technical assistance.

Because FV Services maintain field offices, the number of countries they enter is not only determined by the requests but also by the costs to set up such an office and ensure a manageable volunteer group. In some cases in West Africa, if the groups are small, one field office serves two countries. Current preferences for volunteer assignments are seen in Table 64:

TABLE 64. WORK PROGRAM PREFERENCES BY REGION

Regions	Volunteer Assignments per Region in Percentage of Total:					
	CUSO	DUU	DED	SNV	PC	UNV
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
AFRICA	63	100	47	80	32	38
ASIA	21	–	20	9	35	45
CARIBBEAN LATIN AMERICA	16	–	32	10	32.6	17
UNV	–	–	1	1	0.4	–
Total Volunteers	980= 100%	309= 100%	861= 100%	538= 100%	6,489= 100%	135= 100%

It is difficult to draw any final conclusions of country/regional preferences from Table 64—with the exception of DUU which follows a governmental policy. It seems that two considerations primarily influence the selection of countries and regions:

- same international language spoken or preferred in the host and sending countries which considerably reduces barriers of communication;
- historical linkages between sending and receiving countries, i.e. migrations (for example Germans to South America), colonial or trade relationships.

The preference for least Developed Countries as established in work program goals and guidelines is in fact realized to the following degree:

FV Services:	Number of Projected Countries: Total:	Percentage of Least Developed Countries:
CUSO	42	16 = 38%
DUU	4	3 = 75%
DED	24	13 = 54%
SNV	13	6 = 46%
P.C.	69	16 = 23%
UNV	29	13 = 44%

According to this list, only DUU and DED have a majority of operations in least developed countries. Since most of these are located in Africa, services with a more balanced world wide distribution of volunteers—Peace Corps—will have difficulty increasing foreign assistance to least developed countries, unless there is a modification of present distributions.

Since the start of FV Services occasionally foreign volunteers from different bi-lateral services were assigned to the same projects in developing countries. In other words, **multi-national cooperation** occurred as a "happening" rather than a planned effort. In 1969, under the auspices of the International Secretariat for Volunteer Services (ISVS) the Directors of Foreign Volunteer Services embarked on some pilot projects of Multi-National Volunteer Teams (MVTs) to test such cooperation and determine how it affects volunteer selection, training, work regulations, allowances, etc. A few of these experiences of MVTs assigned to Domestic Development Services in Chile and Panama are discussed in Chapter 9.

Since July 1, 1973, four bi-lateral FV Services—CUSO, DED, Peace Corps and the UK Voluntary Service Overseas (VSO)—have been operating a **Joint Volunteer Committee (JVC) in Ghana** with a Ghanian expert as Coordinator for the group. The agreement has a time limit of June 30, 1979 and states the following JVC purposes:

"A. To develop projects with appropriate Government agencies utilizing multi-national teams of volunteers;

B. To promote the concept of volunteerism in Ghana;

C. To inform associated volunteer agencies of activities, requests, and likely assignments;

D. To provide effective and appropriate support for volunteers in all regions with particular reference to Northern and Upper Regions;

E. To improve communication between volunteer offices in Accra and Government Regional offices and officials;

F. To assist where possible and appropriate, Regional officials to convey their manpower requirements to the JVC members;

G. To contribute greater information about volunteer agencies to Regional officials."

JVC volunteers assist the implementation of local Health Post Staffing Assistance Programmes (HEPOSTAP) and in agriculture, with emphasis on involving local citizens. In fact, the co-ordinator plays an ombudsman role, translating the presence and work of foreign volunteers to the Ghanian officials and local communities. It is too early to tell whether this arrangement has the potential to foster future partnership-cooperation on equal terms not only among foreign volunteers but also with local domestic participants.

The development orientation of FV Services' foreign assistance is not only prescribed by work program area and type of country but also by the **target groups** volunteers reach in their individual work projects. Specifications in goals or guidelines, such as the "under-privileged" or "disadvantaged", "at the grass-roots level", "local communities", or "preferably rural areas" –all of these descriptive terms point to serving people left aside from their societies' main-stream. The goal is not only a charitable one–to help those most in need–but also one of change in social structures, striving toward more equitable employment opportunities and distribution of income. Most FV Services believe that, by giving preference to education/training, local community development, and employment support in agriculture, crafts and small scale industry, they most readily reach the target groups who, as they become able to help themselves, achieve long range change.

Not always are the target groups the major concern in the selection of individual projects within the larger work program area. As examples:

- Educational/training activities outside formal schooling specifically designed to reach target groups: only DED stresses this priority clearly, while, for example, Peace Corps emphasizes teaching in schools or traditional teacher's training;

- Priority and specific policies for local institution building during community development work: none of the FV Services reports a clear emphasis on effecting institutional changes and, therefore, continuity of development effort;

- Whether volunteer assignments to agriculture, crafts and small scale industrial projects are directed only toward improvement of production, or whether they aim also at employment creation and self-employment.

"Receiver training", a worthwhile effort of various STD Services to prepare members of local communities or project agencies, who will work with volunteers, is not reported by FV Services. To be prepared for the joint venture–and cross-cultural communication problems they may encounter–is as important for the user of volunteer services as it is for the volunteer himself. Local project supervisors and co-workers particularly are in need of such preparation.

By now, most host country officials who coordinate foreign volunteer work on a national level have learned from experience and established regular procedure for the assignment and supervision of foreigners. It is believed that local "receiver" preparation is crucial not only to secure effective volunteer work, but also to change the relationship of a "receiver of charity" to that of partner.

Related to this issue is the designation of **counterparts** to volunteers, a continuous problem since the early days of FV Services. Since a primary feature of Foreign Volunteer Service is the

transfer of skills and knowledge, it is natural to seek a host country counterpart. However, as most foreign technical assistance assignments are designated to provide skills not available in the receiver country, finding a counter-part is like seeking a person who does not exist. It is not merely that nationals with a compatible educational background do not exist—after all some of them could be trained to take over. More important, it is a question of establishing new employment positions that the counterpart could continue after the foreign paid volunteer had left. Thus, the presence of foreign volunteers creates certain budget priorities for the host country which most of them can not afford. Therefore, many FV Services assign various generations of volunteers to the same project—not only until it is completed—but also until the organizational and personnel structure of the project becomes solid enough for the foreigners' work to be absorbed and continued by national manpower. Some FV Services, for example DED, provided counterpart training in their own country or a training institution close to the project—but it still did not solve the problem of continuous support for the additional manpower on the part of the host project.

Over all, in the past, the "counterpart" concept did not work, and many FV Services abandoned it as unrealistic.

This situation has changed in many developing countries. It is time to take a fresh look at the old "counterpart" concept. With the increase of educated and skilled national manpower available—though often unemployed—and with the expansion of Domestic Development Services in developing countries, the "counterpart" idea can take the form of partnership-cooperation between skilled domestic and foreign volunteers, jointly assigned to any kind of development project. This ensures the necessary skill transfer without imposing new personnel positions on the host project.

Increasingly, the type of **technology** applied in volunteer work programs becomes a crucial factor in the effectiveness of foreign assistance. In the early days, the continental European services with their technically well skilled volunteer resources were tempted—and trapped—often by host country requests, to pursue projects requiring "big" technology. Volunteers were assigned to introduce heavy machinery, automated production lines, large scale agricultural technology. Especially, the technically skilled European and Japanese volunteers worked with imported technologies. Often there were prior arrangements with their respective Ministries to ship the high cost machines in time to avoid any delay to the volunteers who would be working with them when they arrived in the field.

The Danish, Dutch and German volunteer services budgeted an average of $300-$600 per volunteer for **work tools and equipment**. For those technical volunteer assignments it was and is essential that both the machine and the man—or woman for that matter—arrive at a project at the same time. This dependency on financial investment, imported technology and timing is a recurrent problem for FV Services' projects which emphasize high volume technical assistance.

The Anglo-Saxon services had a different policy and neither CUSO or Peace Corps provided working equipment to their volunteers.

Today this has changed. All FV Services, as a matter of policy and practice, prefer **intermediate and appropriate technologies** that use local materials and resources. The term implies that the technology used should not continue known inadequate techniques—nor should highly sophisticated mass producing technology be imposed—but rather should be appropriate in both technical and social terms, in order that production will improve living conditions and serve the needs of people[94,109].

Over the years, foreign volunteers have been very creative in developing appropriate technologies—or village technologies as some call them—with local resources to find local solutions. On occasion they received the help and advice of other professionals, for example, through "Volunteers in Technical Assistance" (VITA) for small farm grain storage, the Agency for International Development (AID) with its "Village Technology Handbook", the German GAWI's technical training guides, the Batelle Institute for soil testing. Also a score of individual experts on bi-lateral or UN assignments, who happened to be on the scene, volunteered their help and advice.

Now, after so many years of experience, FV Services have a body of knowledge on a broad range of appropriate technological solutions. But there is a certain danger that much will be lost, if it is not recorded and maintained. For that reason Peace Corps undertook a new Program Sector of *Materials Services* which is described in a later Sub-Chapter.

Volunteers, working and living with local people, experiencing their needs "on their own skin", and at the same time possessing necessary technical skills, are probably one of the best "foreign media" to help in the development and distribution of intermediate and appropriate technology. The technically skilled volunteer who devotes his craft to intermediate solutions, exhibits a special wisdom and character as he leaves behind the traditional status symbols of his profession for big, fast, high turnover technological solutions and sets an example which is future-oriented for both developing and industrialized societies. Here both foreign volunteers and their services find common goals and approaches with Domestic Development Services in supporting the concept and practice of intermediate and appropriate technology.

The **work environment** into which foreign volunteers are integrated, and their supervision during work, varies largely—primarily depending on the type of project and function to be performed. Assignments to hospitals, schools, public administration jobs, public works construction, present one type of structured work hierarchy. However, an increasing number of volunteers has more open-ended assignments to local community development projects, non-formal educational activities, rural social or health services, etc., where the work hierarchy and supervision is not readily structured. These assignments require more self-discipline on the part of the volunteer to pursue a work schedule without the daily presence of "command and control".

Both types of work environment challenge individual creativity and often demand more responsibility of the volunteer than comparable work assignments permit at home. Indeed, creativity and responsibility are the core of the volunteer's satisfaction and consequent performance on the job. However, neither type of work structure is without problems, and conflicts frequently occur in the day-to-day work in any foreign environment.

The wish to achieve something tangible during the two-year working period is very strong in volunteers—to leave behind some concrete evidence of a contribution they made. This eagerness to achieve is oriented to the volunteers' own national standards and cultural perceptions and often comes in conflict with the local culture and traditions evident in work procedures of the people they want to help. On the other hand, as was discussed in Chapter 2, a foreign or outside presence is a necessary challenger and facilitator for changes through such projects. Thus, it is in the work environment of Volunteer projects that the conflict among different cultural perceptions is most visible. All the more imperative are continued person-to-person communication and mediation to develop a common understanding of work principles and procedures. For example, problems are created by the privileges foreigners enjoy, especially their easy access to superiors, which cause resentment from co-workers. Other reports point to the opposite work situation: the identification of foreign volunteers with the "underdog". For

example, foreign volunteers assigned as teachers to educational institutions often identify well with students, and develop their sense of critical questioning and participation which comes in conflict with traditional authoritarian style or "drill" type education. It alienates the volunteer from his colleague-teachers because he challenges the traditional teacher:student relationship and the teachers' status.

Thus, the actual integration of foreign volunteers into a host project's work structure is not so much a matter of management, but a question of understanding of each other's cultural and social values. Annoyance due to differences in work habits, idleness, bypassing of colleagues or superiors, etc., if not resolved in a peaceful manner, can hurt the individual most. This is true for both the foreign volunteers and their host co-workers and supervisors. For most people, and especially the "western" educated, professional standards are not only a matter of pride but an expression of self. Therefore, it means much to a person—whether foreigner or national—to be "right" on a professional/technical issue, because it means to be "good" as a person. To work differently than at home or to submit to another professional opinion carries a sense of "failure". This reaction is not only typical in a foreign work environment as volunteers encounter it in developing countries—it is a familiar pattern everywhere, when people from different cultures and value perceptions meet and have to produce jointly useful work results.

Hence, for the foreign volunteer and his national co-workers and supervisors a tremendous opportunity is provided in a work environment for growth as persons and as professionals beyond their immediate contribution to a particular development project. If partners learn to cooperate in multi-cultural work situations and jointly produce useful out-put for the people they serve, they indeed achieve far more than educating so many youngsters, or providing health services to so many communities, etc. As important as are visible and accountable results, the successful endurance through conflicts in such work environments in itself indicates both personal growth of those who persist and the evolvement of peaceful relationships—even if small—among people from different cultures and nations.

However, when unsatisfactory work situations cannot be endured, volunteers in all FV Services have the option to resign. In some instances they can be transferred to other projects; otherwise they return home early and lose some or all of their re-adjustment allowances. Project agencies, of course, can also ask for the early removal if the volunteer does not perform satisfactorily and conflicts can not be resolved. The **rate of early terminations,** which includes also those for health, family or other reasons, differs among FV Services. During the past decade some lost as much as 30% of their volunteers—which includes those who left early because of health or family reasons. The rate now ranges from 2-20%, due to work related difficulties and/or dissatisfaction with the job. Attrition is less among volunteers who are competent in their technical/professional skills and are placed in demanding jobs. Also, even though all FV Services maintain the voluntary nature of their service contract, once a commitment is made to the host country that the volunteer will serve for two years, all FV Services endeavour to enforce that commitment.

What then is the **Foreign Volunteer's Role?** Much has been written about this subject, and most often he or she is described as a "change agent" or an "animateur". Both terms imply high expectation of the volunteer's capabilities to bring about change or to be that wise outsider who is able to further development through "friendly persuasion". Both descriptions presuppose roles on superior levels, of one who knows (the change agent) and the recipients who do not. Both terms describe only the volunteer's role to others; they do not imply what he or she receives from others. Volunteers themselves are the first to acknowledge that their role as "givers" is overestimated: *"Who am I that I can go to people in other countries and tell them what to do?"*

Therefore, the old and simpler terms—which also give a clear role distinction—are preferred to describe the foreign volunteer as a **"learner"** and a **"helper"**. Only after the volunteer has developed a learning attitude and entered a learning process can he or she become in fact a "helper". In other words, the "learner" role is a pre-condition, and not an after-thought or by-product, for being a "helper".

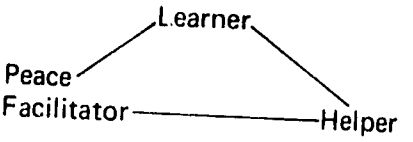
The "learner" role is not so much concentrated on technical or professional skills as on social learning across cultural borders, work learning and personal growth. To be a "learner" requires a conscious action, it is not a "happening". As Manfred Kulessa pointed out: *"We have learned that the educational process in volunteer service is not an automatic consequence of simply being abroad. We have to work at it. The process has to be assisted"*[67]. If the volunteer does not accept his "learner" role and is supported in this denial, the opposite can occur: he reinforces old prejudices and creates barriers for understanding, instead of bringing them down.

The "helper" function comprehends not only transfer of skills and knowledge but also *"conflict handling roles, analysis roles, job-creation roles, reorganization-of-resources roles"* as Elise Boulding describes them in a paper to the International Conference on Volunteer Service for Peace[87]. She also emphasizes the symmetry of volunteer roles as an essential criterion—there are supposed to be no donors or receivers, all are clients. The latter is not the case for IV Services, their current role as a "helper" is asymmetrical to the people they serve. Currently, the "helper" is a "giver" and local people are "receivers". Carl Rogers concludes his characteristics of a helping relationship in "On Becoming A Person"[103]:

> *". . . the optimal helping relationship is the kind of relationship created by a person who is psychologically mature. Or to put it in another way, the degree to which I can create relationships which facilitate the growth of others as separate persons is a measure of the growth I have achieved in myself. In some respects this is a disturbing thought, but it is also a promising and challenging one. It would indicate that if I am interested in creating helping relationships I have a fascinating lifetime job ahead of me, stretching and developing my potentialities in the direction of growth . . . If we are thoughtfully trying to understand our tasks as administrators, teachers, . . . vocational counselors, . . . then we are working on the problem which will determine the future of our planet. For it is not upon the physical sciences that the future will depend. It is upon us who are trying to understand and deal with the interactions between human beings—who are trying to create helping relationships."*

By being a "learner" and a "helper", a third role results from the presence of a foreign volunteer: a **"peace-facilitation" role**. Here, peace is defined as the establishment of common truth[124] and the absence of violence[47]. While the former materializes when the foreign volunteer is perceived as a "helper" on the part of the local "recipients", the removal of violence requires more. Facilitating peace structures—and not only peaceful relationships—is achieved, for example, when the volunteer work results in permanent improvement of self-reliance of host country citizens, when the dependencies on outside aid are reduced. The concern is not "direct violence", but "structural violence" built into systems of dependencies, and resulting in lack of self-realization. For example, not only undue economic dependencies portray "structural violence" but also continuous malnutrition, as it prevents self-realization. Therefore, any foreign volunteer assignment which helps to reduce "structural violence" facilitates not only peaceful relationships but peace structures. For example, the foreign volunteer who improves employment for economic self-reliance and participation of target population groups in their own affairs is building peace.

Thus, all three volunteer roles are interdependent, feeding on the actualization of each other:



Currently, none of the FV Services distinguishes these three roles as separate and with different priorities, although all of them accept relationships to learning and peace facilitation. All of them emphasize their foreign assistance function as a "manpower supply role", either to fill skill gaps not available in the host country or to extend professional manpower to areas and communities not yet served. Thus, the "helper" role is isolated and is the only one which enters planning and programming considerations and affects the design of work programs and field support provided to the individual volunteer. This is clearly an inadequacy in current policies and operations of FV Services.

The future of FV Services largely depends upon a clearer distinction and identification of priorities of these three volunteer roles, especially as the "helper" role gradually diminishes in its old technical assistance form. First being a "learner" and then a "helper" places foreign volunteers on a par with domestic workers in host countries—an important common ground for future partnership-cooperation. To establish joint "learner" and "helper" roles would mean to create new forms of "peace-facilitation" roles to build self-reliance and interdependence. This issue is discussed in detail in a later chapter.

Finally, a fourth role for foreign volunteers can be identified which is not yet clearly developed: the **"Ombudsman role at home"**. The policy statements of FV Services express the need and hope that former volunteers will influence their home societies after they return from service abroad. The feedback hoped for is described rather vaguely, ranging from raising the overall social consciousness of society to expanding awareness of the needs of poor nations for specific development education activities. While CUSO and WUSC have designated a specific program sector to this effort, all other FV Services leave it up to the individual volunteer to take up such a duty in his home community. A later Sub-Chapter will review this role of volunteers.

Actually there is a common role between foreign and domestic volunteers (as in STD Services see Chapter 6)—with the exception that an STD volunteer is an "ombudsman" in his country primarily during his service period. For a foreign volunteer it would not be appropriate to take up this role in the host country, as he is a guest and not a social activist. But in his home country it is another matter. Thus, both have a compatible societal role in their respective home societies to represent and speak for those in need.

4. Financial Assistance

For people-to-people service organizations, financial assistance is not a genuine and separate Program Sector of FV Services. It only supports the "helper" role of these Services, it does not further communication or cooperation between people, nor facilitate a "learner" or "peace-related" role. Yet, financial resources available at a certain point can largely enhance the effectiveness of a foreign volunteer assignment.

Foreign Volunteer Services have quite different policies towards Financial Assistance Programs and use different approaches to obtain the necessary funds. Others have no such program of themselves but assign volunteers to projects sponsored by larger financial assistance institutions.

First, the **Canadian University Service (CUSO)** is the only FV Service which conducts a **Financial Assistance Program** as distinct from volunteer Work Programs. In principle, CUSO perceives funds and volunteers as two different types of resources for allocation in accordance with needs. In other words, projects are identified and planned on the basis of financial or volunteer needs, or both. Primarily, Financial Assistance Projects result from previous volunteer involvement or observation, or ad hoc needs developing during a volunteer assignment.

CUSO has three distinct types of Financial Assistance Programs:

a) **Discretionary projects** below $500.–contributions which concern small projects that can be locally initiated, and examined, approved and implemented by CUSO field officers. No approval from Headquarters is required. They include support for agriculture, health services, education, community development, work camps and youth work on a local scale. For example: surgery for crippled children in Thailand served by a volunteer doctor, nurse training in Ghana, rice mill and store in Sierra Leone, solar energy for agriculture in Guatemala, village industry development in Bangladesh, refugee resettlement in Laos, etc. Each project is briefly described on a one sheet announcement which is used for fundraising purposes in Canada. In other words, discretionary projects are not financed by a large fund, but by individual fundraising activities conducted by CUSO's Project Division and by inviting the involvement of citizens, organizations, businesses, etc. on a case-by-case sponsorship basis. For 1973/74 $60,000 were committed for more than 100 discretionary projects.

b) **Major Projects** require written project proposals to CUSO's Headquarters in Ottawa via the respective field officer. CUSO's policy favors innovative, creative and experimental projects: *"The unconventional idea is usually ideally suited to the local condition, its uniqueness frequently guarantees success because it is specifically tailored to a community requirement"* (from Information Leaflet). Major and Discretionary Projects address similar areas. Their principal distinction is the larger contribution required, the necessity of approval from CUSO Headquarters, and a different source of funding. Projects are funded on a host-CUSO shared basis. As of June 1974 a total of $483,000. were committed for more than 80 projects, often covering more than one budget year. Funds come from Grants from the Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA).

   In a similar fashion the Canadian WUSC receives grants from CIDA for financial assistance to other student projects in developing countries as described in Volume II, Compendium 22.

c) **Project Contracts from CIDA** is a third approach to provide assistance to developing countries.

   Here, CUSO is the executing agency for three of CIDA's long range and large scale projects, such as:

   –CDN $ 1,000,000 for School Reconstruction in Nigeria
   –CDN $ 250,000 for Bangladesh
   –CDN $ 1,100,000 for faculty development at Universities in Cuba

In the 1973/74 Budget Year $51,300 were expended against these contracts. In all instances, CUSO volunteers are involved locally in the realization of these projects.

These three approaches to financial assistance reveal two interesting policies to increase the efficiency and effectiveness of FV help:

- The Discretionary projects are decided locally, reducing administrative costs significantly, yet the fundraising in Canada is conducted for individual projects and thus provides opportunities for citizen involvement—they know whom they support—and at the same time educates them on development issues.

- CIDA Grants and Contracts reveal a Canadian policy to provide assistance through non-governmental organizations, instead of governmental agencies. The argument is that NGO's are more effective in this respect and a larger portion of funds reaches the local recipients and is not absorbed in administrative overhead. By the way, this concept was recently confirmed by AID reviews, and the Swedish International Development Authority uses similar policies for their financial and personnel assistance.

Second, the **Danish, Dutch and German FV Services** have on a few occasions arranged financial assistance from their governments; respective departments for international cooperation, to support projects in which volunteers were involved. Funds were primarily used for construction or specific machinery. For example, the Dutch SNV reports such assistance to a Nigerian hospital in the amount of Fl. 700,000. None of the services reports a specific policy—like CUSO—to conduct Financial Assistance Programs.

Third, the **U.S. Peace Corps** applies three different approaches to those previously described:

a) In Title III of the Peace Corps Act, Section 301 (3), provisions are made to provide financial assistance to *"any international program which seeks to provide volunteers to serve less developed countries or areas, training or other assistance in order to help such countries or areas to meet their needs for trained manpower"*. Through these provisions, Peace Corps has supported various multi-national volunteer programs such as: Multi-national volunteer teams (MVT), regional staff training seminars for DDS in Africa, Asia and Latin America, program evaluations, and the Special Voluntary Fund of UNV. Details of this assistance to other volunteer and development services are described in Chapter 9. A total of Title III grants assistance was provided in:

   —Fiscal Year 1973 $345,000 (actual)
   —Fiscal Year 1974 $100,000 (actual)
   —Fiscal Year 1975 $350,000 (estimate)

b) The **School Partnership Program** is a unique self-help effort by Peace Corps to raise funds or material support from private organizations or individuals in the US to purchase materials to build schools or other community facilities in developing countries. Since 1965 over 1,400 schools, civic groups and youth organizations in the US have each raised between $200.- to

$3,600.- to construct schools or other facilities in more than 1,100 communities in over 50 developing countries. Recipient communities provide the land and labor to construct the schools. During Fiscal Year 1974 the program raised and expended the following funds:

School Partnership Funds	$160,407 = 37%
Host Country Communities cash and kind contributions	$272,117 = 63%
TOTAL:	$432,526 = 100%

Normally, volunteers initiate such a project from the field and a small staff at Peace Corps' Headquarters conducts the fundraising in the US from private sources. This activity presents another example of opportunity for citizen involvement through financial assistance. It, too, educates citizens on development issues and needs.

c) **Joint Peace Corps/Other Resources Projects:** Peace Corps is the only FV Service of the group evaluated which has a policy to link the assignment of volunteers with financial assistance projects from other institutions. The idea, of course, is to increase the effectiveness of volunteers by assigning them to third party financial assistance projects. Thus, Peace Corps pooled resources with financial assistance projects such as:

- –Relief and reconstruction in Sahel Region: $2,500,000 AID funds for a 1-2 year period.
- –Drought relief in Afghanistan with bi-lateral financial aid from Australia, Denmark, India, Iran, Japan, US, USSR.
- –Various AID medium-term development projects in education, agriculture, health, totaling $38,600,000.
- –Lesotho Technical Institute to broaden curriculum to a full Polytechnical Institute with bi-lateral aid from Germany.
- –Various health and rural sanitation projects financed by WHO and UNICEF.
- –Relief and Reconstruction projects funded by UNICEF, UNDP, OSFAM, Church World Service, Catholic Relief and CARE.
- –Vocational training and agricultural projects funded by ILO and FAO respectively.
- –Road construction project in Zaire; technical secondary education and vocational training projects in Paraguay, both funded by the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development with a total of $26.3 million.

Most assistance linkages were successful. Problems concerned:

- High attrition rate of PC volunteers due to dissatisfaction with a large scale project in which other foreign experts dominated. In addition excessive bureaucratic red tape and corruption rendered the volunteers ineffective.

- Cancellation of project on the part of Peace Corps due to neocolonialism on the part of UN personnel and resulting disenchantment of volunteers.

- Heavy criticism of project performance due to loan defaults on the part of the lending Bank and inadequate technical supervision which resulted in inefficient use of the available PC volunteer manpower.

5. Materials Services

Only the Canadian CUSO and the US Peace Corps have separate Program Sectors for the development of publications designed as action materials. However, the materials published by both Services draw from different resources and address different issues.

CUSO emphasizes **development education in Canada.** Publications are developed at CUSO's Headquarters with the help of experts and have titles such as: "Readings in Education", "Readings in Health", and there is a simulation game for community groups entitled: "The International Sugar Conference". The materials are distributed in Canada and used to guide individuals and groups in their development education activities, which is a separate Program Sector of CUSO. Details of the development education program of CUSO are described in No. 6 below, "Feedback at Home".

Peace Corps manuals emphasize another area: **appropriate technology for development.** The program was conceived in 1975 and developed by the PC office of Multilateral and Special Programs. It was felt that after 14 years of operations and with more than 63,000 former volunteers, each with 2 years of field experience (equal to 126,000 volunteer man-years), Peace Corps had aquired a significant body of knowledge concerning the use of limited local resources to solve village level development problems. This knowledge was scattered in reports, manuals, layouts, training curricula, etc., and not easily accessible for application elsewhere. The time had come to retrieve the learning gleaned from a technology that had been proven appropriate in many places, and make it available to others. The Manual Service consists of three series:

a) Joint Peace Corps–VITA Publications, including:

- Freshwater Fish pond Culture and Management
- Small Farm Grain Storage
- Wells Construction
- Forestry and Conservation in Arid lands.

b) Peace Corps Publications including:

- Freshwater Fisheries Program Planning
- Health Education Techniques
- Building Construction

c) PC Program and Training Journal Reprint Series including:

- Health Training Resource Materials
- Irrigation Principles and Practices
- Utilization and Construction of Pit Silos
- Guidelines for Development of a Home Industry

By issuing these publications as a Program Sector, Peace Corps links itself with the interests of many Domestic Development Services. For example, the "Small Farm Grain Storage" grew

out of a close cooperation with the Clubs 4-D in Benin. Currently Peace Corps is discussing cooperation with BUTSI's "Village Technology Unit" to publish accounts of each other's experience and thus enhance the volunteer services' performance in this field.

6. Feedback at Home

All Foreign Volunteer Services hope to make an impact on their home society once volunteers return from their two years' service abroad. The impact they seek is more than informing. Rather, they want their experience to reiterate, by practical demonstration, the reason why the Service was originally established: to sensitize their society to development needs, to create constructive attitudes and action towards worldwide social and economic problems, and to initiate, or expand, a process of global learning.

Initially, most FV Services expected that active former volunteer groups would be a focal point for such activities. But this proved to be futile without a local structure. Most volunteers are eager to reintegrate and seek their next career step. Chiefly in Canada and the United States, two societies with traditions in voluntary service for the public, have former volunteers been involved on a larger scale and received public attention.

a) **Peace Corps Service Councils,** independent associations of former PC volunteers, were formed in California, Minnesota, North Dakota, Ohio and Utah. They distribute information on volunteer service opportunities, host foreign visitors, assist in recruitment and staging of PC volunteers, educate the public on development issues and participate in home community projects.

   Former Peace Corps volunteers' organizations have also formed political action groups, challenging US foreign policy or becoming involved in domestic issues. The most memorable action at home was their involvement in the 1968 National Democratic Convention in Chicago and their stand against the Vietnam War.

   No national guidance nor funds from Peace Corps support these groups. Their success as a Peace Corps constituency, lobby or as educators of the public depends entirely on voluntary involvement and support. No figures on the total number is available, but in the Los Angeles area alone 2,000 former PCV's are reported to be enrolled.

b) **Volunteer work at home,** which is not related to their employment is reported in a 1972 survey of 3,696 former Peace Corps volunteers. 45.6% of the respondents were regularly involved in:

   - community groups (31.0%)
   - church groups (21.9%)
   - teaching/education (13.3%)
   - political activities (8.7%)

c) **Career choices in social fields** is a trend of former Peace Corps volunteers. In the same 1972 survey it was reported that 35.5% sought a teaching career, either as regular teachers or educational specialists, and 7.6% chose health services.

According to Dr. Harold Taylor[120]: *"Many returned volunteers now teaching in public schools, colleges and universities brought back fresh and interesting and vital material which otherwise would not be available to the American curricula . . . they have enlarged the hori-*

zons of American educators and teachers." In a detailed treatment on "The World as a Teacher"[117], Dr. Taylor stresses the importance of linking the teaching experience of Peace Corps—or for that matter VISTA—volunteers with their future career at home by allowing credit for service at colleges and universities and the State certification as teachers. He reports that: *"even eleven States grant temporary certificates for returned Peace Corps volunteers under certain circumstances, ten States allow Peace Corps teaching experience as a substitute for the student teaching part of the professional requirements, five States have a policy of review in individual cases, four States give partial credit toward either renewal of the certificate or toward a permanent certificate".*

d) In Canada, CUSO has in its **Local Committees** a natural focal point to which former volunteers return. Their experience is used in volunteer recruitment, in the first training phase and in fundraising. But more important—for an impact at home—CUSO conducts a special **Program Sector of Development Education at Home.** It is the only FV Service, together with WUSC, to have not only a firm local basis but also a program at home.

This resulted from the adoption in January 1970 of the **CUSO Development Charter**, which states in its operative paragraph:

> *"THEREFORE—individuals commit themselves to strive for the following:*
>
> *1) to increase the awareness of the root causes of inequitable development in all countries of the world;*
>
> *2) to utilize this increased awareness in programmes designed to eliminate these inequities;*
>
> *3) during their service overseas, by their lifestyles and work, to reflect their sensitivity and respect for the values and cultures of their hosts;*
>
> *4) to recognize that involvement in the development process embraces both service overseas and action in Canada;*
>
> *5) to recognize that their own country may be culpable in the continuing exploitation of one country by another;*
>
> *6) to actively identify themselves with all peoples who seek to strengthen rights and responsibilities for their country's social development, consistent with the United Nations' Universal Declaration of Human Rights."*

On the basis of this Charter, program **goals for development education** were devised which include:

- to introduce Third World studies and relationships to domestic issues in schools and adult education programs;
- to effect change in Canadian Government policy in the area of trade/aid, and to achieve wider public awareness of the contradictions of Canadian involvement overseas;

- to effect change in Canadian Government policy and business activity in Southern Africa, and to increase support for self-determination and human rights in this area.

When a CUSO volunteer returns home after completion of service, he or she receives a pamphlet "How to Get Involved in Canada", which lists groups by region, CUSO Local Committees and Regional Offices and their involvement in development education. It states: *"It is our hope that you will continue your involvement in 'development' here at home. . . . This is a first attempt to provide you with some information as to groups and activities in Canada trying to make the voice of the 'Third World' heard here at home."*

The implementation of the program follows these guidelines: cooperation with others, decentralization of planning and excution of projects, regionalization of support structure.

Program activities include:

1. Establishment of a Regional Network

2. Promotion of Third World studies in schools and adult education programs

3. Change of Canada's Trading posture to reconcile the contradictions with her international assistance program

4. Critical cooperation with Southern Africa concerning challenge to trade and business preferences for this region on the part of the Canadian government and business, support for liberation movements, strengthening of Southern African groups at home and abroad

5. Integration of development education into Canadian foreign assistance and international development programs

6. Special projects, including: Southern Africa Task Force, new techniques to reach the public (in cooperation with other agencies), sponsorship of overseas resource people to come to Canada to contribute from their experience to development education.

CUSO's development education program follows **three main policies:**

First, funds should primarily be raised from private sources in order to keep the development education independent from government regulations. For 1973/74 the budget totaled CDN $ 36,000.- of which $18,500 were provided by CIDA and $17,500 came from private sources. For 1974/75 CDN $ 195,000 were budgeted for both program and administrative expenses to be raised primarily from private sources.

Second, educational programs should be current and based on materials specifically developed for this purpose featuring issues raised by national policies, conferences, foreign visits, etc. As previously indicated, materials published so far include: "Introductory Reading List", "Readings on Health", "Readings on Education", "Simulation Game on the International Sugar

Conference", "Zimbabwe-Zapu visits Canada", a folder on Rhodesia on the occasion of that visit. Various films are in the planning stage.

Third, it is CUSO's policy to go to the roots of the causes of underdevelopment at home; one step is to testify on overall national policies on crucial development issues before the Canadian House of Commerce and the Senate. CUSO was called to four hearings and gave presentations on the following issues:

- Caribbean Trade Tariffs: Political and economic independence
- Latin America and Pacific: Trade Tariffs
- Southern Africa: Apartheid
- Rhodesia: "The Black Paper: An Alternative Policy for Canada towards Southern Africa."

CUSO is the only Foreign Volunteer Service which extends its role as a development agency to take on responsibility for comprehensive legislative, executive and educational activity. The justification for speaking out and demanding an audience, of course, lies in the fact that a significant body of knowledge and experience through long-term volunteer service abroad has been accumulated, which endows it with authority to tackle these issues and take a stand. In doing so, CUSO as an organization works for the removal of "structural violence" which, according to Johan Galtung[47] represents a facilitation of peace structures.

7. Citizen Mobilization and Participation

This Sub-Chapter is primarily concerned with the encouragement and opportunities a Foreign Volunteer Service provides for individual citizens—both at home and in the host country—to participate in its activities. This can be accomplished either by participating in various Program Tasks of a Service or by working jointly as a host country citizen with foreign volunteers in one's own local community development (CD) projects. Citizen mobilization and participation in host communities is, of course, a primary goal of CD projects.

The primary distinction between citizen mobilization and participation in FV Services and Domestic Development Services concerns the involvement of two different nationalities of citizens in the case of the former, those of the home and those of the host country.

Table 65 displays areas of citizen participation in Foreign Volunteer Services, distinguished by involvement of their own nationals (N) and their host country's citizens (H). The plus (+) indicates participation, a minus (-) no involvement in the respective program area.

TABLE 65. CITIZEN PARTICIPATION IN FV SERVICES

Program Areas	CUSO		DUU		DED		SNV		PC		UNV	
	N	H	N	H	N	H	N	H	N	H	N	H
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
Volunteer Recruitment/ Selection	+	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	+	–	–	–
Volunteer Placement	–	+	–	+	–	+	–	+	–	+	–	+
Volunteer Training	+	+a)	–	+b)	–	+a)	–	+a)	+	+b)	–	+a)
Work Programs:												
–Planning(c)	–	+	–	+	–	+	–	+	–	+	–	–
–Joint Work(c)	–	+	–	+	–	+	–	+	–	+	–	+
–Supervision(d)	–	+	–	+	–	+	–	+	–	+	–	–
Financial Projects	+	+	–	–	–	–	–	–	+	+	–	–
Materials Services	+	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	+	–	–	–
Development Education at Home	+	+e)	–	–	–	–	–	–	+	–	–	–
Local Constituencies at Home	+	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	+	–	–	–
Supervisory/ Advisory Board of Service:												
–members	+	–	+	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
–former volunteers	+	–	–	–	+	–	+	–	–	–	–	–
–citizens/NGO's	+	–	+	–	+	–	+	–	+	–	–	–

Explanations for Table 65:

a) Host country citizen participation during last phase of training only, which takes place in project countries.

b) Host country citizen participation in all phases of training as they all take place in project countries.

c) Participation of host country citizens in volunteer work program planning and joint work only concerns community development projects developed locally. No involvement is reported from local community services such as: health, nutrition, home economics, etc. Joint work is primarily restricted to construction and improvement of rural infrastructure.

d) Host country citizens are only occasionally involved in supervising local community development projects. More frequently, they participate as local staff in the FV Services' field offices.

e) CUSO invites host country citizens to participate in their development education programs in Canada.

Table 65 indicates that opportunities for both national and host country citizen participation varies significantly among FV Services. Encouragement of citizen mobilization and participation largely depends on:

1. A membership structure which is the most important feature to open up an organization toward this goal, as CUSO demonstrates.

2. Local constituencies groups, committees at home who can support various program tasks.

3. The delegation of volunteer training to host countries which encourages the participation of their citizens.

4. Work projects which are identified and planned by local communities, in contrast to those of National Development Plans.

5. A low profile of FV Services field offices representation and administration. The less foreign staff the more local participation.

6. The variety of Program Sectors developed in an FV Service, which go beyond volunteer Work Programs as they extend opportunities for citizen participation.

7. The bi-lateral or multi-national nature of FV Services; the multi-national UNV clearly provides less opportunity for citizen mobilization and obviously does not encourage it through specific program features. In the group of bi-lateral services, those which are non-governmental and have some private funding sources are more inclined to citizen participation than those depending solely on governmental funds.

CUSO provides a good example of an FV Service which needs citizen participation for its very existence and has used it to the advantage of a sound program. CUSO is also the only FV Service which has a host country citizen participation "in reverse", in their development education program in Canada.

Overall the government sponsored FV Services provide currently less opportunity for citizen mobilization and participation both at home and abroad than Study-Services and STD Services in developing countries. A closer cooperation with them would surely enhance this important task of FV Services.

ACHIEVEMENTS

There is one principle difference in assessing the performance of Foreign Volunteer Services and those of Domestic Development Services (DDS). While DDS achievements must be consistent with the causes and needs originating at home, FV Services respond to development needs in foreign countries and learning needs at home.

Up to the present time, Foreign Volunteer Services have emphasized foreign causes and needs and not at all—or to a very limited degree—their home causes. This imbalance in the reason for their existence renders FV Services weaker than DDS—since currently they depend solely on a foreign country's interest for cooperation and are exposed to the changing winds of foreign and international politics.

It is timely here to recall that the effectiveness of any type of Development Service is determined by a program output which:

1. meets the needs which result from societal problems, but also

2. eliminates or modifies the underlying conditions which created the problem in the first place.

However, because FV Services perform in response to societal conditions in a foreign country they have certain limitations, and require a **two-way approach for the assessment of their performance.**

1. The extent to which FV Services fill manpower gaps in developing countries is not determined by the actual needs existing in those countries, but by the number and qualifications of volunteer requests received.

   Further, as foreigners, they have no mandate to eliminate problems caused by certain societal structures—this would represent an interference in internal matters. However, they can contribute to modifying the negative effects of such causes, can take "the sting out of them." For example: FV Services cannot work for a land reform and redistribution of land ownership, but they can help small farmers already settled on new land, can support farmers cooperatives, education and training, rural job creation through self-employment, etc. Thus, by supporting such sub-structures they can help to create a "buffer zone" between the individual and the overall societal structure which causes the problems. This clearly goes beyond the mere filling of skill needs, yet is directed toward permanent development and modification of causes without interference in the internal affairs of the host countries.

2. The extent to which FV Services in their home country

   a) meet the needs to learn more about developing countries, their people and culture, learn more about development issues and global problems, and,

   b) help to eliminate the roots of ignorance, and change national policies toward developing countries, which are in conflict with their efforts for self-reliant development.

In other words, in their role as a foreign assistance agency FV Services primarily fill skill needs and—at best—can "buffer" and contribute to the modification of the harsh impact of underlying causes of underdevelopment. In contrast, in their role as a service for development at home they not only fill needs but must primarily tackle the underlying causes of ignorance or indifference.

Therefore, the assessment of the **Quantitative Performance of FV Services** in developing countries is restricted to two **indicators:**

- coverage of target population
- proportion of technical/professional services provided to local communities in comparison with needs:
  - a) for consumption: nutrition, health, housing, care for the sick, elderly, handicapped, etc
  - b) for production: education, skill training, farming, crafts and small industry, marketing, transportation, utilities infrastructure.

Other indicators, applied by DDS, of geographical and overall population coverage say little about quantitative performance of FV Services as they depend on volunteer requests from developing countries. At best the requests show the extent to which the help from foreigners is desired and they indicate a favorable image a service has portrayed in being able to respond to manpower needs. So far, all FV Services have been able to meet these needs both in terms of numbers and qualifications of volunteers. The exceptions lie in occasional requests for highly specialized professional volunteers which cannot be fulfilled. In contrast, most services report more applications from volunteer candidates than job openings for assignments. For example, Peace Corps—which accepts all applications and maintains a pool of candidates—reports a large disparity between the 6,530 volunteer requests from developing countries and the 30,159 applications for assignments. This confirms that the geographical and population coverage is primarily determined by requests from developing countries and not by the Service's performance. Only if there are more volunteer requests—and consequently the available funds become the limiting factor—is a situation created where a Service has multiple choices and, therefore, performance can be assessed. None of the FV Services reports such a condition.

The coverage of target population is another matter. Target groups are composed of sectors of a population in a developing country who are most affected by the causes of underdevelopment.

Whether these groups are in fact reached is indicated by the types of projects and their relation to local communities. For example, FV Services which undertake non-formal education in rural areas or urban slums indicate better coverage of target populations than those which primarily work in schools. In the schools they chiefly reach those already privileged to occupy the few student places—and not the 50% or more of the age group which has no hope for formal education or skill training. Only in instances where volunteer teaching in formal education leads to the actual permanent extension of schooling to underprivileged pupils who previously were left aside, can one speak of effective coverage of target population in formal education situations. To complete the example, it seems that DED is more effective in reaching the target population in its education program as most volunteers are assigned to non-formal educational activities. In contrast, for example, Peace Corps and probably CUSO,

assign teachers primarily to formal educational institutions and are thus less effective in covering the groups that most need their help. None of the FV Services regularly applies this indicator of coverage of target population to report the effectiveness of their performance.

The second quantitative indicator of performance is the **proportion of technical/professional services provided to local communities in comparison with needs:**

a) **for consumption**
b) **for production.**

As with STD Services in developing countries, professional services to improve production and income earning opportunities are—in the long term—more important for self-reliant permanent development than for consumption, provided, of course, that the minimum nutritional and health requirements are met by the countries themselves or through outside charity or technical assistance. It is interesting to note in this connection that Peace Corps, with a significant program sector in disaster relief, emphasizes reconstruction and prevention rather than first aid. Overall, FV Services provided technical and professional manpower to consumption and production projects in the following proportions:

	Percentage of Volunteer Manpower assigned to:	
	Consumption	Production
CUSO	24%	76%
DUU	27%	73%
DED	35%	65%
SNV	35%	65%
PEACE CORPS	27%	73%

This confirms the production orientation of FV Services and their effectiveness in serving self-reliant development.

The US Peace Corps is the only FV Service which has attempted to assess the number of persons served during a twelve year period from 1961-1973(2b). By Program Sector they identified those served directly and the additional beneficaries as follows:

Peace Corps Accomplishments by Program Sector
1961-1973

Program Sector	Number of Volunteers	People Served Directly	Additional Beneficiaries
–Agriculture & Rural Development	5,022	471,590	1,565,000
–Business & Public Management	414	31,000	674,000
–Education	15,770	2,181,136	1,282,000
–Health	2,534	7,023,155	6,017,000
–Urban Development & Public Works	1,162	315,599	856,000
TOTAL:	24,902	10,022,480	10,394,000

This represents a volunteer:direct "receiver" ratio of:

–Agriculture & Rural Development	1: 94
–Business & Public Management	1: 75
–Education	1: 138
–Health	1:2,772
–Urban Development & Public Works	1: 272

The ratio indicates that development oriented production projects have a smaller "outreach" and multiplier effect than consumption type projects. This makes it the more mandatory for production oriented projects to actually reach the target population–if the limited volunteer manpower is to be invested most effectively in areas and at places where they produce the best results.

The **Qualitative Performance of FV Services** is indicated by the level (volume) of Program Output (Inputs and Tasks) in comparison with objectives, needs and causes. But for various reasons, the assessment of quality of performance of FV Services is even more difficult than those of DDS.

First, while all FV Services have introduced some form of regular reporting from volunteers and staff in the field, this feedback is concerned with descriptions of project activities, problems encountered, personal well being of volunteers, etc. None of the feedback is designed to provide regular data in relation to development needs or causes in order to arrive at some indicator of overall performance.

Second, most of the volunteers' work achievements are "hidden" in the larger development project of which they are a part. Their contributions cannot be isolated from those of other sources. Thus, the success of the overall project to which an FV Service contributed indicates the effectiveness of their program as well.

Third, as with DDS much of the Program Output of FV Services cannot be measured in quantitative terms–or only by applying complicated methods which would not necessarily reduce the margin of errors. Change of work or life style and attitudes are almost impossible to ascertain, apart from the probability that they occur much later when nobody is able to trace them to a volunteer's contribution. With the limited means of FV Services, even the learning of skills is impossible to evaluate in terms of effectiveness, if the students are not tested at the end of the training period and followed into employment.

Hence, the analysis of qualitative achievements of FV Services is based on seven groups of **descriptors** which relate Program Activities to needs and causes.

1. The extent to which **volunteer work project design** give priority to:

   a) service of the target population

   b) support to production/income earning projects

   c) help to maintain minimum health and nutrition standards for target population–provided no other assistance is available

d) local community participation leading to self help, thereby planning to remove the "structural violence" from underdevelopment and facilitating peace.

DED, with its detailed "Guidelines for Project Assignments", realizes best the investment in work program planning and design which leads to allocating the limited volunteer resources to serve target populations. SNV and Peace Corps also aim at the poorer section of population but with less clear targets. In contrast, it seems that CUSO lacks a goal oriented project policy, accepting local requests at face value as an expression of needs.

No FV Service reports a clear distinction in policy priority between "production" and "consumption" assistance with the former aiming at self-reliant development of target groups. DED emphasizes social over economic development projects, implying that the former serves the mobilization of target groups better than the latter.

All FV Services emphasize community self-help but there are no data or reports registering results in this respect. One can only assume that the community development programs of CUSO and Peace Corps, which differ from those of the continental European Services, achieve a higher degree of citizen participation. The Anglo-Saxon concept of community development emphasizes organization of self-help schemes, primarily a democratization process. In contrast, European services perceive community development principally as the provision of technical assistance to improve the economic basis, infra-structure, public services in local communities—and not necessarily requiring citizen participation. Thus, while the first approach requires a "participant", the second can do with a "recipient".

No FV Service identifies the inter-relationship of their planning effort of work programs and their role as facilitators of peace-related structures.

2. The extent to which **volunteer work assignments** in fact **result in improvement and/or expansion** of:

   a) local production in agriculture, crafts and small scale industry, services, and marketing

   b) local employment opportunities both for hire and self-employment

   c) access to education and skill training

   d) equal distribution of income on the local level

   e) local structures, institutions or regulations, which—after the volunteer has left—permanently improve conditions listed under 2(a)-(d)

   f) opportunities for local citizens to participate in their community affairs

   g) capability to communicate with persons from other cultures and/or nations on the part of both the local citizens and the foreign volunteers

Thus, the extent to which FV Services follow the above indicators also describes their **peace-related role.** Improving and expanding in fact these conditions implies that a common truth has been established between the foreign volunteer and the local "recipient" and—more important—some part of the "structural violence" which prevents the materialization of peace

has been removed. In sensibly streamlining their volunteer work assignments FV Services in fact facilitate peace.

Most FV Services emphasize support for local production and access to new educational opportunities. An exception is UNV, which is restricted in its active project policy to UN-financed projects and to UNDP project objectives. The latter are often in conflict with the objectives of UNV as is explained in Compendium No. 26 of Volume II.

Overall, the performance of FV Services could be even more improved if they were more selective and would assign volunteers chiefly to projects which serve local communities in education, training, farming, crafts, small industry, marketing, transportation, utilities infrastructure—in short projects which improve local production and thereby enhance self-reliance; this, of course, after minimum health and nutrition needs are met. Volunteer assignments, however, such as in city planning, in public or business administration and large scale industrial projects reduce the overall effectiveness of FV Services in comparison to priorities of needs. In comparison to other foreign assistance personnel assignments, like those of technical experts of comparable qualifications, FV Services overall are more effective as they reach target groups directly and primarily give production aid on the local level.

As pointed out earlier, FV Services cannot change systems, but they can ameliorate their negative impact. A more equal distribution of income can only be achieved indirectly through support of income earning local projects such as: land settlement schemes, cooperatives, education and training, employment creation, etc. FV Services are aware of this, but no reports are available on the extent of their achievements in this direction.

FV Services are rather weak in encouraging or developing citizen participation opportunities—especially when compared to STD Services. It should be noted that all FV Services emphasize this participation—unfortunately no data are available on how many community projects have continued after the volunteers have departed.

Finally, to develop the ability to communicate with persons from other cultures is a dominant concern throughout all Program Tasks of FV Services, starting with the selection of tolerant, stable but flexible volunteer candidates. In-country training, learning of local languages, engaging in country/cultural studies, host country supervision, etc., all of these program features aim at cross-cultural learning in the hope that communication and understanding will develop. Judging from the statements of a significant number of volunteers i.e. *"that they have learned more than helped"*, and from the fact that volunteers now are more concerned with the social causes of underdevelopment and prefer projects related to people rather than technology—all of this indicates that volunteers have developed an understanding and solidarity across cultural and national borders. But there are also frustrated volunteers whose suspicions and cultural prejudices become reinforced. No data are available on either result but judging from volunteer statements and involvement after they return, the group developing a common truth with people from other cultures, is the largest.

The extent to which host country citizens develop an understanding with the foreign volunteer is even more difficult to ascertain. The national officials, who deal with the coordination of foreign volunteers, have for the most part, developed an excellent communication and solid understanding—otherwise FV Services would not continue to receive volunteer requests. Judging from interviews with officials from DDS, foreign volunteers overall have developed a better communication and understanding with local people than the representatives of their Service and other foreign experts (see also Chapter 11).

3. The extent to which **volunteers are integrated into the project hierarchy** and maintain a status and living style comparable to national colleagues.

Overall, foreign volunteers have difficulty integrating themselves in local projects—especially when they are assigned in larger groups. The higher their pay and the more "western status symbols" (like cars, well equipped living quarters) they display, the more they are distinguished by status and style from their national colleagues. It seems, that in this respect CUSO, WUSC and Peace Corps volunteers are better integrated than those from DED, DUU or SNV, because of the latter's higher pay and related lifestyle. All FV Services reported the problem stemming from their volunteers forming their own clusters, especially when assigned in larger groups. The German volunteers appear especially coherent as a group in their respective host countries. This image is enhanced by the internal DED structure for volunteer participation in decision-making which requires the organization of volunteer groups in each project country. In DED's case we see a basically important and positive feature of the internal operations of an FV Service in conflict with another positive feature of work program effectiveness. Late reports from DED indicate that it now plans to have host country counterparts participate in the DED group meetings in an attempt to bridge this gap.

4. The extent to which FV Services maintain a **low key representation and administration in host countries**, including staffing pattern compatible with the Services' philosophy and the status and style of similar national institutions.

Currently, most field representatives of FV Services are charted in their field offices' administrative structure, staff pay and consequent status and living style, by the sending country's regulations and pay scale. Thus, the appearance of an FV Service as an institution is that of a foreign assistance agency, representing "givers", rather than that of an equal counterpart.

CUSO reports the most effective approach, as it does not maintain offices but only assigns singular staff responsible for volunteer support in a group of neighboring countries. CUSO field officers are charged with only a few administrative matters and therefore can focus on support for the volunteer's work. DED, Peace Corps and SNV provide contrasting examples of rather large field offices with a strong administrative profile. They portray the image of "representation" of a foreign agency. Respondents from Domestic Development Services referred to those facts in interviews which are discussed in Chapter 9.

5. The extent to which the **distribution of authority and the organizational structure in FV Services** permit a results-oriented management and administration, indicated by:

- clear distinction between executive authority and supervisory power
- minimum number of regulations required for implementation and/or enforcement of guidelines
- provision of governmental funds with minimum budgeting, approval and reporting requirements
- delegation of responsibilities and participation in decision-making on the part of volunteers and staff

- reduction of staffing hierarchy to a minimum
- use of volunteer and similar tested resources for staffing pattern
- direct communication lines between the decision-maker and implementor, and reduction of intermediate approval stages and overlapping responsibility for management of action
- maintenance of overlapping responsibilities for creative functions and the management of ideas.

Achieving an authority and organizational structure which permits results-oriented management is one of the problem areas which most influences the effectiveness of FV Services. For example, when supervisory institutions assume executive functions they gravely hamper effective and efficient management (DED, SNV). In many cases governmental support results in complex administrative procedures of budgeting approval, record keeping and reporting that prevent efficient (less costly) management and an effective concentration on the program's response to needs. This is true in varying degrees for DED, DUU, Peace Corps and SNV.

Participation in decision-making is best accomplished in DED and CUSO. The DED example is most remarkable. As a service completely dependent in supervision and funding on government authorities, DED has created a "quasi-membership" structure through its participation in decision-making provisions. DED has also the most remarkable and expansive sets of regulations and guidelines. It is due to the project guidelines and socio-political principles that DED has changed the priorities to include target population groups, and greatly improve the effectiveness of the volunteers' work. Unfortunately though, the sum total of regulations which govern DED has increased so dramatically that—together with the severe dependency on supervision and administration—DED is in danger of fulfilling Parkinson's Law of perpetuation of self-administration to the detriment of its role in outside action. In other words, the current distribution of authority and organizational structure is incompatible with DED's objectives, and the mandate to eliminate causes of underdevelopment furnishes an excellent example of how two specific Program Inputs can reduce the overall effectiveness of a Service which otherwise shows exemplary performance in Program Tasks.

Other governmental dependent Services (DUU, Peace Corps, SNV) show varing degrees of the same problem. CUSO has the most clear distribution of authority and a simple organization which indicate a more effective management—also confirmed by the lowest costs per volunteer man-year.

6. The extent to which FV Services have a **local basis at home**, through membership or local committees, providing a balanced support for the two-fold foreign and domestic mandate.

The results of this evaluation indicate that FV Services need a strong local home basis to provide the necessary continuum of support and guidance through all changes of needs in foreign countries and at home which effect program and institutional structure. This will be even more necessary in the future when the increasing interdependence of nations will have its affect on the foreign assistance activities of FV Services. Only CUSO and WUSC have a clear "home base" in membership and Local Committees. All other FV Services "float" somewhat above ground, lacking the local constituency so important for guidance and support.

7. The extent to which former volunteers become involved, and FV Services conduct a **program at home**, affecting:

   a) global/or development education in schools and non-formal educational activities

   b) involvement of foreigners in community service at home

   c) support for development policy issues and contributions to solutions in the legislative branch of government

   d) citizens/community support for the service abroad, including fund-raising for financial assistance projects

   e) continued involvement in other forms of volunteer community service at home.

All FV Services report a feed back policy to that effect but only CUSO—and WUSC for that matter—have defined a comprehensive program at home. CUSO has the most comprehensive program that translates all areas of its mandate into action to attack the problem of under-development from all angles. In this respect, other FV Services are rather timid. DED once attempted a development education activity at home but abandoned it because of lack of support from supervising authorities.

Peace Corps is the only other FV Service which reports small scale activities through local Peace Corps Service Councils. But these Councils are independent from Peace Corps, receive no support and rarely feed back their experience to the organization.

There is no doubt, that an inter-relationship exists between a sound program at home and abroad. In the future FV Services will especially need this program basis at home in order to expand on a broader range of development cooperation activities on an equal partnership basis, including services in reverse. The more the one-directional foreign assistance role diminishes, the more important will be a two-way Foreign Volunteer Service cooperation/capability.

CONCLUSIONS ON EFFECTIVENESS

The change in magnitude and nature of the conditions of underdevelopment, affecting people in developing and industrialized countries, evidences the effectiveness of Foreign Volunteer Services.

Indicators include:

1. Number of people serviced through production-oriented projects:

   –education of those with no access to formal schooling

   –skill training at all levels immediately linked to employment

   –employment support and expansion through family farming, crafts, small scale industry, cooperatives, marketing, utilities infrastructure.

2. Number of people serviced through consumption-oriented projects in areas where no national programs obtain and people live below minimum standards, especially where health, nutrition, service of the handicapped and the deprived are concerned.

3. Number of local citizens actively participating in and/or conducting production and consumption type projects.

4. Number of institutional set-ups, projects or improvements in local communities continuing after the volunteers have departed.

5. Number of volunteers requested on a regular basis for crucial areas of needs as indicated above.

6. Ratio of volunteer income in comparison to equivalent national.

7. Attrition rate: ratio of volunteers terminating early, especially those leaving because of problems on the job. This attrition rate is a chief indicator of the effectiveness of internal operations of FV Services, i.e. volunteer selection, training, job placement and enforcement of the voluntary commitment to serve for two years.

8. Staff:Volunteer Ratio, and ratio of operational:administrative staff, indicating the effectiveness of management and supervision.

9. Ratio of former volunteers participating in development education activities at home.

10. Ratio of former volunteers continuing volunteer work in various forms at home.

11. Ratio of former volunteers with no previous career commitments, continuing their education and/or taking up social professions.

12. Ratio of former volunteers continuing in development work with new overseas assignments directly serving target populations and self-reliance, removing "structural violence".

13. Coverage of development education programs at home by:

    - geographical regions
    - number and age/profession profile of population
    - development issues affecting attitudes, economic and political behavior.

14. Number of times an FV Service spoke out publicly on development issues based on its experience, or received a hearing either by parliament or public media.

Thus, an **effective Foreign Volunteer Service** is characterized by the following features:

1. An institutional structure which:

    a) clearly distinguishes between executive and supervisory functions

    b) supports local members or committee basis in the home country

    c) permits participation of volunteers and citizens in local activities, supervisory functions and program policy decisions

    d) restricts the support role of governmental agencies to the legal minimum of control and influence in decision-making.

2. Volunteer recruitment, selection, training and placement which:

    a) draw on human resources from all geographical areas, cultural groups and different walks of life in the sending country

    b) give priority to personal and skill qualifications compatible with technical assistance and partnership-cooperation needs

    c) direct the volunteer's attention early to his potential future job assignment

    d) conduct training as much as possible in project countries with the collaboration of national staff

    e) place volunteers in assignments assuring compatability with skill background, and a full workload.

3. Volunteer Work Programs in developing countries which emphasize:

    a) self-reliant development of marginal target groups through production-oriented projects supporting out-of-school education, skill training

related to employment, employment creation through production expansion and self-employment on the local level

b) improvement of below minimum living conditions of marginal target groups through consumption-oriented projects, i.e. health, nutrition, housing, if they cannot be provided by national resources

c) citizen participation—in contrast to "receiver" roles—in local project activities and volunteer work supervision

d) intermediate and appropriate technology which applies local resources

e) volunteer income and living style compatible with those nationals of equal background

f) low profile of FV Services' overseas administrations including staffing patterns compatible with those of nationals

g) volunteer support structure concentrating on their local integration, professional performance and cross-cultural communication with host country people, rather than on volunteer payments, supply of consumer goods and financial administration.

4. Financial Projects—where permitted—which emphasize:

a) fundraising at home from non-governmental groups and individual citizens, which relates the development concern to specific projects for which the money is raised and thus educates the public

b) small scale projects in local communities which directly serve people and not institutions

c) projects which expand on the volunteer's work and promote self-reliance.

5. Programs at home which:

a) encourage the returned volunteer to participate and disseminate his or her experience with people and situations affected by underdevelopment

b) cover:

- all geographical regions
- key population groups like school-age children and youth, parents, legislators, businessmen and women
- issues of underdevelopment where behavioral patterns, business and foreign policies in industrialized countries can make a difference in remedying problems of underdevelopment

c) affect learning, legislation and trade/aid.

6. Management structure and procedure which emphasize:

   a) planning toward targets of program output

   b) direct lines for decision-making and enforcement (command/control) with overlapping of functions and responsibility restricted to areas which affect creativity and management of ideas (for example policy development, planning)

   c) minimum of committees, task forces, guidelines/regulations and written memoranda

   d) as much delegation of authority and responsibility as possible to the field, to volunteers and local communities

   e) supporting role of administration in contrast to a determining role, and which satisfy the minimum legal requirements for supervision and control, but resist undue requirements for approval, record keeping or reporting.

7. Reporting and feedback procedures which record the Program Output in terms of targets. Currently volunteer and staff field reports merely describe work programs, problems encountered, give impressions of volunteers' performance and their well-being. No achievements of targets are reported in publications of FV Services. Possible indicators of target achievements are listed at the beginning of this Sub-Chapter. If such data would be reported on a regular schedule, achievements could be identified in terms of numbers, level of improvement and time. Comparison of such data over a longer period would truly help policy makers and managers to conduct effective and efficient Foreign Volunteer Services.

This concludes the assessment of the organization and role of Development Services. A discussion of major policy issues for improvement of their effectiveness follows in Part III of this report.

In sum, Foreign Volunteer Services are a bridge between industrialized and developing countries, facilitating direct people-to-people encounter and cooperation. They reach to a significant degree those target population groups left aside from the mainstream of development effort. Over the years they have improved the effectiveness of their programs in comparison to the needs for self-reliant development and, thereby, to the facilitation of peaceful relationships and peace structures. In comparison to other foreign assistance institutions, assigning personnel on a long term basis, FV Services have the best potential to be responsive to future requirements of cooperation under the changing conditions of international relations. Thus, Foreign Volunteer Services have a capability to maintain the bridge between people from developing and industrialized countries, even if the needs and nature of programs change.

This concludes PART II on the assessment of ORGANIZATION AND ROLES OF DEVELOPMENT SERVICES. The assumption was that they can make a significant contribution to the mobilization of human resources. At the outset,the question was raised: How effective are

Development Services in furthering the self-development of people and stimulating the participation of citizens in local and national development? And. To what extent do services provide new and flexible means for skill training and work/service experience, experiential education and employment preparation, supply of technical, social and professional manpower, and for bridging the cultural gaps between tribes, nations, the urban and rural, the rich and the poor? Findings and conclusions to these questions were made at each instance with respect to the causes/needs and objectives, the program activities and the overall performance of the various services. For this study it would serve no purpose to further summarize here the findings and narrow them in order to arrive at some overall conclusions and recommendations. Instead, an attempt is made in the next PART III to broaden the discussion into three major POLICY ISSUES which—it is hoped—will help to project the societal role of Development Services into the future.

PART III

POLICY ISSUES

Three major policy issues have emerged from the analysis of the four categories of Development Services. They affect both their future societal role and their effectiveness:

1. Recurrent development education
2. Employment-oriented development
3. Citizen mobilization and participation

The principle objectives of all Development Services have been found to be threefold:

- to fill immediate needs of people and communities
- to change the conditions which caused these needs
- to alter individual and societal attitudes and behavior which prevent needed changes.

The response of Development Services to the immediate needs of people constitutes a "holding position" since it merely fills current gaps. More important is the objective to alter or eliminate the underlying structural conditions which caused the problems in the first place. These causes manifest themselves in the societal systems of education, employment and participatory government. Thus, the future of Development Services depends on their relationship with these major societal systems.

The considerations in the following Chapters 8, 9 and 10 will first, discuss the overall problem, second, describe the current and potential role of Development Services related to this problem, and third, identify elements which are considered essential for an effective role in education, employment and citizens' participation. Suggestions for improvement of Development Services in the policy area complete each Chapter.

RECURRENT DEVELOPMENT EDUCATION 8

Education as a societal effort has produced a system deeply imbedded in the cultural heritage of a country, that is a primary subject of political philosophy and also a vehicle to exert power. In other words, from a historical perspective educational principles, priorities and programs differ largely among nations. Yet, since the Second World War and the ensuing changes, common problems and needs occurred that cut across cultural and political borders and which opened worldwide discussion and action. Following is a brief treatment of the concept and strategies of Recurrent and Development Education with a discussion of the implications for Development Services.

THE ISSUE OF EDUCATION

First, **Recurrent Education** is a principle underwritten by all member countries of the United Nations. It resulted from the critical examination of existing education systems in relation with the 1970 U.N. International Education Year. In the report on "Recurrent Education—Trends and Issues"[150] OECD listed several following **weaknesses of conventional education:**

1. Confidence in the effect of education and educational reform has declined over the past years.

2. The complexity of relationship between education and other social trends has increased.

3. There appeared a lethargy of willingness to rethink the orthodox structures of education in order to eradicate their weaknesses.

4. Weaknesses of education were cited as:

   - lack of success in meeting changing needs of youth, particularly adolescents

   - failure to cater adequately to the needs of adults

   - disappointing impact on redressing inequality

- absence of an adequate framework for integrating theory and practice

- indifference to the changes in the world of work and employment.

Recurrent or Permanent Education aims at the right and access to lifelong education for all people irrespective of their level of previous schooling or social standing. More precisely, Recurrent Education does not intend to replace the whole education system (as the de-schoolers advocate)[61] but provides alternative educational opportunities by radically modifying the system toward:

- access to education at any age

- availability of education at various periods of an individual's life

- plurality of education at various places and levels.

The idea is not to prolong the current traditional education even further, but to remove the concentration and specification of full-time education during one's younger years and to open new educational opportunities later in life as skill needs become more specific and/or professional, and social and cultural interests change. In other words, periods of education are "sandwiched" between periods of work during one's lifetime—even through retirement.

Another principle concerns the removal of barriers between "formal" education and the "non-formal" out-of-school and adult education sector. A change of admission policy and grade promotion is required to provide this access to further and higher levels of education on the basis of possession of knowledge and skills, irrespective of whether they were obtained through classroom attendance, "non-formal" training or work experience during employment. In sum, it concerns vertical linkages between various levels and types of education, and horizontal linkages between "formal" and "non-formal" education on the one hand, and the employment system and other societal forces on the other.

A third principle is related to the equality of educational opportunity through fairer and more effective deployment of educational resources. Equality is a problem not only within the same age group, the rural and urban population, but also between the generations, different tribes, sub-cultures and between sexes.

As the OECD report states[147]: *". . . fairer, because the provision of opportunities on a recurring basis permits a continual redressing of inequities, and more effective in that it allows expenditure and attention to be directed to where the society, the local community and the individual most need them."*

In its 1972 report "Learning To Be"[159] UNESCO proposed: ". . . **lifelong education as a master concept** *in the years to come for both developed and developing countries."* The report pointed out that for centuries educational development followed economic growth but that—since the end of the Second World War—*"education has become the world's biggest activity as far as over-all spending is concerned."* UNESCO pointed to new characteristics:

"• *for the first time in the history of humanity, development of education on a world-wide scale is tending to precede economic development*

• *for the first time in history, education is now engaged in preparing men for a type of society which does not yet exist*

• *for the first time in history some societies are beginning to reject many of the products of institutionalized education*

• *education does display a number of common trends and characteristics . . . the educational enterprise has the character of a worldwide concern."*

These worldwide common concerns include: fostering of open admission policies, trends towards promotion of scientific and technical advancement balanced by development orientation of education, the latter requiring a more open system:

- encouragement of initiative and active participation by the whole population
- transferring responsibility for education from the family, guilds, and religious institutions to public authorities and the state
- as school population increases there are more drop-outs and repeaters; admissions and departures midway through programs are rare but begin to be accepted
- curricula are becoming less burdensome; instruction in mother tongue, specialization in discipline instruction start at a later age; combination of general vocational/technical instruction is increasing
- teachers now constitute a very important socio-political group—in some developing countries the largest group of wage earners
- general trend towards extension of the non-school sector of education.

For example, the Ninth Session of the Standing Conference of European Ministers of Education in 1975[151] adopted recurrent education as a concept of public policy and *". . . resolved to give active encouragement to the following lines of action in their respective countries:*

– *providing education for the 16-19 age group which prepares for further periods of study as well as for entry into working life in the immediate or near future;*

– *adapting other post-compulsory education to meet the needs and interests of individuals with widely different experience;*

– *re-casting the rules of admission to higher education so that work experience is more widely taken into account as a basis of qualifications for entry;*

– *re-designing on a modular basis extended programmes of post-compulsory education and training, so that qualifications can be obtained in different ways and at different times through recurrent periods of study."*

But how relevant is the concept of recurrent education for developing countries? A UNESCO Report[54] of an international seminar points out: *". . . To move rapidly from a state where 80% of citizens were illiterate and where not all children receive basic education to a 'learning society' where every individual has a chance to improve his own education may be beyond the bounds of immediate possibility. Looked at, however, as a direction of change the principles become more capable of realization. If we think in terms of becoming more aware of the goals, offering more facilities for integration, a greater measure of flexibility, and more diversification of learning styles, then progress towards these aims can be achieved."*

Policies toward Recurrent Education—though differing in scale and commitment—have been reported from various countries[159]. For example:

- Indonesia has applied the master concept of lifelong education in the reorganization and reform of the educational system during both the first and second five year development plans (1969-73 and 1974-78). The Office of Educational Development in the Ministry of Education has responsibility for coordinating all sectors of education, and planning development, evaluation and research of new approaches.

- Tanzania: Based on the Arusha Declaration and President Nyrere's 1967 concept of "Education for Self Reliance", the government's policy and plans emphasize horizontal and vertical integration of "formal" and "non-formal" education and linkages between school and community.

- Peru: The General Law on Education of 1972 provides for a radical reform of the aims and organization of the national education system on a policy of lifelong education on pre-primary, basic and higher levels of education.

Overall, in comparison to industrialized countries, developing countries are not necessarily at a disadvantage in implementing Recurrent Education. Their determination for a relevant education of their people for self-reliance, and their interest to modify education systems inherited from colonial times propels them to eliminate the barriers between different levels, places and times of education.

Finally: **How cost effective is Recurrent Education** in comparison to conventional approaches? Friedrich Edding and his colleagues suggest the following considerations[35,36]:

- There is no way that the current conventional education of youth in full-time programs could be expanded to all youth and to those adults requiring equal opportunity—it would be far too costly. No country can afford such a concept and pay not only for the costs of the educational program, but also for leave of absence from work for adults during the education period—and absorb the loss of production at the same time. This would be inflationary and result in a sharp reduction of private consumption and quality of life.

- On the other hand, today the social costs, the discrepancy between the requirements of life and the ability to meet them by adequate education, are high. The costs for social welfare, health, delinquency, loss of production because of idle manpower, the slow progress to improve the overall quality of life make up these social costs. They are nowhere calculated in terms of money or wasted resources—but there is broad agreement that they are formidable.

- Therefore, alternative strategies are demanded to realize lifelong education. The cost effectiveness of such alternative approaches will determine whether this right to equal access to education for all can be realized.

- The pros and cons of measures to implement policies of Recurrent Education must be carefully weighed in order to realize the highest cost effectiveness. For instance:

  —Resources will be saved if non-school organizations (such as Development Services) participate in Recurrent Education and use their own facilitities, give students leave for paid work and obtain credit for the work period against the curriculum time for "formal" instruction.

  —Cost will increase if there is general extension of obligatory education to the age of 18.

  —Cost will increase dramatically if adult education is expanded in full-time programs requiring paid leave of absence.

  —Resources for adult education will be saved if only those programs immediately linked to advancement of careers and expansion of production are conducted on a full-time basis and if modern media are applied on a large scale.

  —The pay-off for educational costs in terms of economic growth is affected if systematic learning, now part of youth education, is postponed to later years. Economists suggest that postponement of investment in marketable qualifications is economically disadvantageous. The educational costs between youth or adult investment in marketable qualifications are about equal, but the respective incomes differ, by late entry into the productive process, the loss of income is much greater for adult education emphasis.

  —Costs for training and other learning immediately useful to the employers should be born by them as part of production costs.

  —Costs are reduced if the motivation for learning is improved through reduction of time spent in school, through module structured curricula, learning in "real life" situations (such as work/service or work/study).

  —The share of educational costs in the national budget will be stabilized, if a strategy of change toward Recurrent Education is implemented which balances the increased costs through expansion of educational opportunity with savings from educational reform.

Therefore, cost effectiveness of Recurrent Education appears dependent upon:

1. limitation of full-time obligatory youth education up until 18

2. intervals of full-time learning and work periods primarily up to the age of 25

3. full-time adult education only if related to the advancement of careers leading to improvement of productivity

4. part time and/or short-term/full time adult education tailored to specific social, cultural and economic needs of various population groups

5. delegation of educational obligations both to schools and to a diversity of educational organizations

6. open admission and grade promotion on the basis of possession of knowledge and skills, in contrast to certification.

Second, **Development-Orientation of Education** is a concept deeply interlinked with the recurrent approach; in fact, it is the other side of the same coin. As development concerns "the mobilization and advancement of people, to maintain and achieve an adequate livelihood and self-reliance, in contrast to institutions and profits", Recurrent Education moves the attention from an institution and curriculum emphasis to a learner focus in response to the needs of the individual. The learner and the person in the local community to be advanced through development efforts are the same. The report, "Education in the Nation's Service, Experiments in Higher Education for Development"[62], a multi-national study by the International Council for Educational Development confirms this opinion. Among others, they identified the following elements that contributed to success of development education:

- it has identified a need (set of problems)
- it has formulated objectives (defined ends and devised direct means for achievement)
- it has secured the support of community, government, students and faculty
- it has plans for achieving objectives concerning structure and organization, staff development, participation, communication and orientation.
- it interrelates teaching, research and service
- it has a capacity for innovation and discovery
- it is linked to other parts of the education system.

Examples in the report include the involvement of students and faculty in rural school reform in Nigeria, Ethiopia, Tanzania, Brazil and Colombia, the support of in-service teachers training, farmers training, rural extension work, the many Study-Services in other developing countries. The many forms of educational activities outside "formal" and conventional higher education are seen as part of *". . . a continuous effort to strengthen what might be called 'the learning capacity of the nation'"*[114].

There is one additional component though, tied to perceiving Recurrent Education as development-oriented at the same time: the global aspect of learning for life in today's interdependent world. Education for today's and tomorrow's society is incomplete and inadequate if it does not include treatment and experience of the relationships and dependencies among developing and industrialized countries, and the related global problems which require peaceful solutions.

Thus, Recurrent Development Education is a person-oriented, community based opportunity to learn during an entire lifetime and to participate as an active member in the community society at large and an interdependent world. It is beyond the scope of this study to discuss the details of the Recurrent and Development Education concept and strategy which has concerned many experts, educational Institutions, UNESCO, the Council of Europe, OECD and others for years. For the interested reader some bibliographical references on these issues are provided in Appendix C.-2. Further discussion here will be limited to those features which have a specific meaning for the role of Development Services.

THE EDUCATIONAL POTENTIAL OF DEVELOPMENT SERVICES

Acknowledging the problems of education, the legislation that established Development Services confers an educational mandate in five areas.

1. **"Non-formal" training in** *literacy, technical/vocational skills, history, culture and civics for the illiterate and drop-out youth through a combined classroom, workship and work/service program is conducted by* **Training and Employment Schemes.**

Primarily they provide alternative educational opportunity to those young people left aside by the "formal" system. But the degree to which they ensure continued education at other places, levels and times for the individual volunteer, once he has completed service, depends entirely on the services' arrangements with the "formal" sector. For example, the Malaysia National Youth Pioneer Corps has agreements with the National Industrial Training and Trade Certification Board to certify the skill level achieved during service, and with the Industrial Training Institute and various industries to arrange continued education after completion of service. The Kenya National Youth Service provides 12 months of vocational training, "sandwiched" between work assignments, which leads to graduation for 80-90% of the volunteers with a Grade III Trade Test. KNYS also provides continued educational opportunity through a 1 year extension of service to achieve Grade II Trade Tests or a cultural degree. In the Thailand Rural Youth Leadership Training volunteers receive the equivalent of a secondary technical education at the end of service and are eligible for examination as secondary graduates, under the aegis of the school system.

These are characteristics of Recurrent Education. But the requirements to admit service-learning for certification also indicate the problems. It appears that conditions and procedures of the conventional "formal" system prevail and are imposed upon the service—if it wants to secure continued educational opportunity for the individual learners. In other words, the supposedly flexible, less costly educational organization is "bent" to the traditional terms of schooling, impeding the service's effort to open up the school system to work/service learning and more flexible admission and certification requirements. As a consequence, these Training and Employment Schemes become more costly because they have to meet the "formal" standards of the curriculum like: certain hours and content of classroom workshop instruction, performance on specific workship equipment and certified teachers. These requirements not only increase the costs of a service, the certified programs also tend to reduce the time spent in actual community work/service and to increase the formal training period in centers and

workshops. Thus, an important asset of a Development Service, the community oriented work/service learning and the participation in development activity, is endangered in those services which—rightly so—focus on the individual learner and his or her continued opportunities. A third negative impact from the current type of linkage with the "formal" education system concerns the goal of "learning how to learn". The best guarantee for self-learning is a period of work/service experience in a local community, in small team assignments, long enough for the individual volunteer to accomplish a task, and to evaluate his or her work assignment.

On the national level, the planning in terms of coverage of target population groups and geographical areas, which Training and Employment Schemes can reach, are less clear. The educational role of these services appears to lack the integration into a country's national plan for Recurrent Education by alternative means. In comparison to overall needs, and in balance with other similar educational organizations responding to the same needs, a streamlining and national coordination in planning would help to clarify roles, and avoid both overlapping and lack of educational opportunity. Such a planning step would also permit a re-alignment of resources were they most effectively invested.

These considerations do not question the value of Training and Employment Schemes as alternative educational organizations for Recurrent Development Education. On the contrary, they are in principle better equipped than most other organizations to achieve these objectives because of their work/service component. But their challenge today is to go all the way to use these services as a vehicle to truly establish Recurrent and Development-Oriented Education. The challenge is in three main areas:

- to design work/service as a strong learning sector in the program
- to change the current admission and certification requirements so that work/service learning is credited, the curriculum emphasis is on general vocational and work process skills, and non-certified teachers are admitted
- to integrate the services' goals and targets into the national plan and allocate resources in accordance with the less costly revised educational role and the consequent potential for expanded coverage of population groups in need of alternative educational opportunity.

2. **"Formal" education and training** *in employable technical, social and communications skills, work processes and problem solving roles for students in secondary and tertiary education conducted through training and work/service programs in local communities is the mandate of* **Study-Services.**

As the only Development Service which is an integral part of the "formal" education system, Study-Services are vehicles for experience-based learning that combine real work situations (in contrast to laboratory or "doing" situations) with service to people in local communities. In comparison to other forms of experiential learning, Study Services deserve preference because the actual work situation is not an imitation of life, but life itself, and the community service basis, for the benefit of others, provides an additional dimension of learning citizen obligations. Being placed for a sufficient length of time on the job to accomplish a task, the student/volunteer is forced by circumstance to experience the trans-disciplinary nature of societal problems, to learn ways to solve them, and encounter the limitations of some approaches.

Thus, by their nature Study-Services are learner oriented in two respects.

- the individual volunteer is the primary beneficiary of the work/service assignment, and

- the people in the community not only learn skills or new methods through the volunteer, but through his very presence as an outsider there is created a cultural and developmental learning environment as old ways are questioned and challenged.

It appears that work/service assignments "sandwiched" between academic learning and/or skill training have the most beneficial effect on the student/volunteer to become a "self-learner" and to review career choices in accordance with societal needs that were experienced and the personal interests and talents he or she wishes to pursue.

While the existence of Study-Service at a college or university is per se a signal for a development-oriented curriculum content and methodology, it does not necessarily imply that the educational institution as a whole has achieved the characteristics of an exponent of Recurrent Development Education. Only if the feedback from the Study-Service experience initiates changes in the institution itself, affecting the overall policy, organizational structure and procedure can one speak of an effective educational role of Study-Services. Institutional changes initiated through Study-Services toward Recurrent Development Education concern:

- provision of Study-Service opportunities covering all disciplines and departments and most of the student population

- open admission and accreditation policy toward work/service learning as an equal part of academic learning.

- installation of Study-Service as an operational unit within the educational institution equivalent to the status of traditional departments or disciplines disciplines

- participation of faculty in the work/service program and in the support of local community projects

- participation of professionals from community and business in teaching assignments in colleges and universities

- evaluation of Study-Service experience and achievements and feedback mechanism to the educational institution so that they provide regular inputs into teaching, research, policy development and public activities as part of cultural institutions.

3. **"Non-formal" job entry or career training in** *employable technical, social and cultural communication skills, work processes, teaching assignments and problem solving roles for graduates and less "formally" educated experienced citizens conducted through pre-service training and work/service programs in*

local communities, is the mandate of **Social and Technical Development Services.**

The educational role of STD Services is not as clearly defined as in the previous two categories of Development Services. This is due to the broader range of causes and needs to which STD Services respond. In general, they do not perceive the individual volunteer as a learner. Their first emphasis is on the learning needs of the local communities they aid through volunteer assignments. However, in assigning young graduates for a sufficient length of time in a work/service environment they, in fact, introduce the volunteer to the world of work and employment. The service becomes a functional, rather than an intentional, job entry training. The work experience in the social field also often leads to reconsideration of career choices and a new outlook on what the volunteer wants to do with his or her life. Thus, the job entry training not only concerns prospects for employment, but also the volunteer's individual role in society. However, most STD Services conceive this educational role as a by-product—certainly not linked to a Recurrent Education effort—and thus have no policy and do not support the volunteer through counseling, in-service training or other regular programs for learning needs.

However, as exceptions, two STD Services clearly embrace a job-entry educational role:

- Indonesia's BUTSI has an educational policy which conceives the service of their university graduates as two fold: a job entry preparation combined with occupational re-training to obtain the necessary employable skills. As in other countries, universities release graduates with a solid educational basis but without the necessary employable skills or needed disciplines—and here BUTSI provides the best vehicle to bridge into employment and citizen roles, especially in civil service.

In this connection it should be noted that Indonesia and Tanzania are the only known instances where the educational role of the Development Service has been defined as part of an overall national policy of Recurrent Development Education. In both cases the country applies an educational strategy to provide different learning opportunities to various population groups via the different categories of Development Services reaching the illiterate and school drop-outs, the students and the adult population.

- Thailand's Youth Development Volunteers is a small program for volunteers assigned to teach in primary schools in remote rural areas. Volunteers are actively encouraged—through stipends after service—to take up teaching careers and complete their "formal" teacher education.

Finally, occupational re-training for the mature or retired person to take up a new role and/or employment later in life is a very important function of those STD Services which employ older volunteers. Unfortunately, most STD Services have not—yet—perceived their role in Adult Recurrent Education clearly, and consequently have not developed an educational program in this respect. They have perceived the need to utilize these idle and often highly motivated and experienced resources for service to the community. Providing learning-service for adults later in life is one of the least costly approaches to serve the needs of the mature, learners and, concurrently, gain the highest benefit from their contribution to the local community. Industrialized countries are especially guilty of neglect with their millions of early retirees who, together with their longer life expectancy, waste 15-20 years of their lives because they have none, or at least inadequate re-learning and involvement/employment opportunities. With the overemphasis on youth in most of the European and North American

countries, the older generation is truly the "underdog" as far as educational opportunity is concerned; it represents a waste of useful resources in terms of their social service potential for the community. There are indications that the industrialized sections of society in developing countries may fall victim to the same problem if they do not soon enact countermeasures.

The two examples of STD Services for retired persons which indicate a non-intentional learning component in contrast to program attention paid to the individual adult learner are:

- Thailand's Volunteer Leaders for Community Development who serve as ombudsmen in their own community and surrounding region to activate local community self-help schemes. Volunteer Leaders are senior citizens, many of them retired military or civil service personnel, who have returned home to rural areas, and make their experience available to their communities. They receive community development training and professional support from regional community development centers and officials—a kind of in-service occupational re-training and resources investment during retirement.

- ACTION/USA conducts the Older American Programs, especially for volunteers above 60 years from low income families. Even though these volunteers receive very little formal training, the service as such provides occupational re-orientation and human involvement. So far, no program has been devised for the millions of educated and experienced retirees from business and civil service who would need some senior learning opportunity to up-date their knowledge or enter a new "retirement career".

Overall, STD Services have the educational potential, by integrating their program in national recurrent education planning, to provide cost effective service learning in three areas:

- for graduates and other young adults a job entry or occupational re-training in response to employment needs and personal interests

- for senior citizens of various educational backgrounds,occupational re-orientation in full-time or part-time programs in response to community needs for the provision of social services

- for the less educated, handicapped, otherwise underprivileged or deliquent, general and occupational learning opportunities in response to their individual skills and knowledge and their needs to contribute and help others in the community.

4. **"Non-formal" development/global education** *of employable knowledge and skills to perform in a multi-cultural mileu in a foreign country for technicians and professionals conducted through pre-service training and work/service assignments is the mandate of* **Foreign Volunteer Services**

5. **"Non-formal" and "formal" development/global education at home,** *especially concerning relationships and cooperation between industrialized and developing countries, for school age youth and adults is an obligation mandated to* **Foreign Volunteer Services.**

Foreign Volunteer Services, in their educational activity to prepare the volunteer for service abroad, lack an active concern for the individual as a learner. They regard the volunteer, in their policies and programs, as manpower sent abroad to produce development results. There is nothing wrong with this notion—but it is onesided. It overlooks that, for the individual person, the service is a section of his lifetime: he comes with a certain educational background and employment experience (of which the FV Service takes advantage) and he will afterwards continue in employment and probably further education as well. Currently this 25 month learning period—which treats learning as a by-product—is a section of discontinuity in the volunteer's overall continuity of life. From a Recurrent Development Education point of view it is a neglected link from previous education to later learning and occupation . . . FV Services have not—yet—taken up their mandate as an educational organization, but they especially have two potentials in terms of Recurrent Development Education principles:

- to develop self-learning capabilities in volunteers in real work situations and community service roles in a multi-cultural mileu and often a foreign language which enables their self-learning in later employment and citizen's roles at home

- to link their pre-service training and work/service learning with "formal" post-graduate education or occupational re-orientation attainable for a later career, for example teacher, in tropical medicine, agriculture, public administration, business etc.

Only Peace Corps reports attainment of teaching assignments abroad for later completion of "formal" teachers' education or employment in a teaching career. It appears that the European Foreign Volunteer Services have so far paid no attention to their role as an educational organization within the larger context of the Recurrent Education policy the European Ministers of Education adopted in 1972. For example, a two year's service with the German DED could be applied against a certain portion of the post graduate training required for advanced medical, legal, or agricultural degrees.

Finally, the "non-formal" and "formal" development education of Foreign Volunteer Services at home has—so far been developed only by the Canadian FV Services. Here the learning capacity of the service as an institution, and of the individual volunteer, are in question and their obligation to return to society what has been gained is challenged. It is this additional dimension of service to general education, occupational training, technical/professional education and various sectors of adult learning that would develop FV Services to their full potential as an educational organization both abroad and at home.

This review of the educational role of Development Services displays many potentials and a variety of attempts in terms of: educational program responses to needs, a methodology linked with work and citizens' roles in communities, and an organizational vehicle which keeps education and work/service combined under one roof. All of this is very promising for a future expanded and cost effective role in the Recurrent Development Education effort. Yet, what is missing today is a comprehensive approach to build on these potentials and expand on the attempts in two directions:

1. to link the educational role of Development Services with the country's policy and programs of Recurrent and Development Education, and

2. to integrate the educational contribution of Development Services into the national plan to cover specific target populations and geographical areas.

WHAT THEN ARE THE ELEMENTS FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF AN EFFECTIVE ROLE OF DEVELOPMENT SERVICES IN RECURRENT DEVELOPMENT EDUCATION?

1. **Identification of needs** in terms of coverage of overall **target population** and geographical areas within the national plan.

2. Identification of **learning needs** of target population and users, specifically the needs of:

   - the volunteer as individual learner
   - the community as a learning society
   - the potential employment and market sector in terms of employable skills or marketable products.

3. **Educational policy** on the part of the Development Service which reflects their potential as an organization to provide (a) alternative educational opportunity for those left aside from the schools and, (b) recurrence of opportunity to prepare for work or new occupations in youth age, mid-career or retirement age.

4. **Linkages with the "formal" education system**, both horizontal and vertical, to ensure:

   - admission and grade promotion agreements for further education and competence certification of service-learning
   - development of learning modules trans-disciplinary in nature, which link work/service with classroom learning at various levels and integrate both in the overall curriculum
   - staff development and exchange policy which provides teachers with work/service learning as staff in Development Services and service staff with teaching experience in schools, colleges and universities, eventually leading to more open teaching profession and equal career provisions for both assignments
   - regular feedback to educational institutions of both volunteer training and work/service experience concerning development goals, program performance and needed changes in classroom instruction.
   - regular review of allocation of financial resources in order to provide equal educational opportunity for target population by the most effective means.

5. **Community basis and control** of the local training and/or work/service program in terms of project planning, organization, management and disbursement of local financing is important for development participation and Recurrent Education activities to remain responsive to peoples needs.

One can, of course, argue that these considerations are taking the educational role of Development Services too far. The educational advance of the individual volunteer may be perceived as contravening the principle of a voluntary contribution free of personal gain. Others may say that Development Services were meant to be the "outsider", casual, organizations and less endowed with an "official" educational role.

But times and needs have changed and Development Services are a new breed which were established in response to exactly these needs, and receive significant public financial support. The arguments against going all the way in developing an effective educational role stem from a past "we:they" perception of "formal" versus "non-formal" institutionalized education. They are linked to an erstwhile voluntary service concept which takes more pride in the aspect of "no personal gain" (which only the rich and well endowed can afford) rather than to provide opportunity for involvement and participation of all citizens (including the poor and disadvantaged)—irrespective of whether they gain an education.

With the acceptance of the Recurrent and Development Education master concept by all countries on a cost effective basis, and the consequent aim to eliminate the barriers between "formal" and "non-formal" education, the previous—sometimes vague—educational mandate of Development Services became more precise. They are the educational organizations outside the school system so badly needed to open up lifelong educational opportunities for all. The point is not for Development Services to develop into an educational bureaucracy. On the contrary, their strength is their flexibility, the practical community based work/service and the broad range of citizens involved in their program. It will take all the force of good conceptualization, policy and effective management in Development Services to keep it that way, not be tempted or forced to "bend" to conventional educational procedures but, rather, contribute to the implementation of the Recurrent Development Education principles.

SUGGESTIONS FOR IMPLEMENTATION

1. *Ascertain your own and your project countries' Recurrent and Development Education policies.*

2. *Review the Development Services' educational policy and program and develop a strategy with respect to:*

   - *linkages with the education system to create more access to educational opportunities, credit for service when needed and upward mobility;*

   - *development of learning modules for training and work program which reflect the learner needs of volunteers within each category;*

- *observance of cost effectiveness per volunteer man-year competitive with formal schooling.*

3. *More specifically, consider the following educational emphasis:*

   - *role-centered training of volunteers preparing them for their overall societal role in the community of their assignment;*

   - *work program designs which appreciate the volunteer as a learner and make provisions for support in regular intervals during the whole service period.*

   - *educational opportunities for the older citizens, business and civil service retirees—the latter in capacities of both learners and teachers.*

4. *Obtain the services of one or two educational experts on a staff exchange basis with the Ministry of Education or a university, for a limited time, to assist in the review, strategy design and the development of an in-house educational capability.*

5. *Lobby for change in admission policies and teacher requirements of the "formal" education system so that the Development Services' educational activity is accepted as an alternative educational organization in Recurrent Education.*

EMPLOYMENT-ORIENTED DEVELOPMENT STRATEGIES 9

That education and employment are interrelated has long been established not only by economic theories since Adam Smith, but also by those who have struggled with the causes and problems of poverty. As Frederick H. Harbison states in "Human Resources as the Wealth of Nations"[52]:

> *"Human resources problems fall into general categories:*
>
> *(1) those related to underdevelopment of skills, knowledge and talent of persons in the labor force and*
>
> *(2) those stemming from underutilization of their energies and capabilities."*

Also, in the effort to advance people, both education and employment feed on each other's achievements and failures—as the two sides of the same coin.

But the acknowledgement of the "right to work" principle is a fairly recent development. The members of the United Nations have added this postulate to the earlier principle of the "right to equal educational opportunities". More and more, the "right to work" principle is commanding attention and endeavor.

The 1976 ILO World Employment Conference declared[143]:

> *". . . that past development strategies in most developing countries have not led to the eradiction of poverty and unemployment . . . that industrialized countries have not been able to maintain full employment and that economic recession has resulted in widespread unemployment . . ."*

and the Conference noted:

> *". . . that unemployment, underemployment and marginality are a universal concern and affect at least one-third of humanity at the present time, offending human dignity and preventing the exercise of the right to work . . ."*

This recent World Employment Conference, its Declaration of Principles (for full text see Appendix B.-5.) and adoption of a Program of Action are the result of various previous steps:

First, the unanimous adoption by the General Assembly of the United Nations[142] of the **employment policy in the International Strategy for the Second Development Decade** that

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provided: *"each developing country should formulate its national employment objectives so as to absorb an increasing proportion of its working population in modern-type activities and to reduce significantly unemployment and underemployment."*

Second, the **ILO World Employment Programme was inaugurated.** Designed to assist in the development of national employment objectives, policies and programs, the programme is conducted in close cooperation with the United Nations, World Bank, International Monetary Fund, FAO, UNESCO, WHO, UNCTAD, GATT, UNIDO and UNDP. It is concerned with the whole range of development problems as they affect employment and the "right to work" principle.

Third, activities were launched to guide the World Employment Programme in the effort to assist national employment planning:

1. **A major research programme**[141] which attempts to shed light regarding the relationships between employment and population growth, technology, income distribution, education, trade expansion, and special problem areas of urban unemployment and emergency employment schemes.

2. **Comprehensive employment strategy missions** to Colombia, Iran, Kenya[140] and Sri Lanka for assessment of their employment problems and development of a long-term employment strategy, with proposals for changes in key areas of development policy.

It is from this background of the broader international debate and program effort that the policy issue of an employment-oriented development strategy of Development Services will be discussed.

THE EMPLOYMENT PROBLEM

Underutilization of human resources, Harbison[52] for instance maintains is the most serious and intractable problem facing us today. It is not only a waste of the most abundant resource, manpower, but is also a human tragedy. The problem concerns the open—and statistically traceable—unemployment as well as underemployment disguised in subsistence agriculture, occasional employment and the marginal sectors of society. While unemployment pertains to the labor force actively seeking work in the modern-sector economy—in developing countries averaging about 20-25%, in industrial countries between 5-12%—underemployment is not easily defined or identified in quantitative terms. Underemployment, to quote Gunnar Myrdal[84], relates to the labor force that is idle during part of the day, week, month and year, or to situations where working is "unproductive".

Productive employment, according to the ILO data, *"depends both on the rate of economic growth, and on the pattern of development, as well as on ad hoc policy measures to face any immediate, emergency employment problems"*[143]. There is agreement that not one but many causes incite unemployment problems: the imbalances between economic growth, population expansion and educational opportunity, the imbalances between job needs and technology, the

imbalances between peoples' aspirations and expectations for work in comparison to employment structures and opportunities, and—last but not least—the limitations in export markets, income distribution and worsening terms of trade.

Moreover, the ILO report stated that employment strategies and national development plans adopted by the World Employment Conference, should be based on a **Basic-Needs-Oriented Policy** including two elements:

> *"First, they include certain minimum requirements of a family for private consumption: adequate food, shelter and clothing, as well as household equipment and furniture.*
>
> *Second, they include essential services provided by and for the community at large, such as safe drinking water, sanitation, public transport and health, educational and cultural facilities."*

The Basic-Needs-Oriented Policy further implies:

> *". . . the participation of the people in making the decisions which affect them through organizations of their own choice.*
>
> *". . . in all countries freely chosen employment . . . both as a means and as an end. Employment yields an output. It provides an income to the employed, and gives the individual a feeling of self-respect, dignity and of being a worthy member of society.*
>
> *". . . that the concept is a country-specific and dynamic concept."*

The World Conference also recommended that ILO should promote short-term and quick job-generating programmes, that a portion of the one billion dollar International Fund for Agricultural Development should be used for generating employment in the rural sector, and requested that the policies required to meet Basic Needs *"become an essential part of the United Nations Second Development Decade Strategy and form the core of the Third Development Decade Strategy"*. Thus, the Basic-Needs Policy is long-term and gives direction for both coverage and volume of an employment-oriented development strategy.

A **combination of measures**, to generate jobs in productive employment and to change the pattern of development, is required if the under-utilization of human resources is to be improved. These measures must distinguish between the urban and the rural employment problems.

First, it should be recognized that **urban unemployment and underemployment** in most developing countries is expected to worsen as the labor force increases more rapidly than the economy and consequent job opportunities. Harbison estimates that in countries with an annual 2½-3 per cent population growth the urban labor force increases by 6-7% per year while the annual growth of new job generation is estimated at half that rate.

Measures suggested are drawn from various ILO reports listed in the Bibliography (Appendix C.-2.) and from Harbison's considerations[52]:

- promotion of consumer goods which require labor instead of capital or foreign exchange

- application of appropriate technology *"that is management and production techniques which are best suited to the resources and future development potential of developing countries"*[143].

- expansion of the intermediate sector of the economy (small scale, family-type business, applying intermediate technologies) in contrast to the modern industrialized sector, has a better job generating potential in areas like:

  —manufacturing for export in small family enterprises

  —trade, transportation and tourist services, repair shops, crafts, etc.

- labor-intensive construction work—construction in developing countries employs more persons than manufacturing and therefore as a labor-intensive policy creates more jobs

- extension and improvement of education and health are the only public service areas which have high priority in developing countries, are labor intensive and can best avoid investment in unproductive employment in public bureaucracies

- wage restraint in income policies: high wages in the modern economy of the urban sector act as a magnet for investment in capital-intensive (in contrast to labor-intensive) technologies, as well as for the ever increasing migration from rural areas. Various studies confirm, according to Harbison[52], that wage restraint or reduction has increased productive employment in countries such as Ghana, Kenya, Sierra Leone and Tanzania. It is certainly not a popular measure but one which is critical and deserves further consideration for industrialized and developing countries alike.

All experts agree that the expansion of urban employment is limited, that in fact expansion can cause more unemployment even as it generates new jobs, because it creates false hopes and attracts even more rural migrants who then swell the urban unemployed and underemployed. Thus, an employment-oriented development strategy should give preference to job generation in rural areas. Effective means to reduce urban unemployment must include:

- a slowdown of population growth

- retention of rural labor force in their communities and regions, and

- reverse migration of the educated from urban centers to rural areas for certain employment periods.

The United Nations has estimated that between 1960-1980 the rural population in developing countries will increase by 645 million, adding to the existing problem and making them the largest group of underutilized human resources. Thus, apart from the simple quantity of rural manpower, the limitations of urban employment expansion, and the widening of the gap between urban and rural opportunities for advancement mandate that an employment-oriented

development strategy should give preference to job generation in rural areas. Rural job generation requires a broad ranging approach including: land reform and settlement of small farmers, development of marketing, crafts and small industry, rural infrastructure and social services such as education, health, nutrition. Measures to generate employment in rural areas would comprise:

- reorganization of agrarian structure encouraging small farms
- expansion and modernization (not to be mistaken for capital-intensive mechanization) of agriculture, and development of agro-based crafts, services and small business and industry
- provision of both physical (roads, water, power, housing) and social (education, training, health, nutrition) infrastructure
- promotion of co-operatives for marketing, storage, equipment, credit, transportation, processing, distribution.

As Harbison states[52]: *"The logic in favor of rural development is clear. It will help solve the problem of hunger and malnutrition; it can ease pressure on the balance of payments by reducing the need to import food; by increasing rural incomes, it will broaden the market for urban produced goods. And above all, since by nature most activities essential to rural development are relatively labor-intensive, it can be a powerful force for generating employment."* A prime bottleneck to achieve a concerted effort in rural development is the lack—in most countries—of organization and management beyond the traditional local leadership structure. The Program of Action of the ILO World Employment Conference[143] underlines the importance of rural organization: *"The main thrust of a Basic-Needs Strategy must ensure that there is effective mass participation of the rural population in the political process in order to safeguard their interests. In view of the highly hierachical social and economic structure of agrarian societies in some developing countries, measures of redistributive justice are likely to be thwarted unless backed by organizations of rural workers. A policy of active encouragement to small farmers and rural workers' organizations should be pursued . . . "*

Finally, the World Employment Conference emphasized **social policies** for both industrialized and developing countries which *"should be designed to increase the welfare of the working people, especially women, the young and the aged."*

Thus, an employment-oriented development strategy concurs with the Basic-Needs principle and gives priority to:

- utilization of human resources in rural areas through broad range rural development, emphasizing job generation
- rural organization
- social policies and programs with special attention to women, youth and the aged.

THE CASE OF KENYA

Kenya was one of the four countries which received a comprehensive ILO/UNDP Employment Strategy Mission. The mission's report[140]—and those of Colombia, Iran, and Sri Lanka—are well worth a detailed personal study. The Kenya example was selected because of the familiarity with their Development Services, the excellent insight the report provides in the development of an overall national employment strategy, and the contribution Development Services can make within such a framework. It should be noted, however, that the Kenya report presents analyses and recommendations not all of which have been implemented and tested since publication. Here, the discussion will concentrate on a brief outline of the employment problem in Kenya, the key areas for an employment-oriented development strategy and the role Development Services play in those areas.

The Mission stressed that the **employment problem in Kenya** is not a transitional one that will correct itself in the long term. It is composed of three distinct facets:

"• *frustration of job seekers unable to obtain the type of work or the renumeration which they think is reasonable, or which their education has led them to expect;*

• *low level—in fact the poverty level—of incomes received by many producers and their families as the return on their work, whether in self or family employment, or in wage employment;*

• *underutilization and low productivity of the labor force, both male and female, which reflect the inefficiency in the way labor is trained, deployed or supported with other resources.*"

These employment problems grew out of the colonial era, when the economic structure was shaped by the demands of the upper income group—primarily the European landholders and few larger businesses in the Nairobi area—permitting limited growth for the Asian trading middle class, and leaving the African working people without any significant opportunity. Thus, after independence the employment problem was characterized by **three fundamental imbalances:**

- population growth and the nature of technology applied
- development of urban centers (Nairobi, Mombasa) and the periphery (rural districts)
- employment opportunities in the formal and informal sector.

In response, the National Assembly in 1965 adopted **objectives for an overall employment strategy,** which the 1972 ILO/UNDP Mission confirmed as guiding principles:

"*(a) continued expansion of the economy;*

(b) wider sharing of the benefits of expansion;

(c) national integration of the economy; and

(d) attack on extreme imbalances and disparities."

In order to distribute income more equitably, and help to develop those sectors of the economy which are in imbalance until they can achieve Standard incomes (for 1978: 120 sh. per rural houshold; 200 sh. per urban household at 1971 prices), a temporary strategy proposal in the Mission report calls for a **redistribution from growth.** In other words, temporary curtailment of acceleration of objective (a) in favor of (b). National integration (c) aims especially at reduction in regional and ethnic inequalities, equal access to land, water, credit, jobs, etc., with **Kenyanisation** the underlying principle. The policy is to provide equal opportunities for Kenyans and transform the economy from the strong European images and aspirations of the colonial era to truly Kenyan priorities without alienating the foreigners living in Kenya. Kenyanisation went along three principles.

- no premature displacement of persons with high-level skills;
- maximum utilization of skills, experience and capital of non-citizens
- taxation of non-citizens so supplement the system of work permits.

A third emphasis in the Mission proposal is on policies to support the **informal employment sector** and **rural development** in order to attack the extreme disparities (d) in Kenya. Both sectors are labor-intensive and have a job generation potential in the locations where people reside. At the same time both represent sectors of the economy where most of the working poor labor below minimum income levels.

Again and again the report emphasizes the interdependence of the employment problem with other sectors of economic and social development and the need for a strategy to tackle the problem on all fronts. The report identifies key areas and suggests policies to bring about change in the economic system and favorable conditions for employment and adequate income. Key areas for employment policies include:

- Population policy which slows growth through education, and special measures, such as increase in farm productivity and an old age security plan for farmers, in order to remove the economic and social needs for large families.
- Technology change in favor of a new mix of production emphasizing local goods for consumption by low income groups, appropriate mechanization of agriculture, expansion of those public works which reduce social costs, support of rural crafts and small scale industry.
- Agricultural expansion through intensification of land use (crop and lifestock production), redistribution of land towards smaller more labor-intensive farm units, settlement on unused or underutilized land, ceiling on size of individual land holdings (an issue still controversial in Kenya and not yet decided).

- Industry and construction, especially reorganization of support to small scale and rural industries, promotion of low-cost housing and site-and service schemes to establish houses in self-help, modification of construction standards and use of local materials. (European standards dominated housing and construction policies in the past, made it too costly and prevented self-help approaches).

- Services (commerce, transport, government services, i.e. public health, repair and maintenance), various private services, i.e. tourism, especially for self-employment through promotion of small scale enterprises, liberalization of trade licensing, discouragement of unnecessary mechanization of trade, banking and personal services, district loan schemes for small trade combined with technical assistance.

- Informal sector, including self-employment in small services, home manufacturing, trade, production from small land holdings, repair and maintenance work by the working poor and squatters in urban and rural market centers. (In 1969, an estimated 25-30% of the total urban employment and 37-39% of non-agricultural rural employment accounted for activities in the informal sector). The report urges a change of attitude on the part of government

  –to support the income earning potential in the informal sector, rather than harassment, by ceasing demolition of informal housing and instead supporting squatters through site-and-service policies in self-construction of low-cost housing;

  –eliminate licensing requirements for informal employment except in areas where health standards must be enforced;

  –induce sub-contracting by larger firms;

  –link informal sector with agricultural policies (local suppliers, repair and maintenance) and ensure competitive provision of goods and services.

- Education and training tailored to employment and recurrent education needs including:

  –one cycle free basic education for 8 or 9 years with the last two years pre-vocational emphasis (actually only 50% of the age group receive 7 years of basic education)

  –quota for 2 year upper secondary education catering to broader needs, quotas set on the basis of national demands for skilled manpower and cost/budget limitations (currently about 15% of age group have opportunity to enter upper secondary education)

  –one year of full-time community service in rural areas on a subsistence level living allowance should be pre-requisite to enter higher education;

  –1-2 years of pre-university classes to develop career choices according to needs in the labor market and avoid expansion of

classes with lower productive manpower priorities (for example liberal arts);

—restructured university studies with later specialization, part-time and full-time programs;

—recurrent adult education opportunities and a focus on performance excellence rather than certification of grades;

—development of second-chance educational institutions, such as Village Polytechnics and Harambee Schools for two purposes: to bring drop-outs and early leavers back into mainstream of education and society, and to help those leaving education to prepare for employment

"There is no place in our model for two systems, one formal and high prestige, and the other informal and low-prestige. This inevitably gives rise to the frustrations we witness at present. Our model contains one integrated complementary system, with freer flows of people between its various components."

- Rural development and planning should include famine relief for people in marginal settlements, public works (employing underemployed rural population before planting season starts so that the cash earned can be reinvested in seeds, fertilizer, etc.), and development of physical and social infrastructure and provison of cultural amenities.

- Other key areas include labor market, incomes and fiscal matters, access and equity and international policies. As for the latter, Kenya needs the understanding and support from its trading partners and foreign aid agencies for these employment-oriented development strategies as 40% of the support for the National Development Plan comes from foreign aid. But also significant changes in foreign policies are necessary such as: flexible foreign exchange rate, more careful selection of foreign investors in terms of broader range of technical choices and improved terms, increase in aid contributions at local costs, longer term program aid commitments, not tied by special conditions and channeled through national institutions, emphasis on industrialization for export, especially processed agricultural products.

In sum, **the employment problem in Kenya especially concerns the following propulation groups:**

1. The school leavers, that 50% who drop out early and need alternative educational opportunity to become employable, and that 85% of the basic educated who do not continue in secondary education and need further preparation for employment. Few of the school leavers can expect to enter wage earning formal employment in urban industry or administration. Their primary opportunities lie in rural development, agriculture, services, public works and the informal sector of employment. It is to these groups that the

Kenya National Youth Service, the Village Polytechnics and various Foreign Volunteer Services and other aid agencies address their program.

2. Adults working in the informal sector who need favorable governmental regulations, training programs and technical advice to lift their income to the minimum standards. No Development Service in Kenya addresses this problem.

3. The landless, who either migrated to urban areas because of the increasing population pressure on the limited land in their home villages, or remained under marginal conditions. They need support through redistribution of land, settlement, credit schemes, training and technical advice to obtain income as family farmers. Some Foreign Volunteer Services and one training program of the Kenya National Youth Service address this group.

4. The migrating tribes who are pressured by population growth to retreat to drought areas, have uncertain agricultural incomes, are underutilized and have lost their mutual support by constantly moving to new areas. No Development Service is geared to them, and assist in a transition to a more secure minimum income and stable living conditions.

5. Young secondary and tertiary graduates who have high expectations for wage earning employment in urban centers consonant to their education, and who discover few opportunities to enter the labor market. They are not prepared for a career in self-employment, in rural areas, or in the service sector where their employment potential would be much higher. With the exception of the small program of the Kenya Voluntary Development Association, no Development Service addresses this population group, to provide them with either service opportunities during school (Study-Service) for reconsideration of their career choices and change of attitudes toward non-urban and non-wage earning employment, or with community service after graduation to re-train them and re-direct their aspirations to areas of national needs and personal employment opportunities. The proposed community service after completion of secondary education would fill this gap.

EMPLOYMENT-ORIENTATION OF DEVELOPMENT SERVICES

Development Services are in truth, employment organizations. They combine this role with their educational activities under one roof. This unique organizational nature places on them both an opportunity and obligation to use their potential as a bridge between the education and employment system. More specifically, the employment-oriented role of Development Services is threefold:

1. providing a transition between education and employment for the individual volunteer

2. investing volunteer manpower in development work projects in response to community and national employment needs

3. facilitating and/or generating continuous employment for the individual volunteer at the completion of the service assignment.

While the second is the most obvious function, and a current major concern of all Development Services' work project policies and programs, the other two are neither as clear nor as fully accepted. The three functions are interrelated and their emphasis is category-specific. However, individual services differ largely in the awareness of their potential in this respect and their actual employment-oriented policies and programs. This discussion will follow the above threefold employment role for each of the four categories of Development Services. It will be based not only on actual achievements but also the potentials for improvement.

Training and Employment Schemes perceive their employment role most clearly. Their objectives state in one form or another their transitory function to prepare the illiterate, drop outs, and even school leavers for employment. Traditionally, they fulfill this role through skill training and functional literacy for crafts, trades, agriculture and technical employment. T&E Services also provide some work experience—but to differing degrees both in terms of time spent in actual employment and the relationship of the work to the volunteers' skills. For example, the Kenya National Youth Service conducts large scale public works programs not related to the volunteers' skill area or future potential employment. The Malaysia National Youth Pioneer Corps assigns volunteers to workshops and industries related to their skill preparation, but the time spent under actual work conditions is minimal compared to the time spent in the training center. However, increasingly T&E Services perceive their role in transition to employment not only in terms of vocational/technical skill training but also preparation for various employment situations, such as:

- self-employment in trades, services and various informal sector activities

- self or cooperative employment in agriculture, including land settlement

- wage employment in agriculture, public services, construction or industry.

Preparation for self-employment would include: coping with contract work, marketing, selling products, obtaining material and financial resources, simple bookkeeping, re-investment, etc. Preparation for wage employment will focus on improving performance to the standards required for various positions and wage levels, including development of specialties (see Kenya National Youth Service, Malaysia National Pioneer Corps).

Typical of their category, T&E Services have no specific policy to invest their human man-power in order to enhance the employment of other people. Their participants are themselves a target group affected by youth unemployment. Thus, during the one or two year service period T&E Services are youth employers and thereby lessen the pressure on the labor market. But this second employment function merely postpones the problem—and may even worsen the situation because it creates hopes and expectations for the individual volunteer—if it is not combined with a clear strategy and program of facilitating and generating permanent employment at the end of service.

The third employment function of Training and Employment Schemes is the most crucial link in the whole chain of activities. Without a clear policy and program to facilitate permanent employment or eradicate underemployment these services would defeat the very purpose of their existence. On occasion T&E Schemes have adjusted their programs in order to direct their volunteers into employment. For instance, the Kenya National Youth Service introduced training programs for various occupations sandwiched between work assignments in public works projects, and not necessarily related to their skill needs. Yet the Benin Clubs-4D still have not been able to establish this link into employment and settle their volunteers as small farmers or craftsmen in their home villages. Thus there resulted a five year "backlog" of about 1,025 volunteers, still enrolled in the Clubs, who await opportunities as self-employed farmers or in trades and crafts. In Malaysia, where the National Youth Development Corps was established in the wake of unrest by unemployed youth, the only significant employment opportunities after the three month program was continuation in the National Youth Pioneer Corps for technical/industrial training, and return to rural areas for work in agriculture, or wage employment in the police force. Moreover, in order to better prepare for employment in the Police Cadett Corps, weapon training was introduced during the development service. However this direction away from a production-oriented employment policy was soon discovered and reversed by linking skill training with potential industrial jobs and permanent employment opportunities.

Most Training and Employment Schemes—in line with the background of their participants—give preference of support to the following permanent employment areas:

- agriculture through introduction of new cash crops, seeds, fertilizer, storage, cooperatives for supplies, marketing, credits, and participation in land settlement schemes
- services, especially in rural areas, in crafts, repair and maintenance, tourism, public services in national parks, utilities and transportation
- informal sector of rural trades, individual services, small land plot production, etc.

The Kenya National Youth Service and the Malaysia National Youth Pioneer Corps also promote wage earning industrial employment in urban areas and wage employment in large scale agriculture (Kenya). However, this industrial link increases the cost per volunteer man-year and tends to eliminate an asset of these services as flexible and less costly alternative routes to permanent employment. Thus, given the current national employment problem in

these countries, a concentration of the employment role in agriculture, rural development, services and the informal sector would render T&E Schemes more effective in view of the magnitude of the employment problem of their targets, the drop outs and young school leavers. Linkages to the employment system are currently established by various means:

- Work programs in the employing community or business: this is especially true for farm youth programs in Benin, Malaysia and Thailand. They are also part of the industrial work/training carried out by the Malaysia National Youth Pioneer Corps, but delegated to various industries.

- Employment referral and assistance within the service is best organized for the Malaysian T&E Services through the Youth Guidance Bureau, located in the Office of the Director of Youth, and serving both the governmental and the non-governmental youth services in their employment needs. Additionally, most farm youth services offer a special extension program to help former volunteers during the early stages of self-employment in agriculture or trades (Malaysia, Thailand).

- Referrals for jobs do not reflect an active commitment on the part of the service to facilitate employment but a desire to be helpful when asked. The Kenya National Youth Service, for example, refers volunteers to employers who inquire regarding available manpower. The service has—over the years—established a tradition with various employers and reports that about 40% of former volunteers have been placed in wage earning employment through direct demands by employers.

Reconsideration of the employment-orientation of Training and Employment Schemes reveals that they all acknowledge the high priority of youth unemployment in their objectives, and to a lesser degree in their policies. One is left with the impression that T&E Services succeeded only in a few program sectors to translate these employment needs into action. What is missing is a comprehensive "employment package", the "red threat" of employment-orientation through the whole service reflected in concept statement, program activities and follow-up into employment. But these are matters of policy review, implementation and management, rather than of principle. The current Training and Employment Schemes are well equipped to take up the employment issue in the wake of the new national and international attention to their central development problem.

Study-Services in contrast to the Training and Employment Schemes, have a less clear perception of their role in employment. Their function in transition between education and employment is currently indicated by two policies:

- experiential learning in work assignments is tailored to the needs of the volunteer's employer, and

- reconsideration of career choices and fields of study is encouraged toward manpower needs in the labor market, especially in social areas and for rural regions.

Study-Services, in general, are more concerned with the relationship of the work assignment to the volunteers' field of study than with the employment promotion that could ensue from the service they render to the local recipients. This is natural, as they are part of the "formal" education system and their educational role is dominant. However, if they wish to foster development-oriented education, the problem of employment should follow immediately concerns for famine and health. Directing student-volunteers' skills in local community assignments to the generation of jobs, and better utilization of idle or underemployed citizens, is a work program policy which deserves further attention in Study-Services, in both developing and industrialized countries.

A more aggressive approach is reported from the Study-Service KKN in Indonesia—the only one known to have an employment-oriented policy for student-volunteers' work programs. Dr. W. P. Napitupulu, the founding Director of BUTSI and now Director General for Non-Formal Education, argued in a paper on the employment situation[86] that the Study-Service KKN can be a very forceful tool to reverse the very damaging "brain drain" to urban areas by providing "brain gain" through student-volunteers in rural areas. He foresees two major effects on the employment situation:

"a. *The students involved, as a result of their experience in the study-service program, will be much more employable when they graduate.*

b. *The students through their work in rural areas are likely to create more jobs for local people either directly as a result of specific projects in the village, or indirectly by helping to improve general economic and social conditions with a resulting general increase in employment opportunities.*

If every student is expected to multiply himself or herself by developing young human resources of the village, by involving them in community projects, by showing them new avenues to explore, or by helping them to perform better in their individual work (e.g. on the family land), then he is helping the youngsters to become better and more productive farmers or tradesmen or artisans, etc. In helping them to gain more satisfaction from their village life he is thus reducing the incentive for urban migration with its potential to increase unemployment."

Apart from the multiplier effect in expanding employment for villagers, Dr. Napitupulu argues that Study-Services can provide incentives to create more jobs for public services in rural areas. He warns against the temptation for "easy" volunteer placement in available but not yet filled "job slots"—such as teachers—or "make work" activities not geared to real needs. He urges courage to bring to the surface the needs that have not traditionally been met, and the areas where Study-Service manpower can create new employment demands. For example, village level extension workers for the many governmental programs are non-existent, but local support and advice is crucial for implementation and prograss of the many rural development programs. KKN—together with BUTSI which has started local extension work and demonstrated success—can fill this employment gap for extension workers with volunteer manpower until the needs and achievements are clearly demonstrated and the government creates permanent jobs for this function. He thus exhorts his colleagues to resist the temptation to employ student-volunteers in existing job structures but, rather, create demands in new areas.

Thus Study-Services' second employment function of investing volunteer manpower in employment-oriented development work—it is fair to say—is not yet generally recognized and

accepted. There is no doubt that an employment-oriented development work policy will enhance the effectiveness of Study-Services in two directions:

- improve development education by adding the employment dimension to the curriculum
- expand local capacities for employment and opportunities for increased local income.

The third employment function, to facilitate or generate permanent employment after graduation differs more widely among Study-Services. Actual programs in this respect are somewhat influenced by the schedule of the service and, of course, the overall commitment to employment-oriented development policies. Services with intervening schedules sandwiched between academic courses seem to have no, or few, formal linkages to potential employers of students. In contrast, the two services evaluated with subsequent schedules, at the close of the university studies, report formal links. The Thailand Graduate Volunteer Programme encourages employment of their students after graduation in villages or rural areas they served as volunteers, and actually 47% returned to rural employment. In addition, the Thailand service has an agreement with the Civil Service Commission to recognize the Graduate Volunteer Diploma for an upgraded entry level salary into Civil Service for former volunteers. 10% of former volunteers took advantage of this provison—but 20% were still reported to be unemployed. The Nigerian National Youth Service Corps, an obligatory service, requires employers to demand and obtain the service's discharge certificate before entering into employment contracts with applicants—here service is a precondition for employment. The Employers' Consultative Association is represented on the Governing Board of NYSC but so far as the individual corpsmember is concerned there are no reports that this formal linkage results in permanent employment facilitation that is geared to national needs. In the case of KKN in Indonesia, it will be of interest to learn whether their employment-oriented work program has resulted in long term employment of former student-volunteers as extension workers or for other professional services needed in rural areas.

Finally, Study-Services in industrialized countries appear to be even less conscious of the employment problems in their society and there are no indications that they have concerned themselves with—for example—increasing youth unemployment.

In summary, Study-Services are encouraged to relate their policies, programs and alliances to increase problem awareness, and to implement activities which improve employment opportunities and generate income to both the people they serve and the student-volunteer.

Social and Technical Development Services rank next to Training and Employment Schemes in the perception of employment problems. Even though they vary in employment functions, they are closer to the problem because many of their participants are themselves in transition. For example, most of the BUTSI/Indonesia, KDVA/Kenya, CSV/UK, VISTA/USA volunteers are in transition from education into employment when they enter service. For them, this time is a preparation for permanent employment, a period of job-entry and career learning. BUTSI accepts this notion and has a formal policy and training program which focus on job preparation or, if necessary, re-training of skills. Recently CSV also has taken up employment-oriented training programs with the masses of unemployed youth in the UK clearly in view. A special youth employment program by the Manpower Services Commission furthers this effort. In the United States a similar program is under consideration but it is as yet unclear whether

ACTION will take up the challenge or whether the Department of Labor and other government divisions will be assigned this responsibility. Various youth employment legislation has been introduced in the Congress, ranging from a comprehensive National Youth Service proposal to expansion of the current Job Corps and Conservation Corps programs. It is too early to discern what form and shape these employment-oriented service proposals will take. But they pursue two different employment principles. The large scale public works programs, such as the still praised Civilian Conservation Corps of the 1930's, represent unemployment relief programs under emergency conditions for a limited period of time. Job Corps type or community services programs emphasize training and work directed toward permanent employment. They require the participation of local communities, business, industry and a review of governmental regulations to foster self-employment. The latter approach represents an attempt to solve the unemployment problem, while the former fills the jobs gap for a limited time.

The second employment function, investing volunteer manpower in employment generating work projects in local communities, is undertaken by many STD Services. It is not clear whether this is due to an active employment-oriented work program policy, or a happy occurrence because of local volunteer requests for such assignments. For example, BUTSI volunteers in Indonesia focus on agricultural expansion and diversity, improvement of rural services in health, nutrition, marketing, development of rural infrastructure and local trades and services.

In a similar view the various community services in Thailand and CYC in Canada give primary attention to the expansion of income producing activities in local communities in: agriculture, construction, services, trades, marketing, physical and social infrastructure development, primarily through small scale and labor intensive community self-help projects. KDVA in Kenya emphasizes community public works construction, with major participation by local manpower, which is also expected to provide maintenance.

With the exception of former CYC efforts and current services by the Frontiers College of Toronto/Canada, the creation of jobs or expansion of present employment opportunities for the recipients of their service is not as clear for STD Services in industrialized countries. Only CSV in the UK reports a policy and, to some degree success, in re-integrating juvenile delinquents into regular employment—very often in social service occupations.

The third employment function leading to facilitation or generation of permanent employment for former volunteers now seems to be clearly perceived in Social and Technical Development Services as a need, but has not been translated into a policy or program. STD Services in industrialized countries appear to have a laissez faire approach, and will help if requested, but for them their formal obligation to the volunteer ends with the last day of service. This was justified as long as the open labor market in those countries had plenty of absorptive capacity to take in the volunteers released by those services. This is no longer the case. Irrespective of whether STD Services in industrialized countries continue their program on current scale, or expand to include large scale employment programs, as a service for people and by people they cannot bypass a current severe societal problem; they have an obligation to develop policies and programs to assist in finding permanent employment.

STD Services in developing countries have a commendable approach in this respect. For example, former BUTSI volunteers—the majority of whom were initially assigned to rural areas—now provide a pool of manpower for junior civil servants more sensitive to rural employ-

ment needs. There is no unemployment reported among former BUTSI volunteers. In Thailand, many of the volunteers who served in the various community services of Arsa Pattana continue as community development workers or as teachers in rural areas. Of course, as with most professionals, their long range aspiration would probably be settlement in permanent employment close to urban centers. But the important aspect is that they all spent a certain period of their lives in rural areas—leading there to permanent "brain gain".

In another example, Iran's Education Corps achieves a similar result by signing up large numbers of volunteers at the end of service for further five year assignments as rural teachers with no loss in promotion, pension plan, salary level or opportunity for continuing education. The Corps was able to provide regular primary education in 23,000 villages through its former volunteers within the first five years of establishment.

From a current point of view, STD Services in industrialized countries have by their nature and design a major obligation to tackle the problem of unemployment of both youth and older citizens; but they have not yet accepted this mandate and developed a comprehensive employment-oriented policy nor program with respect to the three employment functions.

In contrast, STD Services in developing countries have taken on a clear responsibility to serve the employment needs of their volunteers, as well as of the population groups they serve in local communities. However, in order to further both groups well, they need to link their training and work programs more clearly with national employment policies and thus take advantage of their built-in opportunities as an employment organization. Such policy and program linkages would significantly improve the overall effectiveness of the service.

Foreign Volunteer Services also vary in their emphasis on employment functions. Their perception of a role to support the volunteer in transition between education and employment depends on the type of participant they enroll. Those FV Services which primarily employ graduates and students (VSO/UK, CUSO/Canada, Peace Corps/USA) are more closely meshed to the problem. As reported in Chapter 7 in some instances they have arranged for certification of the service period to make volunteers eligible for employment, for example as teachers (Peace Corps). All Foreign Volunteer Services acknowledge a certain awareness of the need for support in the education-to-employment transition stage by providing re-adjustment allowances and continuing pension plans and eligibility for disability compensation. In addition, some FV Services arrange for preferential treatment to gain scholarships for continuing education after successful completion of service.

The second employment-oriented function of FV Services, to invest their manpower in development projects which further the employment opportunities of the recipients is probably the weakest part of their program. None of the FV-Services states a clear employment-oriented development policy. They appear to be aware of the problem and indicate preference for the disadvantaged and underprivileged target groups, for local community projects, small scale production entities—but a cohesive and formal approach is missing. Two opposing trends can be identified:

- The larger proportion of volunteers assigned to technical/industrial projects, the higher level technical training and the ever increasing technical skill level and specialization of the volunteer indicate an excessive proportion of investment in the modern wage earning, industrial—often urban—sector—a

sector which according to the experts—has lower priority for employment expansion and generation, and may even worsen the unemployment problem in urban areas (Harbison, ILO reports).

- The priorities—according to many project guidelines—assigned to work projects in agriculture, rural development, rural trades, small scale industry, cooperatives, community development, low-cost housing, etc. indicate labor-intensive employment, expansion of productive capacity and improvements in the informal sector of employment. These project priorities have positive employment effects.

As the two contrary trends go hand in hand in most FV Services, it appears that an overall project policy has not yet been developed under the aspect of employment-orientation. Since this volunteer manpower is precious—and expensive—a review of these project priorities is urged in favor of those which expand employment opportunities, generate jobs and increase incomes in the rural marginal sector and groups.

The third employment function, to facilitate employment for volunteers after completion of service, has from the start been a concern of all FV Services. Most of them begin to inform volunteers six months before the end of their terms regarding job opportunities, inquire about job interests on specific forms, forward applications to employment agencies, and establish job "hotlines"; they even enter into contracts with some industries to release employees for service abroad without loss of promotion or pension rights, and to reinstate them in adequate positions after completion of their successful service. The continental European services primarily take the latter course with volunteers who have been in the employment system and will return to it after service. Overall, the more the technically skilled or professionally qualified volunteers are employed by an FV Service, the better the linkages into the employment system.

This review has highlighted the current broad range of employment-oriented activities in the four categories of Development Services. Also it has indicated the gaps. Development Services have always adhered to what ILO now calls the Basic-Needs Principle, to help ensure a minimum income for all. The Training and Employment Schemes directly employ especially those afflicted by the lack of basic needs, whereas other categories provide this assistance to the recipients of their service. There also are differences between individual services in their concern for the employment problem. For example, BUTSI in Indonesia, the services in Malaysia and Thailand, the Kenya Village Polytechnic and the Benin Clubs 4-D reveal a higher degree of employment-orientation in their overall program than do others. Foreign Volunteer Services especially and many Social and Technical Development Services show less employment-orientation in their training and work programs. They should question, whether volunteer assignments in modern sector projects, including higher levels of general and technical education, city planning, public administration, etc., are still justified. Clearly, in comparison to the overwhelming employment needs, a continuation in such volunteer assignments means serving a low priority development interest—it also means less effectiveness for the service.

Finally, there is the major impression that the employment problem is not given necessary attention, because its complex interrelationships to other aspects of development have not been fully probed in most services. In other words, the awareness and perception of the

problem is incomplete, and that is reflected in the scattered employment activities and the lack of comprehensive policy and streamlined action. Development Services are not alone in this respect as the ILO World Employment Programme, and particularly their research efforts[141] reveal. For example, a number of studies are underway to shed light on the interrelationship between secondary technical education versus vocational training and their effect on youth unemployment. One evaluation focuses on the question of training for self-employment, especially the differences in skills and achievement motivation required in comparison to those of wage earners. These are areas of great interest to Development Services and they need to keep abreast with upcoming results.

There is no longer any question that Development Services have an obligation to design their policy for development and self reliance around the expansion of income earning activities and the generation of new jobs in rural areas, particularly agriculture, services and the informal sector of employment. There is no longer any question that Development Services need to catch up with current knowledge and discussions, and initiate a comprehensive employment-oriented development strategy of their own which comprises all sectors of their operations.

WHAT THEN ARE THE ELEMENTS FOR AN EMPLOYMENT-ORIENTED STRATEGY OF DEVELOPMENT SERVICES?

1. Identification *and* statement of the **employment problem** in the geographical service area: nationwide, by region, and for the recipient community, and in terms of both coverage and volume of employment needs of specific groups:

   (a) Target population groups in rural areas: school age youth, young adults, women, senior citizens; land poor farmers, subsistence farmers (lacking cash crops), underemployed in the service and informal sectors;

   (b) Target population groups in urban areas: unemployed youth and young adults, squatters and those underemployed in services and the informal sector;

   (c) Volunteers themselves both during service and in permanent employment after completion.

2. Identification and statement of **priorities of employment needs** for the geographical service area and the target population groups in terms of:

   (a) Early expansion of employment opportunities for the underemployed and generation of new jobs for the unemployed resulting in improved incomes and other basic needs according to standards established for the serviced country;

   (b) Capabilities of available and potential volunteer manpower to invest their time most effectively in such employment-oriented training and work programs.

3. Establishment of an **employment-oriented development strategy** based on the identified priorities and capabilities, including:

(a) Preference of volunteer placement in generating employment and expanding assignments in rural areas, and only a few crucial and selected urban employment situations; and critical examination of the current urban, technical/industrial and administrative volunteer jobs in the modern sector;

(b) Cost-benefit accounting for each volunteer assignment, especially in STD and FV Services, in terms of benefit producing employment generation and based on data from "typical" work program areas so that benefits from each project type can be assessed, and indicators for employment producing effectiveness can be developed.

(c) Criteria development for employment-oriented volunteer training for: transfer of employable skills to others, generation of achievement motivation, acquisition of employable skills and motivation by the volunteers themselves.

(d) Policies to publicly support and promote the removal of licensing regulations that limit employment and other conditions which hinder self-employment and job creation;

(e) Provision of professional/technical advice to volunteers during assignment to support them in employment-oriented activities in local communities;

(f) Development of a self-employment module for Training and Work assignments taking into account the capabilities of volunteers working in such projects;

(g) Plans for loan schemes, revolving credits or other forms of financing during the take-off period in self-employment until the person has established a favorable credit history to obtain funds in the open market.

4. **Linkage with the employment system** both the formal and informal sector through:

(a) Cooperation with national employment planning;

(b) Relationships of various forms with employer organizations, labor unions, professional organizations, public service agencies, regional organizations concerned with employment generation and expansion;

(c) Exchange between professionals in employment agencies and Development Services staff to improve both the effectiveness of the services' contributions and the agencies planning to alleviate the employment problem.

5. **Community participation** in plan development and implementation of employment-oriented work and training programs, including management of projects, administration of funds, and maintenance of continuing programs after the volunteers have left.

It is believed that the development of such an employment-oriented strategy would have a positive effect on a Development Service as it would ensure an investment in a priority issue and avoid waste of resources in areas of secondary concern. This, no doubt, would improve the respectability of the service at home as an institution to be taken seriously—a current problem which most services face in "selling the idea at home". Such an improved image would be justified on the basis of improved operations. The proposed strategy affects all program inputs and tasks and streamlines them to the defined employment-oriented output. And, finally, such a new strategy may well lead to a broadening of the volunteer basis. Those services which have

become increasingly more specialized in their volunteer resources may find themselves too onesided, addressing the wrong employment sector. They may need to open up again to the more generally educated volunteer who posseses, or gains in training, some vocational skills. In other words, an employment-oriented development strategy provides a new opportunity for Development Services to critically examine their mandate and operations.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR IMPLEMENTATION

1. *Study the current discussion on employment, especially the ILO reports on the comprehensive employment strategy missions to Colombia, Iran, Kenya and Sri Lanka and their principle implications for Development Services.*

2. *Review your country's and your project countries' employment policies and programs.*

3. *Obtain the services of one or more employment experts for a limited time and on an staff exchange basis with the Ministry of Labor/Manpower or other relevant institutions to assist in the examination of your service's employment policies and programs, strategy design and the development of an in-house staff capability related to employment-oriented development.*

4. *Examine your service's policies and programs and develop employment-oriented strategies in discussion with local communities, volunteers, staff and supervisory authorities.*

5. *Devise a feedback procedure to ascertain at regular intervals progress or failure in employment efforts.*

6. *Test the new plans and feedback procedure in a few pilot projects where community participation is ensured and a variety of employment generating volunteer assignments can be tried out.*

7. *Improve ongoing volunteer projects on the basis of the new employment policy and implement new projects accordingly, including the development of subsequent materials such as self-employment modules.*

CITIZEN PARTICIPATION 10

Citizen participation, the third major policy issue for Development Services, concerns the mobilization capacity that Development Services can muster in local communities and the society at large.

Citizen participation is both a means and an end in itself. The term implies equality and action. In a more general definition it is the act or fact of partaking in any of several equal portions of rights, duties, interests and concerns. Equal rights and duties are, of course, basic democratic principles, and without such citizen participation there is no democracy.

The fact, or act, of partaking with equal opportunities is also at the core of development, that is the advancement of people. Irrespective of the political system of a society, without citizen participation there is no development.

And, partaking in several of equal duties, interests and concerns is the principle aim of self-reliance. Without citizen participation, self-reliance cannot be realized.

Thus, much as political systems may differ widely, citizen participation is a principle which embraces the very existence of both the developing and industrialized world, the western democracies, the socialistic, and totalitarian systems.

Citizen participation is a complex issue. It has been studied intensively and much has been written about it. It would exceed the limitations of this study to go into all the details of this question. In the previous Chapters 4-7 the structural arrangements for citizen participation in the various categories of Development Services were reviewed. In this chapter, the principles of citizen mobilization and the capacity of Development Services to espouse and embrace it are under discussion. Bibliographical references in Appendix C-2. supplement the aspects of citizen participation which are considered here.

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THE ISSUE OF PARTICIPATION

Citizen Participation is a Moblization Process

As an action, citizen participation is a mobilization process which involves all levels of society, from the family unit, through community and tribes, up to the nation at large. In his groundbreaking treatment on "The Active Society"[42], Amitai Etzioni defines mobilization as a process by which a societal unit—the family, community, region, country, an organization—gains significantly in the control of assets it previously did not control A mere increase in members, for example, is not considered a mobilization but, rather, a gain of potential for a larger capacity of control and use of assets. Assets include manpower, funds and loyalties. Thus, an increase of investment of manpower or action by people, and/or an increase in raising and disbursing funds is a gain over the previous stage and, hence is mobilization. It represents a gain in controlling power. Therefore, by definition, mobilization is both a process of change (in the control structure) and a changing process (of societal structures and boundaries). The level of unit-mobilization, or the degree to which a unit is mobilized, is indicated by the fraction of assets controlled in comparison to the supra- or sub-units. In other words, Development Services which not only increase their investment of volunteer manpower in development projects but also provide recurrent education and employment opportunity lead to changes in the system and, thereby gain a higher level of societal control and mobilization. Or, local communities which not only supervise volunteers but also determine their own project priorities, provide internal leadership and control the project funds, and thus increase their level of mobilization.

Finally, forms of mobilization most important for the considerations here include:

- utilitarian mobilization: for example the change in control of manpower, i.e. the ratio of people employed by the mobilizing unit;
- normative mobilization: for example, the change in attitudes toward other tribes, sub-cultures, the poor, the rural population, the country;
- general societal mobilization: for example, increase in local community projects, or also an increase in voters' participation which, according to Etzioni, also represents mobilization, a change from a collectivity to a polity.

Thus, mobilization is a control concept. *"Mobilization . . . implies a collective actor who is capable of controlling societal processes, at least to some degree, and is not merely subject to them"*[42].

Hierarchy of Participation and Social Values

Within a society, citizen participation is stratified in different levels; there is a **Hierarchy of Partaking:**

1. Involvement to maintain one's livelihood and that of the immediate family
2. Participation in local community affairs through

- action (self help)
- decision-making (self-government or community organization)

3. Participation in immediate regional or tribal affairs through

   - action (helping others or representing interests)
   - decision-making (sub-regional or tribal government)

4. Participation in national or society organizations at large affairs through

   - action (helping others or representing interests)
   - decision-making (through government or organizations on the national level)

5. Participation in dispersing authority and legislative power through elections.

This hierarchy of partaking arises from the more immediate concern of the individual and family up to the highest level of dispersion of authority and legislative power. Within each level, action is one form of involvement, and participation in decision-making a more profound stage of control of assets.

These levels of partaking are much like Abraham Maslow's **Hierarchy of Needs**[74]:

1. to survive, the most basic and primitive human need
2. to be safe and secure, the need of freedom from anxiety
3. to belong, the social need of affiliation, growth
4. to be "somebody", the ego need
5. to be all one is capable of becoming, the need of self-fulfillment.

Only when the most immediate needs are met is the individual able to proceed to satisfy higher needs.

Thus, the different levels of partaking represent also different **Social Values** for the involved individual citizen. Only after immediate personal and societal needs are satisfied can one proceed toward self-fulfillment and the higher levels of citizen involvement and duties. Maslow's hierarchy of social values are not culture-bound and therefore limited to a "western" society, but they reflect basic human values we all share. Thus, citizen participation is not only a political/societal phenomenon, but also an individual/social value.

That citizen participation is stratified at various levels has, of course, consequences not only for the locality, where it occurs, it also affects those who are able to participate, and the degree of impact the involvement has on the overall society. And finally, neither hierarchy is static, they are processes which feed at each other and enhance each other's gain to higher levels of satisfication. For example, the participation of a poor volunteer in a Development Service not only helps to satisfy his immediate needs to eat, to be clothed and have a place to lodge, but it confers belonging, growth by helping others, and the experience to be "somebody". At the same time, his mobilization will contribute to citizens' involvement in other communities (i.e. a multiplied gain in manpower control that is mobilization).

Organization Precedes Participation

Mobilization of people to partake in community or other large societal affairs requires organizational structure. Local level organizing, intermediate and national forms of society organization, determine capacity for partaking. This is true for the society or nation at large, as well as for social organizations like Development Services.

The title for this Sub-Chapter is taken from the excellent assessment by Edgar Owens and Robert Shaw on "Development Reconsidered"[91]. They found that the success of development participation by those in need is largely determined by the form of organization in any given society. They distinguish two forms of organizing and involving people as the primary reason why some countries succeed more than others in alleviating poverty. They call it the *"dual"* and the *"modernizing"* society. The relationship between government and the people is the basic distinction between both types:

> *"Dual society governments try to encourage economic growth with little trust in the capacity of their ordinary citizens. Instead, both investment and profits are concentrated in the hands of a few who are believed to have the necessary expertise and initiative. Small producers—farmers, artisans, businessmen—are not given access to the means of production, the financial system, the market and the knowledge. Village communities are essentially self-contained and are not linked upward to the much larger whole of the national society and economy . . . there is no systematic effort to build up in local communities the knowledge base of a modern production system."* And: *"Dual society government tries to extend its administrative arm to the local level and work directly with villagers and townsmen, to solve people's problems* for *them. Such a system is a way of arranging* for *people to receive some physical paraphernalia of development—roads, schools, wells . . . . However, the traditional relationship between government and people . . . remains essentially unchanged. The traditional system of rule by the few for the many, from top down, from the center out, has simply been expanded to encompass the new goal of development."*

They have become a dual society governed by benevolence.

In contrast, modernizing governments move to bridge the gap between the traditional "elites" and the masses of people:

> *"This bridge consists essentially of establishing and strengthening local institutions and systems in which the people can solve their own local problems. These local institutions and systems are then directly linked to higher levels of the economy and society so that, for example, the local cooperative is directly linked to regional and national federations of cooperatives . . . "* And: *"Modernizing governments do not try to work directly with the great mass of people. Rather, they work with the local institutions and rely upon the leaders of these institutions to work with the people. Primarily through these institutions, small producers gain access to the means of production, the financial system, the market and the knowledge for the first time . . . In a modernizing society, the relationship between government and the people can evolve in the direction of mutual confidence and respect. Some measure of social stability can be achieved as people begin to feel a 'sense of belonging' (quote from Oscar Lewis, who argues that what the poor want is a sense of belonging, of power and of leadership)."*

Third, Owens and Shaw point out that decentralization and participation—and not freedom—are the distinguishing factors in a modernizing society, and they continue:

> *"But participation is not synomynous with democracy. It can be achieved in any political system. The most important difference between countries is not their form of government. The realities of development at the grass roots level may have little to do with the forms of the political superstructure. The largest democracy in the world, India, the military dictatorship of Brazil, and the socialist state of Burma all fit into the category of dual societies . . . On the other hand, the modernizing countries . . . as examples of how really rapid economic growth can be achieved, run the gamut from democratic Israel and Puerto Rico, to communist Yugoslavia, to authoritarian Taiwan, Egypt, and Korea."*

Thus, Owens and Shaw find that, irrespective of the political superstructure of government, the local institutions function quite similarly in their modernizing effort—whether they belong to authoritarian or democratic societies. They feel *"One of the great ironies of the twentieth century is that it is the modernizing authoritarian governments which understand the importance of organizing people. 'The ability to create public organizations and political institutions is in short supply today. It is this ability which, above all else, the communists offer modernizing countries' "* (quote from Samuel P. Huntington, "Political Development and Political Decay", World Politics 17, 1965). And Owens and Shaw continue: *"We democrats, however, have been economic determinists vis-a-vis the Third World. We have assumed that increasing economic growth would, almost automatically, increase participation and social justice."*

This stand is confirmed by Amitai Etzioni when he states[42]: *"In general, totalitarian societies can mobilize more easily and can remain relatively more moblized for a longer period of time than pluralistic ones. Modern societies are more mobilized than were most previous societies and developed nations are more mobilized than developing ones."*

These findings do not diminish the value of democratic societies and organizations, but they do pose a challenge to their perceptions of development. It appears that the intellectual "short-cut" that economic growth and increase in profits are basic democratic features has led to development policies which largely ignored the importance of local level participation.

Democratic organization adds additional dimension to participation by citizens: that of freedom, a share of ultimate authority in the dispersion of power, and participation in decision-making at all levels (not merely the local) of society. As the "Prospectus for a Citizen Involvement Program" states [22]: *". . . democracy (is) the living principle which holds not only that a society's leadership must earn the people's consent but that it can rely on their wisdom."* Thus, it is the different level within the hierarchy of participation and social values which distinguishes democratic superstructures from authoritarian systems.

But it is not the task of this study to evaluate different political systems. Only in so far as they bear on the advancement of people, i.e. their development through citizen participation, are they under scrutiny. While local level organizing, access to knowledge, financing, production, and employment and economic upward mobility, to a certain degree, differ little betweeen authoritarian and democratic societies, the social and political upward mobility in totalitarian systems is quite limited.

Thus, these organizational considerations confirm that citizen participation is a

- mobilization process
- control concept
- social and political value.

It is within this framework that the mobilization capacity of Development Services within the local community and the society at large will be discussed in this Chapter.

THE MOBILIZATION CAPACITY OF DEVELOPMENT SERVICES

As is evident from the analysis of the four categories of Development Services in Chapters 4 through 7, citizen mobilization is both an objective and a program task which is not category-specific. In all Development Services it was found that citizens participation encountered the following aspects of involvement:

1. Accepting the service idea

2. Participating in Development Service Organizations

3. Receiving volunteers in local communities

4. Supporting Development Services individually or in groups

5. Dispersing authority, supervising and advising Development Services in institutional bodies.

It is in these five areas that the mobilization capacity of Development Services is realized.

1. *Accepting the service idea on the part of potential volunteers, their parents, their home community and the community they serve indicates normative mobilization.*

Accepting the service idea introduces—or reconfirms—the social values this service represents to citizen groups. In cases of resistance at home—which occasionally has been reported—the mobilization barrier is raised for the individual volunteer who then has to muster additional norms or values to realize his intent to join a Development Service. If he does, he has gained a higher mobilization level which overcame the acceptance barrier. Acceptance barriers have been reported by Domestic Development Services where tribal influences and patriarchic family structures are still strong (dual societies). Foreign Volunteer Services also indicate occasional resistance at home which is also related to the dual nature of the family or home village. Service in a foreign country—which requires inter-societal perception and international normative mobilization—raises the barriers for public acceptance. It appears, that the normative mobilization of acceptance at home is a pre-condition for an effective societal role at home and in a foreign country. But normative mobilization is not achieved merely by better public relations—the usual approach Development Services use to "sell their idea at home"—but primarily by gaining control in societal structures and changing the boundaries of the services'

influence. For example, if a service provides recurrent educational opportunities, or increases the potential for follow-up employment, or embarks on a development education program at home, it has gained control over a new sector which affects normative mobilization and—therefore—improves acceptance at home.

2. *Participating in Development Service Organizations, especially as volunteers, represents a utilitarian and a normative mobilization of a higher intensity than other forms of participation.*

According to Amitai Etzioni[42], **Organizations as such Constitute the Most Mobilized Form** of a collectivity. The act of organizing previously unorganized people increases the level of mobilization in a society, even if the organizations encompass only a smaller proportion of the group they represent. The fact that Development Services actually involve target groups in training and work/service, but reach only a smaller fraction of the uneducated and drop-outs, the students, elderly or graduates, still represents a higher level of citizen mobilization than less structured involvements such as farmers' extension services, mobile training units, short-term seminars, etc. Those Development Services which are obligatory by the nature of their recruitment—like many Study-Services—of course reach all of their target population. Thus, in terms of a mobilization process—to gain more control over assets according to Etzioni—the obligatory services apply coercive mobilization and have the edge over those which recruit by voluntary commitment. The voluntary participation in Development Services indicates normative—and often utilitarian—mobilization. Volunteers apply for service of their free will and in joining express their concurrence to the underlying values and doctrine that the service represents. They also join to utilize the service opportunity for change in life style, going places ("Wanderlust"), learning and in hope for later employment advance. While, initially, coercive mobilization has the edge in quantity, and normative mobilization has it in terms of mobilized values—this distinction does not continue so clearly as the service wears on. The actual conduct of the service program will determine which normative mobilization remains and what kind of utilitarian mobilization succeeds. Coercive mobilization in obligatory services reaches its limits and turns into loss of participation if excessive means are used. Etzioni cites especially psychological limitations of boredom, fatigue and excessive attempts at indoctrination which cause resistance in such authoritarian situations. On the positive side, many Study-Services indicate, and a study in the Philippines[112] confirms: as long as volunteers are assigned to projects where they are really needed, have plenty to do and can contribute to improve the conditions of people, both volunteers and those mobilized by legal obligation perform equally well. Both Social and Technical Development and Foreign Volunteer Services report similar psychological mobilization barriers—despite the voluntary initial commitment—in cases where volunteers were placed in the wrong project, felt they were not needed, found a lack of work, and were therefore unsatisfied. The experience of being needed, of being able to contribute and advance other people conveys a satisfaction which holds a specific value to the individual and therefore represents a normative mobilization which endures—irrespective of whether the initial mobilization occurred under coercive or voluntary conditions.

Second, Development Services have two **Organizational Design Characteristics** which raise their mobilization capacity in comparison to other organizations: that is their **accessibility** by various levels of the social strata—including the poor—and the **equality of status and treatment** of volunteers.

- The fact that the different categories of Development Services address specific population groups with terms that enable all to afford participation through payments of living allowances, provision of housing, special clothing, etc., makes them different from other organizations. Both Etzioni and David L. Rogers[42,104] report that normally more high-status than low-status persons belong to voluntary associations. Probing the specific question: *"Does voluntary organizational membership enhance equality among class groups?"* Rogers found in his evaluation of American voluntary associations that, because more high-status persons belong to associations, they tend to gain more from this membership than those of lower status, and, that group membership may solidify rather than diminish inequality. He also found that higher-status persons are more likely to be active within the organization than low-status persons, who derive their stimulation from the mere membership. Thus, he states, societal mobilization in a voluntary association may not be realized equally by persons from different social strata. In sum, he found the combination of status and mobilization had the following effects:

  - the organizational affiliation as such increased the societal participation for each status group, but the participation by the lower-status group was increased more by the fact of group membership
  - proportionally fewer low-status persons could be mobilized (were in a position to participate)
  - and, the political gain was three times higher for the high-status group than for the low-status persons.

  He concluded, that in voluntary associations the mobilization process may serve to concentrate power rather than disperse it among class groups or the wider population.

  Thus, the general notions that voluntary associations increase equality among citizens, foster wider distribution of political or societal power and provide a mechanism for collective articulation of social values which emerge in a population—such notions are not confirmed by studies which Rogers, and others, have made. These trends, Rogers noted, can also be discearned in Developoment Services. For example, the Kenya National Youth Services reported a trend of increasing applications for higher-status volunteers, namely, high school graduates. But Development Services, whether obligatory or voluntary, have some safeguards to ensure equality. The first is the above mentioned recruitment of special population groups. In the light of findings by Etzioni, Rogers and others, it becomes even more important that Development Services adhere to their target group policy to involve the poor, the illiterate, the drop-outs or students or graduates—whatever their target population.

- The second organizational characteristic is the equal status and treatment volunteers receive irrespective of their educational, family, tribal or income background. Their living allowances, health care, insurance, mobility, vacation allowance and their status or role assignments within the group are equal. Even if volunteers could improve their living standards during service with supporting funds from their families—in most cases they are not permitted to do so.

From the point of view of the society at large, Etzioni explains that the mobilization of a previously passive collectivity is a slow chain-reaction process which is gradual and uneven. *"Collectivities on the move do not move frontally with all its members in the same position."* And, *"We expect mobilization to be an elitist process. There is not one elite and a mass following but rather several elites, semi-elites, and various sub-collectivities activated to varying degrees . . . "* What in the evaluation in earlier chapters appeared to be a distinguishing factor among the categories of Development Services, namely the addressing of specific population groups for service combined with compatible training and work programs, becomes here a specific asset of mobilization capacity. By involving people from all social strata they avoid reinforcing elitist principles but develop many different sub-elites—even among the poor, the rural uneducated, the handicapped, the elderly, the young offenders.

A third aspect of the mobilization capacity of Development Services is related to the ratio between potential and actual use of assets, **the Level of Internal Mobilization.** The major asset is the recruited volunteer manpower which is brought to use in 70-95 per cent of the cases. The missing 30-5 per cent represent the attrition rate of volunteers due to selection process, emergencies or failure on the job, which varies among services. The other asset lies in the financial resources at the disposal of a service, through government allocations or private fundraising. Here, the internal mobilization is much lower and differs more widely among services. This ratio of internal mobilization depends on the cost per volunteer man-year and the proportion spent for administrative overhead. For example, the Kenya Village Polytechnics and the Voluntary Development Association, BUTSI in Indonesia, the Thailand Volunteer Leaders for Community Development, Community Service Volunteers in the UK, the ACTION/USA Programs for the Elderly, and CUSO have a high level of internal mobilization of financial assets. At the opposite point of the spectrum are the German DED, the Dutch SNV, the Nigerian NYSC and the Thai Rural Development Volunteers which have high unit costs and, therefore, a low level of internal mobilization of their financial assets. As discussed earlier, the staff:volunteer ratio, the amount of living allowances paid to volunteers and the administrative costs (resulting from extensive supervisory dependencies) result in a loss of internal mobilization.

Fourth, the **Type of Program Inputs and Tasks** and their related policies affect the mobilization capacity of Development Services. Here, the dual and modernizing organization concept can be applied to assess the mobilization capacity for development. Of course, the organizational structure and mode of operation of a Development Service is influenced by the society at large in which, or from which, the service operates. These are given facts. However, any Development Service has an option to develop principles, structure and policies which lean either toward dual or modernizing approaches. They deserve more attention and are here described as dual or modernizing organizational characteristics.

Dual program inputs and tasks characteristics in Development Services concern:

- A centralized organizational structure, where the administrative arm of the service extends directly to the local project level. Examples include:

  - The centralized staffing and decision-making pattern in the Clubs 4-D in Benin without sufficient feedback from local communities. Even though there is some local management of funds for small scale operation, decisions on technology used in farming are made for the Clubs by the central government and FAO officials and they have—as yet—had no access to

funds to settle their graduating volunteers. Clubs are locally contained, members have no upward mobility.

- The centralized work project management by the Kenya National Youth Service, which—by policy—is large scale and outside local communities, maintains dual relationships between the volunteers, and the leadership of the service.

- The centralized organization and field administration representing the German DED, the Dutch SNV and the US Peace Corps in their respective host countries. These strong administrative field structures self-contain the service—like a community--in isolation. Possibilities for participation are missed but could be invited if the administrative profile were lower keyed. Also, these services are for volunteers rather then of them. It should be noted, however, that in individual volunteer assignments, these Foreign Volunteer Services primarily work through local community organizations, that is they use a modernizing approach in their work projects.

- Volunteer assignments to Work Projects which

  - re-inforce "elites" and promote exclusivity such as large scale industry, public administration, higher education, charitable projects (except in cases of emergencies);

  - encourage volunteer work for citizens rather than with or through them, such as projects which are not community based, not production- and employment-oriented, especially administrative or health and social assignments which can be conducted by regular national manpower.

- Development Services which have no formal linkages or program efforts:

  - to further enhance education or training after service,

  - to facilitate or generate employment at completion of service term.

Concerning volunteer service in a dual society Owens and Shaw add: *"Throughout the Third World during the past two decades, the combination of central government donated tools and materials and volunteer labor by villagers has been a common method of carrying out local development projects, building such things as farm-to-market roads, wells, primary schools, especially in rural areas . . . the amount of time donated for such projects by villagers has been interpreted by central government officials as a general indicator of villagers' interest in and support of government initiated development projects."*

On the positive side, **modernizing program input and task characteristics in Development Services** potentially permit a kind of participation which bridges the gap between the "elites" and the people. These organizational characteristics include:

- De-centralized organizational structure where the administration of volunteers works through local community institutions such as:

  - Local autonomy of the Kenya Village Polytechnics, managed by the Management Committees of villagers.

- The village level work programs of the Malaysia Farm Youth Project and Thailand Rural Youth Leadership Training which is administered by village heads or local farmers' organizations.

- The de-centralized training of SUTSI volunteers in Indonesia and their work assignment to villages under the supervision of the village headman.

- The delegation of volunteer training and direction of joint work projects to villagers in the case of the Voluntary Development Association of Kenya.

- Volunteer assignments to and work supervision by local community organizations in the case of Study-Services in Indonesia, USA, Nepal, and occasionally in Thailand; Social and Technical Development Services in Canada (CYC), UK (CSV) and the domestic programs of ACTION, USA, also use this approach. Of the Foreign Volunteer Services only CUSO (Canada) volunteers are occasionally administered—in contrast to supervised—by local community institutions.

Project designs and methodology which enhance production, the local body of knowledge, community organizing, access to funds, markets and upward mobility, basic and technical education, employment generation, interest, representation). Examples include:

- The Regional Youth Centers of the National Youth Movement in Costa Rica which are resource centers for volunteer training, local community organizing and project development and work service supervision.

- Community development work which is based on community organizing—in contrast to providing technical or social services for the community—is carried out by voluntary Development Association (Kenya), Company of Young Canadians, VISTA(USA), Rural Development Volunteers and Volunteer Leaders for Community Development both in Thailand, Canadian University Service, and Peace Corps (USA).

- Access to funding of local community projects include the following examples: the volunteer manpower "banking system" of the Volunteer Leaders for Community Development in Thailand, the local financing—both in cash and in kind—of the Kenya Village Polytechnic, the cash crop production and selling on the part of the Clubs 4-D in Benin, and the revolving loans UNICEF provided to the Kenya Village Polytechnic to settle former participants in self-employment in small trades, crafts and services. Some of the CUSO discretionary financial projects have modernizing effects, for example for scholarships, local community organizing or production. Other CUSO funds, and those of the Peace Corps School Partnership Program, are benevolences in the Owens/Shaw terminology and thus have a dual societal characteristic. However, the fundraising activity at home for both services has a modernizing effect—involving all people, especially the young and community groups, linking them with communities in developing countries. Other Foreign Volunteer Services have no financial program of this nature and, therefore, a reduced mobilization capacity.

- Providing upward mobility for villagers and the disadvantaged target groups is another modernizing characteristic in Development Services, such as the certified training and industrial work program on the part of the Malaysia National Youth Pioneer Corps; the certified training of the Kenya National Youth Service, and the regional cooperatives' associations the German DED supported in Kenya, especially for former Village Polytechnic participants who had settled in rural trades and crafts.

This review indicates that most Development Services have a "mixed bag" of dual and modernizing organizational characteristics—some which hinder and some which advance participation in development. As the analysis in Chapters 4-7 and the discussion in Chapters 8 and 9 have revealed, the same issues appear again and again. While they were discussed earlier under the aspect of management efficiency or service effectiveness, as a problem of recurrent education or employment-orientation—many of the same organizational issues are here reaffirmed as a helping or hindering factor in mobilizing development participation.

And finally, Development Services are **social institutions within their society at large**, designated with a specific mobilization role. As discussed earlier, mobilization is a process of change which modifies the boundaries among various societal systems and requires a continuing investment to maintain their level of integration and organization. This, Amitai Etzioni was first to call **Societal Guidance**: *"We refer to the combined sources of social regulation and change, the downward and the upward flows, as societal guidance."* John Friedman explored the concept further[43]: *"Roles for societal guidance are most frequently embodied in organizations that are linked to each other in a distinctive pattern; this pattern may be called the Guidance System of a Society."* And, *"Each of these roles has a potential but limited capacity for influencing the course of societal change . . . By introducing innovative changes into the guidance system, the society's performance will also tend to be changed."* In order to effectively fulfill a role as a partner in an overall "Societal Guidance System", Friedman develops an action-planning model, replacing the normally applied distinct management steps of (a) preparation of plans, (b) adoption by policy makers, (c) implementation by managers, (d) feedback to managers and policy makers. He suggests that planning is already a first step of action, and deliberate action is planned, and therefore action-planning are simultaneous, reinforcing steps. He believes that action-planners are the future leaders of societal institutions, replacing the current politicians.

Development Services, operating on a national scale, are part of this Societal Guidance System. They have been introduced as innovations into the Guidance System in order to change—in accordance with their mandate—the performance of society. Development Services were established with certain patterns of societal linkages, for example to the Departments of Labor, Manpower, Development or Education, to primary schools, colleges and universities or to various sectors of the employment system. The main role expected of them within the Societal Guidance System is to modify or remove barriers between systems and to bridge gaps and thus help to permit access to, and free flow and promotion of people through the system. The more successful Development Services have been able to establish new linkages with various other societal institutions and to influence the direction of the Societal Guidance System. For education and employment, this was discussed in detail in the previous two Chapters. Here, it is important to note that the degree of mobilization of a Development Service is not only expressed by the linkages it has established for input of resources and use of outputs, but primarily by the way linkages are directed to help guide the overall societal system. For example, the efforts on the part of BUTSI—after it had been proven a success—to establish the

Study Service KKN in Indonesia, under supervision of the Ministry of Education is such a mobilization in societal guidance, because it expanded the realm of education and eased borders of access and status. Or, the introduction of development education in schools and adult education in Canada, and the presentations to Committees of the Canadian House of Commons and the Senate on questions of trade and apartheid—both are actions on the part of CUSO that aim at change in the Societal Guidance System at home.

Changes in the Societal Guidance System are introduced by way of action-planning and mediation. Development Services are fortunate to have had on occasion, gifted leaders who have been or are—in fact—action-planners and mediators. But none of the Development Services evaluated in this study indicates an awareness, or prescribes policy or a job description for their leading position which would fit the requirements set down for societal guidance. Friedman describes such leadership capabilities as[43]: trans-technical, skills in managing interpersonal relations, sharpened knowledge of oneself, capacity for learning, humbleness, readiness to listen, ability to relate symbolic materials (especially statistics) to reality, heightened capacity for empathy, learning to live with conflict and to accept defeat. As mobilizers, most directors of Development Services will agree that their task is complex and that they have experienced the need for such leadership capabilities.

3. *Receiving volunteers in local communities, and initiating and supporting participation in development on the part of local citizens enhances the community's overall societal mobilization.*

Most Development Services operate under the premise to *"help people to help themselves"*. In principle at least, they aim primarily at initiating self-help projects, or support ongoing ones. Their success in local community mobilization depends on two things:

- the state of societal organization in which the community finds itself, and
- the organizational characteristics and performance of the service itself.

Here **utilitarian mobilization** of volunteer and village manpower is applied to raise production, expand access to knowledge and markets and to improve living conditions. Utilitarian mobilization through Development Services could be measured for example, by the ratio of production output of the community over the previous state, increase in employment, and gain in average income per household participating in volunteer projects.

The goal is to achieve **normative mobilization**, the change of attitudes in local communities from dual societal perceptions to modernizing ones In general, this is a goal Development Services prefer to achieve via experience based learning and the demonstration effect of the volunteer's work in or with the local community. Seldom are Development Services or volunteers used for indoctrination purposes in local communities—if so, that usage takes place within the service itself and creates definite limitations to the mobilization effort, as discussed in the previous Sub-Chapter. In some cases, certain symbols which have doctrinary connotations, are used in public, such as uniforms, parades, and participation in national holidays (Kenya National Youth Service, Malaysian Youth Corps, Iran's Development Corps). Indoctrination, for the purpose to either maintain dual organization societies or to introduce modernizing processes, is determined by the political superstructure and by the culture/religion in which the

service operates (see discussion of value causes in Chapters 4-7, and considerations of disciplinary training and para-military work in Chapter 4, Program Tasks).

And the ultimate goal is **overall societal mobilization** which, translated to the community level, is best described by a recent study sponsored by the Charles F. Kettering Foundation and carried out by Geoffrey H. Ball of Stanford Research Institute[12] as that of **the effective community:**

- economically viable
- politically effective
- socially vital
- esthetically satisfying
- personally fulfilling.

"The Effective Community would seek to establish problem-solving as the normal process for coping with community issues," Further: *"People, individually and collectively, would have a sense of belonging to their community. By definition, then, such a community does not foster anomie, or isolation, or injustice."*

In an Effective Community, citizens must have access to and participate in:

- shaping their environment
- attaining equal opportunities for the minorities and disenfranchised
- processing communication information on national issues.

In his image of an Effective Community, Ball perceives citizen action as a vital force for change: *"No decision significantly affecting the community should be made without some form of collective process effectively using the power of citizens and elites".* And, *"The tension between citizen rule and elite rule . . . needs to remain. (Because) Citizens' power risks decisions based on opinions, molded by demagogues, on an insufficient knowledge base. Elite power risks decisions that are not accepted by, nor acceptable to, most people, focus primarily on aggrandizement of the elite, and are again built on an insufficient knowledge base for effective implementation."*

When Development Services refer to community development most of them have the image of an "Effective Community"—even if the image may be not as clear as the Ball study presents.

Most volunteers are assigned by their services to other than their home communities. Exceptions are the various farm youth programs in Malaysia and Thailand, the Clubs 4-D in Benin, and the Kenya Village Polytechnic which all operate at home. In the cases of Malaysia and Thailand, training programs are conducted away from the home community, but the work projects are carried out in the volunteers' villages. In both instances, mobilization of local communities can be achieved, but to differing degrees, in different areas, and by other means.

Service in Another Community, tribal area, culture or country provides the receiving community with the **"outsider impulse"** needed to move it from a self-containing state to a developmental form, wherein people are not only maintained, but advanced. This point was discussed in Chapter 3. From his research, Amitai Etzioni confirms this experience when he identifies three pre-conditions which usually move a hitherto dormant state in a community toward mobilization:

- the levels of income and education tend to rise just before mobilization occurs;

- the presence of an external elite (students, experienced adults, foreigners) which sparks mobilization, but must ignite the internal process by turning over leadership to internal elites at take-off;

- personal and collective projects provide such internal stimulus for take-off of community participation, but, for permanence of mobilization, a slow-chain-reaction must follow which should involve a broader spectrum of sub-units in the community and be guided by internal leadership and organization.

Not only do these conditions confirm the importance of the outsider role of domestic and foreign volunteers in receiving communities, but they also indicate that a one-sided "giving effort" through training and technical assistance, often precedes local mobilization. The crucial point, of course, for the outside volunteer assignment is the change-over to local citizens of responsibilities at take-off. This is the situation least clear and understood by both Domestic and Foreign Volunteer Services. It requires further evaluation, including cross-sectoral and cross-cultural analysis. It is clear, that Development Services must gear their work program, policies, and procedures to the conditions in local communities if mobilization is to be stimulated and continued development participation ensured. From this study, some tentative conclusions can be drawn on the conditions for the outside volunteer role to **mobilization take-off and turn-over of responsibilities** to local communities:

- It is the presence of the outside volunteer which enhances the chance for sparking local mobilization.

- It is the Internal Leadership of the community which is essential to guide the outside volunteer;

- It is not the individual volunteer, but the local image and bureaucratic profile of his service organization which may hinder local participation (see also Chapter 11 on this issue);

- It depends on the type of project in which the volunteer is engaged as to how take-off and turn-over are achieved. For example, expansion of agricultural production and marketing, establishment of small trade or crafts businesses, cooperatives or other employment-oriented projects, create early mobilization effects, wherein take-off points are clearly identifiable and the turn-over is natural—as it is a pre-condition for take-off that local farmers, businessmen, etc. take up their new responsibilities. However, take-off and turn-over are not as clear for non-production projects such as education, and health, nutritional and social services. Volunteers can go on and on in their assignments, and never spark local mobilization. Here, special project policy safeguards are necessary such as: planning of turn-over, limited number of years for recurrent volunteer assignments (CSV/UK) or limitation of assignments per community (BUTSI/Indonesia). Sometimes volunteers are replaced by outside employees—and the community remains dormant.

- It depends on a broad community-focused project approach to volunteer assignments. Many services, and especially the Foreign Volunteer Services, look primarily at the individual development project and the work program

area (or disciplinary sector to which it belongs) for determination of their project policies, specification of volunteer qualifications, and development of indicators of effectiveness. For them, a community is a location where a project operates. From a citizen mobilization point of view, the community is the smallest societal unit to be covered by outsider roles, if local development participation is the objective. Here, "the community is the project" which should determine indicators of work program effectiveness and guide project policies and procedures. Thus, citizen mobilization requires the design and linkage of a multiplicity of developmental activities within the one receiving community aided by volunteers or other outside sources.

- It requires a community project focus on (a) the expansion of the local knowledge basis and (b) community organizing for local participation-especially in health, nutritional, social and educational services. This is not easy to achieve. But continued outside provision of health, nutrition, education, etc. without the building of local organizations to take over these services, prevents citizen mobilization and development participation of the community. Here, Development Services need to review their project policies and designs. Many volunteers are assigned to health, social services and educational projects and they often leave unsatisfied at the end of service because they have achieved nothing of permanence. The reason, of course is the lack of community organization and building of local structures for take-off, and turn-over of responsibilities, on a continuing basis.

- It requires changes in volunteer policies on the part of Development Services. The trend in some services to assignments of higher specialized volunteers in specific jobs can work against a community-focused project approach. While highly qualified volunteers may be needed in special instances, the community focus of assignments in most cases requires the more broadly educated or life experienced volunteer. Also, the one or two year duration of service should not be a determining factor in the timing of project turn-over to local groups or organizations. The take-off and turn-over should be determined solely by the readiness of the local people and organizations (including the availability of funds) to proceed on their own. Outside volunteers must be adjusted to this intrinsic timing of their assignment. This may imply that one assignment can be terminated after six months while another may take four years. Here, the concept "the community is the project" becomes most important: the volunteer can move on to another assignment within the same community without losing his time of adjustment and local aquaintance, risking his status and self respect by leaving an assignment early. This, of course, is possible only if his rotation to other activities in the same community is part of the original planning. This is primarily important if the volunteer is highly specialized and his skills require special placement in order to be not wasted. In case of the more general education and/or experienced volunteer, the rotation is somewhat easier. BUTSI in Indonesia and Arsa Pattana in Thailand have such an approach built-in: the community is the project, and the volunteer is expected to be a "cross-sectoral development worker". The classical community development assignments of Peace Corps, CUSO or VSO/UK of the early days had many components favored here. However, the problem often was that the broad community focus and the aim at community organizing and turn-over was not planned, and volunteers were not prepared for such an open-ended assignment. Now, after the

detour to a largely technical and specialized volunteer, it may be the time again to include a broader range of volunteer capabilities. The Company of Young Canadians, which operated until March 1976, provided an interesting example in this respect: they prepared their volunteers solely for action-research and community organizing—irrespective of the volunteers' skills and professional qualifications. The example is given later in this Chapter.

Thus, the slow chain-reaction Etzioni described as essential for maintaining a mobilization level in communities, can be achieved by the timing of a succession of turn-overs of outside volunteer activities to villagers while the volunteer moves on to the next assignment within the same community.

All seven considerations aim at the optimal point of turnover from outside mobilizers to internal action in terms of utilitarian mobilization. If they succeed, even to a small degree, a normative mobilization has taken place as well. Thus, utilitarian mobilization—in this case through the local community work of volunteers—precedes the mobilization of new norms, and the experience of utilization of the new assets under control by the local community results in change of attitudes. And further, the way in which the new assets are used influences the kinds of attitudes that are created. For example, increased knowledge, development assistance programs funds, or expanded production capacity, can be used to learn more and apply appropriate technology, or they can be wasted for overmechanization. In another instance, the expanded power in the local community can be used to permit all minorities and border groups to participate in mobilization, or it can be used to suppress them. Steering this community control power in a developmental direction—equal access for all—requires this normative mobilization.

The linkage between utilitarian and normative mobilization, enhanced through volunteer work in local communities, requires more attention from Development Services. It requires an **Action-Planning Approach**, as indicated earlier, where local planning goes along with action and is viewed under two aspects: (1) with the eyes of the receiving community, and (2) with a concern for overall societal guidance.

In his paper on "Community Decision Behavior: The Culture of Planning"[16] Richard S. Bolan hypothesizes that planning strategies are more influential when attached to the local power center than to independent organizations or outside advisors. Etzioni confirms this importance of the internal leadership in his mobilization theory[42]. Bolan also suggests that planning content which deals with the immediate, focuses on the means and narrow strategic information to achieve the ends, is more likely to attract local action than planning which looks to long-term horizons, is goal-oriented and focuses on comprehensive systems of information. Action strategies, according to Bolan, are efforts to:

- re-allocate distribution of resources
- change individual and societal behavior
- change institutions and organizations within a society.

He suggests that action strategies are more likely to be accepted and tend toward action if:

- they little disturb the status quo in the community,
- they maintain existing distribution of resources and power of institutions while introducing social change,

- they suggest programs to change individual circumstances rather than attempt massive changes in societal behavior.

Bolan's hypotheses are based on study and broad experience with urban planning in North America—yet, his rationalizing appears to fit well the conditions in rural communities in other regions of the world.

For Development Services' action-planning, these considerations suggest certain yardsticks—guidelines would be too presumptuous at this time—to ensure that volunteer work leads to community action:

- joint action-planning with internal leadership and potential action groups of the community, including supervision of proposed action by community leaders,

- establishment of needs and objectives: (a) immediate, and (b) long-term in terms of modernizing development participation,

- development of plans for volunteer activities in local communities which include: Identification of local community groups for joint work projects, organization, technology, financing, output, feedback, schedule and timing of turn-over.

For Development Services, some changes in policy and management procedure are required to accommodate such a continuing process of action-planning under the aegis of local mobilization. Planning at headquarters or in field offices before the start of the volunteer assignment is not enough to ensure this continuous process. It is more difficult for Foreign Volunteer Services than for Domestic Development Services, to change this situation. It appears, for example, that the Costa Rica National Youth Movement, the Kenya Voluntary Development Association, BUTSI in Indonesia, the Thai Community Development Services, the Canadian CYC, CSV in the UK and ACTION/USA apply an approach which has many features of local action-planning: they delegate this continuous process to communities, with occasional support from sub-regional community development or youth centres or simply officers. CSV in Britain and BUTSI in Indonesia add one important component to force such a local process. both services conduct "receiver training" with members of local communities. Of the Foreign Volunteer Services only CUSO in Canada indicates a kind of continuous action-planning approach, primarily carried out jointly by the volunteers and their project communities. The CUSO field officer acts only as a resource and support person in this process. The German DED's volunteer country group meetings and regional conferences also have—to some extent—changed planning into an ongoing process—but without the participation of recipient communities. For DED and the other Foreign Volunteer Services, planning is primarily a process preceding the volunteer assignment at which time the local community provides its major input into the project design. What follows is a lengthy and complicated approval process in various stages which is quite removed from the local community and primarily is determined by the supervising governmental departments or boards of these services. This remoteness of planning from the site of action prevents Foreign Volunteer Services from deriving a clearer perception of the steps to be taken to promote local community mobilization. It seems that the delegation of more action-planning responsibilities to receiving local communities and to the volunteers themselves during their period of assignment may offer an approach to remedy this problem.

It is clear by now that the volunteer receiving community's mobilization is largely dependent on **Internal Leadership Guidance.** In response to the question: *"Who in the local community are the* **key persons** *in support of, and cooperation with, volunteers?"* interviews confirmed the following priorities:

1. Village chiefs or headmen
2. Local community councils
3. Religious leaders
4. Local administrations, municipalities.

From another viewpoint the Owens and Shaw thesis of different structures and behavior in a dual, versus a modernizing, society was also confirmed from interviews, when the question was raised: *"Who exhibited the least understanding and support for volunteers working in the village and why?"* The responses indicated the following social groups resisting mobilization and their reasons:

1. The poor and illiterate, because they do not understand the service idea and are anyway, dependent on the community;

2. The rich, and low level officials, because they think volunteers are a threat to their influence and holdings;

3. The older men and women and the very young, because they do not understand the concept of self-reliance;

4. Religious leaders because they feel threatened in their influence and leadership role.

These responses confirm Bolan's notions as to which planning and action strategies tend to be successful. They also confirm the importance of the internal knowledge basis Etzioni and Owens and Shaw stress.

And finally, in interviews the factors helping or hindering local community cooperation with Domestic Development Services were ranked by both national and foreign respondents (rankings for each category is contained in Chapters 4-6) and show the overall priorities:

Helping Factors for Community cooperation include (out of 14 options):

1. Belief of the local community that the service will change their situation

2. Work project was requested by local community

3. Strong leadership in community

4. Villagers participated in supervision of volunteer projects

5. Volunteers live with local families

Hindering Factors for community cooperation were given the following priorities:

1. Conflicts with other agencies assisting in local communities

2. Conflicts among villagers

3. Certain cultural and religious traditions

4. Volunteers living in camps or farms

5. Work project assigned by the national development plan (in contrast to local plan development).

Helping and hindering factors listed both confirm the earlier discussion on planning and action strategies, mobilization theory and the principles of dual or modernizing organizational structures that hinder or further participation in development. They also confirm the role of internal elites. And finally, they indicate two aspects of mobilization not yet discussed: the organizational competition and the role of social conflict.

In his "The Active Society"[42] Amitai Etzioni takes a positive position: *"Rarely is the mobilization of a collectivity controlled by one organization . . . On the collectivity level, as a rule the initial mobilization is carried out by two or more organizations. While this may seem redundant and wasteful, especially as these organizations tend to be in conflict with each other . . . there is much reason to believe that if there were only one organization, the mobilization would be lower and less encompassing."* This stand is confirmed by the mediation theory[104] for community decision and organization interaction which holds:

- the greater the domain overlap between organizations, the more frequent their interaction, and

- strong interaction is stimulated by threats to the organizational domain, but not by opportunities for domain enhancement unaccompanied by threat.

Thus, the high priority interviewers gave to the conflict among agencies as a hindering factor for community cooperation, is a challenge to organization interaction and coordination. When BUTSI/Indonesia talks about the role of their volunteers as "cross-sectoral community development workers" they infer exactly this coordination on the local level cutting across the various governmental development programs, and help to translate it into support for their host communities. However, if this healthy organizational conflict of a competitive nature turns out to become too diversified with too many organizations involved, then it creates organizational strain, draining away resources and clearly limiting, or even reducing, mobilization.

As for the conflict among villagers—first of all this should be conceived as a normal mobilization struggle among the mobilizers and the unmobilized members of a community—*"a struggle which is evident in practically all major mobilization processes"* as Etzioni quotes from George Bragers "Organizing the Unaffiliated in a Low-Income Area" (New York, Wiley & Sons, 1965). Etzioni explains: *"The struggle takes place, in principle, because some if not all of the subunits and their members are opposed to releasing assets at their command to other goals and to the mobilizing unit . . . While in part these differences are resolved through various consensus-formation mechanism, in part their resolution almost invariably involves the exercise*

of power of one kind or another by the mobilizers . . . " This, first of all, conflict among villagers is a normal response to mobilization attempts. Apart from regular consensus forming mechanism, through village chiefs and community councils, the earlier discussed joint action-planning as a continuing process is another mode. Also, the presence of the volunteer outsider has not only a mobilizing effect but can represent the third-party role necessary to a consensus for action. An earlier mentioned case (Chapter 5, Citizens Participation), where volunteers from one Study-Service helped to overcome conflict among villagers through joint work projects remains as an example for many. This example, however, points to another fact of mobilization where Etzioni's studies can provide the underlying principle: *"The take-off stage of internal mobilization is often marked by increasing numbers of collective projects."* Thus, joint work projects have special importance for citizen mobilization—not merely the participation in volunteer recruitment, training or work supervision. It appears that joint work as such, (and not just doing) as an expression, an experience and as a mode to produce outputs, has a similar importance for the community mobilization and for Development Services, as discussed earlier in Chapter 4.

A somewhat different situation prevails when **Volunteers Serve in Their Home Community**, as is the case in the Clubs 4-D in Benin, the Kenya Village Polytechnic, the Malaysia Farm Youth Project and the Thailand Rural Youth Leadership Training. Here, the outsider impulse for mobilization comes from imported knowledge, advice, funds, materials (foodstuff, fertilizer, seeds, etc.) and technology (tools, machines, facilities). While the same principles for community mobilization prevail as discussed for the outside volunteer—the **local-volunteer is part of the internal system** and, most probably, does not belong to the traditional internal elites. It is part of the service objective to provide them, especially if they belong to minorities, lower class or disenfranchised, with access to educational and employment opportunities and—therefore—with growth in a modernizing way. In terms of mobilization, the service objective is then, to develop new sub-elites in the local community.

As volunteers cannot experience the outside world, and see the borders or barriers of their home community from the outside, all depends on the appropriateness of outside knowledge, funds, materials, tools, etc., whether objectives will be attained. Further, the more attention is paid to involve the overall community in provision of support (for example, the land given by villagers to the Clubs-4D in Benin), leadership and guidance (Kenya Village Polytechnics) or joint work projects (introduction of new cash crops in Benin and Malaysia, village level co-operatives in Thailand), the more likely the service and the individual volunteer will succeed in their mobilization effort. Here, citizen participation is clearly a means to keep the service program, and an end at the same time as it indicates a higher level of internal mobilization in communities over the previous stage. The most important point is the internal leadership and guidance of such services—this is where the Village Polytechnics succeed and, contrarily, the Benin Clubs 4-D have their problem. The latter's dependence on the central government and outside FAO decisions of "what is good for them", and the lack of access to funding to settle graduate volunteers on land or in local crafts or trades, has frustrated the otherwise impressive initial take-off of mobilization of local resources. Neither the dual organization government nor FAO, as a United Nations foreign assistance agency, have involved local action-planning as a continuing process. Rather, outside advice from national and foreign specialists thus have stagnated local development participation.

Domestic and foreign volunteers alike are expected to be **mobilizers** in their community of assignment. It appears that over the years Development Services have evolved their own methodology for citizen participation, primarily by trial and error. Exceptions are the in-

fluence of the Anglo-American community development concept and the Danish ombudsman idea which helped to shape the various modes for citizens' mobilization. **Three modes for a modernizing form of development participation in local communities stand out:**

First, the **volunteer role as an Ombudsman,** designed to bridge information and knowledge gaps and link the villagers' need with available support from various development assistance programs. Ombudsman-type roles also include: helping to solve conflicts among villagers especially through joint work projects, and supporting modernizing efforts to gain knowledge, higher productivity, access to employment, funds and upward mobility. Normally, ombudsmen have a third-party-role and are elected by members of the community they serve. While a third-party-role has been reported from various services, the participation of the community in the selection of the outside volunteer is only realized in BUTSI/Indonesia, the Thailand Volunteer Leaders for Community Development, Community Service Volunteers in the UK and the Company of Young Canadians. Ombudsmen roles are assigned to mature volunteers who often come from the same localities (Thailand's VLCD and Canada's CYC) or they are outsiders and have a higher overall educational level than the villagers (BUTSI, CYC and Thailand's RDVP). CSV's in the UK are young and not necessarily more highly educated but they take up specialized ombudsmen roles which cannot be carried out by employees, for example becoming the spokesman for the sick vis-a-vis the hospital administration, the young offenders or the handicapped vis-a-vis their respective administrative bodies. Thus, one cannot easily declare that the limitations of a volunteer ombudsman role are related to age, educational background and limited life experience which is available in the case of older volunteers. A major limitation is more related to the period of assignment: full-time, but for a duration of only one-half to two years of service. Foreign volunteers may have some limitations too. While authorities in receiving countries take part in the final selection of foreign volunteers, the local communities to which they are assigned, normally do not. But there are many instances where foreign volunteers in the conduct of their work, in fact, acted as ombudsmen: they obtained outside assistance for their village projects, helped mediate conflicts and mobilized village resources. Perhaps, a participation in the final selection of the foreign volunteer on the part of the receiving community and the joint assignments of qualified domestic and foreign volunteers would enhance the ombudsman contribution of both—as they would be better embedded in the local community and could supplement their capabilities. It appears that the qualities of the ombudsman role have not yet been fully understood on the part of the Development Services and thus, they have not taken full advantage of their potential to mobilize local citizens through ombudsman assignments. In the United States, the Charles F. Kettering Foundation supported the establishment of an Ombudsman Office for the city of Dayton, Ohio, and the surrounding Montgomery County. While not many of the problems and opportunities in an urban center in a highly industrialized country are comparable to a rural community in a developing country, there are some principles which deserve consideration. The following facts are taken from the 1973 Annual Report[13] and a 1972 evaluation of the role of the Ombudsman Office as a third party intervention[49]:

- the ombudsman is an outsider and remains in this role as a go-between governmental agencies, business, other local institutions and the complaining citizen; as a neutral outsider he was accepted by all parties;

- the mobilization of local volunteers, especially student-volunteers to help in the caseload opens up further citizen participation; (in the Dayton Ombudsman Office between 31%-62% of all citizen's cases were handled by student-volunteers);

- citizen complaints—for which the Ombudsman Office was primarily established—are not only treated as a caseload requiring mediation, cutting through red-tape, to solve the problem in each instance, but also as citizen feedback on needs and problem areas in the functioning of the community;

- as citizens' feedback, these complaints initiate action: suggestions for change of local governmental policies, ordinances or business behavior suggested to the respective authorities by the ombudsman;

- the ombudsman role carried a "mystique" because as the individual holding this office, he was not personally interested in "winning a case" but was helping to further justice and equal treatment to all citizens of the community. His neutrality exerts power and his "mystique" lies probably in the fact that he is different; he is not part of the local system and no case or project he is involved in has a bearing on his own career, promotion or profit.

There is much similarity between the role structure of an outside volunteer and the ombudsman as described here, and the Development Services mentioned earlier have devised similar role characteristics. Others have indicated similar ombudsman characteristics for their volunteer assignments; they include the Thailand Rural Development Volunteers and ACTION/VISTA in the US. But, as mentioned earlier, Development Services have not yet developed the full potential of the ombudsman role, especially concerning:

- The use of local volunteers to participate in some of the caseload or project obligations. So far, local volunteers have primarily been recruited to work in their local projects, and

- The use of citizens' feedback for action-planning affecting both regular local community administration and specific community development projects.

And finally, while the "classic" ombudsman is not an actionman, but a mediator, the volunteer is both. His role always has a mediation, advisory and action component. The question is, whether this is in all cases an advantage, or whether a clearer role distinction would increase his effectiveness and open new and broader opportunities for other volunteer involvement. For example, if Development Services are to take up more of the regular social services in local communities, which are currently unavailable, or cannot be extended, as needed because of overburdened government agencies (and budgets), then a volunteer role distinction between the ombudsman mediator, community organizer and community advisor would be required. This differentiation would expand citizen involvement opportunities—and therefore increase mobilization of assets—and it would avoid the concentration of the various service activities in the hands of a few—another important ingredient to expand and maintain mobilization levels. These policy considerations apply to both foreign and domestic volunteer roles—with the limitations of foreigners mentioned earlier still valid here.

Second, the **volunteer work program of community action-planning and community organizing** is another mode for citizen mobilization. VISTA in the US, the Company of Young Canadians and the Thailand Rural Development Volunteers and Volunteer Leaders for Community Development have a clear policy in this respect. On the side of Foreign Volunteer Services, Peace Corps' community development program and the German DED's project principles indicate awareness of the importance of community organizing. These Development Services aim

at helping to provide access to governmental development programs, other outside aid and participation in decision-making by organizing rural communities, the poor, minorities or otherwise underprivileged. The question, whether knowledge, or organizing for political power, comes first in providing access to opportunities for the poor has concerned many services and was especially debated during VISTA's up's and down's (see Volume II, Compendium No. 20/2). The studies from Etzioni[42] and Owens and Shaw[91] confirm that this is not an "either/or" proposition but a "not only/but also" requirement. Both increase in knowledge and organization are necessary to mobilize collectivities. This is not the place to discuss the many theories to mobilize the poor, but an evaluation by Thomas Zane Reeves[100] of the direction of the 'War on Poverty' under the Democratic and Republican Administrations as it is based primarily on VISTA and ACTION experience, is of interest. He found that: *"Few, if any, voluntary action plans or voluntary role models were based on voluntary action research or program evaluation"* And: *"It has been proven unproductive to develop a volunteer model based on Activist or Conservative prescriptions. Likewise, the evolution of a mixed model necessitated by political compromise clearly lacks defined goals and objectives"* Only after a clear action-planning based on the needs of the poor, aging, etc., Reeves proposes, can a **variety of volunteer roles** be developed. The need for distinctive and a variety of volunteer roles was identified earlier in this evaluation. However, in contrast to Reeves' suggestions, role definitions should not be based on different client groups (the poor, the aged, etc.) but should be designed along different mobilization functions: as mediator, as organizer, etc. The needs of various client groups, however, must determine the volunteer activities. Reeves' proposal of action research preceding the determination of volunteer roles for organizing the poor, was realized earlier by the Company of Young Canadians. After many trails and errors they devised, under the leadership of P. Dal Brodhead, a combined community organizing approach (see also Volume II, Compendium No. 16):

- **action research** to identify needs, form reference groups to help to develop proposals and prepare projects;

- **local level organizing** to identify needs, establish priorities, develop strategies locate resources, hire effective personnel without destroying the role of the group, initiate administrative steps, select, train and supervise local workers, review objectives regularly, self-evaluate periodically search for autonomy.

Three features stand out from this CYC approach:

- action-planning in communities is based on local reference groups;

- local level organizing does not necessarily mean to establish local organizations apart from or in opposition to the local administrative system; it means that local reference groups provide the organizational structure for development participation—they can grow into permanent community organizations or they can be dissolved when they are no longer needed, and

- local level organizing provides that the reference groups muster the major part of local volunteers who carry out the projects jointly with fewer outside volunteers.

And further, a recent study by Robert D. Herman on "Voluntary Organization Participation and Personality Change in the Poor"[55] provides some interesting insights into the **differences between organized and unorganized poor.** Herman followed three participation hypotheses: Does participation lead to different individual effects depending on the extensiveness of the

participation of the poor? Are there different effects on the characteristics of the poor who participate? And, are there differences of characteristics of the organizations in which the poor participate? He based his study on various earlier research findings and reports the following results:

- the poor who join voluntary organizations are different from those who don't.
- Organizational experience causes participants to become more internally oriented on personal control—that is, they believe that what happens to them is the result of their own doing (in contrast to the inactive poor who have external orientation, i.e. believe that chance or luck accounts for what happens to them).
- Organized poor are also more internally directed to traditional control beliefs, i.e. the belief that other people are responsible for what happens to them (in contrast to chance or luck).
- Organized poor finally are more external in their social control beliefs, i.e. they believe that the social structural conditions are responsible for the conditions of the poor or minorities and that collective action rather than individual effort is the better way to improve conditions. This is in contrast to the view of the unorganized poor or minorities who believe that the disadvantaged themselves are responsible for their condition, and that individual effort rather than collective action can improve their situation.

These results suggest clear attitudinal changes on the part of the poor who participated in voluntary organizations—in contrast to those who did not. Change of attitudes in direction of internal mobilization is indicated by the beliefs:

- that their personal situation is the result of their own doing
- that, traditionally, other people and not some unlucky situation is responsible for their fate, and
- that social structures are also responsible for their condition and that they can do something about it by collective action.

There is no known similar research on the attitudes of the poor or minorities in developing countries, but Herman believes that his findings and those of his colleagures are relevant for all groups of disadvantaged irrespective of their cultural background. In accepting these findings and applying the generalization to groups of poor or disadvantaged in other countries, local community organizing can be seen as the primary vehicle for normative mobilization. This change of attitudes and action, to involve all population groups of the community, especially the previously inactive poor, minorities and disadvantaged, is—or should be—a major concern of Development Services.

And finally, **community organizing includes community decision-making.** Development Services do not indicate that they have—as yet—paid much attention to the processes of community decision-making which affects their efforts to spark local action and development participation. It is beyond the framework of this study to explore this well researched aspect of community life—but there is no doubt that Development Services need to pay more atten-

tion to their major partners' decision behavior and procedures. For example, Bolan describes[16] various sets of variables affecting community decision-making, one of which are process roles, their specialization and the characteristics of the actors involved in those roles. He suggests: *"Decision outcomes reflect the values, goals, and interests of those actors who possess the most resources, occupy the favorable position in the decision-making structure, possess the best skills in negotiating decision outcomes, and have the capacity for developing the best tactics and modes of influencing behavior."* This description of the important actors in community decision-making fits the earlier interview responses listing the key persons most important for volunteer work in local communities.

Another set of variables are described by Bolan as decision field characteristics in local communities. He suggests, that community bodies with a formal legal structure, a highly focused decision center, a stable bureaucracy and an articulate hierarchy are all the more likely to produce action than dispersed autonomous centers, less stable administrations or absence of social hierarchy. Of the political community bodies, with an informal structure, those having a strong party mechanism are more likely to act on outside proposals than the less organized non-partisan bodies. Homogeneous communities tend to decide more easily on projects than those of a heterogeneous composition, where goals and values of citizen groups are conflicting. Bolan explains further that local government decision-making is primarily carried out by groups, rather than by individuals, and he lists the following group characteristics which are more likely to produce action.

- appointed bodies (in contrast to elected) because their accountability is obscure
- socially cohesive bodies which develop among long-term office holders, even with heterogenous members, in contrast to the short-term assignments which are less likely to produce action
- committees of a larger body formed with specific mandate, produce more action because this internal role differentiation tends to sway the larger body
- the manner in which an issue is seen by the public, together with the amount of information available to the public, will influence the decision outcome
- the group role as perceived by its members influences decision-making: in cases of clearly described, professional or technical mandates, action is more likely than in groups with comprehensive responsibilities.

Finally, the type of issues placed before the community bodies for decision-making influences the degree of action and decision outcome. Positive action can be expected when (a) the proposed project results are easily predictable, (b) the project is easily accomplished both economically and administratively and (c) the proposal reflects the social values or preferences of the community. These are the issue variables listed by Bolan that affect decision outcome and tend toward action:

- if there is little conflict over basic values (ideological content of proposal)
- if the costs are smaller and affect, and benefit, only a smaller group of people. *"Political systems will tend to reject a proposal that costs a lot of people a lot of money"*.

- if the proposal can be modified later on (irreversible or inflexible decisions—such as construction projects—tend to encounter more resistance)
- if the proposal focuses on a single agency or group requiring little coordination
- if the risks are low, and the decision consequences clear, a proposal is more likely to be accepted
- if the proposal can be easily communicated, is not abstract nor require sophisticated reasoning, the issues are normally well presented and are clearly perceived: *"Difficulty in communication can be equally, if not more, detrimental to decision-making than lack of communication"*.

The responses to interviews described earlier confirm in much simpler—and less clear—terms the importance of community decision-making: they cite less academic project proposals (see Study-Services) and the belief of the community that the Development Service will assist their situation as the most important factor for local cooperation. It is hoped this short excursion into community decision behavior considerations will enhance the scope and nature of community organizing and action-planning in Development Services. It is an area which requires more thought, feedback from field experience especially in rural areas, and assessment from which local community development participation can be improved.

Third, **Community Facilities** are often used as a focal point for programs of Development Services to mobilize communities. This technique is applied by the Costa Rica National Youth Movement which has established **Youth Centers** throughout the country. Their approach is tailored after the Israeli model and operates as a Community Resource Center, devoted to the needs and interests of youth. The local community provides the facilities and some financial, material and expert support and the Center in turn helps in local development projects. The Centers are open five days a week—whether there are formal programs or not—and they are thus available for the interested individual as well as for groups. Another feature is that study groups are stratified according to age groups and educational background, permitting the participation of the illiterate and drop-out as well as the student in the same location and thus avoiding unnecessary class distinctions.

Community Development Centers on the district level support the work of volunteers in the three services of Arsa Pattana in Thailand. The Centers primarily give training support to volunteers and advise the local Community Development Committees which supervise the volunteer work. They are more a location for management than a place of meeting and involvement.

In Kenya, the **Village Polytechnics**, act as a local facility for community involvement. Constructed, managed and supported by villagers they attract outside help, especially teaching staff and training materials, which represents a gain of assets in outside knowledge and potential for upward mobility. Thus, the creation of the Polytechnic facilities and programs have increased the level of internal mobilization in these villages over the previous stage.

In the United States, in the wake of the Watergate Affair and enhanced by the Bicentennial review of American history and tradition, **Community Resource Centres** became one focal point of interest to foster citizen involvement[22]: *"It seems clear that the well-being of our citizens depends upon our ability to redesign existing institutions and to create new structures*

which will enable individuals to participate in qualitative decision-making." The idea is to involve many existing volunteer organizations—including ACTION—women's organizations, local libraries, churches, etc., in such Centres to make their resources available to the community at large. Tasks would include: information exchange network, reorganization of community and human services, solving neighborhood problems, organizing community affairs, providing guidance for revenue sharing in governmental programs, etc. Especially the expansion of local libraries to Community Resource Centres deserves further attention in the light of the need for local and out-of-school resources to provide access to recurrent education for adults at their own speed.

In general, Community Centers are facilities which have only the potential for local citizen mobilization; they are the least aggressive of the three modes. They provide meeting opportunities and a locus for all kinds of citizen action, they further community integration and can help prevent elitist isolation of special interest groups, for instance, the rich in separate club facilities. But their actual use depends largely on cultural traditions, utilitarian mobilization of citizens in action programs (as in the case of Costa Rica) and/or a normative mobilization through a society's underlying doctrine (as in Israel, or Tanazania, or China). The use of Centers is basically a rural tradition, and their introduction in urban areas requires the identification of urban neighborhood bases. It is believed that rural communities in all cultures have traditional meeting places—be it the formally designated Center, the dairy where farmers bring the milk each evening, the library, a school, or just an open space in the village. They have always been used to conduct business, make local politics, to complain, fight occasionally, to relax and share festivities. In this form they are a dual society tradition, and the question is whether they can be used to mobilize local resources for modernizing development participation. It appears that the use of the "informal" Community Centers, where people traditionally meet, and their informal leadership in such places, deserve special attention and must be involved if outside mobilizers, such as Development Services, wish to succeed with their projects.

In his recent article on "The Future of Citizen Involvement"[73], Alden E. Lind analyses the post-subsistence stage of the American society, the discontent of man with his social and material environment, the alienation resulting from a concentration on survival in the past, and the importance of the regeneration of trust and satisfaction with the political community. Lind examines eighteen modes of citizen participation and finds *four dimensions for successful citizens' involvement* which can help to guide Development Services activities in communities.

- Accessibility: the sheer availability of modes for involvement, their program timing so that citizens are able to participate, and the application of techniques which require the least time investment from citizens;

- Schedule Coordination: Ombudsmen or centers require less schedule coordination—by maintaining accessibility—than conferences or other mass schedules;

- Information and Media Properties: They differ widely among modes from limited citizens' complaints, specific to long-term and multiple purposes (like community development boards or committees). According to Lind: *"More people are seeking multiple, general involvement and cherish the intrinsic rewards from collective endeavors."* Thus, the nature of information, the technique and the communication environment—treating citizens as co-participants—are most significant for mobilizing citizens.

- Process Embeddedness: The involvement must satisfy multiple interests, as individuals are constantly motivated by multiple needs. Social institutions and programs are now evaluated in terms of their integrative properties, how much one mode of citizen involvement versus another, will help to develop coherence in the following respects:

  – provide citizens with access to all parts of involvement programs,

  – provide officials with a way to continually inform citizens of the officials' sense of priorities so that they can be reviewed by the community as a whole,

  – facilitate the open and comprehensive information of coalitions,

  – expand information and knowledge so that people have a greater sense of both their history and possible future.

Viewed from such a wider citizen involvement perspective, Development Services have an unrecognized significant potential for mobilizing communities they serve. To bring this potential to bear it will require local action-planning processes, community organizing approaches, and a clearer distinction of the variety of mobilization roles for both citizens and volunteers.

4. *Supporting Development Services through provision of funds, volunteer time, housing, equipment et cetera, on the part of individuals and groups represents utilitarian mobilization of additional assets.*

This fourth area of mobilization capacity developed somewhat "around the edges" of the program of Development Services, especially for those which are government supported. For non-governmental organizations it often plays a decisive role of survival, especially in form of those **contributions which are provided in kind**, for example: the room and board for volunteers in local communities received by CSV in the UK, KVDA in Kenya, Thammasat University Service in Thailand. In the case of KVDA, the local community also supplies the building materials for local construction projects and the board members serve voluntarily in a staff capacity. This is possible, because this service has a full-time program of only about 2-4 weeks in each community. For that period, the mobilization effect is very strong, and after the volunteers have left the community, the maintenance of the project requires a continuous higher level of internal mobilization than in the previous stage. Under such short-term conditions, the variety of projects is limited and primarily is restricted to construction projects. That is to say, that such an intensive but short-term mobilization can take place under either dual, or modernizing society conditions, but the projects themselves cannot initiate modernizing development which requires a longer outsider role. Whether such an intensive and short-term involvement in the support of a service is able to spark normative mobilization in the community cannot be answered. For the individual volunteer one can assume that this is the case, as discussed earlier.

The most important aspect of support mobilization for Development Services concerns their **fundraising activities** both to maintain the operations of the service and to conduct financial assistance programs.

Fundraising for service operations is crucial for non governmental services (NGO's), even though in most countries they receive some governmental support in recognition of the public services they perform. An exception are many NGO's in the United States which have, for the most part, a solid sponsorship base by churches, foundations, other philantropic groups, business, etc. Of the Development Services evaluated, the Community Service Volunteers in the UK have the broadest public and private support. It is believed that CSV was able to expand and maintain this support over so many years, because:

- they employ as volunteers young people in need of opportunity to grow, to contribute, to prepare for a job, to gain acceptance by society;
- they delegate the management, supervision and personal support for the volunteer to the local communities or institutions they serve;
- they prepare these institutions to receive the volunter;
- they rapidly respond to new needs and are in the avant-garde with new programs (as difficult as this often is for the small staff).

This modus operandi indicates that CSV is able—in terms of Etzioni—to continuously bring new assets under their control, the volunteer, the receiving institution or community, the new program needs. And this represents a high level of internal mobilization which is then matched by externally mobilized funds, i.e. the external assets brought under control by CSV. These examples demonstrate that internal mobilization in Development Services precedes the mobilization of external assets, be it funds or contributions in kind.

Fundraising for financial assistance programs is conducted only by CUSO in Canada and by Peace Corps in the US. Both programs were described in Chapter 7. In the case of CUSO, funds are raised for small discretionary projects up to $500, requiring local matching funds of the same value. Financial needs, are identified by volunteers and the communities they serve, and decided by CUSO field staff. In the case of Peace Corps, funds are raised for the School Partnership Program which primarily finances materials to build schools (in some cases community centers) in rural communities in PC project countries. The village supplies the land and the local manpower to build the school, and often Peace Corps volunteers are assigned as teachers in the initial phase.

In both cases, CUSO and Peace Corps use public appeals and detailed information leaflets to describe the needs in recipient communities for their fundraising purposes. Here, normative mobilization is the approach to support: sharing in the same values of helping and giving. This mobilization has not necessarily a modernizing effect on local development participation; in contrast, it can very well maintain dual society dependencies through benevolence. Only if the financial contribution is used for gaining active knowledge, expanding production, enabling upward mobility, is a higher level of development participation achieved.

5. *Dispersing authority, supervising and advising Development Services as individual citizens or representatives of groups in the institutional bodies of the service represents democratic societal mobilization.*

This is the highest form of citizen participation, that of authority and decision-making. It concerns the volunteers themselves, staff and citizens outside the service called to participate. This form of mobilization is largely dependent on the legal structure of the service and was discuss-

ed in detail for each category in Chapters 4-7. Three principle forms of organization to mobilize have been identified:

- **Membership Organization**: Development Services centered around membership of volunteers, such as, Canadian University Service, World University Service Canada, Community Service Volunteers in the UK, and the Danish Volunteer Service. Citizens—primarily students, volunteers (both former and current) and individuals in their personal capacity—form the basic authority of these services as they assemble. From the Assembly, Boards are elected and derive their power. Membership organizations, through their individual members, are embedded in local communities—but are more exclusive. As indicated earlier, such voluntary organizations tend to mobilize more high-status than low-status people and re-inforce their separateness—unless program provisions are made to counteract this trend. Here, CSV differs for example from CUSO—and can differ because it is a domestic service. CSV undertakes a special program effort to extend membership participation—and also of volunteers, which is identical—to the handicapped, minorities, the poor, young offenders, etc. For a Foreign Volunteer Service—even if the necessary tougher selection requirements result in some form of exclusivity—the local membership basis is especially crucial to provide the much needed home basis (see discussion Chapter 7.) CUSO demonstrates this best, as they not only provide membership participation through the Assembly, but through Local Committees which conduct large parts of the CUSO program in Canada. Thus, CUSO has evidenced a higher degree of internal mobilization than other Foreign Volunteer Services because, as Etzioni would describe it, the organization has brought more assets under its control: the members' volunteer manpower involved in a large variety of activities from dispersion of authority, to participation in policy development, to the conduct of program tasks.

  The Danish Volunteer Service is different, and as part of Mellemfolkelight Samvirke, has not yet been able to internally mobilize the membership potential beyond the election of board members. It will be interesting to observe how this non-governmental, but completely government financed, Foreign Volunteer Service will proceed to expand its assets, raise the level of internal mobilization and take advantage of the membership potential.

- **Program Organization**: Development Services centered around programs for volunteers, such as: all Training and Employment Schemes, with the exception of the Kenya Village Polytechnics which have some form of local membership structure through their community Management Committees. Also included are: all Study-Services, the Social and Technical Development Services in Kenya, Indonesia, Thailand and CYC in Canada, and the Foreign Volunteer Services in Germany, Netherlands and the US—in fact all governmental Development Services are program organizations for others. Here, citizens are primarily a manpower resource, and do not participate in authority or management of programs. This means that their embeddedness in local communities is less intensive than in membership organization and concerns only two areas of mobilization capacity:

  - to obtain acceptance of the service with the volunteers' families and home communities, (see No. 1 of this Sub-Chapter), and

- to achieve participation in development on the part of the receiving community (see discussion under No. 3.)

There is a third approach, how these services can expand on their internal mobilization—despite the limits set by the legal structure—and that is through provisions for participation of volunteers and staff in policy development and decision-making. Participation in policy development is most often channeled through formalized volunteer feedback procedure and reporting, regional meetings of volunteers and staff and conferences concerning specific policy issues. In most of these instances, volunteers and staff do not participate in the decisions on policy issues—unless they have formally elected representatives on the boards or councils of such services. In most cases, however, the representation of volunteers on such boards is small in number and fairly low in status, as they are outnumbered by the representatives from governmental agencies or other interested institutions. Program Organizations favor this latter approach, to invest their limited external mobilization capacity, i.e. the limited board positions, to gain control over assets they need for additional resources (funds, influence) or for the use of their outputs (jobs for graduating volunteers). Through the representatives on their boards of governmental departments, business, educational institutions, foundations, Development Services raise their external mobilization and improve their effectiveness. These are the enabling and functional linkages described for each category in Chapters 4-7. Thus, Development Services which are organized around programs (instead of members) have (1) a limited internal mobilization capacity, (2) rely primarily on external institutional mobilization (in contrast to external citizen mobilization), and (3) need to introduce special structures and procedure to expand their mobilization capacity.

- **Participatory Program Organization:** Development Services established for volunteers but with additional far-reaching provisions for participation in decision-making which, in effect, make them services of volunteers. In order to raise their level of internal mobilization, these services attempt to overcome their legislative shortcomings through the introduction of the new decision-making structures and procedures. They go beyond the limited volunteer representation on their boards and have developed "grass-roots" decision-making structures which operate quite similarly to local membership bodies. The most notable example is the German Volunteer Service (DED) with its "participation in Decision-Making Bodies" (Mitbestimmungs Ausschusse) and volunteer and staff Assembly (Mitarbeiter Konferenze). The DED participatory set-up and procedure is described in Volume II, Compendium No. 24 and discussed in detail in Chapter 7. This internal mobilization of DED was made possible by the joining of three forces: (1) "grass-roots" discussion by volunteers on the meaning of their service followed by demands for more opportunities to participate in decision-making, (2) executive leadership sensitive to and in favor of internal mobilization, and (3) independent chairmanship of the Council providing superior guidance and support, and not confined by political or career dependencies.

This mobilization of volunteer and staff resources for decision-making concerns not only the election of volunteers to the DED Council and Staff Assembly, but also significant roles in:

developing work program priorities, preliminary decisions on future projects (they require approval from the DED Regional Conferences, Headquarters, and the Ministry of Economic Cooperation in Bonn), transfer of volunteers who failed in their assignment, the right to appeal and arbitration in cases of volunteer:administration conflicts. These provisions represent an internal socio-political mobilization of the DED above the normal level of membership organizations, which are often content with the electoral role of their members. CUSO comes closest to this level of mobilization. The difference is, that CUSO's Local Committee participation occurs in Canada—which gives it a firm home base, whereas the DED's volunteer groups operate in their host countries—often time-consuming and sometimes distracting from project obligations—but with a firmer grip on project policies. Thus, CUSO is weaker in participation in project policies, while the DED lacks a firm home base.

In another area of comparison: the DED is less exclusive than CUSO, because their voluntary recruitment addresses the open employment market, at all skill levels, while CUSO is tied to institutions of higher education. Unfortunately, the trend in recent years to higher skilled and professionally specialized volunteers has increased the exclusivity of the DED—and of CUSO—and reduced their external mobilization capacity to attract volunteers from all walks of life. The DED also invests more staff time in its participation in the decision-making process—which contributes to the unfavorable staff:volunteer ratio, higher unit costs and a reduced efficiency. Here again, CUSO and DED differ. While CUSO disperses its participatory functions with unpaid volunteer members before or after completion of service, the DED must resort to the paid volunteer and staff time during service assignment. Thus, economic limitations and internal mobilization efforts are brought into trade-off position by legal structures. And somewhere down the line the question is: "How much participation can an organization afford?" Etzioni confirms this when he says[42]: *"Mobilization has a cost."* Some energy is expended to increase the level of mobilization to bring about the changes within a societal unit. In the case of CUSO this energy is unpaid voluntary membership-power, and in the case of DED, paid volunteer and staff manpower. Etzioni continues, that mobilization has a rising marginal cost, i.e. the transfer of each additional segment of assets of sub-units to unit control costs more than the transfer of the previous segment. This means in the case of DED, further expansion of participation power to volunteer units will be more expensive. And finally, at a certain level of mobilization, any additional increase will cost more than the gains in assets that may be achieved. That the DED suffers more under this cost limitation than CUSO, is of course, related to the difference in legal structure. While CUSO has all the provisions for internal mobilization through its form of membership organization, the DED must earn this level of internal mobilization by additional inputs into participatory structures and processes.

In this fifth area of mobilization capacity, Development Services demonstrate the highest level within the hierarchy of partaking they are capable of achieving—that of dispersion of authority and decision-making on the part of participating citizens. That—in accordance with Maslow's hierarchy of needs—represents the highest social value of the mobilization capacity of a Development Service; the self-fulfillment of development participation, the control of the assets by its citizens.

WHAT THEN ARE THE ELEMENTS OF CITIZEN PARTICIPATION IN DEVELOPMENT SERVICES?

1. An **overall development policy** on the part of Development Services which furthers modernizing organization of both sending and receiving societies to facilitate local development participation.

2. A **detailed mobilization policy** which addresses:

   (a) the normative mobilization of acceptance at home and in the receiving community;

   (b) the expansion of the mobilization capacity of the Development Service related to organizational structure, program inputs and program tasks;

   (c) the relationship of the Development Service with the receiving community in terms of internal leadership guidance, local action-planning processes, community organizing, outside volunteer roles, sparking mobilization take-off and turn-over to internal elites, and specification of other mobilization modes and techniques;

   (d) the external mobilization of support for the Development Service organization and its program by individuals, groups and institutions;

   (e) the dispersal of authority and participation in decision-making in terms of internal mobilization of volunteers and staff, and the external mobilization of individual citizens and institutional representatives.

3. An **organizational structure and procedure** of Development Services which provide diversified entry points, internal and external, for mobilization at various levels, including participation in:

   (a) Program Inputs, such as:

      - public affairs relations, especially by local communities both at home and in host countries;

      - organizational decentralization and delegation of management functions (including volunteer administration) to local communities;

      - financial and material support on the part of project agencies, individual citizens and community groups.

   (b) Program Tasks, such as:

      - volunteer selection participation by receiving communities;

      - volunteer training participation by recipients and outside professionals, especially from the employment system

      - increase of joint work programs with citizens in receiving communities.

   (c) Leadership and Supervision, such as:

- establishment of membership-type local structures for participation of volunteers and staff in the decision-making of the service;
- dispersal of authority in institutional bodies by volunteers, staff, outside individual citizens and institutional representatives providing enabling and functional linkages for the service.

As long as the overall policy of a Development Service consistently aims at development participation of the internal assets of the service and the receiving community, a high level of citizen mobilization is ensured.

In Summary

Citizen Participation in Development Services has the following specification:

1. It is a mobilization process for development participation which increases involvement over a previous stage.
2. New assets brought under the control of a service represent a higher level of mobilization and include:
   (a) volunteer and local community manpower
   (b) funds in cash and contributions in kind to support:
      - the Development Service organization and operation
      - financial development projects
   (c) new norms, values, by changing attitudes of participants.
3. Development Services are organizations representing as such a higher level of mobilization for the duration of the service period. The internal mobilization level is enhanced by close to 100% investment of volunteer manpower assets, low costs per volunteer man-year and the "sparking" of participation in their recipient communities.
4. Development Services apply the following forms of mobilization:
   (a) utilitarian mobilization, involving volunteer and local community manpower and investment of funds, to initiate modernizing organization of local communities in order to achieve development participation;
   (b) normative mobilization to change attitudes and set new values through:
      - acceptance of the service idea by families and public,
      - modernizing organization, training and work programs within the Development Service,

- joint work projects with villagers in modernizing forms of development,
- linkages with recurrent development education and employment.

(c) coercive mobilization in the case of obligatory services with the goal to provide learning and work/service experience to the total population of a specific age group, enable them to contribute to urgent development needs and change a legal to a moral obligation. Thus, the ultimate goal is to mobilize new cultural, social and economic values essential for national self-reliance and self-fulfillment.

(d) societal mobilization on the local community level to respond to a broad range of local needs through a variety of projects and provide upward mobility to the larger society.

5. Development Services primarily play the role of the outside mobilizer in local communities which requires the following conditions:

(a) to conduct the outside mobilizer role under the guidance of the internal leadership in local communities—neither outside volunteers nor experts possess role characteristics which would enable them to omit this guidance,

(b) to train and use other means of knowledge transfer, to build new internal sub-elites prior to mobilizing the community itself,

(c) to apply action-planning as an ongoing process on the local community level, constantly linking planning, action and feedback steps as a means of adjustment to the ongoing development mobilization,

(d) to use community organizing procedures to identify existing or to form interim or permanent structures which are capable of carrying the modernizing development process,

(e) to design work programs on the basis of "the community is the project" principle in order to permit mobilization take-off and turn-over to local elites according to the intrinsic schedule of a project, and enable the outside volunteer to proceed to new tasks within the same community.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

While the policy issues of Recurrent Development Education and Employment-Oriented Development concern the future direction of program tasks of Development Services, the development of participatory structures and mobilization processes embraces the entire institution of the service. It has beeen found that, when higher levels of Recurrent Development Education and Employment-Orientation are achieved, the level of Citizen Participation is raised as well. Development Services in their modernizing attempts are, in general on "the right track". Missing is the detail and consistency:

- *detail in knowledge of the field of Recurrent Development Education, Employment-Orientation, and Citizen Mobilization, and how best to achieve a future-oriented direction in each area;*
- *detail in policy setting goals and priorities in line with the needs in the three areas;*
- *detail in action-planning as an ongoing local process to bring policies closer to local realization;*
- *detail of design of organizational structure, volunteer roles and program methodology to expand opportunities for involvement and mobilization;*
- *detail in arranging relationships between sponsoring governments and Development Services; between Development Services and their local communities.*

These specifics are complex, and there is no illusion that easy answers can be found. But—in the detail lies the master!

It is thus, that the earlier **recommendations** *are summarized here:*

1. *to review Development Services' organizational structure, policies and programs with respect to details related to the three policy issues,*
2. *to set in motion a discussion and decision-making process on the findings of the review, and*
3. *to test evolving new policies and programs in a few pilot communities both in industrialized and developing countries with special attention paid to the rural areas of the latter.*

After close to 20 years of performance as trouble-shooters, emergency measures, as outsiders and "do-gooders", Development Services have come into their own, and their regular societal role as part of a national guidance system appears more clearly. Coming back to the earlier question on the relationships between program inputs and program tasks these answers were analyzed in Chapters 4-7 to the extent the evaluation materials permit. Replies to the next question raised in the beginning of this study, as to which program tasks are most important and result in the greatest good, are contained in Chapters 8-10. Together, the assessment in

Part II and Part III of this study reveal that Development Services are Social Movements to the extent that they aim at removing deprivation resulting from blocks in societal structures which prevent the realization of legitimate expectations of people for education, employment and participatory government. This realization of expectations in the three policy areas will have consequences for Development Services:

1. The leadership should consist of action-planners, contain more professionals than politicians or ideologues.

2. The relationship to governmental agencies should be in the nature of collaboration as partners rather than of supervising powers which divert valuable manpower and funds for unproductive administrative activities.

3. The role of Development Services as Social Movements within a societal guidance system is primarily that of mediator—mediator on behalf of the volunteers and of the recipient communities for access to education, employment and upward mobility.

4. Community mobilization and institutional linkages to education and employment are the most effective means to improve conditions for wider access to equal opportunities.

5. Feedback procedure which routinely report program performance in the three major policy areas, applying nationally agreed indicators, should provide data to enable:

   (a) identification of current access to education, employment and levels of mobilization

   (b) specification of unmet needs and possible innovative future alternatives

   (c) review of allocation of resources (volunteer manpower and funds).

PART IV

COOPERATIVE RELATIONSHIPS

This last Part of the evaluation is devoted to two relationships:

- foreign assistance provided to Domestic Development Services in developing countries and
- partnership-cooperation among all kinds of Development Services in all parts of the world.

At the start of this study it was assumed that foreign assistance to Domestic Development Services provides a direct approach to people in developing countries, especially those in rural areas, who are left outside the development process and are in special need of training, employment and other professional attention. From this assumption arose various questions:

- What foreign assistance was provided in the past and what were the experiences?
- What are the conditions under which the internal mobilization process of citizens is not interfered with by the presence of foreigners or outside funding?
- What are the indications for future international cooperation between Foreign and Domestic Development Services beyond the current "giver: receiver" relationship and the dependence that ensues?

Chapters 11 and 12 attempt to provide answers to these questions.

FOREIGN ASSISTANCE TO DOMESTIC DEVELOPMENT SERVICES 11

Foreign assistance is part of a broader set of international relationships which evolved after the Second World War with the advent of the development era. Because the broader international scene influences the scope of foreign assistance considered in this Chapter, as well as other forms of cooperation among Development Services discussed later in Chapter 12, it is appropriate to briefly review the ramifications of foreign assistance in the development process.

Foreign assistance implies a "giver:receiver" **relationship** which emerged during the post colonial development era between countries, organizations and individuals. It stemmed from the imbalances of wealth and access to equal opportunities, knowledge of which came out into the open when, after World War II, nations achieved independence, and communications significantly expanded information about their situation, conditions and affairs around the globe.

Foreign Assistance is a **relationship characterized by differences** between the "giver" and the "receiver", between countries and people, differences in:

- control of assets of aid
- extent of decision-making power
- consequent influence on decision outcome and dependency on outside conditions
- personal wealth and monthly income
- living standards
- mobility and information
- access to project management and supervision
- societal status, "pecking order".

Foreign assistance originated in social, economic, political and value causes. For Development Services, these causes are described in detail in Chapters 4 through 7. In response to these causes, foreign assistance is an attempt to mobilize human, financial and attitudinal assets to

help close the gaps between the rich and the poor. Therefore, **foreign assistance is a mobilization concept.** The starting proposition was that aid to developing countries would mobilize local manpower, financial and value resources to enable countries to help themselves, that imbalances in wealth should be moderated, that peace would be fostered around the world, old alliances maintained and new friendships created. Today, we know that such a proposition was too simplistic: aid alone does not close the gaps between the rich and the poor, and it does not necessarily create friends. The reasons are manifold and range from the continued control of assets in the hands of a few internal elites in dually organized societies of developing countries (as discussed in Chapter 10), to population explosion, to the "giver:receiver" conditions maintained by industrialized countries as noted above. Thus, from a foreign assistance point of view, the continued internal control by the few elites *and* the "giver:receiver" relationships pose incompatible conditions for the success of such assistance—they conflict with the mobilization concept and the goal of local equal development participation. It will be the concern of this Chapter to probe the factors that cause conflict in foreign assistance to Development Services and to determine how they can be minimized.

Further, to complete this review of the international relations within which foreign assistance operates, **trade between industrialized and developing countries** must be mentioned. Since the start of this decade, trade has become the dominant concern as a mode to close the gap between the rich and the poor countries. While trade is still dominated by the terms set by the "giving" countries, the "receiving" poor countries have a bargaining position because they have control over some assets, primary goods such as oil, certain metals and agricultural products. The awareness of their control over important trade assets has led to the forming of—what Amitai Etzioni would call[42]—**more diversified sub-global systems** which *"externally contextuate the majority of the countries in the world."* They include the group of the non-aligned developing countries, OPEC, UNCTAD which increasingly is becoming a new global system for regulation of trade relations, and the European Community and its aligned developing countries. Today we also know that trade alone cannot produce a more equitable distribution of wealth, but that trade and aid together—as the two sides of the same coin—form one set of relationships which can help in obtaining this goal. The discussion in the United Nations on the "New Economic World Order", and the European "North:South Conferences" aim at re-alignment of trade and aid relationships between the rich and the poor countries to fulfill the basic human needs for all, and enable a fairer distribution of wealth, and access to opportunities for education, employment, and upward social mobility. This is a very complex task which should be accomplished without destroying the existing productive capacities in the world today—even though most people agree that it will require a reduction in profits and certain living comforts enjoyed by many in industrialized countries. It is obvious that easy global answers are not in sight. It is also obvious that cutting down these world-wide problems to comprehensible size will help initiate small steps, on the local level in the right direction. This too is a concern of this Chapter and the one that follows.

Finally, the diversification of new and old sub-global systems has created a new **awareness of interdependence and the importance of self-reliance.** For developing countries, self-reliance in the control of their economic policies according to their needs and lessening of dependence on "Northern" technology and development patterns, is essential to survival. But self-reliance is equally a social value of a higher order. It represents human dignity, self-respect for history and cultural traditions and self-fulfillment as a modern nation. Hence, the new nations regard self-reliance as a pre-condition for interdependence. At the same time, interdependence is not only a trade or economic concept, but also has political and social value ramifications. The

increased awareness that our world is small, that our resources are limited, and that most national decisions in one region affect all of us, has brought home to most people the realization that peaceful relationships are a pre-condition for survival. Peace, it should be recalled from the discussion in Chapter 7, is the materialization of a common truth[23] and the removal of structural violence[47] which prevents peoples' self-determination and participation. Peace, as concept of common truth and removal of structural violence, then is the precept and common denominator for:

- modernizing development participation
- self-fulfillment as persons and communities,
- self-reliance as nations, and
- interdependence in the control of economic, social political and value assets.

Thus, from a global perspective, **interdependence and self-reliance are interrelated peace concepts.**

It is within this broad context, and with these changes in perceptions and relationships during the past decade that the discussion here must be viewed. While this Chapter will focus on the past and current foreign assistance experience to Domestic Development Services (DDS), the aid side of the coin, Chapter 12 will address future equal partner relationships.

OVERVIEW OF SPONSORS OF FOREIGN ASSISTANCE TO DDS

In the past, the following types of foreign assistance programs were conducted:

- Personnel through assignment of experts or foreign volunteers
- Financial
- Equipment/material through provisions in kind
- Staff development through training seminars and staff exchange
- Policy and program development through international seminars, regional directors' conferences and directors' visitation programs.

From a volume point of view, personnel assignments, staff training and policy and program development conferences dominated the past foreign assistance to DDS. In overall perspective, the other types of assistance played a lesser role—as important as they may have been for an individual receiving service.

For foreign assistance institutions, aid to DDS was—in most instances—of lesser importance. This is indicated by the fact that the assistance provided to such services was not easily identifiable as a separate category; it was hidden in larger program sectors such as social services, technical training, community development, etc. This is especially true for assistance provided by governmental departments and the United Nations agencies. In addition, in many instances, the DDS as the "receiver" was not clearly identified in the records of the "givers" Such summarizing of aid under a more general program, as for example, the assistance to the Benin Clubs 4-D as part of the UNDP/FAO agricultural extension service, indicates such lack of "receiver" profile. It also can prevent a more dovetailed investment of the limited outside resources to those areas where the largest gain in effectiveness can be achieved.

The assistance provided by Foreign Volunteer Services, International Coordinating Bodies (ISVS, CCIVS), other Domestic Development Services and many non-governmental organizations, indicates a clearer perception of what DDS are all about and, consequently, a better grasp of the type of assistance needed. This, of course, could be expected as their own operations and realm of experience is most closely related to the DDS in developing countries. The depth of these common grounds of design and operations became evident in the analysis in Chapters 2 and 4 through 7.

Assistance by Governments:

Foreign aid departments of government are another bilateral source of assistance to Domestic Development Services which have provided both personnel and financial and equipment aid, including:

- **Long-term assignments of experts** for planning, programming and implementing of DDS schemes. Primarily Chile, Germany, the United Kingdom, and Israel provided such aid. Receiving countries included: Cameroon, Central African Republic, Chad, Costa Rica, Congo, Dominican Republic, Gabon, Ivory Coast, Lesotho, Liberia, Malawi, Niger, Togo, Zwaziland.

- **Short-term assignments of experts** for consultant services concerning identification of needs, program development, and/or management assistance. For example, Chile, Israel, New Zealand, the United Kingdom and the United States have carried out this type of assistance program.

- **Financial and/or equipment assistance** was provided for the establishment of training capabilities (especially for Training and Employment Schemes), for food or clothing for volunteers or specific support of work projects. For example, governmental agencies of Canada, Denmark, France, Germany, Norway, Sweden, the United Kingdom and the United States supplied such assistance.

United Nations and Related Agencies:

The United Nations early helped with sporadic projects to assist children and youth, but started late to conceptualize assistance to DDS as a comprehensive scheme for youth mobilization, training and employment.

In 1962 the **International Labor Office** (ILO) was first to draw attention to the importance of Training and Employment Schemes[136] and continued to advance the idea of youth manpower development through out-of-school plans[136,137,139].

Assistance by ILO to national youth service type organizations in the early years included expert advice and provision of funds for: Jamaica, Tunisia, Mali, and review missions to Malaysia, Sudan and West Iran.

Unfortunately, **ILO did not continue its support for these Development Services which, in** their terms link technical training, apprenticeship-type situations, civic learning and community service. ILO eliminated the emphasis on the service aspect. It appears that the problem behind this change of direction is of structural nature: the labor unions represented in ILO conceived the volunteer schemes with their equal and low pay for all participants in conflict with their union policy. They also conceived volunteers as job competitors to their union members. This in one area where, so far, no linkages have been established, and where more dialogue is required to overcome barriers created by special interests.

The **United Nations Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO)** also belongs to those agencies who early supported efforts of rural youth work, mostly in the form of farmers' clubs, modeled after the 4-H Clubs in the US. Apart from these earlier part-time efforts, rural youth projects have increasingly focused on agricultural training and work projects, and changed to full-time activities. Full-time projects receiving FAO financial assistance and advice include the Development Services in Jamaica, Benin, Malaysia, Thailand.

In 1970 **The United Nations Childrens' Fund (UNICEF)** decided to assist Domestic Development Services—often jointly with ISVS and other organizations—on a case by case basis. UNICEF assistance focuses on:

- Assistance to governments in developing their national youth policies;
- Support of staff training for Domestic Development Services, preferably on the subregional and national level through provision of scholarships or operation funds. UNICEF co-sponsored staff training seminars for DDS carried out by ISVS, through either headquarters funds or scholarships from regional offices in Kenya (1971), Ivory Coast (1972), Philippines (1973), Panama (1970), Chile (1971 and 1972), Colombia (1973).
- Financial assistance to individual Training and Employment Schemes to improve their youth training capabilities (Malaysia, Thailand); carry out development projects (nutrition through BUTSI, Indonesia); or to help settle former participants in self-employment (revolving loan scheme for participants in Kenya's Village Polytechnics);
- Convening of regional or sub-regional conferences for identification of needs and development of new direction for action. Most notable in this respect were the conferences, prepared locally with participation of local experts, in

  Egypt, Lomé[155], Togo, Guatemala City, Guatemala, which formally acknowledged the role and importance of national volunteer development services.

UNICEF also commissioned two evaluations[18,156], affecting DDS for guidance of their future programming. In general, in the past, UNICEF had the most innovative approach of foreign assistance to DDS within the UN family, with a strong emphasis on decentralization and local participation.

The United Nations Development Programme(UNDP), in the past, has primarily provided financial assistance and in a few instances supported the assignment of experts: Technical Aid was received by:

- the Jamaica National Volunteer Program, in cooperation with ILO and FAO;
- the Clubs 4-D in Benin, with FAO being the executing agency which also assigned two experts on a long-term basis;
- BUTSI, Indonesia, for the financing of two long-term foreign experts (the same who were previously supported by ISVS and UNICEF).

UNDP also sponsored, within the UN General Secretariat (Office of Technical Assistance, Department of Social and Economic Affairs), an Inter-Regional Youth Advisor for Africa, Asia and Latin America who spent much of his time travelling through the various regions and advising governments on national youth service-type of activities.

The **United Nations Volunteers**, under the jurisdiction of UNDP, has assigned volunteers to the Jamaica National Volunteer Program and is gathering its first experience in DDS assistance. In principle, UNV is now in charge—on behalf of UNDP—to coordinate and advise on all UN assistance programs to DDS.

The **United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO)** has sponsored many country missions and seminars devoted to the out-of-school education of youth, including those within Development Services. In a 1966 mission report to Tanzania[59], Guy Hunter emphasizes the importance of a national youth service for rural youth education and employment. Since then, UNESCO has conducted single or joint missions with ILO, IBRD and others to Benin, Chile, Ethiopia, Madagascar, Senegal and Sudan. In 1969, UNESCO co-sponsored with the Government of Denmark an "Interregional Seminar on the Training Seminar of Professional and Voluntary Youth Leaders" which followed the 1968 Danish/ILO sponsored "Interregional Seminar on National Youth Service Programmes". At this early stage of opening up the discussion on Development Services internationally, both seminars clearly assisted in information exchange, even if they did not produce new concepts or program approaches. Finally, UNESCO provides continuous support to CCIVS on the basis of the latter's membership status A for consultative and associate relations, and often works through them in supporting national or local DDS.

The **International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD)**, in short the World Bank, began in July 1971 to include "non-formal" education projects in its lending policy. This was a breakthrough from the past exclusive support of secondary/technical and tertiary education. Also, the Board of Excutive Directors decided to include in this new lending policy the support of Domestic Development Services in developing countries. In order to identify the priority of needs for "non-formal" education, a study was commissioned to the Inter-

national Council for Educational Development, which is now available: "Attacking Rural Poverty, How Non-formal Education can Help"[19]. While data was being collected for that evaluation, IBRD also conducted missions or considered bank loans—which would include support of DDS activities—to Colombia, Benin (Clubs 4-D), Upper Volta, West Irian, among others. In some instances World Bank officials reported difficulty in lending for "non-formal" education projects—and for DDS' for that matter. Developing countries reportedly hesitated to take loans—and increase their indebtedness—for "non-formal" efforts when "formal" education—which is still the only internationally acceptable system for career development—has not yet reached its desired extent. It remains to be seen whether Recurrent Education now being introduced on the international level in all regions of the world, will help to overcome this barrier.

Non-Governmental Development Organizations (NGO's)

Addressed here are the many non-governmental organizations which provide development assistance, in contrast to those which give emergency aid. They constitute by far the most diversified group of sponsors of foreign assistance to DDS, and include various church services, earlier peace groups, YWCA, YMCA, labor unions, the many work camp organizations, charitable (CARE, OXFAM) or training organizations (ORT). Typical for most NGO's are two development assistance approaches:

- development assistance to counterpart organizations, primarily in form of personnel and funds, to church groups, labor unions, the Ys in developing countries, and
- charitable assistance as short-term aid by way of food, clothing or small amounts of financial aid.

In the first case, personnel is chiefly assigned on a long-term basis primarily to church groups and labor unions, and one may question whether some of them belong to the categories of Development Services defined here. Volunteer work camps operate differently; they join together as an international group for short-term projects, maintain equality of treatment and status within the group and are often established with the help of outside funds. A classical example is the Kenya Voluntary Development Association (founded by the National Christian Council of Kenya and the Quakers) which receives assistance from the World Council of Churches and individual National Councils of Churches. It is both the strength and the limitation of assistance to these NGO's that they focus on cooperation with their ideological counterparts. As discussed earlier, these NGO's in developing countries are based on imported models from industrialized countries, and not on indigenous schemes, and they are elitist. Here assistance can be an indication of dependence on the foreign "master model", if no internal resources are mobilized. The Kenya VDA has achieved internal mobilization to some extent by adopting a non-denominational charter which emphasizes the development of an African concept of service. Through volunteer staffing and a strong local community integration for both a brief training period and joint work programs, the service has expanded its home basis. Even though KVDA is still dependent on foreign funds, this strong internal mobilization has established the service's self-reliance and profile in its own right. This question of self-reliance of NGO's in developing countries deserves further study.

The second case concerns material assistance provided by CARE, OXFAM and others to DDS' on a limited basis. The few examples in project countries are described in Table 66. On the part of the "giver" it is considered as charity or emergency aid not different from those provided to other institutions. That is to say, no special profile of relationship has developed between these donors and the receiving DDS'.

A third arrangement of foreign assistance through NGO's can be observed in a few countries: that of an executing agency for aid from governmental departments. For example, the Canadian CIDA carries out many foreign assistance projects through Canadian NGO's. In a similar fashion, SIDA in Sweden has provided a large portion of assistance through Swedish NGO's, looking to the elimination of the governmental Foreign Volunteer Service program. In the US, the Advisory Committee on Voluntary Foreign Aid of the Agency for International Development[8] reflects the new emerging partnership between government and NGO's in recommending an amendment to the Foreign Assistance Act which *"shall directly encourage and support, to the maximum extent practicable, the international assistance efforts, aims, and activities of US voluntary agencies."* The idea is that many of the NGO's can help governmental departments to render more effective local foreign assistance, and the resources of government will help NGO's to expand on their capabilities and take advantage of available human resources.

Foreign Volunteer Services

Of all the different foreign assistance agencies, Foreign Volunteer Services are the natural partners for providing such assistance to Domestic Development Services because they belong to the same family of organizations. Their common causes for establishment—and consequent similar objectives—their common characteristics in organizational structure and program design, form a solid basis for various types of interrelationships.

Some FV Services assist other Development Services in conformance with their **mandate or major policy.** As examples:

- The US Peace Corps Act of 1961, as amended, in Title III stresses the encouragement to other countries to establish their own volunteer programs. The provison of staff consultancies, volunteer assignments, training and work program materials and funding of multi-national volunteer programs is envisaged. Here, assistance to other Development Services is an integral part of the original Peace Corps mandate (for details see Compendium No. 20/1 in Volume II).

- The Council of the German Volunteer Service, in its September 1973 session, for the first time stressed: *"Support of and cooperation with domestic youth and development services will be an additional priority of the activities of the German Volunteer Service."* Soon thereafter, on December 3, 1973, the Articles of Incorporation (Gesellschaftsvertrag) were amended in paragraph 2 dealing with the purpose of the organization: *"(1) The association shall, through sending volunteers to foreign countries and through support of domestic youth and development services, contribute to a cooperation between the Federal Republic of Germany and developing countries."* (See also Compendium No. 24, Volume II).

- The Dutch Volunteer Service, at their Staff Conference in April 1974, decided to accept the Declaration of the ISVS Conference "Towards New Patterns of Community Service" as their policy for support of Development Services abroad. This Conference was hosted by the Irish Volunteer Services and the Irish Committee for UNICEF and brought together for the first time experts of DDS' from all regions of the world. A copy of this Declaration is contained in Appendix B-3.

- And finally, with the termination of ISVS in 1976, the United Nations Volunteers took up an expanded mandate to support DDS' activities in developing regions through advice, seminars, UNV assignments and other multi-national activities. This step went beyond the earlier designation to involve youth in the United Nations programs.

Most often, Foreign Volunteer Services gave assistance through **assignments of volunteers** to DDS in developing countries. The services of Belgium, Canada, Denmark, France, Germany, Japan, Netherlands, Sweden, United Kingdom and the United States have five to ten years and more of experience in assisting these DDS. Most foreign volunteers were assigned as trainers, teachers or work program specialists to transfer their technical expertise to domestic volunteers, primarily in Training and Employment Schemes. In his publication on "Domestic Development Services"(00), Helmut Weyers describes a variety of these assisting relationships.

Additionally, **staff assignments** to DDS are only reported from Peace Corps. According to Title III of the Peace Corps Act, PC staff helped for a limited period of time in the planning and organization of national volunteer services, for example in Ghana and Panama.

Financial or material assistance to DDS by Foreign Volunteer Services was restricted to small scale contributions of training materials, tools or scholarships for counterpart training. The Canadian, Dutch and Swedish Volunteer Services, Peace Corps and the German Volunteer Service have provided small funds to DDS on a bilateral basis. Peace Corps, in addition, from their Title III provisions participated in the funding of multi-national staff training, seminars and consultancies to Domestic Development Services. Germany, beginning in 1974, had for the first time funds allocated for multi-national assistance.

Domestic Development Services

Here, outside assistance was not provided by the DDS institution itself but by **individuals** who have been affiliated with DDS, either as founding directors or leading staff members. Individuals from DDS of industrialized, and increasingly from developing countries, rendered such consultant services. Often, the financial sponsorship for such assistance was provided by a third party which was interested in seeing that their expertise was transferred to other DDS. It is primarily this transfer of experience from another service that is of value for the "recipient, because their common ground in terms of design and operations makes them most compatible, as the analyses in Chapters 4 through 6 indicate. Thus, many problems of knowledge, understanding and cultural barriers between the outsider and the "receiver" are reduced from the outset. The foreigner is perceived more as a colleague than a "giver": the common culture of DDS professionalism dominates this relationship.

It is impossible to present a complete roster of the many individuals who have given long-term or short-term assistance to DDS. Therefore, the following account shall stay for the many who have given time and devotion to a concept which was not glamorous but in which they believed.

- **Long-term Assistance** by individual experts or small teams has primarily been carried out by Israel. Based on their domestic service experience with the Gadna Youth Corps, the Moshav and Kibbutz Movement Volunteers and the Nahal, current and former professional staff were assigned through the Israeli International Youth Cooperation Center to many DDS in Africa, including, Benin, Cameroon, Central African Republic, Chad, Gabon, Ivory Coast, Kenya, Lesotho, Malawi, Niger, Rwanda, Senegal, Swaziland, Togo, Zambia. Assignments to Latin American DDS included Colombia, Costa Rica, El Salvador, Ecuador, Panama and Venezuela. These experiences have been most valuable and will be assessed in the next Sub-Chapter.

  Outstanding is the work of Patrick van Rensburg and his wife Liz, who were the prime motors behind an educational work/service program which became the Botswana Brigades. When they arrived in Botswana in 1962 as South African exiles holding British citizenship, they intended only to settle in Botswana and help to educate the young. As it turned out, they developed the Botswana Training and Employment Scheme through the trial and error of their experiences as primary teachers and initially used their own funds. It was a combination of factors which enabled them to begin their secondary education project: land was granted by the head of the Bamangwato tribe, financial contributions came from the Ethical Union in Britain, a multi-racial volunteer work camp from the South Africa Work Camp Association, and volunteer work was performed by their own students. Mr. and Mrs. van Rensburg are now Botswana citizens and their "Report from Swaneg Hill"[101] is a fascinating document of individual initiative carried on over a long period of time.

- **Short-term Assistance** by individuals from DDS has been carried out widely. Dr. Alec G. Dickson, Founder of the British Voluntary Service Overseas (VSO) and the Community Service Volunteers (CSV) has been untiring in his dedication to render his counsel to other services. He is now Honorary Director of CSV and—apart from his assistance to Nigeria[27] which will be discussed in the next Sub-Chapter—he has provided planning and programming services to: Bahamas, India, Hong Kong, Malta, Nepal, Papua/New Guinea among others. His expertise covers community services in response to problems such as education, youth unemployment, juvenile delinquency, out-of-school education. In most cases, Alec Dickson received third party financial sponsorship from the British Council or the Commonwealth Foundation.

  From developing countries, valuable individual consultant assistance has been given by Dr. Washington P. Napitupulu, the founding Director of BUTSI in Indonesia, to committees of ECAFE, UNICEF and the World Council of Churches. More recently intraregional assistance to other DDS in Asia has become a major concern. From Sri Lanka, A.T. Ariyaratne, the founding Director of the Sarvodaya Shramadana Movement, has widely counseled from his own experience on the advantages of village level community services as a wholesome self-development of people. He addressed

primarily DDS in Asia and Africa. From Israel, Pinhas Gonen and Mordechai Herr provided programming assistance to Nigeria[51], while Shlomo Achituv advised the Jamaica National Volunteer Programme in their rural youth development efforts. Helmut Weyers, the former Regional Director of ISVS, and now with UNV in charge of DDS, believes that many DDS today can be traced to ideas and influences of individuals who themselves came from a volunteer service background. He has observed that Father Le Bret, O.P. *"served as an 'eye-opener' and his influence can still be felt in volunteer service efforts in Lebanon, Paraguay, Peru, Senegal and Zaire."*

These few represent the many others who frequently rendered help—often without entering into a formalized assistance relationship. In many instances the individual's ability, rather than his affiliation with a specific service, attracted the request for assistance. On the other hand, without this affiliation and the reputation he aquired in developing a DDS, it is unlikely that he would be considered capable of rendering assistance to services in other countries.

International Volunteer Service Coordinating Bodies:

The Council of the **International Secretariat for Volunteer Service (ISVS)**, at its Tenth Session in October 1969, for the first time assigned priority to "Provision of technical assistance to domestic volunteer programs." During the Fourteenth Session of the ISVS Council, in May 1973, this priority was reiterated in Resolution No. 4 (XIV), urging the Secretary General "to continue and intensify contacts with such international organizations and institutions and share the experience gained on Domestic Development Services in developing countries with the aim of spreading the idea of domestic volunteerism." In addition, the ISVS Council invited the Secretary General at the same Session (Resolution No. 10 (XIV) "to submit periodic reports on the usefulness of technical assistance activities as well as on the evaluation of results."

As early as 1964, ISVS developed—and improved over the years— a **sequence of assistance programs** to Development Services for both governmental and non-governmental sponsors, and irrespective of whether they were member countries of ISVS. The aim was to support existing DDS—and Foreign Volunteer Services for that matter—or to help with the establishment of new Development Services. Most assistance was provided on a country or regional basis, and the sequence of programs was interrelated and designed to render support to different operational needs.

- **Regional Directors Conferences** addressed directors of DDS or governmental officials concerned with such services in Africa, Asia and Latin America. For Foreign Volunteer Services in Europe, North America and Japan, annual Directors' Conference have been conducted since 1965. Directors' Conferences were policy and leadership oriented and focused on exchange of experience under the guidance of the participants. Directors' Conferences of Foreign Volunteer Services were not recorded in order to achieve maximum communication. They are still considered one of the best forms of support that ISVS provided to Development Services. Directors' Conferences in Africa, Asia and Latin America also identified regional needs and formulated assistance requests for intra-regional staff training, individual consultancies special seminars on DDS issues and concepts or requests for Multi-national

Volunteer Teams (MVTs). Since the termination of ISVS, UNV has moved to continue some support for intra-regional activities in Africa, Asia and Latin America. Foreign Volunteer Services in Europe have linked up with the Regional Conference on International Voluntary Service, formerly in Brussels and now in London, which is affiliated with the Council of Europe. Services in North America have—as yet—not found or formed any regional or supra-regional affiliation for mutual support.

- **Regional and Sub-regional Training Seminars** were conducted between 1970 and 1974 for staff—or potential staff— of Domestic Development Services in Africa, Asia and Latin America. The purpose was to assist in the development of management capabilities and to broaden the view of services regarding alternative approaches to DDS programs. An assessment of these training seminars is contained in the next Sub-Chapter.

- **Special Issue Seminars, Workshops or Conferences** were sponsored between 1964-1975 and focused either on policy or on operational issues. Participants primarily included the directors of services, governmental and international officials concerned with them, and professionals in specific fields. One might call these meetings a mode of global and mutual assistance, since much of the "state of the art", which is today commonly accepted, was developed during the give and take at those seminars. Issues ranged from volunteer selection (Netherlands 1966), training (Switzerland 1968), evaluation and research (Germany 1968), and Study-Service Schemes (Ethiopia 1973), to roles of Development Services in rural mobilization for self-help (Zambia 1974), grassroots response structures for health services (Philippines 1974), urban development (Hong Kong 1974), peace efforts (Germany 1970), and the resolution of social conflict (Austria 1971). These gatherings in the various regions of the world grew from an initial descriptive character in the early years to more analytical and concept oriented seminars. A complete list of both the training and issue seminars is contained in Appendix B-2.

- **Individual Consultancies** to governments or to DDS were sponsored to assist either in the establishment of new organizations or to expand and improve existing services. They included:

  — Short-term assignments of experts (1-2 weeks and up to three months) to Bolivia, Colombia, Dahomey, Ivory Coast, India, Jordan, Kenya, Lesotho, Malawi, Nepal, Peru, Rwanda, Singapore, Sri Lanka, Sudan, Thailand, Trinidad and Tobago. Between 1971-1973 ISVS provided nine experts for planning and four for programming purposes to DDS' in these countries.

  — Long-term assignments of three experts (6 months-2 years) to Costa Rica, and the Dominican Republic for planning and program support.

The assistance provided by experts will be analyzed in the next Sub-Chapter.

Between 1970 and 1974, representatives from 24 African, 15 Asian and 15 Latin American Countries **participated** in one or more of these various ISVS assistance programs.

In order to carry out these activities, ISVS obtained the cooperation of **resource personnel** from the following countries: Belgium, Chile, Costa Rica, Colombia, Egypt, Ethiopia, France, Germany, Indonesia, Iran, Israel, Ivory Coast, Kenya, Lebanon, Malawi, Panama, Philippines, Singapore, Switzerland, United Kingdom, Upper Volta, USA, Zambia.

Financial Contributions, in cash or in kind, for these assistance programs came from Chile, Costa Rica, Colombia, Dahomey, Denmark, Dominican Republic, Israel, Kenya, Norway, Panama, Philippines, Sweden, Switzerland, USA, Zambia, and UNICEF. These contributions matched the limited funds ISVS was able to budget.

The **Coordinating Committee for International Voluntary Service** (CCIVS), has focused its activities on stimulating international discussions, concept development on the role and importance of DDS, and challenging existing structures, especially those supported by government. It provides services primarily through publications, international conferences every other year, and individual assistance through consultant assignments. No detailed information concerning actual projects of assistance and cooperation was made available for this evaluation, as the Board of CCIVS had adopted a policy of no-cooperation with any activity sponsored by ISVS.

This concludes the review of sponsors of foreign assistance to Domestic Development Services. It indicates that the importance the various agencies assign to such services is directly related to their knowledge of this subject matter. The following assessment of the various methods of foreign assistance will further explore this finding.

ASSESSMENT OF FOREIGN ASSISTANCE TO DDS

The major modes assessed in this Sub-Chapter cover:

1. Financial Assistance
2. Material Assistance
3. Personnel Assistance: Experts
4. Personnel Assistance: Volunteers
5. Provision of Services: Staff Training and Exchange.

These modes will be discussed irrespective of the source of sponsorship reviewed previously. Examples will be taken primarily from the Devlopment Services and Foreign Assistance Institutions which participated in this evaluation (see Tables 1 and 2).

1. FINANCIAL ASSISTANCE

Here these questions are raised: What funds have been provided? Who provides them and for what purpose? Who receives them? and finally, What are the results and experience?

Table 66 displays the financial assistance received by Domestic Development Services co-operating in this study.

Table 66. FINANCIAL ASSISTANCE TO DDS

Domestic Development Service	Amount Received U.S. $	Year	Purpose	Foreign Assistance Institution
1	2	3	4	5
AFRICA:				
Benin: Clubs 4-D	?	1967-68	Implementation of program	OXFAM, US Freedom from Hunger Campaign
	$350,000	1973-77	Program support, extension service	UNDP/FAO
	?	Loan under consideration	Program support	IBRD
KENYA:				
National Youth Service	$3½-million of loan	1971	Replacement of heavy duty equipment provided to ORT for technical training assistance	AID
	? grant	Beginning late 1960's		AID
Village Polytechnics	$29,400 grant ?	1973-75	Expansion of program Local operations, equipment	NORAD, Norway OXFAM, CARE, Save the Children's Fund
	amount ?		Revolving loans for self-employment after completion of service	UNICEF
Voluntary Development Association	Amounts unknown		Program support	—World Council of Churches —various foreign voluntary organizations —Danish Interchurch aid
	$1,000 per year			
ASIA:				
INDONESIA: BUTSI	$45,000	1968-70	Implementation program support	ISVS; Rockefeller 3rd Fund
	$22,500	1970-72	Program support Applied Nutrition Program	UNICEF
	$60,000	1972-74	Support for 2 experts	UNDP
	$1,200	1974	Publication of Village Technology Handbook	OXFAM
	$1,250	1974		ISVS
MALAYSIA: National Youth Pioneer Corps	$25,000	1972	Workbenches for Workshop Training	UNICEF
THAILAND: Thammasat University Service	$7,400	1973-74	Support of 6 vols.	CUSO
	$2,300		Support of 4 vols.	CIDA – Canada
	$2,000		Extension of Program	Ford Foundation
Rural Youth Leadership Training	$205,000	1971-75	Training equipment and supplies in Regional Training Centers	UNICEF
LATIN AMERICA:				
COSTA RICA: National Youth Movement	$10.000		2 Buses and Audio-visual Training Equipment	UNICEF
PANAMA: National Volunteer Service	?	1967	Program support	US AID
	?	1970	Staff Training	OAS

Most of the data in Table 66 are self-explanatory. A few comments will give examples of the kind of relationships these funds created.

Benin's Clubs 4-D receive significant financial aid through a four year UNDP/FAO project in support of rural extension service. Program support includes: women projects, agricultural credit system for settlement of young farmers (former Club 4-D members), assignment of 3 FAO extension experts plus administrative back-up, local staff training (civil servants), provision of farming tools, seeds, fertilizer and foodstuff for Club 4-D members. Benin matches this foreign contribution with $116,100 in national funds over a 4-year period (of which $74,400 are contributions in kind). The provision of foodstuffs was used to serve volunteers one warm nutritious meal per day, for up to two years, prepared by the participants themselves as part of their training program. However, in some instances, this provision of food clouded the real purpose of this service in the minds of some parents. They took it as a children's feeding program instead of a training and work/service scheme. Thus, they did not serve an additional meal when the volunteers returned home at night. This, in turn, resulted in insufficient nutrition for the participants. Quite a number decided to drop out, stay at home, and consequently to be fed at home. In this case the supply of warm food did not improve nutrition nor did it provide learning, or a local participation incentive.

Another issue was the provision of farming tools from FAO to local clubs such as saws, hammers, planes, hoes, knives, rakes, shovels. They never used saws, hammers and planes because nobody knew how to work them. The supervisor of a Club (who was himself an agricultural extension worker) admitted: "I can't use them myself," and "when we have extra funds (from the sale of Club farm products) we will buy our own tools."

These are small examples, but hundreds of similar cases are well known. What they suggest, however, is that great care must be taken by transferring part of the financial aid into the provision of materials in kind. It seems that it is often impossible for a foreign assistance agency to plan in advance or assess what the consequences of such provision of materials may be—unless the local community in the receiving country participates in the decision as to the kind of materials needed.

Another example, was the continuity of foreign support to **BUTSI** in Indonesia, from four different agencies during the first six years of its existence:

- The John D. Rockefeller 3rd Fund provided a grant for the implementation of BUTSI. This grant was requested and managed by ISVS, and included the assignment of two consultants for three short-term assignments (see Table 67). The Rockefeller 3rd funds furnished the necessary assistance to finance the take-off of BUTSI during 1968-1970.

- After two years UNICEF took over and continued financing the two consultants, who had previously worked with ISVS, for a period of 6 months, and provided program funds for BUTSI by involving volunteers in the UNICEF Applied Nutrition Program in remote rural areas. At the end of the UNICEF capital assistance in 1972, BUTSI was integrated into the National Development Plan and did not require outside financing for regular program expenditure.

- After UNICEF, UNDP continued the financing of the same two experts for another two years during which they would provide 12 months of service.

Their function was then to assist in the rapid expansion of BUTSI and help in the implementation of the Study-Service KKN at Indonesian universities.

All in all, the data reveal that the total financial assistance provided to DDS is insignificant with respect to amount and number of cases, and in comparison to the funds spent by foreign assistance institutions in other areas.

Of greater significance for the assessment of results is the question: **When is financial assistance needed?** Foreign funds are most needed on three occasions:

- **At the start** when a new Development Service takes-off and until governmental or other local sponsors are convinced that it is worthwhile to support such a program . Examples: Benin Clubs 4-D, BUTSI/Indonesia, Thammasat University Service Thailand, Kenya Village Polytechnics. BUTSI, for example, required outside financial assistance for a period of about 5 years until it was fully integrated into governmental financing within the national development plan. This occurred after BUTSI had demonstrated its usefulness.

- **At a certain stage of development** when a service requires significant geographical or volunteer expansion (Village Polytechnics), or changes to another level of quality of program. For example: the training certification of Malaysia NYPC, Thammasat University Service, Kenya's NYS, and BUTSI.

- **When the** type of work program requires **high investment in equipment.** This is the case with the Kenya National Youth Services heavy duty equipment for land clearing, road construction and other earth works. Comments from Thailand and Malaysia indicate a negative reaction to volunteer projects that require high equipment investment, such as house construction. It was determined that it is too difficult to secure from other sources a regular supply of equipment and materials in order to keep the volunteer work effective.

An exception to this pattern is the Benin Clubs 4-D which receive foreign funds for continuous operations, and seem to require more to achieve the ultimate goals of settlement of the trained farmers and self-employment of the rural craftsmen. It appears there is more than one reason why these dependencies on foreign funds developed (see previous comments). One is that Benin is the only developed country evaluated which has limited resources for innovative programs. Another reason, no doubt is the dual organization of society which—in this case—is supported by the manner outside financial assistance is provided. Together they prevent development participation and upward mobility to a significant degree.

The third aspect of financial assistance experience concerns the question: **How were the foreign funds obtained and provided?** Again, three patterns seem to emerge:

- The **straight bilateral arrangement** for a cash contribution on the basis of a request, followed by a contract between two partners. This is the case for assistance to the Kenya NYS by US/AID, Thailand's Thammasat University Service by Canadian sponsors, and to the Malaysian NYPC by UNICEF.

- The **assistance of an intermediator can attract foreign funds** to a Domestic Development Service which would otherwise not have been provided directly:

- In the case of BUTSI/Indonesia, ISVS played the role of the "go-between" to attract capital assistance from the Rockefeller 3rd Fund which financed the implementation phase of the first two years (from 1968-70). Toward the end of the two-year period, ISVS further assisted inthe negotiation with UNICEF, both at regional office and at headquarters levels, to ensure continued outside financing until Indonesia was prepared to include the service in their 1973 National Development Plan.

- In the case of the Village Polytechnics and the Voluntary Development Association in Kenya, the National Christian Council played the role of "go-between" in attracting funds from other churches, the World Council of Churches, and from the Kenya government.

- In the case of the Kenya National Youth Service, US AID played the role of intermediator and grantor and made possible the services of ORT (Organization for Rehabilitation and Training, Geneva, Switzerland) to improve the standards of technical training up to Grade III of the Trade Tests.

- **The personal attraction and relations of an individual:** In the case of the Thammasat University Graduate Volunteer Program, the founder and first Director obtained the initial foreign contributions, and at a crucial step of consolidation and expansion of the service because of his personal prestige and international connections.

Conclusions:

Financial assistance as such does not enhance international cooperation between DDS and two or more foreign assistance partners. Only people cooperate. In other words, the provision of funds will always be conducted in a "giver-receiver" relationship and cannot be changed to partnership and reciprocity—unless aid changes to trade under equal terms. But such a contingency is not the subject of this study. At this point it is important to note that provision of funds from some foreign institutions to a DDS in a developing country, will always be "technical assistance". An equal term relationship between DDS in developing countries and a foreign assistance agency—including Foreign Volunteer Services— cannot be realized through financial assistance.

However, outside funds are needed by DDS at certain points in order to raise the level of citizen mobilization and development participation over a previous level:

1. For the final planning and the implementation stages of newly formed Domestic Development Services to set up an organizational unit, develop staff and train the first group of volunteers, and implement pilot work projects. Support for investment in buildings and high cost equipment should be excluded.

2. For the expansion of volunteer programs. This can include support for:

- increase in number of volunteers
- movement into new regions: geographical expansion of volunteer projects;
- setting up of a permanent office and hiring of staff for a defined period of time, to enable institutionalization and consolidation of leadership by changing from an earlier part-time staff, or civil servant transfers from other departments, to in-house staff development.

3. For upgrading the quality of the DDS program, including:

   - improvement of workshop, technical, vocational and agricultural training to qualify for technical training standards for trade certification. This often implies investment in better training equipment in workshops (UNICEF supplied these funds to Malaysia and Thailand);
   - improvement of technical training staff through added technical teachers for staff, or through change of hiring practice and employment regulations;
   - improvement of the quality of the work service aspect in Study-Services, for example: participation of faculty in service, integration of work-learning into academic learning.

Caution is urged with financial assistance provisions which permit or require the transfer of funds into the supply of materials or equipment. Their local need should be carefully evaluated in advance (as was the case with the UNICEF financed work benches for NYPC in Malaysia), and the receiving agency *and* the local community should specifically request this type of material. Where possible, locally produced equipment and materials should be preferred.

From a citizen mobilization point of view, outside funds provided by any foreign assistance agency will have a participatory effect only if these new assets come under the control of the internal, "receiving", local institution. So long as these funds are commanded largely by the "giver"—both in terms of conditions attached to them and the schedule of actual disbursement—no new assets are mobilized and development participation remains low. The same, of course, is true if the funds received are not expended for the purpose they were intended, are absorbed in heavy overhead, and do not reach the people who expect help through these resources. Thus, there are two critical steps to affect mobilization through outside funding: between the foreign "giver" and the national "receiver", and between the latter and the local community as the ultimate "receiver".

2. MATERIAL ASSISTANCE

This section concerns equipment and materials which are provided in kind to DDS in developing countries. Excluded are materials provided out of financial assistance and discussed previously. There are only a few instances known where materials in kind were provided by foreign sources:

1. In 1964, the Kenya National Youth Service received at its inception, 500 pieces of **heavy duty equipment** (bulldozers, grade scrapers, rollers, cranes, etc.) from US AID out of used surplus materials. This equipment was needed to start the large scale work projects of land clearing, road construction, etc. This used equipment was replaced in 1971 with the help of a $3½-million "soft loan" from AID.

2. At the same time KNYS received from AID, **clothing and some foodstuffs** for volunteers, for the take-off period of the service.

3. Foreign volunteers assigned to DDS in developing countries often have been equipped by their sending organizations with **tools or small equipment** to fulfill their jobs as trainers of electricians, radio repairmen, carpenters, etc. Most Foreign Volunteer Services have a policy that volunteers, after completion of their term, turn over these tools and small equipment to the receiving agency, in this case the DDS. The Japanese, German, Dutch, Danish, Norwegian, Swedish and Austrian services, for example, follow these policies.

4. In a similar approach the Government of Israel provided, in the implementation phase, **seeds, fertilizer, some jeeps,** etc., alongside their long-term experts assigned to many Training and Employment Schemes (see also Table 67).

5. In a different approach, foreign volunteers helped to provide or **develop equipment and material** for the Benin Clubs 4-D.

   - Dutch volunteers developed simple bookkeeping ledger and guidelines to keep track of farm production both in the Club, and for the period later when club members are settled on their own plots;

   - Peace Corps volunteers, together with 4-D volunteers, constructred a number of storage silos for various Clubs.

From these few examples no conclusion can be drawn, except to state that the provision of materials or equipment in kind rarely occurs. It can, though, be of significant help at certain junctures, such as the take-off of a service, when no cash funds are available. It is not a means to permanently—or on a long-term basis—support a DDS program as the aid to the Clubs 4-D in Benin has indicated. From a "giver" point of view, the provision of materials and equipment may be the only way to contribute and mobilize additional local resources at home

A different matter is the joint development, between local and outside volunteers, of an appropriate technology. Here, not foreign but local materials are used, but the foreign expertise makes their application possible. This kind of material assistance has a high participatory effect.

3. FOREIGN PERSONNEL ASSISTANCE: EXPERTS

Foreign experts are assigned in three different approaches:

- Short-term assignments of expert teams, primarily for planning or program evaluation purposes, and often in conjunction with preparation of financial assistance;
- Short-term individual assignments of experts, primarily for concept or policy development and establishment of frame of references for planning;
- Long-term assignments of expert teams or individuals as advisors and/or staff assistants to the director of a DDS for support of implementation of programs, organizational and staff development.

Table 67 displays the patterns of foreign expert assignments to DDS in project countries in terms of volume, purpose and source of assistance.

Table 67. FOREIGN EXPERTS IN DDS IN PROJECT COUNTRIES

Domestic Development Service	Number of Experts	Duration of Assignment	Purpose	Foreign Assistance Institution
1	2	3	4	5
AFRICA: BENIN[a] Clubs 4-D	1	part-time 1965-67	Stimulation and Planning of Clubs	FAO
	3 admin. staff	full-time -1977	Program support-extension service	FAO[b]
	3	5 months 1973-74	Project Review Mission for Determining Loan	IBRD
KENYA National Youth Service	6	full-time 1964-70	Management of Volunteer Units	Ministry of Overseas Development, U.K.
	1	1965-66	Youth Leadership Training	Government of Israel[c]
Village Polytechnic	1 5 (4 Norwegian, 1 British)	part-time 1972	Overall advice, evaluation of program curriculum development	ILO NORAD, Norway
NIGERIA: National Service Corps	1	3 weeks 1970	Consultations and submission of planning proposal	Individual[d] expert sponsorship by the British Council
	2	3 weeks 1971	Survey and Development of Planning Proposal	Government of Israel[e]
ASIA: INDONESIA: BUTSI	1 2 1	3 wks/1967 4wks/1969 3 wks/1970	–assistance in planning -implementation	ISVS, John D. Rockefeller 3rd Fund[g]
	2	6 months 1971	Assistance Nutrition Project; development of Staff	UNICEF
	2	6 months 1972-73 6 months 1973-74	Expansion of program, staff development; assistance to study-service scheme	UNDP[h]
MALAYSIA: National Youth Pioneer Corps	3	2 months 1971	Evaluation of NYPC to determine further assistance	Interagency Mission[i] of FAO, ILO, ECAFE for UNICEF
LATIN AMERICA: COSTA RICA: National Youth Movement	2 1 1 1	1965-73 1965-7 1973-4 since 1974	Stimulation, Planning and Program in all areas Program adviser	Government of Israel[j]
	1 1	3 mos/1971	Programming	ISVS, Santiago
	1	since 1973	Staff program assistance	ISVS Santiago
PANAMA:[k] DIGEDECOM: –National Volunteer Service	2	1965	Stimulation and Planning of service	Peace Corps, US
	1 2	3 mos/1974 1 mo/1971	Programming Assistance	ISVS
	2	6 wks/1970	Program evaluation jointly with DIGEDECOM	US AID[l]

Explanations for Table 67.

(a) In addition to the Clubs 4-D, Jeunesse Pionniere, a National Youth Service type organization in Benin between 1963-1973 received the assistance of 5 initial, later 2, Israeli Program Advisors.

(b) Taburet, Annette: *Strengthening Agricultural Popularization and the Settlement Program for Young Farmers*, mimeographed, Report No. 2 UNDP DAH/72/027/A/01/12, Dahomey, April 1974.

(c) In addition to Benin and Kenya, the Government of Israel has provided long-term assistance through assignment of experts from 1963-73 to National Youth Service type organizations in Africa: Cameroon, Central African Republic, Chad, Gabon, Ivory Coast, Lesotho, Malawi, Niger, Ruanda, Senegal, Swaziland, Togo; in Latin America: Colombia, Costa Rica, El Salvador, Ecuador, Panama and Venezuela. In 1973 a total of 56 experts worked on long-term assignments in DDS abroad.

(d) Dickson, Alec G.: *Proposal for Nigerian National Service Corps* (Student-service scheme); ISVS Resume No. 64, 1971.

(e) Gonen, Pinhas and Herr, Mordechai: *The National Youth Corps in Nigeria*, (Training and Employment Scheme for Unemployed rural youth), International Cooperation Division, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, State of Israel, 1972. In addition to the short-term assignment of experts in Nigeria, the Government of Israel provided short-term assistance in Africa to—Ghana, Tanzania and Zambia; in Latin America to—Honduras and Jamaica. In 1973 a total of 14 experts worked on short-term assignments to DDS abroad.

(f) Quarmby, Andrew and Diana: *BUTSI's First Phase*, mimeographed, BUTSI, Djakarta, 1970.

(g) Fussel, Diana and Quarmby, Andrew: *BUTSI in 1971*, mimeographed, BUTSI, Djakarta, 1971.

(h) Fussel, D., and Quarmby, A.: *Kuliah Kerdja, Educational Experience Through Work for Students of Higher Education*, mimeographed, Discussion paper for Rectors' meeting, Djakarta. 1972.
Fussel, D., and Quarmby, A.: *Progress Towards a National Study-Service Program in Indonesia*, mimeographed, BUTSI, Djakarta, 1973.
Fussel, D., and Quarmby, A.: *National Study-Service Scheme*, Indonesian Observer, Djakarta, February 13 and 14, 1974.
Fussel, D., and Quarmby, A.: *Study-Service, A Survey*, International Development Research Centre, Ottawa, Canada, IDRC-037e, 1974.

(i) *Final Report of the United Nations Inter-Agency Mission to Malaysia Regarding Youth*, Bangkok, December, 1971.

(j) *Un Ejemplo de Accion Juvenil*, Department of International Cooperation, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, State of Israel, May 1968.

(k) Panama also received assistance for its National Youth Movement, beginning in 1971, from 2 Israeli Program Advisors.

(l) *Evaluacion del Servicio Nacional de Voluntarios,* Director General for Community Development, DIGEDECOM, Republic of Panama, 1970.

First, **Short-term Assignments of Small Teams** composed of experts from different professional background, often representing different co-sponsors are reported from Malaysia, Nigeria, Kenya and others.

An interesting example is the UN Interagency Mission (ILO, FAO, ECAFE) to Malaysia. The Minister of Culture, Youth and Sports invited this Mission to evaluate the mandate and performance of the National Youth Pioneer Corps in comparison with the needs of uneducated and unemployed youth. The Mission proposed a re-direction of NYPC towards improvement of technical/vocational skill training in accordance with national standards issued by the Technical Training Board. A certification of skill levels should open apprenticeship type employment in industry or continuing technical education. The acceptance of these proposals led to a re-affirmation of NYPC as a development service. Before the Mission proposal, between 1970-1971, NYPC adopted para-military training because most Corpsmembers found employment only in the Police Cadet Corps and the military. The reasons for lack of employment opportunities in crafts and industry or for continuing technical education, was due to the low level of technical training members received in the camp.

Apparently the reasons for acceptance and implementation of most of the Mission's proposals rested on the following circumstances:

- The Minister himself invited the Mission, and he and his top officials received the results; in other words, the project was in the hands of the appropriate internal leadership, and the actors guiding the decision-making held a central position.

- The three experts carefully evaluated the complexity of the issues and forwarded realistic proposals for change. Thus, both partners were strong—one in conceptual insight and political leadership, the other in professional expertise.

- The timing was right. NYPC was in a stage which required decisions one way or the other, and UNICEF was prepared to invest additional financial assistance (see Table 66) to support an upgrading of technical/vocational training, if the Mission Report would confirm the need for such investment.

A different example was the assignment of an Israeli team to Nigeria. One youth service expert and one agriculturalist, conducted the survey in Nigeria[51] and forwarded a proposal on a National Youth Corps to the Ministry of Labour. Nigeria never acted on the proposal and to this day there is no Training and Employment Scheme for unemployed youth in Nigeria. (See also Compendium No. 9, Volume II). Even though invited by a governmental department it appears that the Israeli proposal came at a time when the internal leadership in Nigeria was not prepared to act upon it.

Finally, a team of the Norwegian Agency for International Development (NORAD) with Kenyan experts jointly evaluated the Kenya Village Polytechnics and submitted a report[62] which contained an overall program appraisal. This feedback evaluation formed the basis for continued governmental support and foreign assistance from NORAD. Moreover, this evalua-

tion attracted other foreign assistance sponsors who were impressed by the Village Polytechnics' performance. (See also Table 68.)

Second, **Short-term Assistance by Individual Experts** is another form of outside aid to Domestic Development Services. Also, as pointed out in the overall review in the previous Sub-Chapter, short-term consultancies are primarily provided by individuals who have had significant experience with DDS, or Foreign Volunteer Services. They were arranged by direct invitation because of personal familiarity, reference, reputation, or assignment through other agencies such as ISVS. As the business of Development Services takes on a "state of the art" in its own right, professionals who possess expertise in various fields become known across national borders. However, there is no central roster or record to which one can turn to identify the right professional for a specific assignment.

An example of assistance of this type is the advice rendered by Alec G. Dickson, Honorary Director of CSV/UK, to the Committee of the Vice-Chancellors of Nigerian Universities (see also Compendium No. 9, Volume II). In his report[27] Dickson recommended the establishment of a Study-Service to be integrated into the academic curriculum and with strong faculty participation. In an interview he indicated that he found a common denominator for all the individual consultancies he has rendered to DDS in many countries. They all have a common need to (a) persuade the educated elite to serve the poor and underpriviledged in their country, and (b) create programs to actually help the uneducated and let them participate in their own development. He feels that both needs are separate societal concerns and not naturally related. Therefore, links must be created between the educated elites and the uneducated poor. From his own experience in CSV, community services are such links which challenge the elites and involve the poor—they represent a combination of normative and utilitarian mobilization. Thus, Alec Dickson's advice is based on the specific conditions in any given host country. For example, he developed a proposal for a maritime corps in the Bahamas with the common theme of participation in community service of all facets of society. In the case of the Study-Service proposal to Nigeria, he submitted his recommendation in 1970. It took two more years until—in a revised form—the Head of State proclaimed the National Youth Service Corps in 1972 as an obligatory service for all university students. Dickson's Nigerian experience offers a good example to learn more about individual assistance relationships:

- The consultant was invited because of his high standing as a professional in the field, and because he was well known to the Nigerian authorities and knew the country well from previous assignments. He came as an individual, financed by the British Council but with no support structure of a foreign assistance agency to back him.
- The invitation for assistance came from a Committee—the Vice-Chancellors of universities—which coordinates educational policies from the viewpoint of the universities, and the Committee was the recipient of Dickson's proposal. The invitation for assistance was issued without knowledge of the students who, when they first heard of the Study-Service idea, resisted it. The consultant, after collecting all data and before submitting his proposal, discussed his findings at length with students and faculty and was able to involve them in the final shape of the proposal.

- The Study-Service proposal contained two challenges to existing power position:

  -- academic learning, by proposing that work/service learning receive academic credit (a challenge to the disciplines which decide what represents academic knowledge in their realm), and

  – faculty members, by suggesting their participation in the work/service part of the program (challenge to the faculty members' status as academic teachers).

Even though the idea for a Study-Service originated with the Committee of the Vice-Chancellors, the following problems prevented immediate action on the proposal:

- The outside consultant—though well respected as an individual professional—in fact rendered "informal" assistance, that is to say, advice which was not based on a formalized relationship between two institutions. He came more as a colleague and communicated well with the Vice-Chancellors—and with the students for that matter—but there was no formalized larger structure supporting and giving status to his advice.

- The committee did not represent the appropriate internal leadership in terms of decision authority, organization and financial resources for a proposal of that magnitude. It would have required strong leadership from the Committee to guide the proposal through appropriate governmental decision-making.

- The content of the proposal challenged to a degree the power and influence of the universities which the Committee represented, further delaying action on the proposal.

Action did come with modifications and NYPC was established when the Head of State as the ultimate authority took the decision in his own hands—and after the challenge to the university was eliminated. In NYPC, work/service is not part of the academic curriculum but a requirement after the academic studies have been completed and before the certificate is issued. Also, the faculty does not participate in the work/service part of the program, in fact, is involved only with Corpsmember training prior to service.

Other individual short-term consultancies like those conducted by ISVS and reviewed in the previous Sub-Chapter, have similar principle characteristics—as one can see from the limited feedback available.

In sum, individual and "informal" assistance relationships—often conducted between colleagues—are most successful when communicating ideas and concepts, and outlining plans for DDS activities. The reasons for success are related to the absence of communication barriers, the common ground of knowledge and broadly based experience. However, the formalization of plans, the development of program proposals and guidance through the decision-making process are often hindered by the lack of formal structure and the unofficial status of this foreign assistance relationship. According to the theories of community decision behavior—as discussed in Chapter 10—action is more likely to occur if a proposal is directed to centralized decision-centers, guided by internal leadership (strong "actors") and clearly communicated

from an institutional basis. The "common culture" of institutions or bureaucracies involved on the "giving" and "receiving" side plays a role in the acceptability of such proposals.

Opinions on the role of short-term foreign assistance through both expert team or individual assignments were obtained in interviews.

Respondents in project countries, both DDS officials and foreign experts gave the following priority to contributions from foreign short-term consultants:

1. Staff training
2. Planning of overall management and of work programs
3. Special technical advice
4. Demonstration projects
5. Program evaluation
6. Definition of youth policies
7. Exchange of experience
8. Demonstration of a common concern for youth.

Major problems with short-term foreign expert assignments were given these priorities:

1. Cannot adapt to the local situation in the short time span
2. Will not acquire enough perspective and understanding to give sufficient advice
3. Leave work incomplete because of short presence and because they are foreigners
4. Lack of counterparts for short-term foreigners; new expectations are created through their presence which cannot be fulfilled because no local staff continues after the foreigners have left
5. Domination, behave as if it were in their own country
6. The more content and design-oriented the assignment, the more difficult to give significant advice in a short time span.

In no case was it acknowledged that the third party role of the neutral professional advisor can be a helpful tool in the hands of the internal leadership. In industrialized countries it is a preferred method of policy makers and management to seek the professional outsider to render that necessary neutral and independent advice which is not "blinded" by day to day operations. It is in these instances—when two strong partners meet—that outside advice is most successful, and it appears that the future trend for foreign expert assistance will emphasize this

short-term role between equally strong partners. It should also be pointed out that while short term foreign advisors cannot mobilize citizens' development participation as such—they certainly can foster—or prevent—such consequence by the kind of advice they render.

In Summary, to be successful, short-term assistance by foreign experts requires the following conditions:

- Strong partners: The appropriate internal leadership on the one side; professional expertise, and cross-cultural understanding on the other.
- A formalized relationship between contractor and advisor sufficient to lend a proposal to appropriate authorities
- An institution and resources available to carry out the advice.
- A timing that coincides with the availability of strong partners and the preparedness of the receiving institution.
- A presentation and communication of proposal content which takes into account societal status and power structures and which addresses both those affected and the leaders who will carry out recommendations.

Third, **Long-term Assignments of Experts** are sponsored by only a few foreign assistance institutions.

The service of **Israeli experts** is the most notable example. The attraction of these advisers rested on two facts: (a) they had a concept of self-reliance and self-help, applied at home and (b) they were practitioners with a vast experience in both volunteer and national service.

Over the years a certain pattern for these assignments of Israeli experts evolved which is of interest:

- Experts were selected and trained for a period of 3 months (including local languages) before assignment abroad;
- They were placed only as advisers, not in a staff capacity, and were not involved in questions of budget and financing;
- Thus, the outsider worked from the beginning under the designated internal leadership
- No expert was assigned without prior training with the receiving organization's personnel. The training was conducted either in-country or in Israel (see also Sub-Chapter No. 5);
- In large projects, joint planning committees were established between the receiving organization officials and Israel's advisors; the foreign experts were thus given an opportunityto voice their opinions in decisions which bear on their work;

- The advisor role was adjusted to three phases of operations of a Domestic Development Service:

  – implementation: establishment of a headquarters office and staff preparation sufficient for the first two or so pilot projects of youth training and related work projects;

  – Take-off: First training courses and work projects to complete one full cycle of operations (1 or 2 years depending on service terms);

  – Expansion/Development phase included: setting up of new training centers, staff development (which is crucial), and follow-up employment schemes (land-settlement for farmers, self-employment for rural craftsmen, etc.)

Experiences indicate that these three operational phases require a total period of 5-8 years. Israeli advisors were assigned initially in groups of 4-5 to assist in implementation and take-off in all sectors of the operations. Once the service expanded, and host staff capabilities developed, Israeli advisors were gradually withdrawn. In other words, Israeli experts applied a gradual turn-over from outside mobilizers to internal sub-elites. The experiences showed that the practice-orientation of the Israeli experts, especially the capability to bring plans into implementation, mixed well with the primarily academic background of their national counterparts. The only critique that could be identified claimed that the Israeli approach was "too perfect", and sometimes a bit hard-driving. In the Fall of 1973, when in the wake of the oil crisis, many African countries cut diplomatic relations with the State of Israel, most of the long-term experts assigned to DDS in Africa were terminated—with the exceptions of those in Lesotho and Malawi. Since then, all of the services helped by Israeli experts have continued their operations on their own strength. This indicates a successful internal mobilization and turn-over through the outside mobilizer role of Israeli experts.

Another version of long-term assignments in this category is that of the expatriate British Officers assigned by the Ministry of Overseas Development to the **Kenya National Youth Service.** This assistance occurred immediately after the independence of Kenya, when the linkages still existed with the former colonial power and skilled staff was needed for the take off of KNYS. In all, the assistance lasted from 1964-1970.

A third version concerns the long-term assignment of an expert team to **BUTSI in Indonesia.** Diana Fussel and Andrew Quarmby worked as assistants to the Director in various periods during 1968-1974. Their assignments lasted from one month to up to six months per year, initially under sponsorship from ISVS/Rockefeller 3rd Fund, followed by UNICEF, and during the last two years under UNDP/UNV contract. They assisted significantly in the development of BUTSI and later the Study-Service KKN[44]. (See also footnotes f, g, h, Table 67.) In a constant give and take with the Director of BUTSI and staff members they—no doubt—made a creative contribution to these services. For their assistance an interesting schedule was applied as they served in intervals of four weeks up to six months and were absent for periods of up to one half year. It helped them to look at their task with fresh eyes when they returned after some months of absence, and it helped the service to keep the outsider role in perspective with the internal leadership. Diana Fussel and Andrew Quarmby now specialize in Study-Services as they believe that a change in education is the key to change of attitudes and consequent development decision-making.

The long-term assignment of experts differs in principle from the short-term in that they are placed in roles very similar to those of the national staff—and they are perceived as staff by recipient colleagues and volunteers irrespective of their title. They are foreigners built into the hierarchy of the organization, and motivated by a drive to accomplish something during their period of service. Because of their special position, they have easier access to the top level management and the decision making authorities—and often use it to achieve their purpose. Yet, upon leaving they wish to turn over their work to national staff who, before, have been so often by-passed. This situation clearly is troublesome and counter productive to the basic attempts to leave a self-sufficient service behind.

In interviews, long-term assignments of foreign personnel were addressed: *"In your opinion how can foreign staff (both volunteers and experts) assigned to this Service on a long-term basis best contribute to the program?"* Here, the responses concerned both the long-term expert and the foreign volunteer assigned in a staff capacity (see also next Sub-Chapter). The replies indicated that the **extent and scope of a foreign staff role differs among the three categories of DDS;**

Training and Employment Schemes assigned the following priorities to areas of foreign staff contributions:

1. Transfer of know-how; training in technical fields; fill skill gaps
2. Conduct staff training in technical skills; curriculum and methodology development
3. Set example of work techniques, accuracy, dedication
4. Plan programs and organization
5. Implement programs in technical fields, but no management or leadership functions should be assigned.

At the same time interview respondents indicated the following problem areas with long-term foreign staff in Training and Employment Schemes:

1. Inadequate knowledge of local situation, problems of adaption and integration with national staff; they remain in their group of foreigners
2. Domination, by imposing projects or programs through direct access to the director; "threat" to regular administrative procedure and to national staff
3. No problems
4. Inadequate professional/technical performance
5. Interference in policy and philosophy of service
6. Host countries depend too much on foreign staff
7. Insufficient leadership on the part of the hosts toward foreign staff.

It appears that Training and Employment Schemes—still—require foreign staff, but in a defined technical role. Respondents also indicated the need for knowledge of the local language, for integration in local communities and for assignments side by side with domestic staff or domestic volunteers serving also in a staff capacity. These problem areas are not surprising; they are not different from assignments of foreigners to other development projects as was discussed earlier in Chapter 7, under work environment.

Study-Services can see only a limited, and well defined, foreign expert role in technical areas to support the student-volunteers' work in the field and give them the necessary technical skill training. They would not accept foreign volunteer assignments in a staff capacity. Interviews also mention the usefulness of short-term encounters with foreign staff for joint sharing of ideas, staff training in a third country, and help for planning future youth development.

Social and Technical Development Services particularly stress the equality between national and foreign staff in terms of work load, position and supervison. Under these conditions, foreign staff is described as helpful for:

1. A challenger role, but not as the "boss"
2. Teacher/trainers, and programming assistants in specific technical areas
3. Impartial evaluators for monitoring operations feedback
4. Generators of new ideas, transfer and exchange of experience.

Under the condition of this partnership approach, the problem areas indicated for foreign staff differ somewhat from those listed for Training and Employment Schemes:

1. Misunderstanding of the foreigners role on the part of both the national and the foreign staff
2. Lack of imagination and qualifications
3. Inability to understand and adjust to different society and culture
4. Language limitations reduce the level of communications
5. Domination in advisory role, "bossy".

These interview responses indicate that the role of foreign staff in Training and Employment Schemes is primarily seen as a technical assistance "giver:receiver" relationship, whereas Social and Technical Development Services perceive—and would receive—the foreigner only under equal partner conditions. The reason behind these differences in perception is, that most past and current technical assistance by long-term foreign personnel is provided primarily to Training and Employment Schemes, whereas STD Services by and large refrained from requesting or accepting such assistance, and only now are entering the field with other forms of cooperation in mind.

Finally, the ranking of factors which contribute to foreign staff success gives an interesting insight on how nationals, the "receivers", view the "giver" and how foreigners perceive their own success factors.

Factors most important for success of long-term foreign staff assignments

Priorities accorded by majority of national opinions	Priorities accorded by majority of foreign opinions
1. Technical/professional proficiency	1. Leadership & understanding for people of different background and culture
2. Leadership & understanding for people of different background and culture	2. Flexibility to adjust to changing conditions
3. Flexibility to adjust to changing conditions	3. Fluency in local language
4. Fluency in local language	4. Technical/professional proficiency
5. Administrative/managerial proficiency.	5. Administrative/managerial proficiency.

It appears, that foreigners—by far—underestimated the technical/professional qualifications expected of them. Instead, they emphasized their leadership role and cross-cultural attitudes which are considered somewhat less important by "receiving" nationals. The higher ranking of flexibility and the knowledge of the local language on the part of the foreigner indicate the anticipation of uncertainties and communication problems. Nationals seemed to underestimate this communication problem, or they consider the knowledge of local languages as less important for the foreign expert. Both nationals and foreigners have a common perception of the lesser importance of administrative/managerial skills.

These replies confirm that there are misperceptions of the role of the foreigner—on the part of both the national and the foreigner. No doubt, these differences in expectations and intentions contribute to the problems of foreign staff. But a comparison between ranking of success factors and problem areas indicates also that it is one thing to perceive a role and another to execute it. It is believed, that a careful selection of foreign experts and a detailed preparation for assignment—including language and cross-cultural preparation—will help to reduce these gaps. But of prime importance will be the planning of future foreign expert assignments which must specify roles, and place the foreigner on more equal terms with national staff in order to reduce the "receiver" and the "giver" differences in work load and responsibilities.

Conclusions on Foreign Expert Assistance

1. Foreign experts are primarily sought for their technical expertise and should be assigned in well defined jobs which are clearly understood by themselves and their national staff colleagues.

2. Areas for long-term assignment preferred by receiving DDS include technical skill training of volunteers, technical and work performance support in projects, and participation in action-planning. The latter is perceived as a continuing process growing out of the feedback from training and work/service programs.

3. Program evaluation is an area especially suited for an outsider under either long-term or short term assignment conditions.

4. Staff development is a major concern of DDS to which the foreign expert can contribute in areas such as:

   - development of professional skill and personality profile for staff recruitment;

   - staff training including technical skills, teaching/training methodology, group dynamics, work analysis, leadership;

5. Long-term foreign experts have a mobilizer role to enable both the domestic volunteer and the local community to partake in development. But, as an outsider in the local community and a foreigner in the country, the expert's mobilizer role is restricted to three main areas:

   - providing the necessary knowledge input necessary for the mobilization process to take-off;

   - to ensure in design and methodology that action-planning processes and program execution do not prevent participation but, rather, invites involvement;

   - to spark mobilization under the guidance of internal leadership and turn over responsibilities to the newly developed sub-elites as a project takes off and develops its own momentum.

6. Leadership roles of foreign experts are not desirable for internal guidance, policy and management of DDS; they are preferred for generation of new ideas, challenges to existing structures and procedures, and for a cross-cultural and cross-national transfer of knowledge and experience.

7. It appears that the long-term foreign expert role as advisor to the director of a DDS will diminish, but that a foreign staff presence on equal terms with national staff will continue in specifically defined assignments. It further became clear that the advice of the short-term foreign expert—as a contractor:consultant relationship—, sought by policy makers and internal leadership of DDS, will be of increasing importance as the services work out their profiles within their own societies.

4. FOREIGN PERSONNEL ASSISTANCE: VOLUNTEERS

It is from the "giving" experience inherent in the assistance provided by foreign volunteers that one can learn whether future cooperation among foreign and domestic volunteers as partners on equal terms will be possible. Table 68 displays the kind of help supplied by Foreign Volunteer Services to DDS' in project countries.

Table 68. FOREIGN VOLUNTEERS IN DDS IN PROJECT COUNTRIES

Domestic Development Service	Number of Volunteers	Duration of Assignment	Purpose	Overseas Volunteer Service
1	2	3	4	5
AFRICA: BENIN*: Clubs 4-D	?	part-time	Establishment of grain silos	Peace Corps, US
	?	part-time	Design of farming, book-keeping systems for Club members	SNV, Netherlands
KENYA: National Youth Service	8	Since 1968 2 year periods	–technical skill training; agricultural, veterinary, welding, motor mechanics, etc;	DUU, Denmark
	7	1973-5	–literacy, general education; –land settlement	Friedrich-Ebert Foundation, Germany
	26	2 year periods since 1970		JOCV, Japan
	16	2 year periods	–secretarial skill training	Peace Corps, US
	requested no. unknown	1974, 2 year periods		DED, Germany
Village Polytechnic	86	2 years	Technical Workshop training	DUU, Denmark
	4	2 years		VSO, UK
	2	2 years since 1971		NORAD, Norway
	5	2 years	Establishment of cooperatives	DED, Germany
Voluntary Development Association	Number Unknown	2-4 weeks	Local community construction work	Students from other countries via Economical Work Camps, World Council of Churches
ASIA: INDONESIA: BUTSI	1	2 years 1971-73	Staff assistance	CUSO, Canada
MALAYSIA: National Youth Pioneer Corps	2 6	5 mos/1970 2 yrs/1972	Technical and Vocational Training	DED, Germany
	1	2 years		JOCV, Japan
National Youth Development Corps	2	2 years	Physical education, sports	JOCV, Japan
THAILAND: Graduate Volunteer Program	1	1971-73	Staff assistance	CUSO, Canada
LATIN AMERICA: COSTA RICA: National Youth Movement	20	1970-72	Work project support for student-volunteers	Peace Corps, US
PANAMA: National Volunteer Service (SNV)	12 foreign +7 domestic volunteers	1971-72	Community development in 2 different communities	Multi-national volunteer team from Austria, Germany, Ireland, Chile, US; Coordinator: ISVS

*In Benin, the Jeunesse Pionniere received the assistance of 3 Israeli volunteers from the Moshav Movement for rural youth and land settlement programs. Assignments are repeated in 2 year terms. Moshav Movement volunteers were also sent to DDS in Jamaica and Iran.

Table 68 reveals that—with the exception of the Moshav Movement which is an Israeli DDS—personnel assistance is provided by Foreign Volunteer Services and not by DDS' from industrialized or developing countries (which played a larger role in furnishing individual experts). Foreign volunteers, except for Multi-national Volunteer Teams (MVT's) served DDS' in a staff capacity.

First, **Foreign Volunteers as Staff** are assigned under bi-lateral agreements between the sending organization and the receiving Domestic Development Services. By far, the majority of foreign volunteers are used in Training and Employment Schemes, primarily for technical training, and to a lesser degree in employment-oriented assignments. Only CUSO sent one volunteer each for one term in the Thailand university service and in Indonesia's BUTSI. In the case of BUTSI the assistance was given to administration, and at the end of the two years' term functions were turned over to a former volunteer who took over this staff position.

The interviews conducted with both "senders" and "receivers" of foreign volunteers reveal the following experiences and main issues:

- Volunteers are received with an open mind; most often favored above the expert whose image is felt to be presumptuous, creating high expectations which are often not fulfilled.
- The expectations that mature volunteers would have technical skills largely was confirmed
- Apart from the widespread acceptance of their skill capability, the personal integration of volunteers into the DDS was more difficult for various reasons:
  - Foreign volunteers who lived outside the DDS facilities had greater difficulty in being accepted than those who chose to take housing from the DDS' camp facilities;
  - Foreign volunteers placed in staff capabilities experienced the problems of a dual loyalty: on the one hand they were volunteers themselves and experienced within their own organizations what it means to be a volunteer—therefore they could often better relate to the domestic volunteers they were teaching, than could the national staff. On the other hand, they were trainers who had to transfer skills and maintain the discipline expected from national staff. Therefore, foreign volunteers also found some common ground with national staff, and especially sympathized with those who had no career security or insufficient training.
  - On the part of the national staff the interview responses indicated that foreign volunteers were well accepted in their technical skill capabilities. There are indications that, the less the policy of the DDS was understood and accepted by the national staff, the less they were open to cooperation with a foreigner; the helper became a "threat".

- The most sensitive area affecting foreign volunteer trainer assignments, is the discipline training carried out by many Training and Employment Schemes. The educational principles and style of discipline training are alien to foreign volunteers. In many discussions during the past decade it became apparent that the difference in perception with respect to discipline training has its roots in different cultural and religous principles, national history and in the different stages of national self-reliance. Also, practical experience helped to form opinions on this issue. For example, when the Zambia National Youth Service, established as a development program for rural youth, began weapons training to a significant extent, which changed the emphasis of the service from development to an armed National Service, the Dutch and Swedish volunteer trainers were withdrawn from their assignments. In another example, German volunteers were withdrawn in 1970—after only five months of assignment—from the Malaysia National Youth Pioneer Corps when it embarked on weapons training in anticipation of later employment by the Police Cadett Corps. After NYPC discontinued weapon training and instead emphasized technical training and employment preparation—as a result of the UN Mission proposals—the German and Japanese volunteers resumed their assistance in 1972. Today, most DDS' and Foreign Volunteer Services have developed a clear understanding of each other's positions: when weapon training is included in a program foreign volunteers will terminate their assignments.

Most Foreign Volunteer Services, over the years, have established their own points of view regarding the assignments of volunteers to DDS' in developing countries. For example, the Dutch Volunteer Service, while in principle interested in cooperation, feels that DDS assignments are not different from those to other development projects and should meet SNV's service conditions. Apart from the political nature of a service, the Dutch SNV encountered problems in arranging volunteer assignments because of different lengths of the service period. The US Peace Corps is willing to accommodate different schedules but reports that they advise against the assignment of volunteers if a service has strong political overtones. Peace Corps is also the only service with a rather comprehensive financial assistance program to DDS via their Title III funds for multi-national volunteer projects (see Compendium No. 20/1, Volume II). The German Volunteer Service (DED) has comprehensively evaluated its DDS assignment experience and developed some guidelines for future cooperation:

- Requests for DED volunteer assignments to DDS' should be handled pragmatically and not on the basis of ideologies;

- Western type youth organizations, such as Boy Scouts, are not well suited for DED volunteers as they do not meet the target group requirements—they are too elitist;

- DED requires a solid and effective organizational framework on the part of the receiving DDS:

  – objectives should be clearly defined,

– DDS must be able to provide its volunteers according to plans and avoid fluctuation in domestic participation.

It appears that governmental DDS' are organizationally more reliable to meet these conditions than NGO's.

- DED volunteer assignments to DDS' have restrictions:

  – no assignments to police-type, military or para-military organizations,

  – no assignments to organizations which follow militantly nationalistic goals and represent only a specific ethnic group within a country,

  – no project cooperation with organizations which operate against their government.

- DED prefers to assign volunteers to those services which aim at the reduction of social and economic differences among people from various societal strata.

All of these experience with bi-lateral assignments of foreign volunteers to DDS' are based on a "giver-receiver" relationship. Foreign volunteers are paid and placed under the conditions and administrative supervision of their sending organizations as described in Chapter 7. Their allowances provided them with a monthly income far higher than that of local volunteers and even staff. Thus, while foreign volunteers receive equal treatment within their peer group and pay at a low level from their home countries' point of view, they still have the characteristics of the "giver" in the eyes of the "recipients".

Second, **Multi-national Volunteer Teams (MVTs)** comprise another type of assistance. Here, foreign and domestic volunteers serve side by side under a multi-national arrangement and under somewhat more equal conditions than the bi-lateral assignments as volunteer trainers. The idea of MVTs was developed by the ISVS Directors' Conferences of Foreign Volunteer Services and was envisaged as a testing ground for new ways of cooperation, especially in the light of the establishment of the United Nations Volunteers. Two examples concern the co-operation between Foreign and Domestic Development Services in MVTs in Panama and Chile.

The **MVT in Panama** was established in 1971 at the request of DIGEDECOM, the Community Development Department under the auspices of which the Panamanian National Volunteer Service (SNV) operated. The purpose was[145]: *". . . to secure the services of a multi-national group of volunteers to work in selected agrarian reform settlement projects with volunteers from Panama's National Volunteer Service in a joint effort to promote community centered and directed economic and social institutions and to strengthen the National Volunteer Service of Panama."* In other words, community organizing and mobilization for development participation was desired in rural areas where agrarian reform had recently helped poor farmers to get settled. Twelve foreign volunteers from Austria, Chile, Costa Rica, Germany, Ireland and USA, and seven Panamanian domestic volunteers participated in two MVTs, each assigned to one community. With one exception—all volunteers—were requested to meet technical skill specializations in areas such as: various fields of agriculture, cooperatives, home economics, nursing, family planning, adult education and youth work. The exception was a generalist, requested for literacy and general community organizing.

The team was coordinated by ISVS. SNV provided both MVTs with four weeks of in-country training. Volunteers from Austria, Germany and USA were contracted, and paid by their Foreign Volunteer Services with the regular conditions for allowances, etc. Volunteers from Chile, Costa Rica and Ireland were sent by their DDS' which could not afford the costs of both international travel and in-country support. Therefore, ISVS supplemented these costs, and the volunteers were paid through DIGEDECOM as the project agency. Panamanian volunteers were assigned and paid by SNV. Thus, while volunteers served under equal work conditions and received similar housing, their level of allowances and other social security conditions differed. As it turned out, the regularity in monthly payment also differed—those paid through DIGEDECOM did not always receive their allowances on time.

In the summer of 1971, major difficulties terminated one MVT:

- lack of intra-group communication; the volunteers had difficulty asking each other for help or in meeting each other's needs;
- lack of work: volunteers did not receive the materials or equipment needed for their work and—as specialists—were unable to organize their community work despite the lack of supporting structures. An exception was the volunteer specializing in cooperatives who was able to develop local support;
- lack of cooperation from other governmental agencies working in the same community which feared the volunteers' competition (many volunteers were more highly qualified than local governmental officials).

While some of the dissatisfied volunteers resigned later in the year, others were transferred to the continuing MVT in the other community. Here, similar intra-group difficulties occurred at first. However, there was a lot of work to do and volunteers had no time to dwell on their internal difficulties. The major aid within this group came from the generalist, who devoted his time to community conscientization through improving, functional literacy, along the methodology of Paulo Freire, which resulted in regular community discussions in the local cultural center. This focus on the community integrated the more specialized volunteers in their work efforts and gave direction for the intra-group relationships. Whether because of the better composition of the MVT that endured, and its communityfocus, or whether the officials were more open minded—in any event, the cooperation from local functionaries contributed to its success.

The major blow for the Panamanian MVT came from DIGEDECOM itself, when changes in the national government resulted in changes of officials and policy in DIGEDECOM. In the spring 1972, DIGEDECOM withdrew from its MVT contract and also decided to close its own SNV. It was, however, decided to continue the successful MVT according to schedule on the basis of the strong community and volunteer support. In negotiations with the Office of the President, the responsibility for the MVT was turned over to the National Institute of Culture and Sports (INCUDE) and their Movement of Panamian Youth. Earlier, in fact in the fall 1971, ISVS had appointed an independent liaison officer on a part-time basis (he was a director of a Panamanian NGO) to conduct negotiations on behalf of the MVT and give volunteers guidance through the difficulties of changes. This appointment proved to be most valuable for the continuity of the project. The remaining MVT completed its term according to schedule in March 1973.

Another example is the **MVT in Chile** which lasted from June 1973 through June 1974. It grew out of a German DED bi-lateral experimental project with ONSEV, the Chilean DDS,

which had its start in 1971. The purpose was to participate in a wider rural development program in the Los Lagos region in fields such as health, education, agriculture, technical training. Twenty foreign volunteers received a regular predeparture training from their sending organizations, joined in a Latin American training in Colombia and finally came together with 20 Chilean volunteers from ONSEV in a two-weeks in-country training in Chile. The 40 volunteers were then assigned to the technical development agencies throughout the region and were integrated into their programs. Foreign volunteers were assigned to the urban centers, whereas Chilean teams worked in rural areas. The development agencies did not receive preparation as "clients" of a volunteer service, and thus the effectiveness of volunteers varied. Even so, the satisfaction with the work accomplished was a major factor which carried through the many difficulties which occurred later on. The major drawback—in terms of multi-national intra-group experience was, of course, the fact that volunteers actually were not assigned in teams nor lived closely enough to develop essential overall team coherence. In the fall of 1973, the Allende government was overthrown, and in December, 1973 ONSEV was terminated. At that time, nine foreign and two domestic volunteers resigned from the MVT, while eleven foreigners and eighteen Chileans continued until termination. This occurred when on June 25, 1974, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of Chile denounced the agreement on the MVT.

A third example—and the earliest for that matter—is the **Inter-American Volunteer Team in the Dominicanian Republic** which worked between 1967-1969 to introduce maize production as a cash crop into subsistence farming via 1100 demonstration projects in various regions. Initially 31 volunteers were recruited: 15 from Colombia, Costa Rica, El Salavador and Guatemala and 16 domestic volunteers were paired in small teams (1 foreigner, 1 national) to each site. Later, a US Peace Corps volunteer was added. The project was requested and supervised by the Dominican Development Foundation and the Ministry of Agriculture and coordinated by ISVS. An ISVS consultant—seconded by the German DED—guided the initial establishment of the team and the implementation of work projects for eight months. The MVT was financially sponsored by the Latin American Development Foundation and the agricultural project received foreign contributions of seeds, fertilizer and pesticides. Thus, significant logistics problems were involved with the volunteers' work—a design feature lending itself to problems. At the end of the first year, in December 1967, the MVT was reduced to 8 foreigners and 4 domestic volunteers, but the projects continued for a second year, this time with single assignments. The hope, that an Inter-American MVT might spark the establishment of a DDS in the Dominican Republic did not materialize. Apart from the significant logistics problems, the internal leadership was not prepared to meet all the requirements of volunteer support and guidance in the MVT. The establishment of an organizational unit with sufficient capacity to recruit and support both qualified staff and volunteers would have been necessary.

From these MVT experiences—which were experiments ahead of their time—much can be learned for future cooperation among Development Services:

- The qualifications of both foreign and domestic volunteers did not pose problems for they were in accordance with the requests. It must be noted, however, that undue emphasis on technical specialization, and the inability to communicate broadly, and to organize community activities can pose a problem for both the intra-group relations and the volunteers' work in the community.

- In principle, the intra-group problems encountered within MVTs were not different from those experienced within bi-lateral assignments where volun-

teers from one nationality serve on one team in a foreign country. If the intra-group relations in an MVT are positive—as was the case with the second Panamanian team—the ease of cross cultural and cross national communications tends to enhance the creativity of individuals and contributes to resulting significant work performance.

- Projects which were based in local communities fared best—even if supra-structures faltered and local officials from other governmental agencies did not cooperate. Also, the experience proved that projects with high material investments and resultant complex logistics should be avoided.

- None of the MVTs worked well without good internal leadership and they folded when the institutional structure was withdrawn. A solid and efficient internal leadership and organizational structure is a precondition for successful cooperation between domestic and foreign volunteers. It appears also that—if the sponsorship or supervision of such teams becomes too complex in terms of variety of partners and conditions—internal leaderships becomes clouded and management efficiency is reduced.

- The bi-lateral approaches to multi-national projects created a number of problems. Volunteers were subject to individual contracts by their sending organizations and enjoyed the same living allowances, social benefits, vacation allowances, insurance, etc. as their colleagues in bi-lateral projects. Equal treatment of their volunteers is, of course, a legal obligation of any Foreign Volunteer Service. On the other hand, this circumstance implied that the members of a MVT received different allowances—and therefore had unequal opportunities and often status. Primarily, the domestic volunteers worked on the shorter end of the scale. Even though in some instances the highly paid foreign volunteers voluntarily agreed to a somewhat reduced pay—salaries were never equal and always were an issue. The least problems were reported from Chile but probably not because of greater insight or tolerance but because foreign volunteers were assigned to urban centers and the Chileans worked in rural areas. They did not meet on a day to day basis. It appears that the differences in living allowances which, according to an ISVS evaluation[97], are not only related to legal provisions and living standard considerations, but also express service philosophy, create problems that are difficult to resolve. They comprise one reason why cooperation between Foreign and Domestic Development Services has not progressed faster.

- Another issue was the occasional misuse of the MVT for internal political purposes, party politics or election campaigns. It became clear that the hosting institution which provides the internal leadership must guarantee a sailing free of internal politics if multi-national cooperation is to succeed.

- Finally, the one-way assignments of foreign volunteers to a DDS—even on almost equal terms—still retained certain characteristics of a "giver:receiver" relationship. This became manifest not so much in the volunteer qualifications, but in the difference in pay, assignment security and the lack of reciprocity. While the foreigner enjoyed the challenge that was gained from the assignment in a foreign culture and nation, the domestic volunteer had no prospect to anticipate a comparable experience.

A few examples where cooperation among Development Services occurred on equal terms, and with some reciprocity of service opportunities will be discussed in Chapter 12 since they represent instances of partnership-cooperation as defined in this study.

Third, the **perception of foreign volunteers** on the part of the people in host countries is an important factor for both foreign assistance and partnership-cooperation relationships. The following views were expressed in various statements from DDS' and in individual interviews:

- Foreign volunteers are well appreciated for their technical expertise; they help to fill technical skill gaps not available in nationals. They should serve in areas where there is no other aid available.

- Technical assistance by foreign volunteers is still needed for technical skill training and employment-oriented support like the settlement of former volunteers in small farms and trades by the Benin Clubs 4-D.

- Surprisingly, a significant number of respondents felt that performing Development Service instead of military service was one of the main reasons why foreign volunteers elect to go abroad (see Chapter 7 on this issue).

- Some services indicated that they have decided *"to put off cooperation with outside bodies for the foreseeable future";* some let it be known that the presence of foreign volunteers interfered with setting up and developing their own domestic service. All of the services preferring "no cooperation", belong either in the group of Study Services (Nigeria, Columbia) or Social and Technical Development Services (Indonesia, earlier; Thailand).

- Foreign volunteers should not compete with nationals for jobs either within a DDS nor within those areas where educated national volunteers can serve; consequently:

  – Malaysia feels it will have no need for foreign volunteers by 1978-1980;

  – Kenya expects that sufficient national skills will be available by 1982; and

  – Indonesia (BUTSI) has indicated that it has too many unemployed, educated young people and cannot afford to receive foreign volunteers, except in small numbers in joint community development projects with domestic volunteer forces and under equal term conditions.

In summary, most foresee a gradually diminishing technical assistance role for volunteers in the future.

- To the question, what other future cooperation could be envisaged between foreign and domestic volunteers, the following suggestions were made (quotes are from interviews);

  – *"complement each others' technical skills, fill those that national volunteers do not have;"*

- *"exchange of ideas, communication; learning foreign language, language communication essential for people working together;"*
- *"share ideas and learn from each other new skills and techniques;"*
- *"interregional youth exchange or general youth exchange;"*
- *"help foreign volunteers to learn to work with our youth;"*
- *"share ideas how to work and promote understanding";*
- *"foreign volunteers can serve as 'challengers', but only if they serve under same conditions: must be integrated in future;"*
- *"not between foreign and domestic volunteers but exchange of staff";*
- the number of foreign volunteers should be in reasonable proportion to the number of domestic volunteers and should not overwhelm them;
- it is preferred to receive foreign volunteers at home—domestic development services need strengthening and expanding—than to send domestic volunteers abroad; the fear of "brain-drain" is very apparent because of the disproportionate high pay volunteers receive abroad.

Similar opinions are expressed even more clearly in the study of Philip M. Mbithi, on "Localizing Youth Volunteer Development Service in Kenya"[76]. Mr. Mbithi reports from interviews with university students and KNYS and KVDA volunteers: *"Pressed to be specific about the role of the international volunteer . . . the youth expressed the following: (a) dissatisfaction with the one way traffic of youth from Europe and America to Africa without reciprocal Africa to Europe programs. The youth argued that the Euro-American youth volunteer does not qualify as an expert and normally gains more from the contact established here than the local people. Thus international youth volunteer service should be seen as a character development, educational program and an exercise in friendly international relationships. In this context then African youth should be invited to Europe and America just as Africa invites European and American youth to come to Africa. This assumes that in welcoming Euro-American youth volunteers, we are not importing technical aid or rare talents but Euro-American presence."*

Thus, the foreign volunteer presence overall is well perceived and future relationships point to an emphasis on the joint experience of learning and growth, and the reciprocity of service opportunity. It is believed, that the direction some Foreign Volunteer Services and the United Nations Volunteers follow—to emphasize the development worker role or the junior expert type technical assistance assignment—is not oriented toward the future and the interests of their partners in developing countries. A diminishing technical assistance role is not the end of Foreign Volunteer Services—their original mandate and their capabilities are broader and they are able as institutions to change their programs to new needs and conditions.

Fourth, host **perceptions of Foreign Volunteer Services as Institutions** were critical:

- Those services with a highly structured and institutionalized overseas administration are often perceived as too independent in their operations in the host country. Their presumed links with the national foreign assistance policy of the sending country was disliked.

- The representatives of foreign volunteer services, including their staff, "are not conceived as too effective; they deal too much with the political hierarchy in the host government. These host government officials at the top are often political appointees who want to satisfy their political ambitions at local peoples' and governments' expense" (quote from an interview).

- The United Nations Volunteers are not considered different from the bilateral services and presently do not attract the cooperation of DDS. They request too highly specialized technical skills which are needed at home, and their living allowance is far too high in comparison with professional salaries paid in most Third World countries. UNV has a disadvantage in comparison with bilateral services: their recruitment through the bilateral overseas volunteer services combined with the complex bureaucracy involved in coordinating UNV projects between the various U.N. agencies, results in much paperwork and delay but no better "product", i.e., better qualified foreign volunteer or better volunteer projects.

- A number of DDS' feel that an efficient body for planning and coordinating foreign volunteers on the receiving side is necessary before a useful cooperation can be established between foreign and domestic volunteers.

Thus, a low institutional profile of Foreign Volunteer Services in the host country is not only important for efficient management and effective citizens' mobilization—as the analyses in Chapters 7 and 10 indicated—it largely affects the potential for future cooperation with Domestic Development Services.

In sum, the past assistance to DDS' through foreign volunteer assignments has achieved three things:

1. it has provided technical skills—primarily in Training and Employment Schemes—to solidify the DDS' when no nationals of equivalent capability were available;

2. it has provided a testing round and experience for cooperation among foreign and domestic volunteers of about equal skill background and/or overall qualification;

3. it has identified the common ground among various categories of Development Services and clarified the problems and conditions for future cooperation among both Domestic Development and Foreign Volunteer Services resulting in a measure of progress which goes beyond mere assistance relationships.

5. PROVISION OF SERVICES: STAFF TRAINING AND EXCHANGE

The development of capable staff is a major problem of all Development Services—and especially those in developing countries. The analyses in Chapters 4 through 7 indicate that there are differences in degree and emphasis on the staffing problem among the various categories of services, but they all concern questions of recruitment or supply, qualifications, career security and promotion. While matters of sufficient staff positions, open recruitment or secondment of civil servants, and the development of staff careers pose questions of internal structure and organization, staff qualifications can be aided through outside assistance.

First, major sponsors of **Staff Training Assistance** in the past were the government of Israel and ISVS.

The **Israeli support for staff development** as shown earlier, is an integral part of their expert assistance to Training and Employment Schemes. Staff training was conducted either in-house, in the service receiving expert assistance, or in Israel at special training sites such as at the Mount Carmel International Training Center.

As early as 1964, a guide for "An Instructor Course for Youth Leadership" was developed for in-house training at the Kenya National Youth Service. A later 1969 "The Young Instructor's Guide" emphasized staff preparation as trainers for experience based learning: *"explain 10%, demonstrate 20%, practice 70%"*. These guides are typical for a more specific staff development within the closed environment of a National Youth Service and have been applied in most assistance cases.

At the Mount Carmel International Training Centre for Community Services, the aim of the three months' courses is the development of skills, knowledge and insight into broader issues of community development, and preparation for assignment as: rural community development workers, extension workers, as teachers in adult education or community workers concerned with functional literacy. Staff from DDS, attending these courses, are part of a larger group of participants from different assignments. The course program includes training of relevant technical skills and is followed by 4-6 weeks of field work.

As all training is community-oriented, participating staff receives a broader knowledge and skill basis for their DDS assignment and in fact all development work, while they may miss acquiring specific skills to manage certain aspects of a service.

ISVS organized Regional and Sub-regional Training Seminars for multinational groups of staff from Domestic Development Services always in co-sponsorship with the host country and often joined by UNICEF. The purpose was to acquaint current and potential staff with alternative approaches to DDS schemes and also prepare them for planning and management functions.

Training seminars were carried out for English speaking African countries in Kenya (1971) and in Botswana (1973); for French speaking African countries in Ivory Coast (1972), Senegal (1973); for Asian countries in cooperation with UNICEF and ECAFE in the Philippines

(1975); and for Latin American countries in Panama (in cooperation with UNICEF, 1970) in Chile (1971 and 1972), and in Colombia (1973).

The training lasted primarily four weeks and the curriculum included principles of adult education, group dynamics, literacy, vocational and community development, DDS management and administration. Periods were set aside for field practice in conducting self-supporting community oriented projects. The Chile 1972 seminar departed somewhat from this format: this included a three month on-the-job training conducted in cooperation with ONSEV, the Chilean DDS. In all cases—but to a varying degree—the participants were able to provide their own inputs into the curriculum or to introduce new issues according to their needs. Regularly, at the close of the seminar, ISVS conducted a feed-back session of participants to ascertain the critique and comments on all aspects of the course. Also, in three cases (Kenya 1971; Ivory Coast 1972, Philippines 1973) a follow-up evaluation, after four to six months had passed, gave further indication of the impact of the training. Listed below are some major results of this feedback which is based on a questionnaire and should be of interest to those planning similar training on an international level. The feedback from the Ivory Coast training is published in the "ISVS FLASH", December 1973. More details on the sources can be obtained from the reports published after each training program. (See list in Appendix B-2.) Reports may now be obtained from the United Naions Volunteers. These are the major results:

- The selection of participants who can make the most use of the training is crucial. Selection is primarily in the hands of the delegating government and an international organization, like ISVS, has little influence on the decision. Essential are: detailed information long in advance, follow-up information at intervals and—most important—visits by training planners with the authorities and potential participants to ensure appropriate preparation and delegation of duties. The more these regional training seminars became known as a category of assistance, the more evident became the selection of relevant participants. A constant question related to participants, is how long they will remain in an DDS assignment so that feedback of training results to service organization is ensured. No organizer of international seminars can influence this situation: there are only two propositions to justify continuation of such seminars irrespective of where participants may be assigned afterwards: (a) that the staff participants have an opportunity to feed back the training results to the DDS institution before they change assignments, and (b) that raising the qualifications of staff involved in development work is of value in itself, irrespective of where they may be assigned later on. Responses from the seminar in Ivory Coast (84% of participants) indicated that 18 weeks later—80% of the responders had *"been able to apply in a more or less concrete way what they learned during the seminar"*. 20% indicated, they expect to use their new knowledge. 56% of the respondents already had applied what they learned in their regular jobs.

- The country hosting the seminar must be decisively involved in the preparation and the conduct of the program. Again the role of the internal leadership is crucial for the overall seminar—even if it is international—and especially for the community field work of participants. There are advantages, however, for an outside professional to direct the training program—outside can mean not only from another institution or country, but also from another region. As an outsider, the training director is an additional asset to mobilize participants—provided he has the professional qualifications to do so.

- The training program itself was of value for participants because it enabled exchange of experience. The airing of knowledge and experience participants gained with DDS at the start of the course was crucial to establish a basis for communication and later learning. For many participants, who operated on the second or third employment level in their DDS, it was the first opportunity to meet colleagues from other countries and services, to learn of common problems and find support in common experience. The curriculum emphasis on certain management and social development concepts (such as project preparation on the basis of rural community analysis) and on operational procedure (such as how to select, place and train a volunteer, how to evaluate projects) was favored as a necessary "mixed bag" of topics for first training periods.

- For further programs, the participants suggested: (a) continuation of management-oriented training seminars addressing broader audiences so that others might benefit from it, (b) special issue seminars so that more time might be devoted to special aspects of DDS operations, and (c) exchange of staff between services.

The problems and shortcomings of these training seminars—apart from participant selection—were primarily related to the unsecure funding basis, resulting in lack of long-term planning, problems with in-depth preparation, and lack of both professional and administrative staffing. At best funding was small: ISVS was able to set aside only a meager portion of its regular budget for the purpose. The majority of funds had to be raised on the basis of individual project proposals to governmental, private or UN co-sponsors. It should be noted however, that significant professional training contributions from both the host country and outsiders were donated on a voluntary basis. Between 1971-1973, twelve experts served as training directors and program support staff for periods ranging from three weeks to two months. Training sites were always provided by host governments without cost; lecturers volunteered their time and host country and ISVS staff were provided free of charge. Most funds were expended for travel grants to participants from developing countries and pay for their room and board at the training site. If outside professional consultants were hired for a longer period to direct the training, an honorarium was paid for their services. Thus, most of the training funds went for direct investment in the expansion of knowledge without portions being lost in administrative overhead.

There is no doubt, that ISVS broke new ground with these international staff training seminars at a time when many DDS had no internal resources to provide necessary knowledge and skill inputs to implement and institutionalize their services. Also, the importance of meeting colleagues from other countries and receiving outside assessment of performance, should not be underestimated for the progress of learning and personal growth. By conducting these training seminars around the globe, and following them up with more analytical type sessions in issue seminars, a common understanding and body of knowledge was gradually developed which is still slowly advancing a profile of a "state of the art" in its own right. Thus, the participants, at both the training seminars and issue sessions, were not only "receivers" but also "givers"—on equal footing with the sponsors of such meetings—and helped shape the eventual assistance that was rendered. Indications that the training seminars together with conferences of regional directors and the issue seminars were the major mode to develop this body of knowledge are: the evolvement of a common terminology, the existence of large overlapping areas of common concepts, organizational design and program features, and the emergence of specific profiles of Development Services that are operating today. If nothing

else, these seminars have achieved ties among different national organizations around the globe and have created an awareness of belonging to one family—irrespective of cultural or political differences among their nations.

Second **Staff Internships** is another mode that ISVS created and tested to support Development Services. As early as 1964, ISVS arranged what was then called staff exchange between European Foreign Volunteer Services and the US Peace Corps, but it never went very far. It materialized more in form of staff travel and consultation to exchange experience, learn other methods, look for better materials.

The idea was revived again sometime in 1973, during various staff training seminars. The purpose of Staff Exchange, later called the internship programme, was to provide working experience in a Development Service of another country in order to learn through immersion in a related institution in another culture. The ISVS policy paper of May 1974 states: *"For this approach to be successful, it is imperative that the visiting staff member be integrated to as great an extent as possible into the activities of the host organization, preferably at a level similar to his level in his own organization."*

Until June 1973, ISVS received requests for assistance in staff internships from:

- New Zealand Volunteers with the Company of Young Canadians
- Nepal Study-Service with BUTSI, Indonesia
- Lesotho Youth Service with Malawi Young Pioneers
- Jordan Youth Coordinating Board with the Philippine DDS Board
- Volontaires pour le Développment, Ivory Coast with Mouvement Social, Lebanon
- Hong Kong Association of Volunteers for Service with CSV, UK
- Jamaica National Volunteer Service with Singapore People's Association
- Servicio Nacional de Voluntarios, Dominican Republic with ONSEV, Chile
- Campanientos Universitarios, Colombia with Movimiento Nacional de Servicio Voluntario, El Salvador
- Associacion de Voluntarios Chilenos with PP, Venezuela

The duration of the internships was planned for 2 or 3 months. Because of lack of funding only two materialized in 1973 for periods of one month each:

- from the Community Volunteers in New Zealand to CYC in Canada, and
- from the AVS in Hong Kong to CYC in Canada.

The Company of Young Canadians also in 1974 received a four months' internship for one person from Zaire. The plan included a 1 month introduction and study at CYC headquarters,

1 month field travel and interviews in Quebec, 1 month field work on his own, 1 month evaluation at headquarters. This internship was discontinued after two weeks field travel.

It appears that the New Zealand internship was especially successful and an exchange from CYC to New Zealand was in planning when CYC was terminated.

The general experiences of CYC, however, are not encouraging. Staff internships, if conducted properly take away a significant amount of time from the limited service manpower. An integration at the same level was not possible as the lack of internal knowledge did not enable the foreign staff to fill a slot. And finally, the receiving institution had no hand in the selection of the person they were to accept, and the interests of the intern were not consonant with what the organization could offer.

From the brief actual internship operations, plus the earlier experience of ISVS during the 1960's, it appears that an assistance program via staff exchange or internships encounters too many obstacles and is too costly in comparison to the knowledge and experience that may be gained.

A different matter are the **short-term travel scholarships** arranged for some directors of DDS to visit with colleagues of similar conditioned organizations. It seems that assistance for visiting consultations—of directors or senior staff—has a greater prospect of providing an early pay-off. It is believed that this assistance which, for example was provided by ISVS to Dr. Napitupulu when BUTSI was in its stage of formation, helped him to obtain an overview of what was going on in other countries and probably aided him in arriving at subsequent decisions. If this notion is correct then this travel scholarship was worthwhile because BUTSI has become one of the most remarkeable examples of a DDS.

This concludes the discussion of foreign assistance modes applied to Domestic Development Services in developing countries. They have been of broad range, at times inconsistent, and at certain junctures extremely important for the growth and consolidation of DDS. The assessment gave answers to the earlier questions of the What, When, Where,Who and How of foreign assistance to the DDS in project countries. It also indicated achievements and failures and promising directions for future relationships.

Three perceptions conveyed through the interviews should be borne in mind:

- Foreigners have greater faith than do nationals in foreign assistance.
- Foreigners are inclined to National Development Plans whereas nationals indicate preference for local community planning.
- Foreigners have greater expectations from technical and management investments in development projects than do nationals who emphasize moral leadership.

These perceptions indicate contrasting approaches which in each case must be bridged.

This evaluation started from the assumption, that Domestic Development Services in developing countries are effective instruments to mobilize citizens for development participation, and that foreign assistance to them would guarantee that aid is received by the people who need it without much loss and delay. The analyses of Development Services in Chapters 4 through 7, and the discussion of major issues in Chapters 8 through 10, confirmed the first basic notion with certain qualifications: DDS are indeed a mode for direct development participation at the local level, but they have a far greater potential than is currently realized. Thus, foreign assistance to them per se can satisfy a "giver" that the aid proceeds in the right direction, but only if the "giver" and the "receiver" aim at developing this potential, can the additional outside resources effectively be employed to raise the level of development participation.

WHAT THEN ARE THE ELEMENTS OF EFFECTIVE FOREIGN ASSISTANCE TO DDS?

1. The **need for foreign assistance** is determined, first of all, by the causes which established the DDS. They describe target groups and their needs of coverage and service volume. Second, the need for foreign assistance is determined by the internal stage of institutional development of a DDS: preparation for establishment, possible "no cooperation" in a take-off stage until self-maintenance is secured, resumption during stages of consolidation and expansion. Third, the need for foreign assistance is a question of national policy. All three components must be taken into account.

2. The **content of assistance** is, of course, related to the ongoing or planned program of a DDS. It is here that major attention should be paid to support the potential of DDS' in the following respects:

   - that volunteer training is conducted to secure recurrent educational opportunites. A simple filling of skill gaps is insufficient.
   - that training, work programs and volunteer follow-up support are employment-oriented in terms of skills, organization and funding of self-employment implementation—experience based employment preparation in work programs is insufficient;
   - that volunteer work in local communities is conducted under internal leadership, revolves around action-planning and community organizing processes and adheres to modernizing development participation—community based volunteer work per se is insufficient.

3. The **modes of foreign assistance** differ in their effectiveness and depend on the circumstances of both the "giving" and "receiving" partner. The following trends have been identified:

   - Financial assistance is most helpful: (a) to enable preparation and take-off of new DDS' until the success of the implementation phase attracts sufficient national resources, (b) to enable expansion of geographical and population coverage along with the necessary consolidation of the organization, and (c) to permit another quality of program—such as certified training.
   - Short-term expert assistance will be increasingly desirable among equally strong partners, primarily for program evaluation, planning purposes and idea generation;

long-term expert assignments will diminish as national staff capabilities are developed.

- Long-term foreign volunteer assistance, primarily in a technical trainer capacity, will be needed for some time to come by a limited number of Training and Employment Schemes which have not yet been able to develop sufficient national staff capabilities. The overall indications are that the foreign assistance needs for outside volunteers diminish fast, while new interests of cooperation with emphasis on joint learning and experience exchange, especially with Study-Services and Social and Technical Development Services, increase.

- Staff training assistance on a regional or sub-regional basis has been most helpful in the past, but—since the termination of ISVS—no institutional basis is available to fulfill this task. However, since staff development primarily requires national resources and provisions, and as an increasing number of qualified nationals becomes available, the need for regional training will diminish and shift to joint considerations of issues and ideas.

- Issue and idea seminars, as mutual assistance, are of increasing importance for both DDS and Foreign Volunteer Services, and in all regions in the world, to further develop the conceptual basis of Development Services and improve the effectiveness of operations.

4. The **sources of foreign assistance**, the "givers", differ in the attention they pay to a DDS as a specific "receiver" in its own right. In general, governments and UN agencies use a non-specific approach, and subordinate aid to DDS' in larger social assistance programs. Consequently, their contributions are often less dovetailed to the specific need of a DDS. In recent years, institutions like UNDP or ILO have sought the advice of experts who had previous Development Service experience, and since 1974, all UN agency assistance to DDS is supposed to be guided by the advice of UNV.

   The governments of Canada, Norway and Sweden, and UNICEF use a different approach: they provide their assistance to DDS largely through voluntary agencies, knowledgeable and involved in the field. AID in the United States now is considering a similar approach[8]. These foreign assistance institutions found that channeling their aid through voluntary agencies is most effective because it reaches local people in need directly and with a minimum of loss in administrative costs and in time.

   Primarily, DDS in industrialized countries, and secondly, Foreign Volunteer Services are best suited for an outsider role to DDS' in developing countries. They are closest to the "receivers", their approach is subtle and they have a clearer understanding of operational needs of their partners. The reasons for this closeness is, of course, that both "givers" and "receivers" belong to the same family and "state of the art": their causes for establishment largely overlap, their objectives are consequently compatible, and they have developed similar response mechanisms in design and operations. Working through Development Services to help DDS' in developing countries presents an assistance approach which deserves more attention and expansion.

5. The **organization of foreign assistance** determines its mobilization effect in terms of permitting or inviting citizens to participate in development. Foreign assistance, as a "giver: receiver" relationship has a built-in mobilization problem due to lack of control of the assets: the human manpower, the funds, the upward mobility, the creation of new norms/attitudes. Organization of foreign assistance must help to overcome, or to minimize these built-in barriers to development participation along these lines:

- perceive transfer of knowledge and skills as preparation for take-off of community participation.
- work under internal leadership and develop new sub-elites,
- build intra-community units/organizations to take up responsibility for development projects,
- plan at take-off for turn-over of responsibilities to community organizations, i.e. the complete internal control of assets, including foreign aid, to achieve this higher level of mobilization and ensure continuity,
- realize that organization of foreign assistance should enhance the social value of mobilization, that is help attain the satisfaction and self-maintenance of basic needs, by avoiding one-way dependencies and thus create access to self-realization.

Finally, in order to achieve development participation in a broader sense—meet social values as Maslow describes them[74]—foreign assistance must reform itself from a "giver:receiver" relationship to one that enables growth as equal partners who both give and receive. These, of course, are the conditions described today as interdependence and self-reliance.

TOWARD PARTNERSHIP-COOPERATION AMONG DEVELOPMENT SERVICES

12

This final Chapter ties together the previous analyses and turns attention to the future—to the prospects for growth into new relationships among Development Services from all regions of the world. A two-track approach is applied:

- earlier findings of this study are extended for the consideration of possible futures and
- results from principal research by various experts are submitted to assess the study results in a larger context.

A combination of both approaches will help avoid past experiences simply being extended into the future. Rather, it is hoped, that experience will be transposed into new channels because there are new reasons for the evolving "state of the art" of Development Services.

This Chapter will concentrate on the following issues:

First, the three stages of interrelationships among Development Services which have been identified through this study are assessed in terms of institutional implications, mobilization of citizens, and cross-cultural communication and action.

Second, a brief review of earlier partnership-cooperation examples describes a few traditional efforts, and some more recent attempts.

Third, the discussion of new causes and needs for partnership-cooperation, the resulting objectives, elements and outlines for action, all point a direction to develop these new forms of relationships on a broad scale.

THE THREE STAGES OF INTERRELATIONSHIPS

Interrelationships between Development Services can be viewed from various principal aspects. First, the institutional aspects, their similarities and differences came to light in the assessment in Chapters 4 through 7. It was found that their common or overlapping causes for existence, consequent objectives, organizational structure and program activities characterize them as one "family", permitting classification into four categories of Development Services. This similarity of institutional nature—primarily the common or overlapping causes and objectives—constitute one precondition for cooperation.

Second, the mobilization aspect of their interrelationships which enables, or initiates or even prevents development participation, was analyzed in Chapters 10 and 11.

Finally, there is a third principal aspect from which interrelationships between Development Services can be viewed; that of cross-cultural communication. From this angle, the inter-personal relationships among domestic and foreign volunteers and staff, bear different qualities and are typical of the different stages of cooperation which are discussed in this Sub-Chapter. Some recent studies provide an interesting insight in these inter-personal relationships. David Mettee, in his paper on "Concepts of Attraction and Self-Image as They Affect Communication and Education in a Multi-Cultural Milieu"[81] expanded on eariier research he and his colleagues conducted in the United States, and he raised further questions regarding inter-cultural communication in "When Differences Make a Positive Difference"[80]. These are his principal points:

- First, the concept of attraction and self-image—initially—perceives the cultural differences between people as primarily negative: the other different person—the outsider—is feared, disliked, mistrusted. The difference is assumed to mean danger, bad, unacceptable. When under such conditions the other different person appears to be "right" then, consequently, those receiving the different person must be "wrong". The initial perception of a "right" outsider persists as a "threat" to the personal identity, and creates conflict and uncertainty for those who perceive themselves as "wrong".

- Second, the abatement of this "threat" is essential for any lasting communication between people from different cultures. A process to reduce this "threat" starts when people from different cultures experience cooperation and interdependence. The fear, dislike and mistrust are gradually removed—even though conflict, uncertainty and "threat" occasionally recur. This is exactly the situation in foreign assistance with its "giver:: receiver" relationship wherein the foreigner still appears to be "right"—and therefore the national "wrong"—but as they experience cooperation the difference diminishes.

- Third, if the "threatening" aspect of the difference is further removed, the perception of this cultural difference is reversed: the other different person's positive qualities appear, and the difference becomes non-"threatening" to one's own identity. The removal of "threat"—or appearance—of dominance requires three conditions according to Mettee:

— shared coping

— equal status participation

— common value resources.

Here, the relationships between culturally different persons become more attractive than between similar persons: they now reaffirm certainty, which enables growth and maturity—even more so than within a group of culturally similar persons.

Carl R. Rogers in his study "On Becoming a Person"[103] describes the characteristics of a helping relationship from another angle, and also raises the question: *"Can I act with sufficient sensitivity in the relationship that my behavior will not be perceived as a threat?"* He gives ten considerations which should guide behavior to create helping relationships. Among them:

- *". . . the most basic learning for anyone who hopes to establish any kind of helping relationship is that it is safe to be transparently real"*
- *"Can I let myself experience positive attitudes toward the other person . . . can we learn that it is safe to care?"*
- *"Can I be strong enough a person to be separate from others . . . can I let myself go and accept him because I am not fearful of losing myself?"*
- *"Can I permit him to be what he is . . . can I give him the freedom to be?"*

And Rogers concludes: *". . . the degree to which I can create relationships which facilitate the growth of others as separate persons is a measure of the growth I have achieved in myself".* It is this growth which should come about through cross-cultural relationships under the three conditions pointed out above.

It is under these three aspects—the institutional, mobilization and cross-cultural communication relations—that three stages of interrelationships among Development Services are appraised:

1. No Cooperation
2. Foreign Assistance
3. Partnership-Cooperation.

No Cooperation

This is a dormant relationship. The institutional commonalities among Domestic Development Services (DDS) and the Foreign Volunteer Services (FV Services) exist, but they are not put into action. They know of each other's existence, their directors or staff may attend the same international conferences, and there can be exchange of views and materials—but cooperation is not attempted. This stage indicates a lower level of organizational mobilization, as the assets

of supra-unit cooperation—that is, of outside manpower or funds, for example,—are not brought under internal control. This lack of mobilization of outside resources can also indicate that the organizational efforts concentrate on bringing the internal assets under control. In terms of Maslow's hierarchy of needs[74], the organization's prime concern is the establishment of a framework of self-maintenance.

Study materials and interviews from Indonesia, Nigeria, Thailand and European countries confirm this purpose in phrases such as: *"We must first come into our own before we can receive outside volunteers"*—*"Outside cooperation is premature at this stage"*; and—with a more specific qualification of a "no cooperation" policy: *"Outside volunteers or staff cannot be received when they operate under superior conditions"*. These positions reveal certain specialties of the "no cooperation" stage:

- it is first of all due to an internal condition, the prime desire of the service to establish itself as an organization *and* self-maintain its existence
- it is conceived as a transitory stage, confirms that the dormant relationship can be activated
- it indicates the awareness that higher levels of organizational growth and self-realization with the help of outside resources can only be achieved if they are provided under conditions of equality and internal control.

This stage, in which the organization is bent on self-maintenance according to the mobilization theory, calls for the internal control over necessary assets. In countries with diverse geographical areas, many sub-cultures, tribes and languages, this stage is even more necessary—and may require longer—to build a solid framework of self-maintenance.

For example, BUTSI in Indonesia, required about five years to develop its institutional framework, expand into all regions, and secure internal funding. BUTSI also indicated that it conceives its no cooperation stage as transitory, and expects to enter into cooperative relationships with other Development Services as soon as they can be arranged on an equal term basis. Recently, BUTSI has intensified its horizontal relations with other DDS in Asia, which meet these conditions, to discuss various ways of inter-regional cooperation.

The Nigerian National Youth Service Corps went through similar paces during its no cooperation stage and now indicates interest in parity cooperation. It should be noted that in both cases outside expert advice was rendered in the preparation phases of the service. In the case of BUTSI it continued at intervals during implementation—but the take-off of the organization, and its unfolding during the formative years, was accomplished solely under internal control. This suggests that the three stages of interrelationships represent different levels of mobilization and communication, but are not necessarily passed through in sequence.

In terms of cross-cultural communication of people, the no cooperation stage indicates a negative perception of the foreign, culturally different, person. As no experience of collaboration and interdependence can be developed, the culturally different outside volunteer, as a

"giver", is viewed at this stage, as a "threat". In such situations, where traditionally the outside volunteer and staff are assigned in superior "giver" roles, the appearance of the outsider of being "right" in the eyes of the domestic volunteer or staff can hinder the achievement of self-maintenance within a DDS. A domestic volunteer, or staff member, who perceives himself "wrong"—because of a "right" appearing outsider—can be paralyzed in terms of development participation, if the outsider maintains the "giver" position and does not promptly transfer his control over assets.

Thus, a no cooperation stage of a DDS is not only justified, but necessary, if the cooperation conditions offered are inappropriate for internal mobilization to achieve the level of self-maintenance of the organization.

Foreign Assistance

This stage is characterized by the "giver:receiver" relationship among Development Services as analyzed in Chapter 11. It is here that collaboration between people of different cultures is experienced, and the "threat", that is the negative perception of cultural difference, is gradually removed. The fear, dislike and distrust can be reduced as the knowledge grows that the negative perceptions about each other are false. They are gradually replaced by positive acquaintance with the cultural differences of others. It is also the stage, where the blown-up perception of the culturally different outsider as being "right" is reduced. Not only are fear and dislike diminished, but also the too strong image of the desirability of the foreigners' ways is cut down to accommodating size. It is the stage where the images from colonial times can be removed gradually as indicated in Chapter 9 in the example cited of "Kenyanization". As Mettee points out, it is a relationship where conflict and frustration still exist, but the cultural "threat" is reduced, and the certainty about oneself can begin to grow. The mobilization theory underlines this point: development participation cannot grow through foreign assistance if the control of the assets remains in the hands of the "giver". Turning over the responsibilities to the internal leadership is the condition where not only a higher level of mobilization is attained, but the positive experience with the culturally different begins.

Mettee also points out that there are conditions where the presence of the non-comparable outsider—such as the foreign volunteer—help to enhance the positive aspects of similarity. To enhance similarity is, for example, part of the nation-building effort that many DDS in developing countries pursue. The presence of a foreigner provides a contrast image of a culturally dissimilar person, against which the person who is culturally similar can be compared. Such a comparison protects the individual from negative comparative feedback from similar persons within his own culture. Thus, the presence of a foreigner can enhance the process of self-identification and belonging. Further, Mettee suggests that cultural similarity has a double edge: it helps more, but also hurts more. In social comparison situations—such as the joint work of foreign and domestic volunteers in project communities—the non-comparable foreigner protects a person from strong negative feedback from his own comparable nationals. Here, the mere presence of a culturally different person contributes to the self-evaluation of comparable persons which indicates growth and belonging, a gain in national identity. Translated into Development Services' experiences, such conditions prevailed in some MVT assignments with foreign and domestic volunteers working side by side—but under unequal conditions—in local communities. The successful case of the one Panamanian team, reported in Chapter 11, resulted from: (a) effective cooperation between the foreign and urban Panamanian volunteers, and (b) the involvement of the local community in regular meetings and feedback. Unfortun-

ately, there are no data to indicate whether the presence of the foreigners and the urbanized Panamanian assisted in furthering growth and belonging among the rural Panamanians. It is a notion which deserves further study for the continued assistance by foreign volunteers—and is certainly important for partnership-cooperation.

Edward C. Stewart, in his study on "American Cultural Patterns: A Cross-Cultural Perspective"[116] looks at the "giver's" situation. While at home there is certainty in how to act in any given situation, each simple act in a foreign culture requires planning and decision, *"The deepest shook . . . may come when he has penetrated into the world of work."* And Stewart quotes Useem[116]: *"Here he sees what looks like familiar bureaucratic structures and technological systems but the way they actually function is confusing. He meets people with professional training similar to his own but who do not always act in their work role as expected—yet he depends on them for getting the job done."* Frustration, of course, is the result—and uncertainty. Stewart explains: *"When the strangeness of life in a foreign country leads to uncertainty, the individual's own cultural pattern intrudes with tentative interpretations to dispel the ambiguity created by the unusual behavior of foreigners (that is, the people in the foreign country). The individual is not likely to suspend judgement and action until he fully understands the strange ways, since his own assumptions, values and habits are seen as normal while he is likely to regard those of another culture as strange . . . In considering his own cultural assumptions and values as natural, the adviser (or foreign volunteer) creates one of the most stubborn obstacles to cross-cultural cooperation."*

Thus, in a foreign assistance situation, both the "giver" and the "receiver" act from a position of uncertainty—but with different consequences. While the "receiver" perceives the actions of the foreigner (growing from his uncertainty) as a "threat", the conviction of the foreigner that his ways are "natural", together with his actions to overcome uncertainty, appear to make him "right". The premature judgement and action to overcome uncertainty on the part of the foreigner reinforces his appearance as dominant. This uncertainty also explains why foreigners tend to cluster together in a host country—to reassure each other in their differentness.

The uncertainty of "giver" and "receiver", it appears, is at the core of the interpersonal relationships in foreign assistance until "threat" and "rightness" are removed and replaced by understanding—that is, assuredness about each other's ways.

Translated into foreign assistance relationships between, for example, Foreign Volunteer Services and the Training and Employment Schemes (the DDS they primarily serve) three patterns emerge:

First, foreign volunteers tend to develop an easier cultural aquaintance with the domestic volunteer—even though the foreigner is the trainer and the national the trainee. Their similar status within their own service organizations appears to create a "volunteer loyalty"—despite differing levels of education—which enhances communication and understanding. On the other hand, serving as trainers in a paternalistic society places FVs in a domineering position from the outset which reinforces their being "right" by status. As no interview feedback from the trainees is available as to whether a "threatening" situation existed, it is possible to conceive that this "threat" between the "giver" and the "receiver" is more real when both the foreigner and the national work in similar assignments as the next pattern reveals.

Second, as volunteer trainers, foreign volunteers also can identify with the domestic trainers and their problems. At the same time, having the same work position but higher status (be-

cause of higher pay, access to superiors, cars) than the nationals, they can create uncertainty and "threat" as some interviews from host country nationals indicate. Foreigners seem not to be aware of this "threat".

Third, foreign volunteers tend to cluster within their own groups. This is reported from both DDS and other foreign assistance projects, an indication that they need the reassurance of cultural similarity to help balance their feeling of uncertainty. An interesting conflict is created by the German DED's institutionalized volunteer participation in decision-making. As this process takes place in volunteer group sessions in host countries, it draws away the attention of the German volunteer from integration in the DDS he serves as a trainer, and it reinforces German cultural differentness. Thus, as commendable as these participation provisions are for the high level of internal mobilization of the service, they maintain cultural enclaves in the host country and tend to be counterproductive to the "threat" reducing process and the building of confidence in each other. To overcome this barrier for cross-cultural cooperation, again the joint experience seems to be essential. In this case, some form of participation of the host countries as partners in the German group sessions appears in the right direction. When the exclusivity of the foreign volunteer group processes are removed, the certainty about each other increases and enables a more fruitful cooperation. It is believed that the openess of volunteer group sessions is, in the long term, by far more helpful as it promotes the frank exchange of views—or critique—necessary for group processes. It appears that cultural certainty and openess about each other's ways are two interrelated concepts which re-inforce each other.

Partnership-Cooperation

This stage is defined as an equal-term relationship. Mettee found that cultural differences turn into creative growth relationships when the prejudices regarding each other's differences are further removed. Reduction of prejudice—it may be recalled—requires shared coping, equal status participation, and common value resources. Cooperation under such conditions, Mettee and his colleagues found, reduces external "threat", removes uncertainty and leads to the discovery that the other cultural group is not intrinsically different. This discovery which Ashmore described as a *"common humanity in the midst of difference"*[81], establishes the meaningful and creative linkage where cooperation and intercultural learning is experienced.

Translated into the relationships among Development Services, partnership-cooperation is then defined as:

- joint work/service in development projects,
- under equal terms, status and reciprocity of service conditions, and
- on the basis of common causes.

It is under such conditions that joint work between domestic and foreign volunteers enables learning and growth more so than within a group of national volunteers. To be sure, while the development emphasis of work/service projects continues—only now jointly—the equal term conditions among national and foreign volunteers and staff are the new requirements. That is, the way volunteers relate to each other is changed.

Also, the common causes among Development Services—as a requirement for partnership-cooperation—have been clearly established in earlier Chapters. It is, therefore, the difference in terms and reciprocity of service opportunities which are the key to future interrelationships.

And, to extend this thought somewhat further: joint work, equal service conditions and common causes provide the framework for mutuality. The past foreign assistance helper role, under partnership-cooperation conditions, is transformed to mutuality of helping among culturally different volunteers. This is the helping relationship Carl Rogers described earlier[103]: *". . . if I am to facilitate the personal growth of others in relation to me, then I must grow, and while this is often painful it is also enriching".* Thus, mutuality of learning or personal growth is the first step toward reciprocity of helping.

And finally, the conditions which make up a partnership-cooperation represent a higher level materialization of a peaceful relationship. It should be recalled that the peace related role of the foreign assistance volunteer was earlier defined as one which establishes a common truth between partners and removes the structural violence related to unequal conditions and opportunities. It is apparent that partnership-cooperation conditions among culturally different volunteers comes closer to this aim.

In sum, these three stages of interrelationships are not just different types of cooperation; they have a different quality and represent a **hierarchy of growth in international development participation, intercultural communication, and mutuality of helping and learning.**

The no-cooperation stage provides the fewest opportunities to realize this growth—but it appears to be a necessary status at certain junctures of institutional development. Foreign assistance represents a higher level of cooperation with both hindering and helping factors affecting growth relationships. Partnership-cooperation describes an interrelationship among Development Services which removes hindering factors to achieve optimal development participation, communication and mutuality in global relations. Even though these three stages represent different qualities of cooperation, they are not necessarily entered in sequence. At which stage an interrelationship materializes depends on: (a) policy priorities, and (b) the degree of internal control a Development Service has over its assets that can be mobilized for such external relationships.

EARLIER EXAMPLES OF PARTNERSHIP-COOPERATION

For the considerations in this study, only those earlier examples which were developmental in character and were carried out under work/service conditions are of relevance. They include programs which are intra-European or intra-Atlantic, that is to say, partnership-cooperation among people from industrialized countries only, and a very few experiences of "North: South" relationships.

First, **International Work Camp Organizations** afford the most widely known example of partnership-cooperation among multi-cultural groups and under equal term relationships. The **Service Civic International (SCI)**, with international headquarters in Bern, Switzerland, conducted its first multi-national work camp in 1929 as a distinct peace effort to replace military with civil service. Since then, SCI has established groups or branches in 22 countries, and has established affiliations with Development Services in 50 countries, for example the International Voluntary Service (IVS) in the UK, and the Weltfriedensdienst (World Peace Service) in Germany. All volunteers apply as individuals and are accepted if they concur with the principles of SCI and are willing to live and work together under simple and equal conditions in grass-roots projects. However, with the international expansion of SCI, all work camps turned into domestic efforts and only occasionally do single volunteers from another country join those work camps. The affiliated organizations are often Foreign Volunteer Services, as is the case with the above mentioned IVS and the World Peace Service, which serve in developing countries under "giving" conditions of their sending organizations. Thus, as important as are the SCI camps with their specific designation, through their expansion they have lost their multi-cultural dimension and/or their partnership-cooperation framework. They never fostered cooperation between volunteer services—this was not the intent—but created SCI membership groups for the duration of the camp. Finally, they were—and are—elitist, involving only the educated and those who can afford to volunteer time without or minimum recompense.

Another work camp example is the **International Jugendgemeinschaftsdienste** (IJGD, International Youth Service) in Germany. One of its founders, Dr. Dieter Danckwortt, in his book, "Erziehung zur internationalen Verständigung" (Education for International Understanding), emphasizes the importance of learning international integration both in school and through many forms of youth work. IJGD is part of this youth work, combining the educational aspect of inter-cultural learning with short-term work/service in community and reconstruction projects. IJGD places special emphasis on group dynamics as a methodology for inter-cultural group integration. Students from secondary schools and universities from all over Europe join in camps conducted primarily in Germany for a period of 4 to 8 weeks. One "North:South" cooperation is reported, when five German volunteers joined in camps in Argentina and Venezuela with domestic volunteers to work in community development and social work assignments. These few assignments were arranged by the Latin American office of the Coordinating Committee for International Voluntary Service (CCIVS) in Paris, to which most work camp organizations belong.

Ecumenical Work Camps, coordinated by the World Council of Churches and carried out by related national camp organizations, are more global in design and often have multi-national groups composed of "North" and "South" participants. They are primarily students, come from middle class family backgrounds and participate in camps during vacations. Here the emphasis is on aid to local communities—not necessarily church groups—to help relieve social problems and economic shortcomings. Inter-cultural learning is not ignored—but it is con-

ceived as a function growing out of the multi-cultural environment rather than an intentional effort, as is the case with IJGD.

The **Kenya Volunteer Development Association** (KVDA), grew out of Ecumenical Work Camps. It is now non-denominational and a Kenyan DDS with some "Northern" volunteer participation. A KVDA information leaflet well describes the work camp idea:

> *"Voluntary development work camping is a great deal more than just a group of people building or repairing something. It provides an opportunity for volunteers to give something more than money or skilled services; it provides means by which people can express a concern for others in a very tangible way—through their investment of time and physical energy. It is living in a community with people who need your help, learning to know and understand the life and aspirations of one another . . ."*

Philip M. Mbithi's Study on "Localizing Youth Volunteer Developmental Service in Kenya"[76] confirms that KVDA was able to mobilize these values in volunteers. In response to the question: *"What do you think is voluntary work?"*, the KVDA volunteers gave highest priority to: self-help, inter-tribal and inter-racial mixing, and the example educated students set by working in manual projects.

In sum, international work camps devoted to development work to this day are important modes for inter-cultural encounter and learning. Work camps have a firm common value basis; they cooperate largely within a groups of similars—church organizations, SCIs, pacifist organizations. They are elitist in group composition (students, the educated); all members have equal status from the outset; exposure to wider population groups is limited and, therefore, the inter-cultural learning process. The short-term duration of work camps, primarily during vacations, also reduces the exposure to inter-group conflicts and learning (if it comes too hard, the end is always in sight). Also, as multi-national groups, they maintain a "giver" role toward the "receiving" community. But one must add, if the example of KVDA can stand for many work camps can achieve a large degree of local citizens' mobilization which continues after the volunteers have left. The condition is, of course, that the community leadership directs the camp and the community maintains the projects after the volunteers have completed their work. The question is, whether these experiences can be transformed to a broader scope:

- to non-elitist groups, including the poor and disadvantaged;
- to long-term development work in local communities which reaches out into all sectors of society;
- to a mutli-cultural compositon of groups which includes minorities and volunteers from different regions of the world.

A second group of examples of partnership-cooperation are the instances, where **individual foreigners participate in Study-Services or Social and Technical Development Services** because they happen to be in the country.

- Community Service Volunteers in the UK are representative of the occasional application and service by American or European volunteers side by side

with CSVs in local projects and under the same conditions. They were primarily travelling students interested in such local experience. On occasion, it appeared, the foreigners were more interested in the room and board CSV provided than in the program itself—which ended either in a learning on the part of the foreigner or a dissatisfied separation.

- University Year for ACTION (UYA) in the US reports that foreign students from both industrialized and developing countries, who are enrolled in American universities, quite frequently participate in this Study-Service. Foreign students apply—as do their American colleagues—at the designated UYA office at their university and are placed under the same conditions for a one year full-time service in local community projects. They receive credit for their community service (see also Compendium No. 20/3 in Volume II). This, one of the most promising examples of partnership-cooperation with a Study-Service in an industrialized country, has not yet received the attention it deserves. It opens up new opportunities for reciprocity of service by the many foreign students—especially from developing countries—to "give" in an industrialized society where there is need for outside help. An expansion of this "happening" to a program for partnership-cooperation among Study-Services will be discussed later in this Chapter.

- Study-Services in Ethiopia, Indonesia, Nepal and Thailand report the following policies concerning the participation of foreign volunteers:

  - In Nepal, foreign students have an obligation—equal to the nationals—to serve for one year full-time in rural communities as part of their academic requirements.

  - In Ethiopia, Indonesia and Thailand, foreign students have no service obligation but can volunteer their services under conditions that are on par with the national student-volunteers. In the case of Ethiopia these conditions may have changed recently as the overall Study-Service follows different national goals. Indonesia and Thailand have similar rules even though the Indonesian program is obligatory for the national students and the Thai Study-Service is a voluntary program for graduating students. No data are available as to the extent to which these options have been used.

In both cases they are designed as partnership-cooperation between national and foreign volunteers under equal terms. These provisions provide a nucleus for a broader based partnership with students from other regions—and possibly for reciprocity of service in industrialized countries as well. However, there are no reports to what extent these policies have been tested in practice.

A third example is the **Volunteers To America** (VTA) which was conducted in the 1960's by the Bureau of Educational and Cultural Affairs of the US Department of State. It was conceived as a "Peace Corps in reverse" primarily for volunteers from developing countries serving in the US in schools and community development projects. VISTA was one of the prime

counterpart organizations and the foreigners joined American VISTAs in their regular projects. A 1969 guideline states the purpose of VTA as:

> *"(1) To provide the United States with needed skills, experience and viewpoints.*
>
> *(2) To provide participants with experience that will be valuable in their own countries' upon their return.*
>
> *(3) To enhance mutual understanding of people, cultures and nations.*
>
> *(4) To promote the concept of voluntary service as an educational and developmental tool."*

Volunteers were expected to be between 21 and 30 years old, healthy, mostly single. Married couples without children were acceptable if both were willing to serve as volunteers.Duration of service was slightly more than a year plus the training period. The educational background or compensating work experience of applicants should meet the job requirements. Fluency in English was a requirement, and applicants preferably should not have been in the United States previously. Volunteers should be committed to return to their home countries after completion of their service in the US. Sending countries had responsibility for volunteer recruitment and selection, with the advice of US Embassy staff and support from Peace Corps volunteers serving in the country. Sending countries were expected to provide a predepature orientation at home and pay for the international travel of the volunteer. In the United States, a six weeks' multi-national group training for VTAs from various countries, with cooperation from VISTA and former Peace Corps volunteers, provided technical instruction into the future field of work, cross-cultural and American studies and an English language "brush-up". Each receiving agency, such as VISTA or schools, were required to provide a one week introduction at the project site. Volunteers were assigned as assistant teachers or alongside VISTAs in poverty programs, social work, Head Start, etc. Volunteers received a VISTA living allowance or the equivalent in cases where they were assigned to schools. The first week after arrival, the foreign VTAs lived with local families until suitable housing was arranged with VISTAs, fellow teachers, or with other local families. The Department of State paid for travel in the US, living allowances, training in the US, and health and accident insurance for the duration of their service. This program, no doubt, was successful and many of the former VTAs can now be found in educational, youth or social work positions in their own countries. One of them is now the Director of Youth in his home country in Africa and, building on local traditions, he has introduced new forms of volunteer and development service to his country's youth program.

The problems of VTA were not related to the quality of the volunteers—who were still a group of the selected few compared to the masses of young people who may have been interested—nor to selection of appropriate projects, or to the commitment to return home after service. The problem was one of funding and organizational structure in the US. It was one program within the vast variety of State Department activities, funded by Congressional appropriations within State's budget, and with no separate organizational identity or constituency. Unfortunately, VTA was not made part of Peace Corps—which has authorization only to serve abroad. But here, or in VISTA, a more appropriate organizational format and a more secure funding basis could have been developed. Now, that Peace Corps and VISTA are united in ACTION, the organizational framework is—in principle—available to reintroduce such a reciprocity of service, and it is hoped that Congress can be persuaded that times have changed and require new forms of partnership.

Volunteers To America was the only example where a program was functioning—ahead of its time—which transformed the one-way "North:South" traffic of foreign volunteers to a two-way relationship.

NEW CAUSES FOR A NEW ERA

These earlier examples of partnership-cooperation, even though limited, are most important for current considerations. Their experience cannot be dismissed and should help to revamp the past "giver:receiver" relationships with DDS in developing countries.

However, it is primarily the change in scope, the complexity and acknowledgement of the emerging new global relationships which signal the entering upon a new era. That foreign volunteers in an assistance capacity will be less and less needed is only a small indication that foreign assistance as a response mechanism to development needs is coming to an end. The new global relationships are already emerging and they form the new causes or reasons why Development Services should continue and expand—but under new conditions.

Interdependence and Self-Reliance

The survival and security of the people on this globe is less and less in the hands of individual nations. Our current global conditions, and the direction we take, demand considerably enhanced joint management of affairs among nations—which includes the respect for the need for self-reliant decision-making and action by developing countries. Interdependence and Self-Reliance are a pair of global causes which cannot be separated, they affect all our lives. They demand new forms of action—with a broader scope, from all sectors of society, including Development Services.

During the past ten years, scientists from various disciplines and from all regions of the world studied these new relationships and the probable futures on our globe. Their findings have been published by Saul Mendlovitz as editor in: "On the Creation of a Just World Order"[78]. While the scientists differ largely on solutions, they agree on the underlying problems: *"Humankind faces five major problems: war, poverty, social injustice, environmental decay* and alienation." It is these five major problems which bind us together and give a special interpretation to interdependence and self-reliance.

The past years have demonstrated to all of us the limitations of this globe in terms of resources, environment, political power and personal affluence. The growing economic, technological, energy, monetary and communication interdependence requires more than new aid or trade contracts or international agreements between nations, as important as they are in their limited realm. Interdependence requires—as Lester Brown puts it— *"a world order in which conflict and competition among nations will be replaced with cooperation and a sense of community"*[17]. In the same direction, experts point to the limitations of international relations solely by foreign policy of nation states. Johan Galtung[48] emphasizes the increasing importance of non-territorial powers—*"the sixth continent"*—the international governmental, non-governmental and business organizations—to secure world peace and further true interdependence where no party exploits the other. Carl-Friedrich von Weizsäcker[125] in what he terms *"a conservative approach"* points to the need for a world government as a minimum

solution to enable the conduct of world interior politics instead of foreign policies to solve global problems. While a new world order, or a world government, appear to be big propositions and a long way from materialization, today's "Realpolitik" confirms his direction. The United Nations gains increasingly in importance as a global regulatory agency, a go-between in conflicts, and as a foreign assistance negotiator in developing countries. The global discussions to create a new economic world order, to change the terms of trade, to find a modus for the relief of the debt burden of developing countries and increase aid as a matter of economic justice, to regulate the harvest from oceans and space exploration, limit strategic arms and protect the environment—all of these concerns are examples of the increasing role of the non-territorial bodies. But progress is slow, and discussions involve only a limited number of people from a limited number of countries—the scientists, politicians, international officials and a few citizen groups directly concerned with these issues. There is no global awareness of these problems by the majority of people and many national officials not directly concerned with these affairs. The majority of the population today is not aware of global needs—and if they are, they act as if they do not exist. There is certainly a very limited awareness of the urgency to prepare people for these increasingly global relationships.

Interdependence from the point of view of an industrialized country was the concern of a series of studies undertaken by the Aspen Institute for Humanistic Studies in the United States. Abraham M. Sirkin, in his paper, "Living with Interdependence"[113] spoke of the necessary adjustments resulting from the world scarcity of energy and food, the environmental decay and the uneven distribution of income and growth. These are some of the adjustments he lists:

"• *that we are no longer sufficient to ourselves . . .*

- *that we will have to cooperate with others . . .*
- *that we cannot remain forever a rich island in a sea of poverty . . .*
- *that our personal prospects of material advancement may be reduced . . .*
- *that we no longer can afford waste of energy and resources . . .*
- *that we will need to give greater attention to 'fair shares' at home . . .*
- *that we may have to accept some further limitation on our freedom of action . . .*
- *that limits on the material side of things may lead, paradoxically, to some advances in the quality of life . . .*
- *that we will be living increasingly with major uncertainties . . .*
- *that posterity—what we take or leave behind on our planet—has to enter into all our calculations . . .*
- *that our indices of growth should include minuses as well as pluses, and should measure quality as well as quantity . . ."*

And Sirkin speaks to all industrialized countries when he points to the question of leadership and political will: *" . . . to persuade the . . . people to postpone satisfaction of its material*

wants and to modify its 'consumerism' in favor of 'quality-of-life' values will require courage and imagination . . . " Thus, it becomes clear that living with interdependence requires a normative mobilization, the setting of new values and priorities, which begin with restraint and adjustment at home. It is here that Domestic Development Services in industrialized countries and the Foreign Volunteer Services have a special obligation and opportunity to respond to these new causes.

Self-Reliance, the other side of this global coin, is of utmost importance to the nations in developing regions of the world. For them, self-reliance is a precondition for becoming partners in interdependent global relationships. In an account jointly sponsored by the Charles F. Kettering Foundation and the Overseas Development Council "Beyond Dependency"[40], experts from developing countries speak out on this issue. Samuel L. Parmar of India, defines self-reliance, not in a narrow sense as *". . . policies that will, over time, ensure a balance in the foreign exchange budget commensurate with a satisfactory rate of growth. In contrast, a more comprehensive understanding of self-reliance assigns central importance to the process of structural change . . . where growth fails to promote social justice, to utilize the economy's most abundant resources, to engender public participation in the development process, to reduce the concentration of economic power, or to assist in the establishment of more egalitarian patterns of international economic relationships, there may be self-reliance in the narrow sense but not in the deeper, structural sense."*[93]

Thus self-reliance is not a withdrawal from global relations but a search for more equitable and just ways of interdependence. Developing countries mistrust the Northern interpretation of interdependence as they represent burdens to them by way of past trade policies, technology transfers, debt policies, and indifference to the problems of the South. *"We in the South have to reexamine the presuppositions and norms on which our understanding of development and developmental policies have been based. The frame of reference must be our own socio-economic realities . . . It is suggested that the first step in the process of 'liberation' is to formulate social and economic goals and strategies that are relevant to domestic realities and needs."* And Parmar identifies the following specific components of self-reliant development[93]:

- *"Rejecting imitative approaches: the ambition to become a high production/high consumption society . . . is not in keeping with developing-country needs and possibilities . . . There is a fundamental difference between such socially useful production and consumption (in poor countries with sub-marginal levels of basic needs) and the "pursuit of affluence" that characterizes most countries of the North.*

- *Ensuring that social justice accompanies growth: the experience of the majority of developing nations shows that increases in GNP have aggravated, rather than decreased, economic inequalities . . . But development should first improve the lot of the poor people in a country, not strengthen the hold of a privileged minority . . .*

- *Giving priority to social and institutional change: theories and policies of development generally have been concerned with quantities of resources and have tended to ignore the social framework (consisting of economic, political, and social institutions). If values and institutions that constitute this framework are change-resisting, then resource use is linked to the status quo . . . None of the basic objectives of development—social justice, self-reliance, or*

growth—are possible without a radical transformation of the social framework."

Both interpretations of interdependence and self-reliance voiced from the perspectives of the industrialized and developing countries are not incompatible. In fact, they point to a large overlapping area of common concern—even though they depart from different situations at home. They concern:

- the need for normative mobilization of new values and priorities,
- the solution of the problems of self-reliant development and global interdependence for which a change of economic, social and political institutions is required,
- change and adjustments that must begin at home and with the individual.

The analyses in Chapters 4 through 7 have revealed that these issues are indeed the growing concern of Development Services in their emphasis of specific activity. It became clear that their value and justification of existence reside not only in the filling of gaps, but in the structural changes that they can affect in education, employment opportunity and citizen development participation. The emerging profile of the team concepts of interdependence and self-reliance provides new meaning and direction to Development Services, and it should spur their motivation to expand their future efforts.

New Values

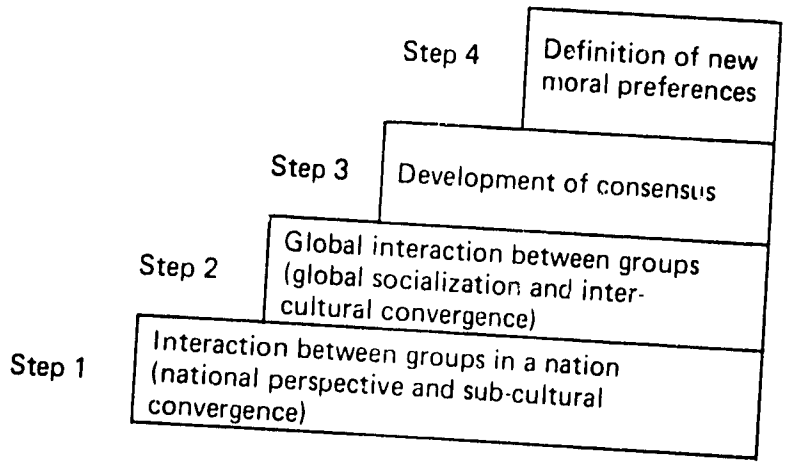
The five major and global problems—discussed in the previous Sub-Chapter—war, poverty, social and economic injustice, environmental decay and alienation, demand a reconsideration of the values abroad in all societies, which brought about these problems.

"Purposeful world reform is a quest for the realization of new values, a question of defining new moral preferences", says Ali Mazrui, the political scientist from Tanzania in his contribution on "World Culture and the Search for Human Consensus"[75]. He underlines that new orders—such as interdependent and self-reliant relationships as interpreted above—require for their realization a change of attitudes and new priorities. Lester Brown confirms this point in his book, "World without Borders"[17]: *"If our society is to survive and progress in the seventies and eighties, we need a new ethic, a reordering of global priorities and fresh leadership. Continuing improvement in human well-being on a global scale is tied to the emergence of an increasingly unified global society".*

The creation of new attitudes and values was earlier identified as a process of normative mobilization[42]—new norms that have found wider acceptance and are controlled by a broader sector of the global society. Mazrui further specifies this process of realization of new values: *"To have new values accepted is, by definition, a question of consensus."* And to build consensus: *". . . we see consensus as a problem of building up supporting values, and we see the latter as an outgrowth of cultural convergence."* And finally, to the cultural convergence in global terms: *"To move from national to global perspectives requires in turn a globalization of processes of socialization and cultural convergence. Normative convergence entails interaction between groups."*

In adopting this argumentation of Mazrui, one can identify various steps to arrive at new global perspectives of moral preferences which may be described by the following scheme:

DIAGRAM 3 PROCESS TO DEVELOP NEW GLOBAL PREFERENCES



This diagram makes it abundantly clear that new moral preferences, or a new ethic, is not something which can be created or "thought out"—it emerges from a growth process initiated through inter-personal encounters. The interaction between culturally different groups of people will set this growth process in motion—both nationally and internationally.

It is only a small step to perceive the relevancy of these value causes for Development Services. It should be recalled that national, philosophical and/or religious values played a significant role in the earlier establishment of these services. The service was designated as the mode to make these values viable to change attitudes toward one another across cultural, tribal and national borders. The broader perspective of the new global value causes discussed above does not eliminate the initial doctrine which established the service. In contrast, a strong belief (but not fanatic) in national, cultural and philosophical values forms a solid basis for self identity and permits easier convergence beyond their own culture and nation. A lack of, or wavering from, such a "home base", results in insecure identities and a mediocre contribution to the forming of new global consensus.

As Development Services cooperate in real world local community situations, aware of their own value basis, they can be the perfect mode for interaction among culturally different groups of ordinary people—and not elites—and thereby contribute to forming global consensus by people. As they operate within the dichotomy of interdependence and self-reliance they must translate the big problems into small coins, cut them down to local size—and the new consensus and preferences will emerge also on this scaled down community level.

This is one of the strongest reasons for partnership-cooperation among all forms of Development Services—that, as people to people services, they actually realize inter-cultural convergence on the community basis. Their consensus is formed on the same level—otherwise they could not cooperate. The realization of interdependence and self-reliance through money, trade and other political regulations is necessary—but it will falter in the long run if the people in all countries cannot participate, and experience and form their new consensus and preferences.

Mutuality of Learning and Helping

In a world where interdependence, self-reliance and new preferences for moral values have become the parameters for existence, the new partnership roles must be learned mutually. We are equally at a loss, or have limited notions of solutions, so that mutuality is demanded. There is no one any longer "who knows it all"—if there ever was—but the appearance of "knowing" dominated the international scene in the past.

The mutuality of group interaction, by way of joint learning and helping in real world situations, furthers a kind of consensus of preferences necessary to guide the emerging interdependent and self-reliant cooperation. It is through mutuality of learning and helping that *"fresh leadership"* can emerge and *"a sense of global community"*[17] can evolve.

Here we have the new reason and the new place for Development Services. Their cause for existence has received a new interpretation, because the relationships on this globe have changed. Mutuality of learning and helping to develop consensus and new priorities for successful interdependent and self-reliant relationships have implications for Development Services:

- International cooperation is no longer an option which only the richer or more settled services can afford—it has become a national interest to be globally prepared and to participate in the convergence of cultures and make their own ways and demands known in the forming of consensus.

- Partnership-cooperation on equal terms alone enables mutuality. It is not so much an option opened after the foreign assistance "givers" become obsolete—but a need for the "givers" and the "receivers" to learn a partner's way.

- Foreign Volunteer Services are not obsolete when their foreign assistance role diminishes, because sufficient national skilled manpower can take over. Their new role as equal partners to DDS in developing countries is necessary for development of global perspectives and action.

- Horizontal mutuality of learning and helping among DDS located within one region is important for growth and for the development of intra-regional relationships. But it does not necessarily guarantee that the "giver:receiver" assistance relationships are overcome and self-reliance and interdependence learned, as many regional activities in Africa, Asia and Latin America continue to be dependent on foreign aid.

- Global mutuality in learning and helping, that is with the participation of the Foreign Volunteer Services and DDS from industrialized countries, is necessary to develop a perspective and consensus to face the problems of inter-

dependence and self-reliance. After all, Development Services together represent the dichotomy of North:South relationships—and it takes North: South mutuality of service to match this perspective. But this means too, that mutuality entails also reciprocity of service—the service by volunteers from the developing regions to the industrialized North.

The old causes of Development Services, and their resulting mandates, have not changed: they still respond to the basic needs of target populations for food, health, housing, clothing, education and employment, and help to enable development participation for all. What has changed are the global relationships which will govern their future development efforts as new common causes: interdependence and self-reliance, intercultural convergence to form consensus and new values in mutuality of learning and helping.

COMMON NEEDS

The needs, it may be recalled, are a quantitatively and qualitatively structured profile of conditions which require relief and determine the nature of the response.

The quantitative needs in both developing and industrialized countries are obvious: people are not prepared to communicate and cope with each other in self-reliant interdependencies. International efforts and funds are concentrated to create new economic systems, solve the problems of monetary and political interdependence or trade—but the people at large are not prepared. Not only are the global perspectives in education rudimentary or non-existent, opportunities for joint coping on equal terms are even fewer. They are primarily restricted to personnel at the non-territorial international institutions. And their incomes and conditions are by far so superior to their colleagues in countries they serve, that there is more frequent reinforcement of old prejudices than occurrence of cultural convergence.

Thus, it appears that only Development Services, students and faculty/teacher exchange programs, and the previously described short-term work camp activities are the modes presently available to meet the needs of the common man—and not merely that of a few elities—to experience multi-cultural and joint coping on equal terms. In the case of student exchanges or scholarships the characteristics of joint coping are met only if these programs go beyond the classroom and entail joint work as in Study-Services. By examining the organizational vehicles available today to enable a broad range encounter for common people, one must admit that no one is better prepared to meet the conditions of development participation and mutual learning and helping than Development Services. This may come as a surprise even for the officials of such services—as it surprises this writer—that the needs for equal partnership-cooperation, demanding action from Development Services, may be greater than anticipated.

Therefore, to serve the causes of interdependent and self-reliant development in global perspectives, the common needs for partnership-cooperation to which Development Services are demanded to respond can be summarized:

- to enable a broad range of population groups in all regions of the world to participate in partnership-cooperation development projects
- to provide upward mobility for people, irrespective of their educational background, to contribute to mutual learning and helping in partnership-

cooperation projects and avoid exclusivity of such international projects normally open to only a few elites

- to base such projects in local communities and adhere to their needs for development participation

- to maintain equal service terms and assignment conditions for all volunteers—irrespective of their educational background, previous income or social status

- to observe participation in decision-making on the part of local communities and the multi-cultural volunteer groups in order to develop consensus for action.

In quantitative terms these needs are virtually unlimited as people from all walks of life should participate, and it is up to the individual services to ensure that partnership-cooperation is not restricted to a few elites.

OBJECTIVES AND INDICATORS OF EFFECTIVENESS

The central idea is to avoid replacing existing objectives of individual Development Services with unrealistic propositions, and to point out the direction for a future partnership-cooperation that is responsive to the changed global causes and needs.

Proposed Objectives:

1. to create joint service opportunities in local community development for volunteers from different cultures and nationalities within the same region and on a global basis,

2. to design joint training programs to prepare for such multi-cultural cooperation

3. to develop joint work projects which are directed by the internal leadership of communities,

4. to assign volunteers from different cultures and nations on a reciprocity basis, to work side by side under equal terms and status for such time as the mobilization of the project requires,

5. to coordinate such partnership-cooperation under the leadership of the hosting Development Service which should be responsible for the effectiveness of the program and the well-being of all volunteers.

Following the pattern of analysis developed in this study, the changed causes, the new common needs, and these objectives give the yardsticks and profile of the response system: the

acutal partnership-cooperation activities. By comparing the results of these activities with the objectives, needs and causes—that is, whether they were eliminated or modified—one arrives at a measure of effectiveness for partnership-cooperation.

Therefore, indicators of the **effectiveness of partnership-cooperation** would include:

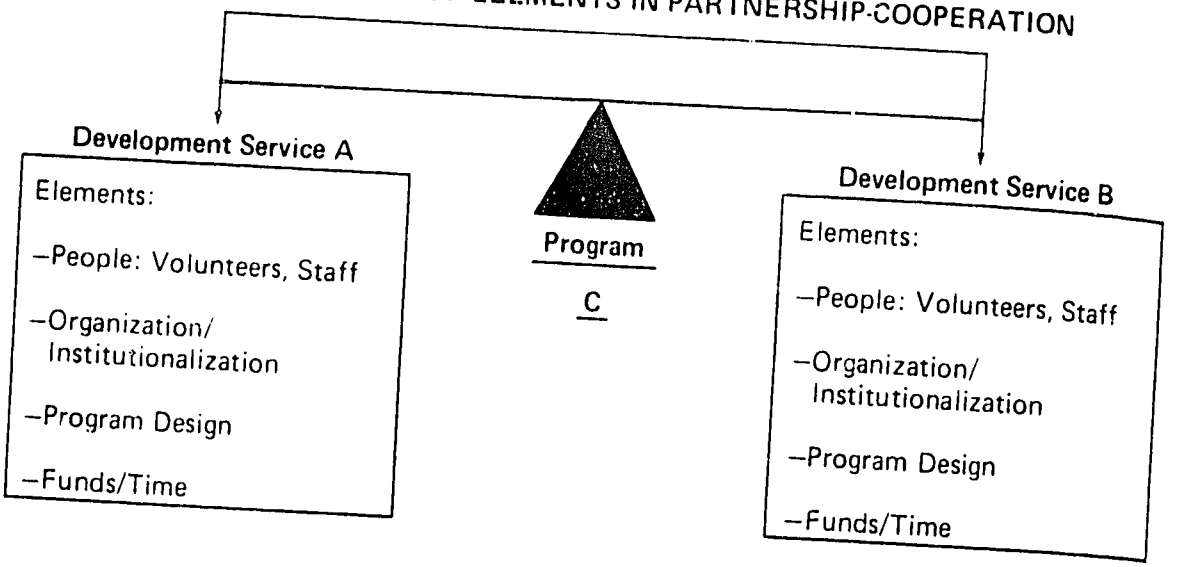
- Increase of local self-reliance over a previous stage in terms of the creation of employment, improvement of nutrition, expanded access to education, development of local technology;
- Increase in local mobilization over a previous stage indicated by local citizens participation in joint work, decision-making, the maintenance of development projects, the forming of new sub-elites who take leadership in new projects, the attraction of new funds or the creation of new income which is controlled locally, internal leadership over all outside assistance irrespective of whether provided nationally or internationally;
- Increase in inter-group communication and cooperation among volunteers over the initial phase and lasting over a longer period of time, indicated by accomplishment in work projects, responses of local citizens, cooperation of local officials, and by the way they solve inter-group conflicts;
- Increase in adjustment to interdependence over a previous stage, indicated by the personal living style of volunteers, both those from industrialized countries serving in developing countries, and those from the latter serving in Europe or North America. It would also be apparent in the project policies of the services themselves and development education activity at home;
- Formation of a consensus within the group, and over time, on their mutual work/service experience, their differences and common understandings, and their gain in global perspective.

In sum, partnership-cooperation—while it is the continuation of development work under new relationships—has a conscious and strong new emphasis on joint experience based learning and personal growth. The cross-cultural learning and the need for gaining global perspectives cannot be expected to be a side product of joint working in a local community. It requires reinforcement through specific program features ranging from authority and leadership, organization and funding, to various alternatives for work program design. The following Sub-Chapters will outline these characteristics for partnership-cooperation.

ELEMENTS FOR PARTNERSHIP-COOPERATION

In principle, equality, reciprocity and mutuality in the engagement between two or more Development Services will determine the elements. These three standards are conceptually related and must be present and in balance in the elements if partnership-cooperation should materialize as portrayed in this Diagram:

Diagram 4. BALANCE OF ELEMENTS IN PARTNERSHIP-COOPERATION



This concept, adapted from a model developed by Frederick J. Lewis[71], demonstrates that reciprocity and mutuality of problem solving in Program C can occur only if there is a reasonable balance in the elements present in Development Services A and B.

These are the elements which should be brought in balance in Developrnent Services program activities:

1. **Equal service conditions and status for all volunteer partners** *including allowances, housing, access to work responsibilities and positions for intra-group management in accordance with personal abilities is a prime requirement for partnership-cooperation.*

The reasons for and the importance of, these equal conditions have been discussed—their realization is another matter. A comparison between Table 48 and Table 60 of volunteer costs in Social and Technical Development (STD) and Foreign Volunteer Services (FVS) shows that the volunteer cost structure itself has many common features; it is the level and the type of provisions which differ. For example, health care, pensions and insurance for disability and accidents are strongly influenced by the home country's legal requirements and cultural heritage, while the various allowances for living, clothing, housing and vacation, and the furnishing of vehicles and work equipment are influenced more by the philosophy and policy of the service. They comprise the provisions which primarily create the difference in condition and status among volunteers. Thus, no basic problems are expected to maintain necessary health

care, insurance, social benefits according to each country's requirements. Local housing, as customary for many services, should be provided free of charge as a contribution in kind from the host country. The main problems anticipated are the adjustment of the actual monthly living allowances paid to the volunteer, arrangements for transportation apart from work, and the balancing of special favors such as vacation allowances and household equipment (refrigerators). For volunteers from FV Services of industrialized countries this adjustment would represent a reduction in current levels of living standards, whereas STD Services in the North would not require much adjustment when sending their volunteers South. On the other hand, for volunteers from the South serving in industrialized countries it would mean a pay raise in absolute terms—but their actual cost of living would also increase significantly.

The main question is: How to achieve this equality for those who must take reductions? The image of sacrifice, or the suggestion that "saints" are required for partnership-cooperation should be avoided. The best approach which can be suggested from here is an open discussion with volunteers to achieve a voluntary decision on their part. In the same manner, it will be necessary to discuss the reasons and limitations of the "pay raise" for the volunteers from developing countries about to serve in Europe or North America. Thus, the achievement of this first requirement of equality in service conditions is, in fact, realized interdependence.

Equal opportunity in work and for intra-group positions should be decided solely on the basis of individual qualifications. Quotas should not enter into the assignment of tasks because they are unproductive and hinder personal challenge and growth. Work positions are expected to be assigned on the basis of technical/professional qualifications by the project agency or local community leaders. In such assignments the old counterpart concept should be reconsidered. As discussed in Chapter 7, the counterpart requirement in the assignment of foreign assistance volunteers, overall, did not work. But here, an opportunity exists to team up a foreign and a domestic volunteer as counterparts. This would not require the creation of new staff positions as in technical assistance projects. And it also would not guarantee that the skills gained through this team would remain in the village, as the domestic volunteer is expected to depart upon completion of his term. The arrangement would achieve the raising of the overall skill levels of both the domestic and the foreign volunteer—wherever they may be applied afterward. Thus, the teaming up of counterpart assignments would enhance skill transfer in general, vice versa learning, and the overall cross-cultural communication basis between nationals and foreigners. Isolated assignments of foreigners (as in the case of the Chilean MVT) should definitely be avoided.

In contrast to the designated work positions, the distribution of intra-group functions should be left to the volunteers to decide. As much as possible, volunteers should manage their own affairs without outside interference. Some general guidelines developed by the team itself during training would be sufficient to set a framework for intra-group decisions.

Finally, provisions should be made by the volunteer sending organizations to pay the returning volunteer—after a successfully completed assignment—some re-adjustment allowance, according to internal standards, and support him to find permanent employment. Volunteers participating in partnership-cooperation should not encounter fewer chances for later employment than do those who remain at home. These measures would also assist in preventing a "brain drain", feared by some if their volunteers serve in industrialized countries.

2. **Reciprocity of service from developing to industrialized countries** *is a built-in principle of partnership which guarantees all partners both giving and receiving roles.*

The one-way sending and receiving approach in volunteer cooperation should be abandoned at the outset, even if in practice—at least in the beginning—most domestic volunteers in developing countries will have less opportunity to serve in Europe or North America. Reciprocity of service should be part of the original program design.The plan should clearly state the intent by all partners to move in the direction of two-way cooperation—if possible, including the steps and schedule on how to achieve this goal. Even if legislators and supervising officials in industrialized and, perhaps, in developing countries as well are not yet convinced of the need to change to partnership-cooperation and reciprocity, nevertheless, it is important to drive at a clear policy in this respect from the start. Much persuasion will be required to make reciprocity a regular procedure. Examples for such reversal of current procedure are outlined in the next Sub-Chapter.

3. **Equal conditions, status and reciprocity of staff assignments** *between Development Services in developing and industrialized countries involve work assignments and living conditions according to the host country's procedure.*

It can be expected that staff from the foreign Development Service partner will be involved in partnership-cooperation projects. Foreign staff may be integrated into the hosting service under the same living conditions as national staff members. Work positions should be designated on the basis of professional qualifications and experience in the assignment area. Foreign staff supervision would reside with the director of the hosting Development Service and not with the sending organization. This, of course, would be true for staff from the North serving in the South and vice versa, as well for horizontal intra-regional cooperation. In sum, the staff arrangements are similar to those for volunteers, and they are expected to encounter the same problems of adjustment.

There is one difference however, because staff members normally have wider family obligations that must be met. For example, Dienste in Übersee (Service Overseas) in Germany pays their mostly professional and married volunteers monthly allowances at the salary level of their host country counterparts. The difference between an equivalent internal German salary is placed monthly in a separate account in Germany issued in the name of the volunteer. These funds are available only for education of children, emergencies, support of parents at home and similar social obligations arising from their professional and family status. Funds are not available to improve their living standards during assignments abroad. Upon returning home the savings are at the disposal of the former volunteer for re-adjustment.

The inclusion of staff into the partnership-cooperation is considered not only a significant learning experience for partners from both sides but an essential element to move away from the "giver:receiver" relationship. The "burden" or opportunity—depending from which angle one perceives partnership—should not be borne solely by the volunteers.

4. **Mutuality of learning and helping** *in volunteer training and work/service assignments is a principle applied to the design of the various program tasks.*

Programs should be operated as far as possible along the regular procedure of the hosting service—if they have been proven to be effective in terms of community needs and efficient in cost structure. Program tasks which reflect mutuality of learning and helping include:

- **Selection of volunteers:** while pre-selection of volunteers should remain with the individual services, the final placement in projects both of foreigners and nationals, requires the participation of the hosting Development Service and the community they serve.

- **Joint volunteer training** in the host country is essential. For foreign volunteers, pre-departure training, especially to develop language proficiency for basic communication is advised. Joint training in the host country should be conducted in the working language of the project and be interlinked with culture and country studies. While foreigners, in all probability, will have to learn a local language (apart from the international language which may not be their mother tongue), the nationals likewise should be trained in a foreign language—if they master the indigenous one. Either one of the international languages they will later need, or the language of their foreign counterparts should be pursued. To master more than the native language is a prime requirement for any cross-cultural understanding. Language training is an area where a multi-lingual group of volunteers can participate as trainers to improve each others skills.

  A second priority is the preparation for community work, to learn about local structures and the methods of action-planning and community organizing. If at all possible, special technical skill training should be avoided at this time. Volunteers should be selected because they have the needed skills, or they would have received special technical training before the joint program starts.

  During the joint training, the principles of group dynamics should be applied so that volunteers learn to cope with each other in practice. Only a small part of the joint training should be conducted in classroom sessions. If possible, the larger part should take place in local communities with the participation of villagers. At the end of training the village experience should be analyzed in order to clarify misunderstandings, correct wrong perceptions and leave no illusions of the true content of the work ahead.

- **Joint work assignments in local communities in developing countries** should aim at development participation of target populations. Details of such conditions were discussed in Chapters 8-10. To recall briefly, they include the following characteristics:

  – community leadership of volunteer projects

  – community organizing to carry on own affairs

- provision of basic needs (health, nutrition, housing, clothing) largely through community resources

- employment orientation

- opportunities for recurrent education or training

- application of appropriate or village technology with local materials.

In other words, joint work/service assignments in developing countries should follow modernizing development approaches to achieve high levels of citizen participation and upward mobility.

It is important to select project sites which place both the foreigner and the national volunteer into another culture. This puts both groups in the same position for social comparison and enhances the potential for cross-cultural communication. Mettee found[81] that under such joint work conditions, instead of joint study, a potential "threat" to self-concept is further reduced because the different participants compete on the same level.

- **Joint work projects in industrialized countries** should also be based on local communities and their various organizations. In the United States, local needs are clearly defined by the legislation dealing with the elimination of poverty in its broadest sense. In the UK, CSV specifies the needs further as those of the disabled, the elderly, the sick who need a more humanized treatment, the young offenders who have difficulty returning to society, in short, all those affected by the social ills of industrialized mass societies and minority problems. It is here that a foreigner meets real needs and can gain insight into the development problems of an industrialized society. Again, work assignments should follow the pattern of the hosting service and foreigners and nationals should be teamed.

For foreign volunteers from developing countries there are a few work program areas of special interest. The idea is to link directly the contribution of volunteers with learning in areas where industrialized countries are suffering under increasing problems and where developing countries still may have the chance to avoid the errors that helped to create them. They include:

- Environmental control. The underlying theme could be: Don't pollute as we do, learn to contain the effects of industrialization before they get out of hand and show us your healthier ways.

- Nutrition: Don't poison your food as we do and introduce unhealthy "easier" diets—explain to us your way of balanced nutrition.

- Urbanization: modify your belief in the better life in urban centers; learn to favor the development of rural areas.

- Transportation: Don't fall into the trap of believing that the private automobile is the prime mode for transportation; it is primarily a status

symbol. Most people in mass societies depend on public transportation for freedom of movement.

- Culture: Don't mistake our civilization for culture. Civilization can only provide amenities—it is culture that makes a human being. Teach us your culture—and your language—that we may expand our horizons and re-discover our own best values.

The idea of such a learner/teacher role for the foreign volunteer is, of course double edged: he will bring to communities in industrialized countries the thinking of other worlds; will open their provincial perspectives through first hand experience and thus provide interdependent education to Northerners. At the same time—it is hoped—his eyes will be opened to the limitations of the ways of industrialized countries and he will look for new, home-based, solutions when returning from abroad. For the foreigner, it is another approach to learn the importance of the self-reliance efforts of his own country.

The reason for suggesting these themes here is that all materials indicate that the presence of foreigners—particularly from developing countries—in the past has not been used by the industrialized countries to open up their own communities for global learning. In terms of the mobilization theory, here are some foreign assets which can be activated to participate in mutual helping and learning in industrialized communities. A conscious effort to employ these resources would open a two-way learning and teaching experience.

- **Joint learning programs** require a design and methodology which apply the work program experience to gain more insight and understanding in both the work content and environment, and the cross-cultural relationships. This is a new program sector which needs a clear designation of time, place and curriculum or learning module. In the past, learning during work was a side product which "happened". This new sector of mutuality requires further study and specific planning as only rudimentary experience exist. Learning needs as they can be determined from this study include:

  - technical update on jobs that volunteers perform, including reasons why, determination of achievements, what outside aid is available for their projects,

  - development of further insight in the host community structure and decision-making behavior,

  - assessment of internal group relations, including consensus and differences on issues growing out of work or life in the community and within the group.

Group sessions should not only enhance knowledge or skills but also should discuss changes of opinions and values, and the meaning of such changes. The learning program should avoid rigid formalities which would hinder the frank exchange of views. It is difficult from a distance to set aside a time frame for such a learning program—which may also depend on the composi-

tion of the volunteer group. In general, few and scattered learning hours during the week are less effective. Block sessions at intervals, combining the learning time in one or two days, or in a weekend retreat, should be preferred.

5. **Organization and Administration** *of partnership-cooperation is the responsibility of the hosting Development Service. The director of the hosting service provides the leadership and has the management and administrative authority to carry out the program.*

In other words, existing host structures are used to introduce and excute this new partnership. This includes the responsibility for foreign volunteers or staff, in the same manner as it is carried out for nationals. Through such a structure, the field offices of Foreign Volunteer Services, which were an obstacle to more intensive cooperation in the past, become obsolete. The care and support for the foreigner—which is a moral and legal obligation of the sending organization—is transfered to the hosting organization.

In foreign assistance projects, work supervision was delegated to the hosts, while administrative and general support was a task of field offices of the outside service. Apart from programming new volunteer projects, the time of field staff was principally occupied with paying volunteer allowances, financial reporting, attending to a volunteer's problems, and generally representing the service in the host country. In partnership-cooperation, many of these functions become obsolete, and those remaining could, for example, be distributed as follows:

- Project programming through the hosting services units with the participation of foreign staff for a limited period. Or, in case a foreign staff member participates in the full project, he or she should be involved in the planning.

- Regular care for the individual welfare of the foreign volunteer should be in the hands of the hosting service. In case of emergency provisions should be made to involve officials from the sending organization so they may meet their legal and moral obligation toward the volunteer.

- Payments to volunteers—if possible only one allowance covering all monthly costs—should be made either through the hosting organization or directly from the headquarters of the sending organization to the volunteer. This will depend on local conditions, but the involvement of field offices should be avoided because it is too costly.

6. **Institutionalization** *of partnership-cooperation programs involves contracts between the sending and receiving Development Services, designation of an organizational unit, authorization of leadership and supervision, and development of a solid funding basis.*

The designation of an organizational unit, leadership authority and internal supervision for partnership-cooperation programs in host countries has been described. The authority for the direction of such a program is derived from two sources: (a) the legislation which established the partner services and (b) a special contract between them. Most founding legislation of

Study-Services, STD and Foreign Volunteer Services permits such cooperation and even has provisions to expend a certain portion of the annual budget for such purpose. This is not the case for most Training and Employment Schemes which focus exclusively on national development. They would require special permission from their legislators to enter into partnership-cooperation which changes their current procedure.

Agreements should be arranged between the immediate partners without the involvement of intermediators. This third party role was helpful in the early MVT days to generate interest and bridge gaps between partners. Today, however, it would not serve any additional purpose which could not better be achieved by direct agreement. If possible, one uniform contract should be developed between all foreign services and the hosting institutions to ensure equality of conditions and homogeneous operations. A uniform contract also furthers continuity of such cooperation programs, and enables new services to join later without interrupting an on-going program. That such uniform contracts are possible has been recently demonstrated by the Commission of European Communities which applies one form for co-financing projects with non-governmental organizations.

The hosting contract partner should—if possible—be removed from internal party politics, and preferably be an institution designated for regular development work. As the earlier discussion of past experience with MVTs has revealed, the stability of the partners joining in such cooperation is a core element for success.

7. **Co-financing** *is part of the requirement for partnership-cooperation between Development Services. While a broad range of sources of funds should participate, the financial administration of such programs should be in the hands of the hosting service.*

The two-way approach applies here too—even though it is obvious that the resources differ largely among partners. DDS in general, and in developing countries more specifically, can less afford to send volunteers abroad than Foreign Volunteer Services, which have a budget laid out to cover such cost items.

Co-financing will involve contributions in cash and in kind, and new ways should be explored to use other existing programs to facilitate work/service partnerships through their channels. This approach will be explained below. It is suggested that a "cooperative banking system" be developed which sets out the costs and funding sources, in cash and in kind, on both sides of the balance sheet. When expenditures occur, funds are disbursed in cash or kind—in whichever "currency" they have been banked before. This idea is taken from the Thailand Volunteer Leaders for Community Development which developed a local "banking system" for volunteer contributions of villagers' time for their community development projects. These commitments of labor are "banked" at the District Community Development Center and expended (that is the volunteer is called for work) when manpower is needed in the project. Similarly, local housing, transportation, land for volunteers' vegetable gardens, etc. can be "banked" by local communities in kind, while participating services provide the cash for living allowances, health care and other needed services.

More specifically, the cash funds needed to train volunteers and support them in the field should be borne by the regular budgets of the participating services. No administrative overhead should be charged by the hosting organization as no special procedure is required above the regular administration.

It is more difficult to finance volunteers from developing to industrialized countries than from North to South. Various approaches should be considered:

- Study-Services should establish linkages with student scholarship programs to initiate reciprocity of service through foreign study. The scholarships would take care of the costs for international travel which is a main obstacle for any reverse service. The concept of reverse Study-Service is discussed in the next Sub-Chapter. Similar arrangements should be considered for faculty participation.

- Foreign volunteers from developing regions who serve in the more costly North could be paid by the local community organizations or by the hosting DDS. International travel, however, should be funded by the sending organization or by local community fund-raising (see below).

- Volunteers from STD Services in both industrialized and developing countries could be placed on a pure exchange basis with the hosting service paying the local costs for the foreigner out of funds which are part of the regular budget. In these cases, the problem is the cost for international travel which could be met by additional fund-raising activities.

Other possible sources of funding:

- Local community fund-raising for scholarships for foreign volunteers who will serve the local community.

- Any savings that services from industrialized countries earn because of reduction of volunteer allowances for partnership, could be banked to help finance volunteers from developing countries which otherwise could not afford to facilitate reciprocity of service. This could be a fund source for volunteer exchange programs between a developing and an industrialized country.

- Contributions from foundations, governments, private and individual sources to sponsor specific partnership-cooperation projects which are clearly outlined—the "CUSO approach" as described in Chapter 7.

The one cost item which is most difficult to finance through such funding approaches is international travel. Some have suggested to establish a special international fund for this purpose. This should be considered a last resort, because it is too impersonal, difficult to administer and—in fact—least likely to attract any interest from potential contributors. Preferably, fund-raising should be conducted for each program in participating countries and thereby involve more citizens in partnership-cooperation.

These seven elements of partnership-cooperation are regarded as yardsticks needing further development into generally accepted standards if these new relationships are to become a reality. The elements also require specification and adjustment to local conditions when applied to practical situations without dilution of the principal theme of balance.

OUTLINES FOR ACTION

In general, partnership-cooperation among Development Services can be conducted:

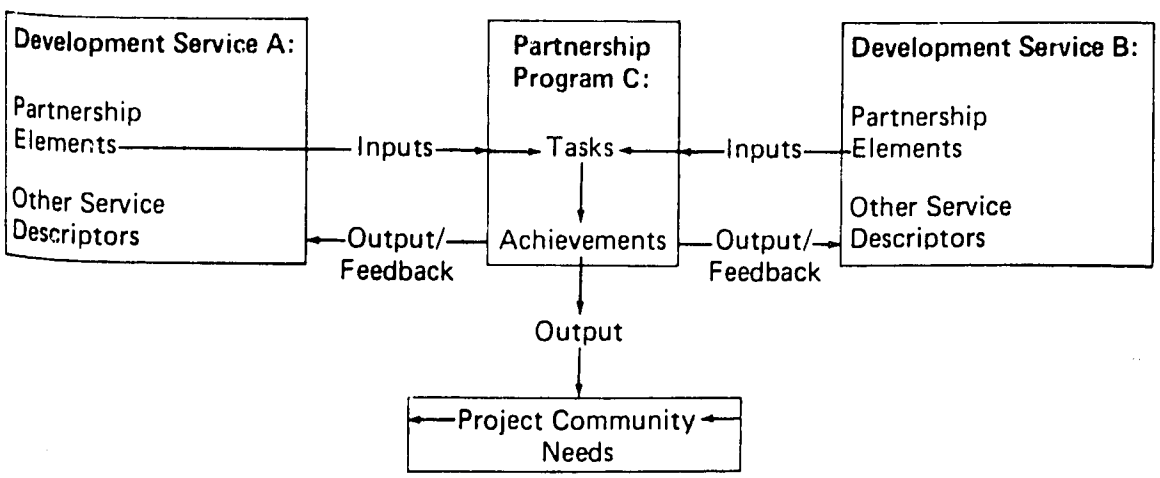
- intra-regional, as a horizontal cooperation between Domestic Development Services of an industrialized or developing region, and
- inter-regional involving either more than one developing region or a North: South cooperation.

In outlining partnership-cooperation programs three principles are pursued:

- the seven elements of partnership-cooperation discussed above become principal characteristics of each program.
- partnership-cooperation should use existing structures and relate to on-going programs
- the findings of this study should be integrated into partnership-cooperation projects.

In applying these principles, certain changes in the management process of Development Services are initiated. While traditionally, Development Services conduct their program activities within the one organizational framework as outlined in Diagram 2 (page 38), in partnerships program inputs and tasks become interlinked between cooperating organizations as the following Diagram describes:

Diagram 5. BALANCE OF PROGRAM ACTION IN PARTNERSHIP-COOPERATION



While the inputs represent volunteers, staff, organization and funds, the tasks stand for the mutuality of problem solving, i.e. learning and helping programs. The tasks produce achievements, the program output, which should meet the needs of the community and feed back to the input sustaining Development Services A and B.

This Diagram, adapted from a model developed by F. J. Lewis[71], explains that the traditional one program activity of a Development Service is transformed into three units: the two Services A and B providing inputs and the actual Partnership Program C which balances inputs and tasks and thereby furnishes a bridge or interface between the partners. In contrast to this model, the traditional foreign assistance as "giver" operates as one program with the "receiver" accepting the output as aid. In agreeing upon, and implementing, a Partnership Program C, Development Services A and B in actuality interface their management and thus move interdependence into action.

Finally, outlines are not plans. To prepare implementation of partnership-cooperation projects in actual cases, detailed local programming is necessary. Also, in order to keep cooperation close to community needs, a continuing action-planning process, replacing occasional feedback, should be part of a design.

With these principal considerations in mind, partnership-cooperation among Development Services is outlined here in four types of action programs for each category of Development Service.

- Joint volunteer projects among DDS in developing regions and/or with Northern volunteers from their DDS and Foreign Volunteer Services
- Staff partnerships both parallel to joint volunteer projects and independent of them
- Reverse service of volunteers from developing regions to DDS of industrialized countries
- Volunteer exchange through "sister programs" between services, communities or universities.

Partnership for Training and Employment Schemes

Joint volunteer projects among T&E Schemes are difficult to envision. Their prime goal is to bring rural youth out of the stage of illiteracy and under- or unemployment and prepare them for a satisfactory life in their rural community. They are, in Maslow's terms of the hierarchy of needs, concerned with survival and self-maintenance of their participants and cannot—as yet—afford outreach. From our current stage of insight in these services, joint volunteer projects would not provide the additional learning or personal growth necessary for these volunteers to justify the expense. One can think, of course, of joint projects or volunteer exchange between the Benin Clubs 4-D and the Kenya Village Polytechnic—but for the costs of a one-way airticket one farmer can be settled in self-employment in his village.

Another matter are joint projects between services of neighboring countries. As most countries formerly under colonial powers, have artifical borders cutting across tribal and language areas, joint projects from both sides of the fence can be envisaged along such borders. A precondition is, of course, that peaceful relations are desired. The common cultural heritage—often even the language—and the common needs for basic village development would provide a solid basis for such joint local projects. The main question is the political will and leadership to view peaceful border development as an important linkage between neighbors.

These joint efforts in youth training and service between neighboring countries seem to be even more important if both belong to the same regional economic system. Under such conditions, it appears, the need for regional integration—not only of economic systems but people—demands joint action programs even for Training and Employment Schemes.

An example from Europe may illuminate the point. After World War II, the Deutsch-Französische Jugendwerk (German-French Youth Enterprise) was founded to accommodate a variety of joint youth projects, including work camps to help to overcome animosities on both sides. Mostly school youth participate in the short-term programs— and in this respect they differ from Training and Employment Schemes—but the idea was to provide a broad range of first hand experience in work and vacation between youth of two former arch enemies. As neighboring countries, for centuries France and Germany were plagued by border claims from both sides—which led to nothing but war. In today's progressed state of world affairs, peaceful relations and understanding among neighboring peoples on a day-to-day work basis are an essential first step.

It is in this limited area that Training and Employment Schemes are encouraged to undertake joint volunteer projects—without reducing their effectiveness or creating additional, often unaffordable, costs.

Staff partnerships with Training and Employment Schemes—if they are based on current practice—can be realized best by Foreign Volunteer Services. Most current foreign assistance to DDS is conducted through foreign volunteers assigned as technical staff to these Schemes. They are the same organizations which would prefer to discontinue technical assistance by foreign volunteers when sufficient national staff becomes available. They have also recommended new forms of cooperation to supplement special skills, generate ideas and transfer experience. Thus, it appears, it is not so much the foreign presence but the competition with and domination of national staff which should be avoided—precisely the goal of partnership-cooperation. If one adds that staff development is one of the major bottlenecks of T&E Schemes, a new emphasis for staff partnerships emerges: instead of filling skill gaps, the focus should be on the development of staff capabilities. Apart from equal assignment conditions between national staff and foreign volunteers engaged in staff capacities, the mutuality of learning should be stressed in the program—ranging from skill transfer to group dynamics and leadership roles. There is little FV Services can do to help with the career aspect of staffing which concerns the designation of staff positions, promotion and social security benefits, all interlinked with the internal employment structure, especially of the domestic civil service. But, by improving the professionalism of staff through joint learning and coping, the chances for nationals to enter a regular career are also improved.

Reverse service by volunteer trainees from Training and Employment Schemes in Europe and North America is a form of cooperation which volunteers from the Kenya National Youth Service demanded according to the study by Philip Mbithi[76]. For example, in Germany the Carl-Duisberg-Gesellschaft conducts technical apprenticeship training for young workers from developing countries. They receive primarily on-the-job training in crafts and industry in Germany and graduate with a secondary technical degree. But, while they learn within a world of work, the community service component is missing—and consequently a chance for the foreign trainee to contribute to other peoples' needs.

To facilitate such a reverse service, linkages should be established between T&E Schemes and the Carl-Duisberg-Gesellschaft for joint selection of trainees and follow-up programs after they return home with a completed apprenticeship. Two areas of further cooperation are suggested:

- that former T&E volunteers be selected for recurrent education with the Carl-Duisberg Gesellschaft, and

- that former Carl-Duisberg trainees join services at home after their return to feed back their foreign experience to co-volunteers and local communities.

The more difficult link to be established is that between the apprenticeship institution and a community service in Germany. There are no Training and Employment Schemes in Europe. But a large variety of non-governmental community services (STD Services) are available to integrate these trainees to serve the disadvantaged, sick, elderly, handicapped, pre-school children, etc., for a limited period. The service assignments should be arranged on the spot with local community organizations. Nevertheless, spending some portion of the overall time with community service should be part of the contract. The individual trainee should, of course, have an option to volunteer such time.

The major obstacles for reverse service are not likely to stem from the trainee/volunteers or the Training and Employment Schemes. Obstacles can be foreseen with the German industry and the governmental departments responsible for the foreign trainee program. Neither are familiar with the service-learning idea. In the 1960's, the Carl-Duisberg-Gesellschaft had extensive discussions with the DED to open this overseas program for reverse service for foreign trainees in German communities, but the effort became lost in discussions within the administration. If these obstacles can be overcome, this apprenticeship program would gain additional assets in terms of a higher level of foreign citizens' mobilization.

In German communities it may spark a normative mobilization of new attitudes toward the foreigners in their midst. It may also challenge idle German community resources if they observe the foreigner serving them.

This example may point the way for others. One can think of similar approaches for the many uneducated immigrant youth in the UK, for young workers from developing regions, or the migrant workers in the US, and other European countries. The US Training and Employment Scheme—the Job Corps— for instance, could provide the structure to which such partnership-cooperation could be attached.

In sum, for Training and Employment Schemes the points for departure into partnership-cooperation are:

1. Joint volunteer projects in border areas between neighboring countries;

2. Staff partnerships with foreign volunteers;

3. Reverse service in industrialized countries attached to apprenticeship assistance schemes.

Partnership-Cooperation among Study-Services

Primarily, partnerships among Study-Services should be attached to existing scholarship programs for study abroad, or student exchanges. They should apply to foreign students in both industrialized and developing countries. The foreign faculty programs could also be included so long as the members are committed to the concept and practice of Study-Service and are willing to participate in service. The advantages are obvious:

- it would mobilize foreign students and faculty resources, already existing in a country, for community service and thereby activate local citizens in joint programs;
- it would bring a new dimension of global learning to the community and even to formal international education in schools;
- it would bring the foreigners out of their isolation within their community of residence and open new avenues for contribution to the needs of the host country;
- it would drastically reduce the costs for such partnership-cooperation programs since funding of international travel and regular stay are already paid for by the scholarship programs.

As more foreign students are studying in industrialized than in developing countries—a fact which favors reverse service—a second principle approach should focus on student travel, international seminars and sister university programs to developing countries. This would affect the North to South traffic. Student travel, classroom encounter in international conferences or seminars are not per se conceived to promote cultural convergence or to provide mutuality in learning and helping. In view of the urgency of our global community's problems and the special privileges that academic study endows upon a few, one cannot emphasize enough the moral obligation to reconsider the current practice of international studies and collaboration. Intellectual honesty demands that more attention be given to two aspects:

- the problems of the local community and how academic decision-making affects the life in those communities, and
- practical experience in day-to-day encounter with the regular local population in work service assignments, even if only for a short period of time.

With these two principle considerations in mind, the following types of partnership-cooperation projects in Study-Services can be outlined.

Joint volunteer projects between foreign and national students **in industrialized countries** were reported as a "happening" from the University Year for Action in the US. Recently too, the Frontiers College in Canada reported similar initial steps. It is now suggested that we expand on this early experience and develop it in reverse partnership programs. Such reverse services will be discussed later.

Joint Study-Service between nationals and foreigners **in developing countries** is another matter, and different approaches can be outlined. One alternative is provided by the obligatory Study-Services in developing countries. Especially in Nepal where foreign students have the same obligation as nationals to give one year of community service, joint volunteer projects are part of the system. As far as records show, so far only some students from India were affected by this obligation. Other obligatory Study-Services in developing countries leave it up to the foreign student to volunteer his time. There is no doubt, that these Study-Services in developing countries provide a structure for partnership-cooperation with students not only from developing but also from industrialized countries. Various alternatives can be considered:

- A full one year participation in a Study-Service in a developing country as part of the curriculum in international relations, development administration, cross-cultural studies, medicine, agriculture etc.

- A one-half year Study-Service term linked to practica in development administration and other fields according to curriculum requirements. For example the experiment for International Living in Brattleboro, Vermont requires such practica before master degrees.

- Short-term Study-Services linked to travel or seminars in developing countries, such as are conducted by the World University Services or the Community and Junior Colleges in the US. The alignment of schedules may create some difficulty as Study-Services in developing countries last between six months and one year. One can, of course, argue that the schedule of the hosting Study-Service is irrelevant if the foreign students are teamed up in a local community with a domestic student for a period of five or eight weeks. In such a situation—especially if the domestic student is already in the field—he can become a guide for his foreign counterpart, which will add to his own growth potential. It is obvious that such short-term programs have limited impact in terms of gaining skills, contributing to needs, living through problems, learning to communicate across cultural borders. But they certainly open up a new dimension of experience which penetrates the skin, raises more questions than it can answer, and provides a basis for later, more intensive, involvement and commitment. Compared to the current practice of international travel and seminars—which at best includes some field trips to "remote villages" but otherwise restricts the encounter between foreigners and nationals to the classroom—it would furnish a significant step forward to better understand our global problems and relations.

A third alternative can be outlined for those countries where no Study-Services exist but where foreign students' programs and student exchanges are common practice. This is especially the case for continental European countries. Here the various Social and Technical Development Services should be invited to provide the community service vehicle that will enable universities to design joint work/service for their national and foreign students. Since more and more universities are offering credit for previous work experience and correspondence studies, for example the Fern-Universität in North-Rhein Westfalia, Germany[99], the time may be ripe to negotiate credit for community service. This arrangement would not require the university to set up its own service vehicle, it could contract with an existing one which has an adequate performance record. Those community services are well established and they are able to accommodate the involvement of some faculty members for the work part of the partnership program—which should be a requirement.

Faculty partnerships—from an organizational point of view—can be easily arranged within existing programs. Those involved in Study-Service at their home universities are an obvious target for participation. But also those who obtain faculty fellowships for pure academic assignments abroad should be challenged to participate not only in volunteer training, but in the actual work of the community service. For example, the mandate of UYA faculties to become involved in service to local communities can be expanded to foreign scholars to:

- provide voluntary consultant services to local communities
- conduct training programs, such as adult education for local citizens
- make available the university facilities to local communities for programming purposes, community surveys, computer time, etc.

To expand partnership-cooperation to faculty members in conjunction with Study-Services in industrialized or developing countries, would serve various purposes:

- it would support the university's effort to concentrate on development-oriented education,
- it would help more faculty members—both hosts and guests—to become aquainted with the educational concept of work/service/learning,
- it would bring both host and foreign faculty out of their academic isolation and face up to the real problems of a community,
- it would provide a global education to faculty, concentrated in the nutshell of a local community, which will enhance their future teaching and research,
- it will provide an actual experience—not merely an observation—on the living conditions in developing countries, when serving under equal circumstances with the hosting faculty.

For faculty partnerships both a full-time assignment to a Study-Service group or part-time service in the three areas as described above can be envisaged.

Reverse service of students from developing to industrialized countries is one of the broader partnership opportunities open to Study-Services. As discussed earlier, the foreign student body already enrolled at universities in industrialized countries, or selected for such scholarships, provides an excellent reservoir for partnership-cooperation projects. Especially, foreign students studying in Canada, the UK or the US should have no problem participating with national students. Continental European countries will have more difficulty to arrange such programs since no Study-Services exist at universities or colleges. European educational institutions have not yet accepted the concept and practice of service-learning.

One approach to reverse service is to link the Study-Service in the developing country with the scholarship program. The service would participate in the selection of candidates, and offer a Study-Service tour during study abroad as part of the curriculum. The actual work/service would take place at the foreign university together with national student colleagues.

For example, KKN in Indonesia would participate in the selection of student candidates for study abroad. The student has an opportunity to opt for participation in a Study-Service such as the University Year for ACTION(UYA) if he plans to study in the US. Before leaving for study abroad, students receive predeparture training that prepares them for both study and service in a foreign country. In the US, the Indonesian student joins with his American colleagues to design his Study-Service tour, with faculty guidance, according to UYA schedules and conditions. The records of such Study-Service in the US are transferred to KKN when the Indonesian student returns home. Since—in this case—KKN is an obligatory service, the returning student should be relieved from his service obligation if he voluntarily and successfully completed a Study-Service term abroad. Such partnership-cooperation could operate on the basis of bi-lateral agreements between KKN and UYA, or for that matter wherever Study-Services exist.

It is up to Study-Services in industrialized countries, or Social and Technical Development Services where the former do not exist, to take advantage of this potential for cross-cultural encounter, global learning and local community mobilization. Here, citizens of the host country can experience first hand what interdependence and self-reliant relationships mean for them. For the foreign student, it may be a significant awakening to be able to contribute to the remedy of another country's social and economic ills. Through it, he or she may learn to see their own country with new eyes and feel impelled by a new moral obligation to return and serve the people at home. It is an old adage that the detour of a concern for a distant need is the best short-cut to find devotion for the needs at home.

Exchange between Sister Universities can concern both student/volunteers and faculty, as it can involve fundraising activities for such programs. Many universities in industrialized countries have established sister programs with universities in developing regions. A Study-Service component can be attached relatively easily to such sister programs especially if one or both partners already have such service programs. If not, it would require the establishment of a separate small administrative unit to manage the service aspect. In such cases, the organizational preferences as described in Chapter 5 would apply. The sister concept has the advantage that locations and situations become increasingly better known to the other side and specific forms of mutuality in learning and helping can be developed. For example, wider community support is easier to mobilize both in terms of funds, supply of materials, family housing for student/volunteers, etc., if both persons and environment are familiar. Here the knowledge and continuity of the sister institution and the related communities provides an additional asset to mobilize the further resources (see also Chapter 7, financial projects, on this point).

In sum, Study-Services are equipped to develop all four types of partnership-cooperation projects. With current structures and programs the following priorities can be assigned for feasibility to implement pilot projects:

1. Reverse service by foreign students, especially from developing countries, together with domestic volunteers in industrialized countries,

2. Faculty partnerships both in industrialized and developing countries' Study-Services.

3. Exchange of student/volunteers and faculty between sister universities for the purpose of joint Study-Service at the sister institution,

4. Joint volunteer projects conducted by Study-Services in developing countries with student/volunteers from industrialized countries under a variety of service arrangements.

Partnerships among Social and Technical Development Services

While most STD Services have no problem admitting a foreigner for participation in service, only a few are permitted by legislation to send their volunteers abroad. The latter group includes BUTSI/Indonesia, CSV/UK, and the Working Group for Voluntary Service in Germany. In recent years, STD Services in developing countries became the prime source for volunteer recruits for the United Nations Volunters (UNV). They assist UNV in the pre-selection of candidates, but are otherwise not involved in the assignment process. Since the multi-national UNV groups are assigned in technical assistance functions, usually with higher living standards than their national counterparts, a partnership-cooperation for STD Services is not realized through UNV.

Because of the educational background and/or life experience of their volunteers, STD Services probably offer the best potential for a wider variety of partnership-cooperation approaches which can involve all sorts of community service and action. This is true for cooperation within their category and for partnership with Foreign Volunteer Services. Here are some possible outlines:

Joint volunteer projects among STD Services are probably best realized in small multi-national groups—not necessarily restricted to an intra-regional composition. Strictly intra-regional groups may be hindered by past conflicts among tribes, cultures and political systems countered by even stronger common regional needs for self-reliant development and cultural convergence demanding cooperation. The outsider role of volunteers from another developing region, or industrialized countries, appears as catalyst to get partnership-cooperation off the ground. In Mettee's terms[80], the presence of these outsiders protects the intra-regional insiders—or neighbors—from a strong "threatening" feedback among themselves. The presence of the "different other" has a higher potential for self-enhancement and growth within a volunteer group, which is not present with similar others. The acceptance and liking is highest—and their relationship most creative—if volunteers differ to some extent, and those conditions which can create "threat" again, are avoided.

Here, the similarity of volunteers with compatible background and serving under equal conditions, removes the "threat" and enhances certainty while the cultural and national diversity provides the higher potential for learning and personal growth. This is the group composition which should be achieved in STD-Services partnership-cooperation projects. Such assignments should not divert attention from recruiting qualified volunteers with the necessary skills for the job, and selecting projects which enhance development participation.

Work program areas in STD Services were found earlier in this evaluation (Chapter 6) to follow these criteria:

- any type of work program is appropriate if a real need exists
- the volunteer's capabilities match the job he is to perform
- the citizens of the local community are willing and able to participate in the project.

From other experience with foreign volunteer participation, a modification of "any type of work program" is recommended if STD Services are to cooperate: service with military or police type projects—or in organizations which include weapons training—should be excluded.

Otherwise all conditions for partnership-cooperation spelled out in the previous Sub-Chapter prevail and every effort made to integrate foreign volunteers into the regular operations of the hosting service.

The funding of such partnership-cooperation encounters no difficulty, if it involves STD Services in developing countries and Foreign Volunteer Services, as both can pay from regular budgets. More difficult is the financing of joint volunteer projects between STD Services from developing and industrialized countries. Currently neither has authorization or appropriation to expend funds for international travel. A two-track approach to expand the financial basis is suggested: (a) to attempt a change in the sending services' authority for such programs, including appropriation of funds if possible, and (b) to raise outside funds as was mentioned earlier.

In general, intra-regional cooperation is already under consideration between STD Services in Asia and Latin America, and services from industrialized countries such as CSV/UK, ACTION/USA, Frontiers College/Canada, and Voluntary Social Services/Germany. There are indications that some industrialized countries may be able to finance domestic volunteers for service abroad via funds allocated for Foreign Volunteer Service. ACTION, for instance, has this under consideration; the domestic programs and Peace Corps being under one umbrella gives this service a broader flexibility to accommodate a variety of partnership-cooperation approaches.

Exchange programs between STD Services have a better chance for realization than the one-sided sending to joint projects. It is an old idea, which could not be pursued in the past because the organizational partners did not exist or were not equally advanced to attempt such a two-way approach on strictly exchange terms. Recently, the idea was revived and specified by CSV in the UK. During the Sixth Seminar on "International Voluntary Service" held by the Council of Europe from November 8-12, 1976, in Strasbourg/France, CSV proposed to other STD Services in developing countries and to their European and North American colleagues, the exchange of a specific number of volunteers on a bilateral basis. For example, CSV would receive some BUTSI volunteers and would send the same number to Indonesia for one year. Volunteer costs including in-country training would be borne out of the regular budget of the receiving service. No administrative costs would be charged by either partner as the existing administration is expected to manage this program. Again, the international travel is the uncertain cost factor. CSV suggests the establishment of a small international volunteer travel fund for this purpose supported by foundations, the British Council and other governmental and private sources. The problems of such a fund were discussed earlier—but community scholarships for travel or other local fund-raising could be alternatives.

In his paper to the 1974 Dublin Conference on "Volunteers from Abroad as Agents for Modernization and Development", Dr. Napitupulu, Director of BUTSI, confirmed this stand: *"Ideally, the movement of young people from country to country as volunteers should become a genuine two-way-traffic"*. Even though he warns of the the danger of the "brain drain" of the very people needed most in Indonesia, he supports a balance between receiving and sending volunteers *"about 60 of the same sort of young people that we receive from other countries"*. It appears that the materialization of a two-way volunteer traffic through exchange programs between services in industrialized and developing countries has more than a higher feasibility than a one-sided sending or reverse service. It also provides a structure to contain the "brain drain" to industrialized countries, as partnership-cooperation projects have built-in provisions for the volunteer's return and his re-adjustment at home. Generally speaking, re-entry support and employment assistance after completion of service are as much a feature of

partnership-cooperation as the provisions made to send a volunteer abroad. It should be recalled that employment-orientation of a Development Service includes this support to the former volunteer (see discussion on this issue in Chapter 9).

Another variety of exchange programs concerns the partnerships between sister communities. Here, the many forms of local community services—which do not necessarily have a national coordinating body—have an outlet for cooperation. Sister city programs are, of course, a tradition in many countries and involve both official contacts between city governments and the many different citizens groups and local associations. In proposing sister community partnership-cooperation, there is a somewhat different emphasis: a relationship between rural villages and towns and the STD Services which serve them. This approach is favored by the Sri Lanka Sarvodaya Shramadana Movement. As a community-wide service which involves all age groups their sister community partnership interests involve volunteers, staff and community leaders. Partnership would also include fund raising activities and material support for such projects. As a non-governmental service, the Shramadana Movement has achieved an especially high level of internal mobilization of citizens' resources. An extension into partnership-cooperation with foreigners would bring in additional assets to this service, but it also would give foreigners a learning experience with respect to a local development participation which is somewhat unique. A limited cooperation between the Shramadana Movement and some European countries and Canada already exists—but it has been—so far—primarily characterized by a "giver: receiver" relationship. With many communities in Northern industrialized countries reconsidering their international ties and their stand on the new global issues, here is an area where, through exchange of community service assignments, new avenues of mutual learning and helping can be explored.

Reverse service of STD volunteers from developing to industrialized countries is a third form for volunteer partnerships. It is a program type which was once realized through the earlier described "Volunteers To America". As became apparent from this review, the problems encountered then were the lack of appropriate organizational structure on the sending and receiving side, and the inadequate authorization and appropriation of funds for such activities. Today, it is believed that the organizational structure for reverse service is not a significant problem, if existing Development Services are used for both sending and receiving. The delegation of one operational part or another of reverse service to other governmental agencies should be avoided, in order to maintain reciprocity of service in normal operational channels. For example, ACTION in the US, as an umbrella for both domestic and foreign service programs, already has the organizational framework to accommodate such reciprocity. This is not the case for Canada or the European countries where additional agreements are necessary between Domestic and Foreign Volunteer Services to accommodate the expansion of functions to reverse service and avoid undue competition for limited funds.

It appears that while STD Services in developing countries may be more prepared to participate in a reverse service, the conditions in the receiving industrial country are not as favorable. This concerns not only the legislators and policy makers, who will have to authorize such new forms of cooperation and provide a funding basis, but also the population at large. There are fewer citizens in industrialized countries who are really convinced that a volunteer from a developing country can help them or that mutuality of learning would enhance their own horizons. A recent paper by Michael W. Moynihan on "Attitudes of Americans on Coping with Interdependence"[83] indicates that foreign aid is supported only if it reaches in fact the people who need help, and interdependence is primarily perceived as dependency on energy and natural resources and food. In other words, interdependence is primarily perceived as an

economic relationship where Americans still have to give more than they need to receive. However, Moynihan points to one important finding through polls in response to the question: *"What new attitudes and arrangements may be required to enhance the capacity of Americans to cope with interdependence?"* The answer is *"For God's sake, be fair!"* This fairness concept is believed to be a central factor in sharing the burdens of interdependence.

Fairness not only in economic burdens but in opportunities to learn to cope with interdependence may be the key to mobilize new public opinion in favor of reverse service. That is to say, a change of attitudes in industrialized countries—at least in the American society—may be directly linked to the concept of fairness. Reverse service should become acceptable as "normal" as is the travel of Americans and Europeans abroad to serve developing countries. Here, of course, the STD and Foreign Volunteer Services in industrialized countries have a task cut out for them at home—in what was described in Chapter 7 as development education at home.

Thus, a one-way reverse service appears to have fewer chances to be realized early—unless these barriers can be overcome quickly. The volunteer exchange discussed before, may be the avenue to demonstrate the value of such cooperation in industrialized countries and help to bring about the necessary changes in attitudes, legal basis and funding.

Staff partnerships with STD Services have their place parallel to volunteer exchange programs or joint volunteer projects in developing as well as in industrialized countries. However, the earlier described staff exchange or internships as a part of an international staff training or foreign assistance program should be avoided. As discussed earlier in Chapter 11 these staff programs have been proven to be less effective, as they are difficult to administer, costly and seldom serve the needs of either partner.

The attempt should be to deepen or intensify the partnership-cooperation between Development Services through staff level participation. It should be recalled that no other foreign staff role is planned in these cooperative relationships. This places staff partnerships on equal terms with national counterparts, a unique opportunity to expand on organizational relationships. As described in the previous Sub-Chapter, staff partnerships can be envisaged as short-term tasks to plan and implement volunteer partnership-cooperation programs, or they can entail long-term assignments parallel to those of volunteers. In principle, staff should be assigned according to professional background, experience and needs in the project.

In sum, Social and Technical Development Services are equipped to handle all four types of partnership-cooperation. The feasibility, however, to go ahead early with these new forms of relationships differ and current conditions suggest the following priorities for action:

1. Volunteer exchange on a bi-lateral basis among STD Services both within developing regions and with industrialized countries;

2. Sister community exchange programs with various types of community services—including those restricted to local level organizations;

3. Joint volunteer projects in developing countries with participation of both STD and Foreign Volunteer Services;

4. Staff partnerships parallel to various forms of volunteer cooperation;

5. Reciprocal service of volunteers from developing to industrialized countries.

Partnership-Cooperation by Foreign Volunteer Services

By legislation, organizational structure, operational experience and funding basis, these services are best prepared to change their current outside assistance relationships to one of equal partnership. As indicated earlier, the major problems anticipated to implement such changes are two fold:

- the currently higher living allowances and conditions afforded to foreign volunteers in comparison to their domestic counterparts, and
- the policy and regulations to operate through the field administrations of FV Services and the resultant maintenance of a foreign "enclave" in host countries.

In the previous Sub-Chapter, suggestions for changing these conditions were made in order to achieve a relation of true partnership character. Also, in the preceding paragraphs, the role of Foreign Volunteer Services as it relates to partnership with each category of Domestic Development Services was outlined.

From a Foreign Volunteer Service point of view—and especially with gradually diminishing foreign assistance needs in mind—the following partnership-cooperation programs can be outlined as new approaches:

Joint training with staff from **Training and Employment Schemes** to prepare for the cooperation and learn to assist each other to supplement skills and raise the overall level of performance. It should be recalled that one of the major MVT group problems was to admit shortcomings and learn to ask for help and accept it. The staff support should continue throughout the assignment period with certain en block sessions set aside for joint learning and assessment of past performance. If desired, the joint staff training should be linked to further recurrent educational opportunities for both nationals and foreigners after they complete their tour of service.

Joint work program assignments with national staff in Training and Employment Schemes which give priority to employment preparation and support. While volunteer training arranged as recurrent educational opportunity is an equally important program area, it is properly a task of the hosting service. Also, nationals may be increasingly available to take care of volunteer training. Employment-orientation is more difficult to achieve because it requires a wider variety of management and business skills: to help prepare for self-employment in trades and agriculture, actually settle farmers, craftsmen and those involved in local services; establish and support revolving funds for initial financing of self-employment; support cooperatives and marketing promotion, etc.

Joint volunteer projects in ombudsman and manpower extension roles conducted by STD Services in developing countries. For partnership-cooperation which aims at modernizing development participation, the local community bases and the rural location are mandatory. Foreign and national volunteers should be assigned in teams and work under the supervision of the village leadership. They should be prepared for their joint service through in-country training as described in the previous Sub-Chapter. Priorities for their work program areas should be decided according to needs expressed by the community. However, continuous action-planning and community organizing should be the basic functions mastered in any kind of assignment.

Udochuku Uwakeneme, in his editorial notes in the conference report on "Volunteer Service and Development, Social Change and Conflict"[119] specifies this as *"a strategy of continuously identifying "frontiers" or cutting edges in the world evolutionary life, from which we dare not to be absent or about which we cannot show complacency, if we are to pursue a goal of true development with justice. It is a strategy of joint vigilance and preparedness."*

Staff partnerships with STD Services would involve the staff of Foreign Volunteer Services. As the role of the field representation of FV Services is eliminated in partnership-cooperation, the joint work of foreign and national staff—under equal conditions—opens a new dimension for cooperation. Of course, foreign staff should not compete with national staff or supplant them but, rather, expand the coverage of the hosting services both in professional areas and geographical extension.

Joint projects with various forms of local community services—in contrast to those with nationally organized Development Services. There are various local community programs which deserve such partnership-cooperation. The criteria for modernizing development and internal mobilization discussed in Chapter 10 should be applied to identify such effective local services. Foreign Volunteer Services also can play a role in establishing **exchange programs** with a sister community in an industrialized country as indicated for Social and Technical Development Services.

Volunteer exchange and reverse service are two alternatives which Foreign Volunteer Services can further at home in two ways:

- through development education efforts to open the minds for such reciprocity of service, and
- by offering their services as a conduit to facilitate selection and preparation of candidates in developing countries for exchange or reciprocal service.

In sum, while the variety of partnership-cooperation approaches with Domestic Development Services may be limited for Foreign Volunteer Services,there are virtually no barriers in terms of quantity and quality. Current legislation, operational experience or funding basis provide an opportunity for an early start with such equal term relationships. It is primarily a question of political will and leadership, whether Foreign Volunteer Services can begin this second track of partnership-cooperation now, parallel to their gradually diminishing role as "givers" of foreign assistance.

Partnership-Cooperation with United Nations Volunteers

As part of the United Nations, UNV must take a different stand than the bi-laterial Foreign Volunteer Services in this cooperative relationship. The current legal framework of UNV does not permit the participation of nationals in UN technical assistance projects—unless they are trainees. This provision precludes partnership-cooperation between domestic volunteers and UNVs in United Nations assisted projects.

Further, as long as UNV is only permitted to assign multi-national volunteer groups to UN assisted projects, the participation in Domestic Development Services is precluded—unless the

DDS receives UN aid. However, in the latter case, UNVs are assigned in a technical assistance role as "givers", paid under UNV terms and supervised by the UNDP Representative in the host country. These conditions preclude the partner role.

Thus, only if UNV is permitted to assign volunteers to non-UN assisted projects, adjust volunteer pay and other provisions to those of the cooperating DDS and excludes the supervising power of the UNDP Representative—only then will UNV be able to conduct true partnership-cooperation. If UNV could reach such flexibility, there is no doubt that many DDS, now reluctant to cooperate with UNV because of the significantly higher pay for volunteers, will show more interest in this United Nations service scheme. The achievement of partnership flexibility requires not only a review of the direction UNV will take—toward a junior expert program or toward a true community service—but also a reform of internal legal and administrative provisions and procedure.

There is no doubt that—if UNV would achieve such a partnership-cooperation capability—it would be a gain for the service and for those who participate.

CONCLUDING THOUGHTS ON PARTNERSHIP-COOPERATION

At the start of this evaluation the question was raised: *"What future international cooperation between Domestic and Foreign Volunteer Services can be anticipated that go beyond the present "giver and receiver" relationship, a relationship that does not interfere with the internal process of citizens' mobilization and participation?"*

This last chapter has attempted the answer. The assessment of partnership-cooperation is again based on the question for the reasons: *"Why at all?"* As a consequence to the "why?", the objectives, elementary characteristics and action outlines were discussed—as far as the evaluation materials supply an answer.

This new field of international relationships of course requires further exploration and study—not only at a researcher's desk but in the local communities, the offices of Development Services, the legislators and supervisors. There are many questions unanswered which require discussion—but they should not prevent planning and action. Confirmation of the rightfulness of the partnership concept can only come from experience, and this requires testing in actual cooperation projects.

While many questions may be raised regarding priorities and organization of partnership action, some principles are firm:

1. Interdependence between developing and industrialized countries cannot be realized in a satisfactory manner for all parties if equal term conditions and reciprocity of fairness among peoples are not established. Partnership-cooperation among Development Services is a modest attempt to start at one place to learn these new conditions and treat the average population from all parts of the world with equal consideration.

2. Self-reliance of developing countries cannot be achieved in this inter-related world unless there are non-dominating relationships with industrialized countries.

3. Mutuality of problem solving is required if our world is to remain livable and peace maintained. Mutuality of learning and helping among Development Services would be a modest attempt to allow the average citizen participation in the solution of problems, thereby contributing a new consensus and conscience among culturally different people.

Thus, partnership-cooperation is not just another change in fashion, but a new relationship demanded for this new era of world interdependence which respects the need for self-reliant development of developing countries. To realize this new relationship, the political will of the people and even handed leadership are required.

When Development Services were established in the beginning of the development era one thought of them as one of the answers to aid the poor. They were perceived to help solve a problem with an end in sight. Today we know differently. Development Services have participated in and contributed to the change of the times. With others they have entered a new era and have a full task ahead to improve, expand and grow as organizations for recurrent education, employment facilitation and the participation of citizens in development. They are no longer a limited outsider organization set up to fill a current gap, but a cultural institution in their own right to help guide the growth of their own societies and that of the global community.

APPENDICES A

METHODOLOGY

EVALUATION PROCEDURE

EVALUATION MATERIALS

To obtain a comparable data base for both the project and program evaluation of Development Services and foreign assistance agencies, two types of formats were developed:

- **Inventories**, to record organizational facts from Domestic Development Services (Appendix A-3) and foreign assistance agencies. Both inventories employed essentially the same layout.
- **Interview Questionnaires** (Appendix A-4), to record opinions from foreign and national individuals on various aspects of Domestic Development Services.

  Seven **rating cards** were integrated into the interview questionnaire to obtain priority of opinions on factors for success, failure of programs, leadership, volunteer and staff performance and community cooperation.

Both inventories and interview questionnaires were designed to overlap and thus supplement and verify information (Appendix A-6) and focus on the following target data:

- Institution: legal basis, causes/needs, objectives;
- Programs: training, work/service (including foreign assistance);
- Persons involved: volunteers, staff, directors, supervisory boards;
- Citizen/community participation, public acceptance;
- Institutional linkages: national and international.

To assist in the actual field surveys and provide supplementary information on the process of data collection for the later assessment of the materials, two formats for **record keeping** on the part of the researchers were applied:

- Record of data collection for inventory of institutions (Appendix 7),
- Record of individual interviews (Appendix 8).

The materials were developed from an earlier, and less comprehensive, format this Project Director used in an ISVS Staff Study[96]. In addition, as early as November 1973, an inquiry

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was circulated to some Development Services to identify areas of their "need to know" with respect to the three questions raised in this evaluation. Also, the AID formats on evaluation[5,6,7], and relevant OECD publications[146,148] were consulted. Finally, the international survey made by the United Nations Research Institute for Social Development "Inducing Social Change in Developing Communities"[60] and the study "Curricula Content For Six Technologies" by William Schill and Paul Arnold[107] were most useful for the design of these materials.

STAFFING

As pointed out in the main body of the report, three consultants, the ISVS Regional Director, and this Project Director recorded the data and conducted interviews in the various regions:

- Africa: Uoochuku Uwakeneme, Managing Director, Ujamaa Consultants Limited, Lagos/Nigeria, obtained the required information from Domestic Development Services and from individual interviews in Benin, Kenya and Nigeria.

- Asia: Eugenia Jamias, of the Philippines and Program Coordinator for Peace Corps, conducted the inquiry in Malaysia and Thailand.
  Helmut Weyers, then Regional Director of ISVS in Geneva, Switzerland obtained the data in Indonesia and provided additional valuable information on the service in Panama and the multi-national volunteer teams.

- Latin America: Cecilio Shaw R. of the Asociacion Panamena de Desarrollo in Panana conducted the survey in Costa Rica and provided data on the Panamanian service. Earlier, Domestic Development Services in Colombia and Peru had agreed to supply data for this evaluation but when Mr. Shaw arrived they advised him that there must have been a misunderstanding and that they were not prepared to provide data in such depth.

- Europe and North America: Irene Pinkau, Project Director of this evaluation, collected data from Development Services and foreign assistance agencies.

The three consultants were **selected** on the basis of their professional background and their experience with Domestic Development Services. They also had participated in previous ISVS activities and were familiar with the international scene. They conducted field surveys and interviews in their respective project countries and collected subsequent documentation and overall country statistics.

A **Preparation Conference** for the consultants that lasted a week was conducted after the evaluation materials had been tested. During this week, the evaluation materials were finalized and each question posed was discussed thoroughly. Thus, they obtained in-depth briefing on

the scope, aim and methodology of inquiry. Also, guidelines were set down for the selection of interview informants.

The week, moreover, provided the opportunity to get acquainted and grow together as a team. To perceive the evaluation as a team effort was essential in order to develop a common sense of purpose for the times when, in project countries, many decisions had to be made alone.

The evaluation sponsors joined the Conference for a day to get aquainted and discuss the scope of the evaluation and their specific interests in the results. These encounters formed the basis for the subsequent field surveys and, no doubt, increased the awareness of the issues involved in the evaluation.

The consultants devoted three months to the field surveys and then submitted their findings with a summary report of their experience.

DISCUSSION OF PROCEDURE

The structured approach to the data collection was necessary because the study entered a new field. One can, of course, argue that a more open ended approach of recording along some general guidelines could have been pursued, leaving more flexibility to the individual consultant. This might have been possible had there been more time and manpower for data collection in each country, if small teams of experts—both local and from abroad—would have been available to study each case on the spot. In retrospect, an alternative approach which might have been preferred is the joint data collection between the consultant of each region and the project director. The latter might have provided the continuity between the regional efforts. However, the limited financial resources did not permit that broader based approach and restricted the surveys to one professional consultant per region. The principle consideration against a less structured approach to the field surveys was that there is virtually no other comprehensive evaluation available with which new data could have been compared. There are numerous published descriptions of such services, emphasizing aspects of programs, but nothing with the illuminating details necessary to answer the questions raised in this evaluation. Both the compatibility and comparability of data were too important for systematic analysis as well as for comparison between organizations and categories, to leave them to an open ended recording approach. All of these considerations led to the development of structured Inventories and Interview Questionnaires.

Often, not all of the data requested was supplied, because a program sector or an organizational set-up did not exist or the information was simply not available. But in the context of the total inquiry a non-reply was also an answer. It indicated either different approaches, or less organizational structure, management and feedback. There were a few instances where the information requested was classified (for example budgets) and others where questions were rejected because "they revealed too much". For the individual consultant, obtaining the data often required detailed explanation of the request and occasional rephrasing. The difficulty in obtaining the correct data was due to some extent to different administrative systems, but also indicates that the "state of the art" of Development Services and their management is at varying levels of evolvement in many countries.

The interviews were comprehensive and required an educated and knowledgeable respondent. This excluded the less educated volunteer from the inquiry. An additional questionnaire more oriented toward these respondents would have been helpful. The African consultant, Mr. Uwakeneme, conducted a number of open ended interviews with volunteers and villagers which provided most interesting views. Also, the selection of interview respondents on the part of consultants was more difficult than anticipated. Most of the interviews were arranged by the office of the Development Service which resulted in a certain disproportion between executive and volunteer respondents. Also, some of the interviews had to be conducted through interpreters. Apart from these shortcomings, the interviews were balanced between nationals and foreigners and reflected the profile of cooperation experience available in each category (see Appendix A-5).

Finally, an inquiry of this kind with an emphasis on the qualitative nature of organizations and relationships defies rigorous statistical methods. Apart from funding limitations, it is believed that a statistical sampling would not have enhanced the principle findings of the study. The breadth of the data base is secured by the selection criteria (Appendix A-2) for countries and Development Services which would supply the information.

Overall, the evaluation materials, together with the supplementary documents obtained from Domestic Development and Foreign Volunteer Services proved to be complete for in-depth evaluation and sufficient to detect and correct inconsistencies in replies. A few verifications of data were necessary and were obtained via correspondence with the consultants or the organizations concerned.

SCHEDULE OF TASKS

The evaluation was scheduled in different phases which required two adjustments until funds were appropriated, co-sponsors had committed their cooperation, and the consultants were contracted. These were the phases of the study:

- **Pre-Phase**, October-December 1973: Discussion of evaluation proposal with potential sponsors, finalization and submission of proposals.

- **Phase I Preparation**, January-March, 1974: Development of evaluation materials, identification of cooperating Development Services and foreign assistance agencies, contracting of consultants, approval of evaluation proposal on the part of sponsors and award of funds.

- **Phase II Data Recording**, April-December 1974: Testing of evaluation materials, Preparation Seminar (June 16-21, 1974), data collection in the five regions and submission of evaluation materials to the Project Director (the final materials were, in fact, received in March 1975).

- **Phase III Preliminary Assessment**, January-June 1975: Review and preliminary assessment of evaluation materials, study of pertinent literature, drafting of two volume preliminary report and Compendium.

- **Phase IV Evaluation Conference with Sponsors**, June 30-July 2, 1975, for discussion of the preliminary reports, assessments of findings and guidance for the main evaluation and reporting process. It was then decided to place more importance on the evaluation of the role and performance of Development Services as originally planned, by emphasizing policy issues and the exploration of cooperative relationships. This was a sensible decision on the part of the sponsors as the data bases permitted such expansion of scope and, no doubt, the results of evaluation have been enhanced from the more intensive inquiry. But the extended format also required more time so that the schedule for the completion of the report twice had to be extended.

- **Phase V Main Assessment and Report Writing**, August 1975-July 1977, presentation of factual data from 30 Development Services in 14 countries in Volume II, Compendium; assessment of field data and study of relevant other research and literature, composition of the main report (Volume I), highlighting of findings in a separate third summary document.

The **Dissemination of the Evaluation Results** is considered a crucial program sector and not merely restricted to the mailing of reports. In fact, during the writing of the reports, the Project Director was requested on various occasions to present findings of the study to audiences in the field of education and volunteer services. It is planned to further disseminate the results in individual consultations to bring the study close to the practitioner, and its recommendations to implementation.

APPENDIX A-2

CRITERIA FOR THE SELECTION OF DOMESTIC DEVELOPMENT SERVICE PROJECTS

For the purpose of this evaluation some "typical" domestic service projects were selected on the basis of the following criteria:

1. Diversity of geographical area, culture, and governmental system;
2. Different types and sizes of foreign assistance programs, such as:
   - personnel assignments: long-term versus short-term, volunteer versus expert,
   - capital investment for: facilities, training of personnel, operational cost,
   - Material supplies for: construction of facilities, equipment to carry out program, education and training.
3. Different types and sizes of Domestic Development Services having received this assistance, for example:
   - training & employment schemes, university services, social & technical development services,
   - nationwide programs with more than 1,000 volunteers involved; nationwide programs with less than 1,000 volunteers participating; local programs.
4. Individual assistance to one country project versus group assistance (such as regional and sub-regional training seminars, consultative conferences, etc.);
5. Bilateral versus multi-national approaches;
6. Different stages of foreign assistance projects: planning, preparation, implementation, execution phases, or completed projects.
7. Limitation of resources available for the field evaluation.

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March 11, 1974
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INVENTORY OF DATA OF DOMESTIC DEVELOPMENT SERVICES (DDS)

The INVENTORY OF DATA is designed for recording the facts of DDS, including foreign assistance they may have received. This INVENTORY is a working document for the evaluator. The recording of data requested below should be based upon organizational and/or public records. If this is not possible, other sources of information should be stated explicitly next to the relevant question. Documents, containing details of the information requested, should be numbered, listed, and attached to the completed INVENTORY. Of special importance are: Legislation establishing the organization; Executive Orders with legal implications for program goals, supervising powers, budget, etc.; organizational charts; organizational statistics and Annual Reports; list of Board Members; description of training and work programs; management manuals, etc. If the space provided in the INVENTORY is insufficient for replying thorougly to each question, additional pages should be added.

---

1. INSTITUTION COUNTRY: _____

1.1 Name of DDS: _____

1.2 Address: _____ Tel.: _____

1.3 Name(s) of Director(s) _____

_____

DOC.# /1.4 What Legislation? As of: _____ Title: _____

Incorporated as: _____

DOC.# / Latest Amendment as of: _____ Title: _____

DOC.# /1.5 Who were the Founders? (Persons, Institutions) _____

_____

DOC.# /1.6 Who supervises? (Agency/Board/Council) 1) _____

1) List type of supervision and institutions involved

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1.7 What are the Objectives according to Legislation? _____

_____

_____

Who proposed them? (Persons, Institutions) _____

_____

What are Objectives now (today)? _____

_____

/DOC.# / How have they been modified?[2] _____

/DOC.# /1.8 What caused the establishment of the DDS according to Legislation or founding documents?

_____

_____

/DOC.# /1.9 What needs have been documented in response to the above causes?

_____

_____

2. PROGRAM

2.1 What Type of Service?[3] _____ ;[3] _____

Duration/Schedule: _____ months; full-time /___/

part-time /___/

other: _____

Location of Service:[4] _____

_____

2) through Amendment; Executive Order; Policies; Program Guidelines.
3) University Service; Social&Technical Service; Training&Employment Scheme; and: Compulsory Military Service; Military Deferment; University Credit Program; Voluntary; Junior Emplyment Program.
4) Camps, training farms, settlements, group lodging, individual accommodations, etc.

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2.2 Training Program

/DOC.# /2.21 What are the documented Training Goals? _____

_____

Who devised them? _____

Who approved them? _____

What is the Training Frequency and Rate according to Goals?

(a) Number of volunteers trained per year:
- in first year of operation? _____ volunteers/per year
- in 1973? _____ volunteers/per year

(b) Number of training hours per volunteer:
- in first year of operation? _____ hours/per volunteer
- in 1973? _____ hours/per volunteer

/DOC.# /2.22 What kind of Training Periods?

(a) Basic Training _____ hours per training period

(b) Vocational/Technical Training _____ hours " "

- Classroom _____ hours " "

- Workshop _____ hours " "

(c) Work Program/On-The-Job-Training _____ hours per work program period

(d) Others: _____ _____ hours per training period

How many hours per week are scheduled for Training? _____

/DOC.# /

What is the daily schedule for the major Training Periods?

Training Period:			
Time hrs.-hrs.	Type of Activity	Time hrs- hrs.	Type of Activity

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/DOC.# /2.23 What type of Curriculum is applied in various Training Periods?

Courses	Basic Training hrs./period	Vocational/Techn. Training hrs./period	Other: hrs./period
literacy			
languages - local - internat.			
country/cultural studies			
health			
physical education			
civic training			
community development			
history			
geography			
natural sc./ environment			
social issues			
farming/ agriculture			
vocational/ technical			
teachers training			
social/youth/ adult educ.			
Others:			

Who designs Curriculum? _____

Who approves Curriculum? _____

2.24 How many Training Programs per year?
- In year of DDS establishment 19..: _____ number of programs
- In 1973: _____ number of Training Programs.

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2.25 How many volunteers/trainees are assigned to each learning group?(List type of course, if size of group differs)_____

_____

Who provides leadership to individual learning groups?_____

_____

What principles and rules guide the activities of the learning group?_____

Who devised the rules?_____

Who approved the rules?_____

DOC.1 /2.26 What Methodologies are applied for various courses?_____

_____

Who designed Methodology?_____

Who approved Methodology?_____

2.27 What type of Training Materials are available?

DOC.1 /_____

DOC.1 /_____

DOC.1 /_____

Why have they been developed?

_____

_____

_____

2.28 How are the materials used and accepted?

_____

_____

_____

_____

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/DOC.#/ 2.29 What has been achieved through training?

_____

_____

/DOC.#/ What achievement standards are applied?[5] _____

_____

/DOC.#/ How are training achievements identified?[6] _____

_____

When are achievements identified?[7] _____

_____

/DOC.#/ Who identifies training achievements? _____

2.3 Work Program

/DOC.#/ 2.31 What are the documented Work Program Goals? _____

_____

Who devised the Goals? _____

Who approved Goals? _____

/DOC.#/ What Standards are applied for the Work Program? _____

_____

What is the Work Program Frequency and Rate according to Goals?

(a) Number of volunteers/per year employed in Work Programs:
- in first year of operation? _____ volunteers/per year
- in 1973? _____ volunteers/per year

(b) Number of working hours/per volunteer/per service period:
- in first year of operation? _____ hours/per volunteer
- in 1973? _____ hours/per volunteer

(c) Number of volunteer man-years* employed in Work Programs in 1973? _____ volunteer man-years.

*One volunteer over 20 years of age, working 270 days, equals one man-year; one volunteer between 16-20 years of age, working 270 days, equals 2/3 man-year; one volunteer between 14-16 years of age, 270 days work period, equals 1/3 man-year.

5) Such as: literacy proficiency, Fifth or Eigth Grade proficiency (or equivalent), technical skill proficiency (equivalent), teacher training equivalent, public administration proficiency (equivalent)
6) List types of feedback arrangements, tests, etc.
7) List schedule for feedback and tests, etc.

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DOC.# /2.32 What type of Work Programs are carried out by volunteers?[8)]

Type of Work Programs:	Duration weeks/volunteer	Number of Volunteers 197		
		Female	Male	TOTAL
Primary Education				
Secondary Education				
Vocat./Techn. Training				
University/higher Techn.Education				
Other Education				
Number Volunteers in Education, Sub-Total:				
Farming/ Agriculture				
Industry,Mining, Handicraft, rural				
Industry,Mining, Handicraft, urban				
Power, Transportat. Communication				
Public Admini-stration				
Economic planning, Surveys,etc.				
Trade,Banking, Insurance,Tourism				
Trade, Banking in rural areas				
Health Service, urban				
Health Service, rural				
Social Service, Community Devel-opment , urban				
Social Service, Community Devel-opment, rural				
Other:				
Number of Volunteers in Work Programs 1973:				

How many hours per week does each volunteer work in Work Programs? _____hours/per week/per volunteer

8) For Classification see Appendix 1

/DOC.# /2.33 What are the Goals of individual Work Projects? (Give example and attach "typical"Work Project descriptions) _____

_____

_____

Who devised Work Project Goals? _____

Who approved them? _____

/DOC.# /2.34 What Criteria are employed for selecting Work Projects? _____

_____

Who selects Work Projects? _____

Who approves Work Projects? _____

/DOC.# /2.35 What steps are taken to develop Work Projects Plans?[9] _____

_____

Who is responsible for plan development? _____

What national sources participate in Work Project planning?

_____

_____

What international sources participate in Work Project planning?

_____

How long does it take to complete Work Project Plan? _____

Who pays for the planning? _____

/DOC.# /2.36 What steps are taken to implement Work Project Plans?[9] _____

_____

Who is responsible for implementation? _____

/DOC.# / What guidelines govern Work Project implementation? _____

_____

How long does it take to implement Work Project Plans? _____

---

9) List sequence of planning and implementation steps.

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DOC. /2.37 What tasks are performed in regular management of Work Projects? 9)

Sequence of Tasks	Who is responsible?	Identification of Management Levels*

DOC.

What Guidelines are employed for supervision and management of Work Projects? _____

_____

Who developed the Guidelines? _____

Who approved them? _____

2.38 How many volunteers have single work assignments? _____

DOC.

How many volunteers are assigned in groups? _____

Average number of volunteers/per working group? _____
(list type of project, if size of groups differ largely)

*) Supervisory, Directors, Top Executives (Heads of Departments, etc.), Executives (Projects, Programming, Administrative, etc.) Volunteers, receiving community.

Who provides leadership in individual working groups? _____

How are leaders (se)elected? _____

/DOC.# / What rules guide the working group? _____

Who devised the rules? _____

Who approved the rules? _____

/DOC.# /2.39 What has been achieved through Work Projects since beginning?

Type of Projects completed (use Classification 1)	Duration of Work Projects from - 19.	Volunteer Man-Years/ per Work Proj	Achievements documentec (Output)14)

/DOC.# /
/DOC.# /
/DOC.# /
/DOC.# /
/DOC.# /
/DOC.# /
/DOC.# /

What kind of achievements are identified per individual volunteer assignment/ Work Program period ? _____

/DOC.# / What achievement Standards for volunteer work are applied?10) _____

/DOC.# / How are work achievements identified?11) _____

When are work achievements identified?12) _____

Who identifies work achievements?13) _____

10) Such as: technical, planning, administrative proficiency; punctuality; cooperation with co-workers; leadership, etc.
11) List types of feedback arrangements, tests, etc.
12) List schedule of feedback, tests, etc.
13) Such as: Supervisors, co-volunteers, subordinates, local community (rec ipient of work programs).
14) List achievements in kind and market value(local currency), such as:road/houses constructed, jobs created, farms settled, development administration in rural areas expanded, etc.

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2.4 Other Volunteer Activities

/DOC.# /2.41 What other Activities are carried out by volunteers?[15] _____

_____

What are the Goals of these Activities? _____

_____

Who devised the Goals? _____

Who approved them? _____

/DOC.# /2.42 How many volunteers are engaged in various types of Activities?

Type of Activity	Duration of Service per Volunteer[16]	Number of Volunteers in 1973		
		Female	Male	TOTAL

2.43 Who selects the other Activities of Volunteers? _____

What Criteria for selection are applied? _____

Who approves other Volunteer Activities? _____

/DOC.# /2.44 What is achieved through these Activities?[17] _____

_____

_____

_____

15) Such as: Emergency relief in cases of disaster; leadership for youth or sport clubs and adult education on evenings and weekends; local community development; holder of elected office; participation in political party, etc.
16) Express in hours, days or weeks/per volunteer/per service period.
17) List achievements or appreciations expressed; who expressed them and when?

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2.5 Foreign Assistance

/DOC.# /2.51 What Type of Foreign Assistance has been received for the various Programs of the DDS since it's inception?

Type of DDS Activity receiving Foreign Assist.	Year of Assistance &Duration	Type of Foreign Assistance: Personnel 18) Expert	Volunteer	Kind of Material	Capital US $	Provided by:
Stimulation of DDS						
Planning of DDS						
Programming of DDS						
Staff Training						
Management of DDS						
Volunteer Training						
Volunteer 19) Work Program:						

/DOC.# /2.52 What are the Objectives of Foreign Assistance participation in DDS according to official policy statements, guidelines, etc.?_____

_____

Who developed these Objectives?_____

Who approved Objectives?_____

2.53 Describe each case of Foreign Assistance provided to the DDS:

/DOC.# / 1._____

/DOC.# / 2._____

/DOC.# / 3._____

18) List number and job title of assigned personnel.
19) Apply Classification No. 1 for Volunteer Work Programs.

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Answer the following questions separately for each Foreign Assistance case on Documents listed under 2.53:

(a) Who suggested Foreign Assistance Project?[20)]_____

(b) Who developed Assistance Proposal?[20)] _____

Who approved the Proposal?[20)] _____

What Criteria were applied for approval? _____

Were parts of the original Proposal modified or rejected? _____

Why? _____

How long did it take to develop, modify and approve Proposal? ___

What factors influenced the timing of approval process?

_____

Who determined these factors? _____

What Tasks were involved to achieve approval of Proposal?

Sequence of Tasks	Offices or Persons involved in Approval In-Country	Foreign Ass. Partner	Duration weeks

(c) How long did it take to implement Foreign Assistance after approval of Proposal? _____ weeks.
What sequence of steps were involved to implement the Foreign Assistance Project?

Sequence of Steps taken	Decisions involved	Who decided? In-Country	Who carried out?20) Foreign.Ass.Partner

20) List Institution, persons job title, his function in Institution, age, sex, educational/professional background.

What steps, during implementation, were essential for success?

_____

Why? _____

What kind of major problems occured during implementation? _____

_____

Why? _____

(d) What tasks were involved to launch the Foreign Assistance Project?

Sequence of Tasks	Decisions involved	Who decided? In-Country	Who carried out? 20) Foreign.Ass.Partner

What major problems occured during launching period? _____

_____

Why? _____

How long did launching period last (until regular operations began)? _____ weeks.

(e) What was the Role[21)] of Foreign Assistance Personnel in relation to Supervisors, Colleagues, Counterparts, Students, and Subordinates as documented in Proposals and Plans? _____

_____

_____

_____

_____

21) Role being:assigned functions and behavioral patterns concerning technical/professional, cultural,political, etc., interaction between people, describe role plans and facts.

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3. PERSONNEL

3.1 Volunteers

3.11 What formal arrangements cover the individual volunteer during Service? (Living Allowance, housing, insurance, health care, career service, etc.)

/DOC.#/

/DOC.#/

/DOC.#/

/DOC.#/

3.12 Who supplies the volunteers? (Describe origin of applicants)

/DOC.#/ How are volunteers recruited?(Describe recruitment procedure)

What Criteria are employed for recruitment?[22)]

Who developed the Criteria?

Who approved the Criteria?

/DOC.#/ 3.13 How are volunteers selected and placed in Training and Work Programs?(Describe procedure)[23)]

What Criteria are employed for volunteer selection?

Who developed Criteria?

Who approved the Criteria?

22) Such as: age range, limitation to one sex only, educational background required, completed military service required, etc.

23) If all applicants are accepted for service and no selection procedure are employed, please, indicate and describe placement only.

What Criteria are employed for volunteer placement? _____

_____

Who developed Criteria? _____

Who approved Placement Criteria? _____

3.14 How many Volunteers applied and served?

	First Year	1972	1973
Total number of Applicants:			
of which: (a) were rejected by DDS:	-	-	-
(b) withdrew voluntarily	-	-	-
Total number entering Training:			
of which: (a) were dropped by DDS	-	-	-
(b) withdrew voluntarily	-	-	-
Total Volunteers sent into Work Program			
Volunteers remaining from previous year 24)	+	+	+
Total number of Volunteers in Work Programs			
Total number of volunteers completed service in:			
of which were: (a) normal terminations:			
(b) early terminations due to unavoidable circumstances:			
(c) early terminations due to unsatisfactory performance			

3.15 How many foreign Volunteers served in a Volunteer capacity next to nationals?

	When? 19..	19..	19..
Total number of foreign volunteers:			
of which: (a) normal terminations:			
(b) early terminations due to unavoidable circumstances:			
(c) early terminations due to unsatisfactory performance			

Total number of foreign volunteers currently assigned: _____

24) in case of two years volunteer programs, or extension of one year assignments.

3.16 Age Range and Male/Female Ratio of Volunteers in 1973?

Age Range years	Number of Volunteers	Number of Volunteers in 1973			
		Male	Female	Married	marr.&children
under 15					
16 - 20					
21 - 25					
26 - 30					
31 - 35					
over 35					
Total number of Volunteers					

3.17 What is the Educational Background of Volunteers?
What is Volunteers Profession or Major Field of Study?(For Classifications see Appendix 2. and 3. respectively).

Education Years of School	Number of Volunteers 1973	Profession or Field of Study	Number of Volunteers 1973
No formal schooling		Agriculture	
up to 5 years		Commerce,Banking	
up to 8 years		Economics	
up to 10 years		Education	
General Secondary 12 years		Engineering, Handicrafts	
Technical Secondary, 12 years		Law, Public Administration	
13 years,incl. Second./Techn.		Natural Science	
15 years,incl. vocational trg.		Power,Communication, Transportation	
4 years university above second.		Social Science, Fine Arts, Humanities	
5 years or more university		Labor Relations, Social Service	
12 years or more, but no degree		Medical Science	
Other:		Other:	
Total Number of Volunteers			

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/DOC.# /3.18 What other Rules or Regulations guide the service of Volunteers? (Such as: General Rules of Conduct, vacation policies, etc.):

/DOC.# /

/DOC.# /

Who devised the Rules?

Who approved them? When?

/DOC.# /3.19. What Employment/Career Service is provided to former Volunteers? (Describe):

What are the Standards for Employment Service?

Who devised them?

Who approved them? When?

Who manages the Employment Service?

Where are former Volunteers employed?

Field of Employment	Number of former Volunteers employed as of December 1973
at home, agriculture	
land settlement schemes	
craftsmen, technical, industrial	
public works construction	
Public transportation	
Public Administration	
Education	
Police Force	
Volunteers continuing own education	
Unemployed	
Total number of former Volunteers:	

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3.2 Executives

3.21 Who are the Executives?

(a) Full-time Executives:

Position	Total Number	of which: Female	Foreign	Age *) Range	Background 25) Education	Profession
Directors:						
Executives: -Administrat.						
-Volunteer Recruitm.						
-Training, Headquarter						
-Training Center						
-Work Program Headquarter						
-Work Program Field						
-Other:						
-Supporting Services Staff						
Total number:						

*) Average age, youngest, oldest

Where are full-time Executives coming from? (Describe origin)

Doc.#

(b) Other types of Executives (Describe number, assignments, background

(c) Who are previous Directors of the DDS?

Name	Period of Assignment	Special Accomplishments	Professional Background	Age

25) List the numbers of categories in Classifications No. 2.or 3. respectively (Appendix).

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/DOC.# /3.22 What are the Employment arrangements? (Describe contracts) ____

_____

_____

Who employs? _____

3.23 How are Executives recruited? _____

What selection criteria are employed? _____

_____

/DOC.# /3.24 How are Executives prepared? (Staff Training) _____

_____

Who prepares/trains? _____

/DOC.# /3.25 How do Executives work and cooperate? (Rules of Conduct, Staff Regulations, Director/Staff meetings, etc.) _____

_____

_____

/DOC.# /3.26 What kind of Career Service is provided to Executives?[26] _____

_____

_____

3.3 Board/Council

/DOC.# /3.31 Who are the Board/Council Members supervising the DDS?

Representative from:	Number	Sex	Age	Background Education[25]	Profession[25]	Cul-

26) Such as: Civil Service, University Tenure, etc.

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3.32 How are Board/Council Members elected/appointed? _____

_____

Who elects/appoints? _____

What is the tenure? _____

DOC.# /3.33 What Rules and Regulations govern Board/Council Meetings?

_____

Who established those Rules? _____

How often are regular Meetings scheduled? _____

Are regular Meetings open to the Public? _____

DOC.# /3.34 What is the legal basis for Board/Council Decisions? _____

_____

How are Decisions published? _____

How are they enforced? _____

3.35 What kind of Communication exists between Board/Council Members and Volunteers? _____

_____

How often do Board/Council Members see Volunteers at work? _____

_____

3.4 Public Participation

DOC.# /3.41 How is Public/Citizens Participation encouraged? _____

_____

Where do they participate? _____

_____

3.42 What are the Goals of Citizen Participation? _____

_____

3.43 Who is responsible for encouraging Citizen Participation? _____

_____

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4. ORGANIZATION, ADMINISTRATION, BUDGET

4.1 Organization

/DOC.# /4.11 How is the DDS Organization structured? (Attach Organizational Chart):

Main Departments/Divisions	Functions	Location
(a) Headquarters:		
(b) Field:		

Who developed Organizational Structure? _____

Who approved it? _____

/DOC.# /4.12 What are the Management Procedures/Administrative Guidelines? (Attach Manual/Guidelines) _____

_____

What are the stated Goals of Management? _____

_____

What are the stated Performance Standards? _____

_____

4.13 What kind of Feedback/Evaluation is provided concerning Performance and Achievements of the Organization? _____

_____

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What are Feedback/Evaluation Procedures? _____

_____

Who is responsible for Feedback/Evaluation? _____

_____

Who receives the Reports? _____

/DOC.# / Which Reports are available? _____

/DOC.# / _____

4.2 Budget

/DOC.# /4.21 What are the Costs? (List major Cost Items, including Overhead):

Major Cost Items:	1972 *	1973 *	1974 *
TOTAL COSTS:	**	**	***

* List type of currency;**Actual Costs;***Budget

/DOC.# /4.22 What are the Costs per Volunteer in 1973?
Total Cost/per volunteer/per year: * _____
of which for: Volunteer recruitment & selection _____
Volunteer training _____
Work Program:
-living allowances _____
-transportation _____
-equipment _____
-medical care _____
-other: _____
Organization Overhead _____

4.23 Who approves Budget? _____

/DOC.# /4.24 Who provides Revenue? (List amounts/per source):

Sources of Revenue[27)]	1972 *	1973 *	1974 *
TOTAL REVENUE:	**	**	***

* List type of currency;**Actual Revenue;***Budget

What payments in kind or services free of charge have been received? (Equipment, housing, free transportation,medical care)

Type of Service or Payment in Kind	Source	1972 Amount	1973 Amount	1974 Amount

4.25 Who supervises Expenditures and secures Revenues? _____

_____

/DOC.# / According to which Rules and Regulations?[28)] _____

_____

5. COOPERATION WITH OTHER INSTITUTIONS

/DOC.# /5.1 What Agreements/Arrangements of Cooperation exist with other national and international Institutions? _____

_____

_____

27) Including: National Budget/Governmental Department, bilateral and international foreign assistance, income from activities (farming, mechanical workshops, selling of products, etc.).
28) Including foreign investment regulations.

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Who is authorized to sign such Agreements? _____

5.2 What are the major Provisions concerning the Cooperation?

Name of Institution	Cooperation Goals / Provisions

5.3 What has been achieved through this Cooperation? _____

_____

_____

_____

What Achievement Standards are employed for this Cooperation?

_____

_____

Who developed them? _____

Who approved them? _____

REMARKS:

APPENDICES: Classification Nos. 1.- 3.

CLASSIFICATION OF VOLUNTEER WORK PROGRAMS

All volunteers working in educational institutions (including technical and vocational centers) for the purpose of teaching and training should be recorded under the respective educational category, irrespective of whether their professional qualifications would designate them as "teachers". The only exception is personnel in medical and nursing training, who should be recorded under Health Services.

Category No.	Classification
1	Primary Education
2	Secondary Education
3	University and Higher Technical Education
4	Non-University Technical and Vocational Training: Volunteers working in vocational training centers, agricultural and industrial training, etc.
5	Other Education: Volunteers in teachers training, non-formal education, management and administration, etc.
6	Agriculture:
(a)	Land and water use, farm machinery and tools
(b)	Crop production and protection
(c)	Animal production
(d)	Veterinary medicine and disease control
(e)	Agricultural economics
(f)	Trade of agricultural products, including marketing, distribution, advertising, market research, banking
(g)	Agricultural cooperatives
(h)	Agricultural extension
(i)	Home economics and nutrition
(j)	Forestry
(k)	Fishing
(l)	Other agriculture
7	Industry, Mining and Handicrafts (rural and urban):
(a)	Manufacturing industries
(b)	Engineering and construction(excluding public works constr.)
(c)	Mining
(d)	Management, automation, accountancy, business finance
(e)	Cottage industries and handicraft
8	Power, Transportation and Communication:
(a)	Power production, distribution,including construction
(b)	Atomic energy
(c)	Transportation (road, railrod,water,aviation), including construction, transportation safety, etc.
(d)	Communication: telephone, telecommunication, mass media,etc.
(e)	Water works and other public utilities
(f)	Meteorology
9	Public Administration: including Law, environmental control, public safety, National Park administration, etc.

APPENDIX 1

Category No.	Classification
10	Economics, Planning, Surveys:
	(a) Economic planning and policy (development programs, central banking, monetary and fiscal policy, etc.)
	(b) Statistics (all kinds: population, economic, agriculture, etc)
	(c) Economic surveys and pre-investment studies (preparation of development programs and projects, etc., but excluding surveys of physical resources)
	(d) Surveys of natural resources
	(e) Cartography, mapping, aerial surveys, photogrammetry
	(f) Demography and manpower studies
11	Trade, Banking, Insurance, Publishing, Tourism:
	(a) Trade promotion: marketing, distribution, advertising, market research (excluding trade promotion agriculture)
	(b) Cooperatives (excluding agricultural and housing cooperat.)
	(c) Insurance and banking
	(d) Publishing: Journalism, printing, photography
	(e) Tourism and Recreation
12	Health Service (rural and urban):
	(a) Public Health administration
	(b) Malaria and insect control
	(c) Other disease control
	(d) Maternal and child health
	(e) Nursing: including nursing education and training
	(f) Other health services: birth control, environmental sanitation, health demonstrations, etc.
	(g) Paramedical and medical technician education and training
	(h) Medical education and training
13	Social Services and Community Development (rural, urban):
	(a) Social Welfare, social security, other social services
	(b) Volunteer Development Services
	(c) Community Development
	(d) Housing, including housing cooperatives (excluding construction)
	(e) Rural settlement and city planning
	(f) Industrial relations, labor and trade unions, etc.
	(g) Other non-profit organizations and clubs, including youth work, farmers associations, etc. (excluding non-formal education programs).
14	Other: History, preservation of culture, art, archeology, wild life preservation, etc.

CLASSIFICATION OF EDUCATION

The educational background of Executives and Volunteers should record the highest level of education attained by number of educational years and type of schooling.

Category No.	Classification
1	No Formal Schooling: Functional illiterates "who cannot with understanding both read and write a short simple statement on his/her everyday life" (UNESCO definition of illiteracy).
2	Up to 5 years of School: primary, secondary or other classified school.
3	Up to 8 years of School: primary, secondary, other classif.
4	Up to 10 years of School: primary, secondary, other classified.
5	Secondary Education:
(a)	General: This category assumes 8 years of primary school and 4 years of general secondary school which provides qualifying admission to higher education but no specific technical or professional training.
(b)	Technical: This category assumes 8 years of primary school and 4 years of technical school or apprenticeship and vocational school, qualifying for continuing technical education.
6	13 years Secondary and Technical Education:
(a)	General: This category assumes 4 year primary and 9 years general secondary education (Abitur, Baccalaureat).
(b)	Technical: 4 years primary, 6 years general secondary, and 3 years technical/professional training (General Certificate of Education, Technical Abitur/Baccalaureat).
(c)	Alternative: Individuals having completed 13 years of school and/or taken the Certificate through special courses while working.
7	15 years Secondary and Technical or Professional Training: Individuals having completed 3 years technical or specialized professional training above secondary education.
8	University Degree: 4 years beyond Secondary Education: It is assumed that all individuals with university degrees have completed 12 years of some kind of general (and sometimes technical) school education; 4 years of additional university studies completed provide Bachelor Degree (English, American system).
9	University Degree: 5 years or more beyond Secondary Education
(a)	12 years secondary, Bachelor Degree, and one year or more graduate study: Master Degree.
(b)	13 years secondary and 5 years or more university studies: Master Degree (or equivalent).
(c)	Post graduate university studies: Doctor Degree.
10	12 years or more of education but no degree: Individuals with 12 years Secondary Education and university studies but no degrees.
11	Other: Individuals with incomplete Secondary Education or uncertified non-formal education, alternative education and/or without full technical/professional qualifications.

APPENDIX 3

CLASSIFICATION OF PROFESSION OR MAJOR FIELD OF STUDY

Category No.		Classification
1	Agriculture	Dairying, fisheries, forestry, irrigation, horticulture, rural science, veterinary medicine, home economics, and similar subjects.
2	Commerce Banking Business Administration	Advertising, manufacturing, marketing, insurance, publishing, printing, photography, tourism, personal services, domestic service, management, accountance, clerical service, etc.
3	Economics	Economics, statistics, planning.
4	Education	Pedagogy, teaching, physical education, non-formal education.
5	Engineering Handicrafts	Applied sciences, construction, geodesy, metallurgy, mining, surveying, technology, textiles, and similar subjects; carpentry, masonry, metal working, machine operation, mechanics, plumbing, electricity, etc.
6	Law, Public Administration	Including legal assistance, public administration assistance, public safety, National Park administration, etc.
7	Medical Science	Nursing, medical technician, physical therapy, paramedics, dentistry, röntgenology, medicine.
8	Natural Sciences	Astronomy, biology, botany, chemistry, entomology, geology, mathematics, meteorology, physics, zoology, and similar subjects.
9	Energy Transportation, Communication	Power production and distribution, water supply, public utilities, atomic energy, transportation (road, railway, aviation, trucking, shipping); communications, mass media, telecommunications,
10	Social Sciences, Humanities, Fine Arts	Philosophy, theology, sociology, psychology, history, languages, letters, libary science, archeology, ethnology, geography; political science, international relations, diplomacy, journalism; architecture, drawing, painting, sculpture, music, speech, dramatic arts, etc.
11	Social Service, Labor Relations	Social work, youth work, kindergarten; labor legislation, labor and trade unions, cooperatives, etc.

APPENDIX A-4

ISVS

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March 15, 1974
h/cw-0167
ree-3-7/x

Evaluation of Foreign Assistance to Domestic Development Services in Africa, Asia, and Latin America

INTERVIEW QUESTIONAIRE

Interview No. ___

FOR

DOMESTIC DEVELOPMENT SERVICES

Country: _____ Organization: _____

Time Interview began: _____

A. REGARDING OVERALL ORGANIZATION

1. In your judgement, what are the major objectives this organization has now?

Why ?

In case these objectives are not within the framework of those established in the legislation of the organization (see 1.7 of Inventory) ask the following question:

2. The objectives of the organization set forth in the legislation do not provide authorization to carry out these new aims; how do you reconcile the difference?

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In case these major new objectives are in line with those of the legislation, ask the following question:

3. In your opinion, what are the major factors that:

a) contribute to the satisfactory attainment of the objectives?

b) hinder the attainment of objectives?

Some of the factors contributing to the success of a Domestic Development Service are listed on this card (DDS Card No. 1): Please, identify the priority of these factors.

B. REGARDING PROGRAM

4. In your opinion, have the training goals been achieved as set by the organization? (Repeat these goals from No. 2.21 of Inventory)

Yes.....___
No.....___
With modification....___
No opinion.....___

If 'no' or 'with modification':
Why that?

5. What do you consider the best training achievements affecting volunteers?
Why that?

6. What do you consider the most negative training results?

Why that?

Some factors contributing to the success of a volunteer training program appear on this card (DDS Card No. 2): Please, identify the priority of these factors.

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Interview No._____

DDS CARD No. 1

Some factors contributing to the success of a Domestic Development Service are listed below: Which factors would you consider most important to success? Please, identify priority by assigning numbers 1*- 10 to the ten most important factors:

- financial and material resources out of national budget _____
- quality of volunteer training _____
- quality of volunteer Work Program _____
- quality of volunteers employed _____
- quality of executive staff _____
- quality of directorship _____
- support of governmental agencies, Board/Council _____
- support of individual citizen _____
- support of local community in which volunteers are serving _____
- acceptance of the program to volunteers _____
- foreign assistance through volunteer assignment _____
- foreign assistance through expert assignment _____
- foreign financial assistance _____
- foreign material assistance _____
- other: _____
- no opinion _____

Remarks:

*) 1 being the highest priority
- up to 3 equal priorities are permitted
- a minimum of seven choices should be made

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Interview No. _____

DDS CARD No. 2

In your judgement, which factors contributed to the success of volunteer training? Please, indicate the priority of the most important and the least important factors by assigning numbers 1 - 7 in the respective column:

	Most important	Least important
- amount of financial resources	____	____
- number of student places in classrooms	____	____
- quality of training materials	____	____
- quality of technical/vocational training facilities	____	____
- quality of training staff	____	____
- number of volunteers per trainer	____	____
- quality of curriculum	____	____
- linkages between volunteers work and learning	____	____
- volunteers hope for a job after completion of training and work program	____	____
- volunteer participation in planning their own training program	____	____
- volunteer involvement in administration/ management of their training group	____	____
- opportunity for volunteers to leave home and do something for themselves and others	____	____
- creditation of training by the school system, permitting further education	____	____
- quality of educational background of volunteers when entering training	____	____
- no opinion	____	____

Remarks

- 1 being highest priority
- up to 3 equal priorities permitted
- if other factors are specified, please list in footnote and explain why.

Interview No. ___

7. In your judgement, have the overall goals of volunteer Work Programs been achieved as set by the organization? (Repeat these goals from No. 2.31 of Inventory):
(Please indicate)

Yes..... ___
No..... ___
With modification... ___
No opinion..... ___

If "no" or "with modification": Why that?

8. What do you consider the best type of volunteer Work Projects?

Why that?

9. In your opinion, what type of Projects should be excluded for volunteer work assignments?

Why that?

10. What do you consider the best volunteer work achievements? (Individuals, groups, programs)

Why that?

11. In your judgement, what has been volunteers most negative performance in Work Projects? (Individuals, groups, programs).

Why that?

Some factors contributing to the success of a volunteer Work Project are listed on this card (DDS Card No. 3): Please, identify the priority of these factors.

C. REGARDING PERSONNEL

C/1 Volunteers

12. In your opinion, why do volunteers participate in this Service?

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Interview No._____

DDS CARD No. 3

In your judgement, which factors contribute to the success of volunteer Work Projects? Please, indicate the priority of the most important and the least important factors by assigning numbers 1 - 7 in the respective column:

	Most important	Least important
- local community related projects	____	____
- large scale projects	____	____
- social development projects	____	____
- technological development projects	____	____
- Public works/service projects	____	____
- projects in business and industry	____	____
- rural and agricultural development	____	____
- urban projects	____	____
- sufficient workload for each volunteer on his/her job	____	____
- highly structured job assignment for each volunteer in relation to colleagues, supervisors, subordinates	____	____
- generall defined job assignments	____	____
- technical proficiency of supervisors	____	____
- leadership and understanding of supervisors	____	____
- volunteer participation in administration/management of their work	____	____
- sufficient financial resources	____	____
- quality of equipment and tools on the job	____	____
- support from the supervising governmental agency or Board	____	____
- cooperation with future employers of volunteers after completion of Service	____	____
- acceptance of the volunteers by the local community which is affected by the Work Project	____	____
- no opinion	____	____

Remarks

- 1 being highest priority
- up to 3 equal priorities permitted
- if other factors are specified, please list in footnote and explain why

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Interview No.____

13. In your opinion, what do volunteer's families and communities think about them serving in this Domestic Development Service?

14. How often did you observe resistance against this service by volunteers? (Please indicate)
    - Frequently.....____
    - Occasionally.....____
    - Rarely.....____
    - Never.....____
    - No opinion.....____

    If resistance 'frequently' or 'occasionally': Why that?

    Who resisted the participation of the volunteer in service? (Indicate those applying)
    - Volunteers themselves...____
    - Father.....____
    - Mother.....____
    - Other family members....____
    - Community.....____
    - Others .. ..____
    - No opinion .....____

15. What approaches would you suggest for recruitment/selection of volunteers?

16. In your opinion, what do volunteers enjoy most in participating in this Service?

17. In your opinion, what do volunteers resent most in the execution of this Service?

18. What was your best experience with an individual volunteer?

19. What was your most negative experience with an individual volunteer?

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20. In your opinion, is there any purpose in having foreign volunteers serving side by side with national volunteers on an equal basis?

21. What major problems have been encountered through foreign volunteer participation?

Why that?

22. In your judgement, what was the most outstanding contribution foreign volunteers made to this Service?

23. What suggestion do you have for the future role of foreign volunteers participating in this Service?

Some factors contributing to volunteer performance appear on this card (DDS Card No. 4): Please, identify the priority of these factors.

C.2 Staff

24. Would you consider the quality of the Executive Staff of this Service is adequate for the for the jobs to be accomplished? (Please indicate)

Yes.....___
No.....___
With modification..___
No opinion.....___

If 'no' or 'with modification': Why that?

25. In your opinion, which program areas of this service need special qualitative improvement of staff?

Why that?

What measure would you suggest to improve the quality of staff?

26. Would you consider the quantity of staff sufficient to carry out the program of this Service? (Please indicate)

Yes.....___
No.....___
With modification.___
No opinion.....___

If 'no' or 'with modification': Why that?

Interview No._____

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DDS CARD No. 4

In your opinion, which of the following factors contribute to the volunteer's performance? Please, indicate the priority of the most important and the least important factors for both national and foreign volunteers performance by assigning numbers 1 - 7 to each one of the respective four columns:

	National Volunteers		Foreign Volunteers	
	Most important	Least important	Most important	Least important
- quality of volunteer recruitment&selection	____	____	____	____
- quality of volunteer training/education	____	____	____	____
- work assignments in line with education&interest	____	____	____	____
- needed on the job (sufficient workload)	____	____	____	____
- responsibilities on the job	____	____	____	____
- amount of payment(allowances)	____	____	____	____
- prospect of employment after completion of Service	____	____	____	____
- distance from home, family &tribal influences	____	____	____	____
- exposure to people from other regions,cultures,etc.	____	____	____	____
- strange environment:housing,food,group life,etc.	____	____	____	____
- opportunity for development work instead of military service	____	____	____	____
- opportunity for leadership roles in the structure of the Service	____	____	____	____
- public acceptance and appreciation of Service	____	____	____	____
- quality of supervision & cooperation between supervisors	____	____	____	____
- no opinion	____	____	____	____

Remarks

- 1 being highest priority
- up to 3 equal priorities permitted
- if other factors are specified, please list in footnote and explain why

27. In your opinion, what are the reasons why professionals have joined this Service as staff members?

28. How would you describe the cooperation between executive staff and volunteers? (Please indicate)
    Extremely satisfactory.....___
    Very satisfactory.....___
    Satisfactory.....___
    Not very satisfactory.....___
    Not at all satisfactory....___
    Don't know.....___
    If 'not very' or 'not at all satisfactory': Why?

29. How would you describe the cooperation between executive staff and director(s)? (Please indicate)
    Extremely satisfactory.....___
    Very satisfactory.....___
    Satisfactory.....___
    Not very satisfactory.....___
    Not at all satisfactory....___
    Don't know.....___
    If 'not very' or 'not at all satisfactory': Why?

30. In your opinion, what was the most outstanding contribution by an executive staff member to this Service?

31. In your opinion, how can foreign staff (both volunteers and experts) assigned to this Service on a long-term basis best contribute to the program?

32. What major problems have been encountered through foreign staff participation?

    Why that?

Interview No. _____

33. In your opinion, what has been the best contribution to this Service made by foreign consultants assigned on a short-term basis?

Why that?

34. What would you consider the major problem of foreign consultants short-term assignments?

Why that?

35. Do you have any preference for the region of origin of foreign staff or consultants? Yes / NO
If yes, which region and why?

36. How would you describe the cooperation between foreign staff and:

a) Directors?	b) national staff?
Extremely satisfactory... ___	Extremely satisfactory... ___
Very satisfactory..... ___	Very satisfactory..... ___
Satisfactory..... ___	Satisfactory..... ___
Not very satisfactory.... ___	Not very satisfactory.... ___
Not at all satisfactory. ___	Not at all satisfactory... ___
Don't know..... ___	Don't know..... ___

If nor very or not at all satisfactory:

Why? Why?

Some factors contributing to the success of national or foreign staff assignments are listed on this card (DDS Card No. 5): Please, identify the priority of these factors.

C/3 Director(s)

37. In your opinion, what are the major achievements of the director?

38. What do you consider the major problem areas for directing this Service successfully?

Why that?

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DDS CARD No. 5

In your judgement, which factors are most important and least important to the success of both national and foreign staff assignments? Please, indicate the priority of factors by assigning the numbers 1 - 7 to the respective columns:

	National Staff		Foreign Staff	
	Most important	Least important	Most important	Least important
- technical/professional proficiency	____	____	____	____
- administrative/managerial proficiency	____	____	____	____
- leadership&understanding for people of different background&culture	____	____	____	____
- speaks local language	____	____	____	____
- comes from same local background,knows villagers	____	____	____	____
- comes from other region or foreign country	____	____	____	____
- flexible to adjust to changing conditions	____	____	____	____
- staff preparation and training	____	____	____	____
- level of staff position and salary	____	____	____	____
- strong backing from supervisors, influence	____	____	____	____
- own constituency outside the Service	____	____	____	____
- authority to volunteers, paternalistic style	____	____	____	____
- partner to volunteers, partnership style	____	____	____	____
- staff assignment is part of career	____	____	____	____
- no opinion	____	____	____	____

Remarks

- 1 being highest priority
- up to 3 equal priorities permitted
- if other factors are specified, please list in footnote and explain why

39. How would you describe the cooperation between director(s) and:

(a) the supervising governmental agency?	(b) the Board or Council of the organization?
Extremely satisfactory...___	Extremely satisfactory....___
Very satisfactory.....___	Very satisfactory.....___
Satisfactory.....___	Satisfactory.....___
Not very satisfactory....___	Not very satisfactory....___
Not at all satisfactory..___	Not at all satisfactory...___
Don't know.....___	Don't know.....___

If "not very" or "not at all satisfactory":

Why? Why?

40. In your opinion, what has been the influence of the director(s) on the organization?

What sector and/or activities of this organization are especially influenced by the directors decisions?

Why?

Some factors contributing to the successful leadership of the director(s) appear on this card (DDS CARD No.6). Please, indicate the priority and importance of factors.

D. REGARDING ACCEPTANCE, COOPERATION, PARTICIPATION

41. In your judgement, which outside national institutions or local communities/individuals have most influenced the operations of this Service?

Why that?

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Interview No._____

DDS CARD No. 6

In your judgement, which factors are most important and least important for a successful leadership of the Director(s)? Please, indicate the priority of factors by assigning the numbers 1 - 7 to the respective column:

	Most important	Least important
- technical/professional proficiency	____	____
- administrative/managerial proficiency	____	____
- understanding for people of different background and culture	____	____
- strong backing of supervising governmental agency or Board/Council	____	____
- level of position&salary within the Service, the civil service or university structure	____	____
- status in his own rights as a professional, a politician, and/or because of family	____	____
- comes from same local background, knows villagers in Work Project area	____	____
- speaks local language	____	____
- flexibility to adjust policy and programs to changing needs	____	____
- emphasis of leadership re. objectives, philosophy and concept of Service	____	____
- emphasis of leadership re. program implementation, field work	____	____
- emphasis of leadership re. cooperation with other governmental&private institutions	____	____
- decision-making on his own, authoritarian style	____	____
- participation of staff/volunteers in decision-making, partnership style	____	____
- no opinion	____	____

Remarks

- 1 being highest priority
- up to 3 equal priorities permitted
- if other factors are specified, please list in footnote and explain why

Interview No.

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42. In your judgement, which international or foreign institutions/ individuals have most influenced the operations of this Service?

Why that?

43. In your opinion, what kind of cooperation with other institutions is necessary to make this a successful Service? (List forms and institutions).

44. In your opinion, what factors contribute most to the acceptance and appreciation of this Service by the general public?

45. In your opinion, who in the local community are the key figures in the support of and cooperation with volunteers? (Please describe supporters' position within local community, age, sex, numbers, etc., of a "typical" community where volunteer Work Projects have been carried out)

46. Which groups in such a "typical" community exhibited the least understanding and support for volunteers working in their village? (Mark as many as apply):

- Youth of same age _____
- Younger men _____
- Younger women _____
- Older men _____
- Older women _____
- The literate _____
- The illiterate _____
- The richest _____
- The poorest _____
- All _____
- None _____
- Others (specify) _____
- No opinion _____

Why that?

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Interview No.

47. In your experience,what is a good example of cooperation or participation of the local community in the efforts of this Service? Please describe:

What are the reasons for success in this case?

48. In your experience, what is a "typical" example of resistance or ignorance of the local community toward the efforts of this Service? Please describe:

What are the reasons for failure in this case?

Some factors contributing to acceptance, cooperation and/or participation with this Service by the local community appear on this card (DDS CARD No.7). Please, indicate the priority of factors involved.

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ree-3-7/x

Interview No.

DDS CARD No. 7

In your opinion, which factors helped or hindered most the co-operation between this Service and the local community? Please, indicate priority by assigning numbers 1 - 7 to each of the columns:

	Helped most	Hindered most
- level of literacy and general education of local community	_____	_____
- believe of the community that the Service will change their situation	_____	_____
- cultural and religious traditions	_____	_____
- conflicts among villagers	_____	_____
- strong leadership in community	_____	_____
- volunteers came from other regions or foreign countries	_____	_____
- volunteers came from local communities	_____	_____
- Project supervisors came from other regions	_____	_____
- Villagers participated in supervision of volunteer projects	_____	_____
- volunteers living with local families	_____	_____
- volunteers living together in camps or farms, etc.	_____	_____
- Work Project was requested by local community	_____	_____
- Work Project was assigned by National Development Plan	_____	_____
- conflicts with other agencies assisting the local community	_____	_____
- no opinion	_____	_____

Remarks

- 1 being highest priority
- up to 3 equal priorities permitted
- if other factors are specified, please list in footnote and explain why

PROFILE OF INTERVIEW RESPONDENTS

1. Respondents by Region:	Total:	AFRICA	ASIA	LATIN AMERICA
Nationals	50	15	27	8
Foreigners (with experience in respective Regions)	37*	23	10	4
Total:	87*	38	37	12

(*) Excludes 2 foreigners experienced only in domestic service in Europe

2. Respondents by Occupation:	Developing Countries (National Respondents)	Industrialized Countries (Foreign Respondents)
Directors of Development Services	9	3
DDS Board Members	6	–
Development Service Headquarters Staff	14	7
Development Service Field Staff	7	14
Volunteers	7	5
Provincial, District, Local Officials	5	–
Foreign Assistance Experts:		
– in the field	–	5
– in the sending country	–	5
Other Government Officials	2	–
Total:	50	39
Of which are unstructured interviews, without use of questionnaire:	10	10

SUMMARY MATRIX FOR DATA COLLECTION
Evaluation of Foreign Assistance to Domestic Development Services in Africa, Asia and Latin America

TARGETS OF DDS DATA	DATA FROM DDS INSTITUTIONS				DATA FROM FOREIGN ASSISTANCE INSTITUTIONS			
	Data regarding DDS:		Data re. Foreign Assistance to DDS:				Data re. Foreign Assistance Institutions	
	Inventory	Interview Question	Inventory	Interview Question	Inventory	Interview Question	Inventory	Interview Question
A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I
Objectives/ Program Goals	1.7, 1.8, 1.9 2.21, 2.31 2.33, 2.41 3.42	1, 2, 3 Card 1 4, 7	2.52 2.53	20 23 Card 1	2.52 2.53	23 Card 1	1.7, 1.8, 1.9 2,1. 2.31, 2.41, 3.17 3.42	3
Type of Programs	2.2, 2.3, 2.4	5, 6, 8, 9, 10, 11, 15, 38 Cards 2, 3	2.51 2.53 (a-g) 4.24	22, 23, 31, 32, 33, 34, 35. 36 Card 1	2.51 2.53 (a-g) 4.24	22, 23, 31 32, 33, 34, 35, 36 Card 1	2.2, 2.3 2.4	1, 2
Type of Personnel – leadership	3.1, 3.2, 3.3, 3.4 3.2, 3.3, 1.6	12, 13, 14, 18, 19, 24, 26, 27, 37, 16, 17, 24, 25, 30, 37, 38, 40	2.51 3.15 3.21 2.53	21, 22, 31 32, 34, 36 Cards 4, 5	2.51, 3.14 2.53	21, 22, 31 32, 34, 36 Cards 4, 5	3.1, 3.2 3.3, 3.4 1.6, 3.2 3.3	Data related to DDS Institution: Same as Column C
– decision-making	2.2, 2.3, 2.4, 3.0	28, 29, 30 Cards 4,5,6	2.53		2.52 2.53		2.1, 2.3, 2.5, 3.0	
Organization/ Management – authority	4.1, 4.2 1.5 3.25, 3.3, 4.25	37, 38 40, 41	2.53 4.24 2.53	23, 31, 35, 43 42	2.52 2.53 2.53	23, 31, 35 43 42	4.1, 4.2 1.5 3.18, 3.25 3.3, 4.25	Same as Column C
– procedure	3.18, 3.25 4.12, 4.13	28, 29, 39, 38 Cards 1-7	2.53	36 Cards 1,4,5	2.53	36 Cards 1,4,5	3.18, 3.25 4.12, 4.13	
Citizen/ Community Participation; Public Accpetance	3.3, 3.4 2.0 5.0	16, 27, 41, 44, 45, 46 47, 48 Card 7	2.53	42, 44, 46 47, 48 Card 7	2.53	42, 44, 46 47, 48 Card 7	3.3, 3.4 2.0 5.0	Same as Column C
Institutional Linkages	5.1, 5.2 5.3	43, 47, 48 Card 7	5.1, 5.2 5.3	42, 43, 47 48 Card 7	5.1, 5.2 5.3	42, 43, 47 48 Card 7	5,1, 5.2 5.3	Same as Column C

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RECORD OF DATA COLLECTION

FOR

INVENTORY OF INSTITUTIONS

SHEET NO._____

Country: _____

Organization: _____

Date	Number of Visits /Kind of Session	Time per Visit	Sources of Information Records	Persons providing Information			
				Name	Job Position in Organization	Outside Organization	Nationality

APPENDIX A-7

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SHEET NO._____

INTERVIEW NO._____

RECORD OF INDIVIDUAL INTERVIEW

Country:_____ Organization:_____

Name of person interviewed:_____

Address:_____ Tel.:_____

Employer:_____

Job Position:_____

Dates of employment:_____

Relation to Domestic Development Service:_____

Nationality:_____

==========

Time of first appointment:_____

Time of completion of Interview:_____ Total Time:_____

In case Interview could not be completed:

	Second	Third	Forth
Date and time of subsequent visits:	_____	_____	_____

Reasons:

- interrupted because of other business:
- prefers another time:
- not at home or office:
- Interview terminated at Question No._____
- Other:_____

Comments of Interviewer:

==========

Language of Interview: English French Spanish

Other:_____

APPENDICES B

DOCUMENTATION

The Universal CHARTER of Volunteer Service

INTRODUCTION

Social and economic development is the basic challenge which faces the world today. This demands the creation of a human society without any form of exploitation, such as racism, colonialism, neo-colonialism or fascism. Social justice and development depend on all members of society participating in productive and socially useful work, in a spirit of true equality among human beings, as called for by the Universal Declaration of Human Rights.

Voluntary service by people with useful skills and high ideals is a practical demonstration of the commitment and the international co-operation which our world so urgently needs today.

There is no definition of "volunteer" or "voluntary service" which will satisfy everyone. It is a dynamic concept which is interpreted differently in various societies and contexts. And yet there are certain fundamental principles and characteristics which apply throughout the world.

> Volunteers are men and women who give up their normal work and, without regard to financial benefits, devote their knowledge and abilities, within the framework of common efforts, to the people in regions of social and economic need. In their daily work, their attitudes and relations, they support the principle of equality and the right of every person to dignity and respect.
>
> The work which they carry out in accordance with these principles is voluntary service. This same spirit is also to be expected of the administrative staff in a volunteer organisation, who may, however, receive salaries.

Such service is performed generally by young people who are determined to make their specific contribution to social and economic development, and who feel a strong sense of personal responsibility for the future of mankind.

II AIMS OF A VOLUNTEER PROGRAMME

As its primary aim, voluntary service seeks to resolve socio-economic problems in areas and countries which request such help. At the same time, the programme as a whole and the volunteers and staff as individuals should:

i. recognise that voluntary service in the context of development brings mutual benefits. Meeting urgent needs and contributing to development, volunteers have opportunities to gain valuable experience, to make friends and to encounter new cultures. Such opportunities are a source of personal enrichment for volunteers and come as a benefit to their own societies;

ii. support and encourage all peoples' belief in their potential for social and economic improvement;

iii. demonstrate a real concern for the problems of local communities, and by co-operative efforts help overcome these problems;

iv. encourage a spirit of international co-operation in development work, and emphasise the need to reconstruct on a more equitable basis the relations between the developing countries and the industrialised nations, between rich and poor wherever they are found;

v. support the principle of the most rapid possible achievement of complete national, political and economic independence;

vi. promote the idea of voluntary service as a valuable force in the common search for human betterment, and encourage and support wherever possible the growth of local voluntary programmes.

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III NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT BY VOLUNTEERS

Voluntary service on a national scale contributes to the development of any given country. It can be economic and yet provide a practical education, while stimulating communal awareness, social responsibility, self-awareness and self-reliance.

IV HOST AGENCY RESPONSIBILITIES

A request for volunteers implies a willingness and ability, on the part of the requesting country or agency, to make good use of them. There is an obligation besides, where necessary, to continue the tasks begun by volunteers after they leave. Therefore requests for volunteers should be made only after careful consideration, including the following points:

i. that the work to be done is a real need in its proper context and that it is directly related to a broad framework of development;

ii. that the task is a suitable assignment for a *volunteer;*

iii. that voluntary service should not replace paid local labour;

iv. that the volunteer or volunteer group can be acceptably integrated into the broader development effort, and that where necessary, local personnel will be available to continue the volunteer's tasks on his departure.

The role of volunteers is to co-operate with the local community as fully as possible, to assist in useful development work, and to help members of the community widen and improve their knowledge and skills. Volunteers should work within the framework established by the requesting agency, from whom they should receive materials and guidance necessary for their work.

V SPONSORSHIP RESPONSIBILITIES

The agency responsible for recruiting and sending volunteers, whether a private organisation or a government department, should act in the spirit of the Universal Charter of Volunteer Service and seek to provide volunteers who in its judgment will effectively serve the best interests of the host community.

Meeting a request for volunteers implies a willingness and an ability to assure the basic requisites for effective service related to local conditions. Volunteers should receive board, lodging and pocket money sufficient for their local needs and for the maintenance of good health.

The selection of volunteers requires care and attention to the following attributes of each candidate:

i. skills and training at a level adequate to meet the terms of the request;

ii. sound physical and emotional health;

iii. qualities of personality suitable for work in an unfamiliar environment;

iv. a strong desire to serve as a volunteer in the context of social and economic development; and an understanding that he shall not seek financial benefits during his period of service, nor live at a higher standard than that enjoyed by local colleagues engaged in similar work;

v. the ability to co-operate with others, both within and outside work;

vi. the willingness to serve in accord with the spirit of this Charter and that of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights.

While volunteers should integrate into the local project or institution, and seek solutions to local problems within this framework, sponsoring organisations should maintain contact with their personnel and ensure that in the case of serious difficulty prompt and adequate action is taken.

Organisations sponsoring international volunteers should recognise that volunteers cannot make financial savings during their period of service and that they may return home with no immediate prospect of employment. They should take appropriate steps to help the returned volunteer in such matters as re-settlement allowances, social security and employment.

VI EVALUATION

In assessing the effectiveness of a volunteer assignment the greatest consideration should be given to the opinion of the local community in which the volunteers have lived and worked. The evaluation itself should be largely conducted by a citizen or citizens of the host community in collaboration with the sponsoring, administrative and technical agencies concerned.

VII CONCLUSION

Volunteer programmes should be fully aware of and should promote the overall economic, social

and political conditions which are essential for effective development. They should recognise that which is universal and mutual in voluntary service and should further the continuing commitment of the volunteer to the principles of this Charter.

New generations of volunteers and their organisations should always remember the spirit of the pioneers of voluntary service. Yet they must never be afraid to re-align their work in response to modern scientific, technological and social progress, provided that the work methods used are always acceptable to the population and technically compatible with the development context.

This world movement of voluntarism is a tide of practical idealism, a movement which can never be deflected from its basic premise: that to work for mankind without material or chauvinistic motivation is one of the most challenging activities open to any individual sensitive to his own needs and those of society.

This Charter has been drawn up and approved by the XVITH CONFERENCE OF ORGANISERS OF INTERNATIONAL VOLUNTARY SERVICE, *the most representative assembly of voluntary service organisations. The Charter expresses what the Conference believed to be the universal principles of the volunteer movement. However, it would be presumptuous to claim that the Charter is a final and permanent definition. Fortunately voluntary service is too dynamic, spontaneous and rich in initiative to be so limited.*

This Charter is offered for consideration by people in every country and the CO-ORDINATING COMMITTEE FOR INTERNATIONAL VOLUNTARY SERVICE *is requested to take careful note of the response of world opinion to this Charter and to inform the* XVIITH CONFERENCE OF ORGANISERS *of its findings.*

Published by the Co-ordinating Committee for International Voluntary Service, UNESCO—*6, rue Franklin, Paris 16e, France.*

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APPENDIX B-2

PRINCIPAL ISVS SPONSORED AND CO-SPONSORED CONFERENCES, SEMINARS, WORKSHOPS AND COURSES FROM 1963 - 1974

1963

May 6-17	ISVS International Workshop on Peace Corps Development, Washington D.C.
June 11-12	International Workshop on Volunteer Psychology, Copenhagen

1964

Feb. 12-15	Second International Workshop, The Hague The structure and work of ISVS; consideration of current domestic volunteer programmes
Dec. 14-17	ISVS International Workshop on Volunteer Agency Operations, Racine (Wisconsin)* Organization, selection, training, etc. in volunteer-sending agencies – problems and successes

1965

March	First Directors' Meeting, The Hague
June 21-24	First African Conference on National Service and Volunteer Programmes, Abidjan Ivory Coast* Technical, educational and practical aspects of problems involved in establishing volunteer youth services, civic service organizations, young pioneers, etc.
Sept. 6-10	First Inter-American Conference on Latin American Volunteer Programmes, Buenos Aires* First opportunity for governments involved in volunteer work in Latin America to exchange information, experiences and ideas relating to their work. Identification of existing problems, clarification of concepts, optimum use of national and international volunteer programmes.
Nov. 5-7	ISVS Language Training Workshop, Vaduz (Liechtenstein). Methods for volunteer language training, according to their special needs.

1966

March 4-5	Second Directors' Meeting, The Hague ISVS services to, and programme for, Europe. Experience exchange, policy decisions, future projects, attitudes towards other volunteer organizations.

April 14-15	European Experts' Meeting, Paris* Discussions between the Secretary General of ISVS and regional experts regarding technical substantive matters to be raised at ISVS World Assembly, March 1967.
April 18-22	Seminar on Latin American Volunteer and Community Action Programmes, Fortaleza (Brazil)* Review of regional development, information exchange concept of local volunteer, concepts and practices of community development in Latin America. Freedom of activity of local promoter in formulating activities.
June 6-10	First Asian Conference on Volunteer Programmes, Manila, Philippines* Regional cooperation through volunteer service. Objectives: exploration of possibility of organizing a corps of Asian volunteer technicians; discussion of possibility of establishing a regional training centre for Asian volunteers; promotion of information exchange and coordination of Asian volunteer service programmes by establishing permanent regional secretariat.
August 19-21	Latin American Experts Meeting, Lima (see European Meeting, April 1966)
Sept. 2-4	East African Experts Meeting, Addis Ababa (see European Meeting, April 1966)
Sept. 6-9	East and Central African Seminar on National Youth Service Policy and Operations, Addis Ababa Developments, roles and challenges in national youth service organizations student volunteer service, national service, post-service placement and resettlement, integration of youth service with national development plan. Limitations and future trends.
Oct. 24-25	Third Directors' Meeting, Copenhagen, Denmark Up-to-date information exchange.
Nov. 10-11	ISVS Selection Seminar, The Hague, Netherlands*
Nov. 11-13	Asian Experts Meeting, Bangkok, Thailand (see European Meeting, April 1966)
Dec. 2-4	West African Experts Meeting, Cotonou, Dahomey (see European Meeting, April 1966)
1967	
March 29- April 3	ISVS World Assembly Volunteer Manpower for Development, New Delhi, India*

Nov. 16-18	Directors' Meeting, Amsterdam Reassessment of goals of export volunteers in relation to previous experience, future modifications of programme, means of accomplishing goals, evaluation, coordination with receiving country, returned volunteers, multinational cooperation, evaluation of ISVS workshops, programmes and operations.
1968	
June 24-28	Latin American Regional Conference on Volunteer Services, Santiago de Chile* Discussion of potential role of volunteers in national development process and organization of volunteer services. Also consideration of possible use of volunteers in regional development.
Oct. 17-19	Workshop on Administration, Finance and Legal Problems of Volunteer Sending Organizations, Basel, Switzerland*
Oct. 22-23	Directors Meeting, Basel Discussion on cooperation with UN Agencies in the use and placement of volunteers.
1969	
March 16-20	ISVS Workshop on the Volunteer as Subject and Object of Training, Intragna (Switzerland) Needs for training export volunteers as development workers, identification of main problem areas, proposals regarding training at national and international levels.
March 26-29	ISVS Workshop on Evaluation and research of Export Volunteer Organizations and Programmes, Margarethenhöhe (F.R. of Germany)* Information exchange on experiences in this field; problem areas in organizational and management field; needs and possibilities for promoting understanding through rationalizing technical research terms.
June 15-29	ISVS Language Teachers Training Workshop, Furudal, Sweden* Experience exchange, areas of improvement; assistance to language teachers through a mid-career training programme; evaluation and implications of language training for volunteers.
June 25-29	Belmont House Conference – An International Meeting of Volunteer Organizations, Baltimore, Maryland Goals and limitations of volunteers within the framework of development efforts – implications, direct and indirect, for all concerned.
Oct. 13-17	ISVS Workshop on Volunteer Service in the 1970s, The Hague* 53 participants from 18 countries. Discussion of future direction of Development Services in the forthcoming decade: development of priorities with respect to internationalization of volunteer service programs to provide conditions toward the achievement of peace; volunteer participation at decision and policy making levels; cooperation between Foreign and Domestic Development Services.

1970

Jan. 19-Feb. 21	Staff Training Seminar for Latin American Volunteer Service Organizations, John XXII Center, San Francisco de Veraguas, Panama* Experience exchange and lectures as a training effort; drawing up a manual for Latin America. Strategy for increasing the effectiveness of volunteer organizations in Latin America.
May 27-29	International Consultation Volunteer Service for Peace, Feldafing (Germany)* Facilitation of peace is a mandate of Development Services; discussion of various peace-related roles of volunteers.
June 2	Directors' Meeting, Geneva Multinational Volunteer Teams; discussion on UN Report re feasibility of creating International Corps of Volunteers for Development; coordination activites of ISVS in international volunteerism.
Sept. 30-Oct. 2	ISVS Workshop on Selection and Training for International Volunteer Teams, Geneva* Principles and criteria of selection; pre-training and international training.
Nov. 16-17	Directors' Meeting, Geneva UNV and MVT; examination of a possible Technical Assistance Pool" of sending organizations to assist domestic organizations; possibility of transporting used equipment from developed countries to the Third World.

1971

June 7	Consultation on In-Country Coordination Meetings and In-Country Advisory Groups, Geneva Feasibility of meetings for regional representatives of export organizations to cooperate in country of service, with domestic volunteers, the government and each other, and for such meetings to have an advisory capacity for UNVs.
October 26-30	International Consultation Volunteer Service and Development, Social Change and Conflict, Eichbüchl, Austria*
November 15-December 10	Staff Training Course for African Domestic Development Services, in Limuru, Kenya. 19 participants from 12 countries. First leadership training course for English speaking African Domestic Development Services to exchange views and experience, to develop methodology for volunteer selection, training and project design, participate in field experience and program evaluation.
Dec. 7-10	First Meeting of Directors of Governmental Volunteer Service Organizations of Latin America, Santiago de Chile All aspects of administration, methods and goals, etc.

1972

Jan. 10-15	Asian Directors' Meeting on Volunteer Programmes and Youth, Bangkok, Thailand* Preparatory consultative forum for the Leader Training Course in October 1972—assisting ISVS design a plan for the training programme, and making this harmonize with felt needs.
Feb. 7-8	Directors' Meeting, Geneva Up-to-date information exchange
Feb. & March	Training Course for the Staff of Domestic Volunteer Services (ISVS/UNICEF), Santiago de Chile
Feb. 29-March 1	First Consultation on United Nations Volunteer Programme, Bad Godesberg (F.R. of Germany)
June 10	Directors' Meeting, Geneva Information exchange; discussion of new "expert" image of volunteer
June 14-17	First ISVS Conference for Directors of African Development Service Organizations, Cotonou, Dahomey* Experience exchange, informing participants of technical assistance available from ISVS, suggestions for ISVS African programme.
August 7-Sept. 2	Training Course for Youth Service leaders (Botswana, Lesotho, Swaziland, Malawi) Specialized sub-regional course, Malawi
Sept. 4-30	Training Course for Leaders of domestic development service organizations in Francophone Africa, Yopougon, Ivory Coast*
Oct. 9-14	Second Latin American Conference for directors of development service organizations Volunteer Service in Latin America in the Second Development Decade San José (Costa Rica).
Oct. 11-13	Second Consultation on United Nations Volunteer Programme, Vienna

1973

April 1-27	Asian Volunteer Leadership Training Course for Domestic Development Services Programmes, Laguna, Philippines;* Sponsored by ISVS and UNICEF
May 7-18	Seminar on University Study Service schemes, cosponsored by ISVS and the Ethiopian University Service, Addis Ababa. 10 countries participated; 7 Foreign Volunteer Services attended as observers. The purpose of the Seminar was to assess the experience with Study Services and to identify key areas of operation with respect to (a) integration with the University, (b) contribution of Development to local communities, and (c) personal growth of the student volunteer.

August	Conference of Directors of Domestic Development Services in Latin America; 18 countries participated Santo Domingo, Dominican Republic
September	Training Course for Staff of Domestic Development Services of Central American Countries and Mexico, San Salvador, El Salvador
November	Conference of Domestic Development Service of Canada, France, Germany, Israel, Netherlands and United Kingdom for exchange of ideas and experience in view of possible cooperation, in Bad Godesberg, Fed. Rep. of Germany
November	Seminar on Programmes of Mobilization of Rural Population in Dakar, Senegal; 11 French-speaking African countries participated*
1974	
April 23-26	Seminar: "Towards New Patterns of Community Service" in Dublin, Ireland. 35 countries participated*
June	Training Course for Staff of Domestic Development Services of Andean Countries in La Paz, Bolivia
July 8-11	Seminar on the Mobilization of Grassroots Response Structures for Public Health Services in Manila, Philippines* 10 countries participated
August 26-September 13	Seminar on Programmes of Mobilization of Rural population, in Lusaka, Zambia. 10 English-speaking countries participated*
October	Conference of Directors of Volunteer Sending Organizations in Geneva, Switzerland
November	Second Workshop of the Directors of African Domestic Development Services: "Youth Employment and Development" in Limuru, Kenya; 18 countries from both French-speaking and English-speaking Africa participated
November 4-29	Seminar on Volunteer Service in Urban Areas Co-sponsored by ISVS and the Association of Volunteers for Service (AVS), Hong Kong; 18 countries participated*
November 22-27	Colloquium on University Study-Service in French-speaking Africa, Lome, Togo, 11 participating countries
November	Regional Symposium on Youth and Development Policy, in San José, Costa Rica; Co-sponsored by ISVS and the Government of Costa Rica; 16 countries participated

December	West African Seminar on the Role of the Volunteer in Grain Storage at the Village and Farm Level, in Cotonou, Dahomey 14 West African countires, both English-speaking and French-speaking participated

*Report available through UNV

TOWARDS NEW PATTERNS OF COMMUNITY SERVICE
FINAL CONFERENCE DECLARATION

This Conference for the first time convened professionals from Domestic Development Services in both industrialized and Third World countries. It provided an opportunity to identify overlapping needs, common objectives and approaches and jointly focus on the importance of these services for individual and community development as well as national and international advancement of people. The Conference was co-sponsored by the International Secretariat for Volunteer Service, Irish Volunteer Services and the Government of Iceland in Dublin, April 1974.

This Conference affirms that personal community service, both within one's own community and internationally, is of value as an instrument of national development as well as a means for personal fulfillment.

In the context and in the pursuance of its theme – "Towards New Patterns of Community Service and a Willingness to Change" – the participants of this Conference believe that certain things should be stated to its constituent membership, to Governments, and to the world community as a whole, in order to encourage the expansion of personal community service in the years ahead.

1. The experience of voluntary service is a vital component in the education of the individual, for it brings a direct awareness of other people's aspirations and capabilities as well as their needs, and it can lead to a responsible use of one's own abilities in the service of other individuals and groups.

2. Education organized by and with volunteers serves as a vital component of the development process. Greater priority and added emphasis should be accorded to the transfer of knowledge in all volunteer service activities and projects.

   In many cases, school and university education in both the industralized countries and the Third World can be improved by the adoption of community-oriented courses. The Conference recommends that an International Conference of those concerned with introducing community-oriented courses with voluntary service at various educational levels be convened, taking into account the results of various national and continent-wide conferences on related subjects. Appropriate steps should be taken by ISVS and interested parties to achieve this end.

   That sector of education and training which is organized outside the formal education system (sometimes called non-formal or out-of-school education) should be given more consideration by the voluntary service movement and brought to the attention of the public. A higher priority should be given by voluntary service organizations to educating the unschooled and illiterate and those who are unable, for various reasons, to finish their formal schooling.

3. Professional training should include learning about the concept of voluntary service and ways of making effective use of volunteers in serving the community. Voluntary service is a valuable instrument in bringing about wider community participation in social development.

4. It is valuable for the volunteer to have experience in voluntary service in his own community and country before serving elsewhere.

5. Every volunteer and every volunteer-sending organization must respect the right of each community and country to determine its own patterns of development. Volunteers, therefore, should not be apostles intent on imposing their own experimentations.

6. It is suggested that Governments, when considering their national development plans and objectives, should review their existing organizational and human (both manpower and womanpower) resources and consider how they can best be mobilized to promote self-help development activities.

7. Voluntary agencies, without abandoning the activities they have been carrying out so far, should re-think their roles in terms of the contribution they can make in this context to community service in developing countries. Greater priority and added emphasis should be accorded to assistance in setting up local community development organizations and to the training of their personnel.

8. Special support should be given by volunteer agencies to the development of handicrafts, agro-based and other small industries utilizing labor intensive processes toward improving the capacity of traders, artisans and other self-employed persons in the informal sector to manage their affairs and market their products.

9. Volunteer agencies should take advantage of any opportunities which present themselves to promote the marketing in industrialized countries of the products of cottage type and similar industries including those coming from local cooperatives in Third World countries.

10. Volunteer agencies have demonstrated their ability, working in cooperation with accepted domestic organizations to bring effective assistance to underprivileged or deprived minority groups, whose integration into the general community is especially desirable. The attention of volunteer agencies is drawn to this area as one in which their activities could be further developed.

11. Volunteer agencies are invited to consider to what extent they could, as a matter of priority, direct their future efforts to meeting the needs of the least developed countries. Similarly, in other countries they could review the possibility of reenforcing their assistance to the least developed sectors and areas.

12. Domestic development services should be encouraged both in developing and industrialized countries. Volunteer sending organizations and governments should support with personnel as well as with material and financial assistance the efforts of domestic development services and various self-reliance groups of the younger generation.

13. The distinction made hitherto between the different categories referred to as experts, junior experts, volunteers, etc. no longer corresponds to reality – either to the needs for which their service is required or to the background from which they come: a new approach to development service is therefore indicated encompassing varying degrees of skilled aptitude and experience together with service mindedness. This new category should possibly be referred to hereafter as development workers.

Selection and pre-service training are seen as very important factors in the subsequent service provided by development personnel. Therefore organizations sending out personnel for development purposes should ensure careful selection and adequate pre-service training.

14. In view of the increasing pressure of population on world food resources and, therefore, the increasing likelihood of large scale famine, volunteer agencies should take steps to prepare coordinated plans to make volunteer manpower available to help alleviate suffering. Past and present volunteers would be a valuable source of recruitment for the skilled and experienced manpower required.

15. Voluntary organizations have a responsibility to influence public opinion and press upon home governments the need for just trading conventions and reform of the international monetary system so as to achieve a fair distribution of the world's wealth.

This declaration was drawn up by the delegates present at the Dublin Conference and ratified by them at their final Plenary Session on 26th April 1974.

APPENDIX B-4

LIST OF LEAST DEVELOPED COUNTRIES[1]

Indicators for least developed countries are:

1. Per capita gross domestic product at current market prices of $150 or less in 1968;
2. A minimal share of manufacturing in the total gross domestic product at factor costs at latest year available;
3. A low percentage of literate population in the age group of 15 years and over, around 1960.

There are four groups of least developed countries:

GROUP I: Countries with a share of manufacturing 10% or less, and a literacy ratio of 20% or less:

Rwanda, Upper Volta, Burundi, Somalia, Ethiopia, Malawi, Tanzania, Laos, Chad, Niger, Guinea, Benin (Dahomey), Mali, Botswana, Yemen, Sudan, Gambia, Bangladesh[2]

GROUP II: Countries with a share of manufacturing of 10% or less and a literacy ratio of more than 20 percent:

Nigeria, Burma, Lesotho, Indonesia, Uganda, Madagascar, Khmer Republic.

GROUP III: Countries with a share of manufacturing more than 10% and a literacy ratio of 20% or less:

Nepal, Haiti, Congo (Democratic Republic), Afghanistan, Central African Republic, Pakistan, Togo.

GROUP IV: Countries with a share of manufacturing just over 10% and a literacy ratio between 20 and 28 percent:

India, Kenya.

In addition, the Twenty-sixth United Nations General Assembly (1971) named the 25 "hard-core least developed countries" as follows:

Africa: Botswana, Burundi, Chad, Dahomey, Ethiopia, Guinea, Lesotho, Mali, Malawi, Niger, Rwanda, Somalia, Sudan, Tanzania, Uganda, Upper Volta;

Asia: Afghanistan, Bhutan, Laos, the Maldives, Nepal, Sikkim, Western Samoa, Yemen;

Latin America: Haiti.

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[1] According to: Committee for Development Planning, Report on the Seventh Session; Economic & Social Council Official Records: Fifty-first Session, Supplement No. 7; United Nations # E/4990 (Tinbergen Report).

[2] Added later

WORLD EMPLOYMENT CONFERENCE

Geneva, 4-17 June 1976

WEC/CW/E.1

DECLARATION OF PRINCIPLES AND PROGRAMME OF ACTION ADOPTED BY THE TRIPARTITE WORLD CONFERENCE ON EMPLOYMENT INCOME DISTRIBUTION AND SOCIAL PROGRESS AND THE INTERNATIONAL DIVISION OF LABOUR, GENEVA, 4-17 JUNE 1976

DECLARATION OF PRINCIPLES

The Tripartite World Conference on Employment, Income Distribution and Social Progress and the International Division of Labour held in Geneva from 4 to 17 June 1976 in accordance with the resolution adopted by the International Labour Conference during its 59th Session (1974):

AWARE that past development strategies in most developing countries have not led to the eradication of poverty and unemployment; that the historical features of the development processes in these countries have produced an employment structure characterised by a large proportion of the labour force in rural areas with high levels of underemployment and unemployment; that underemployment and poverty in rural and urban informal sectors and open unemployment, especially in urban areas, has reached such critical dimensions that major shifts in development strategies at both national and international levels are urgently needed in order to ensure full employment and an adequate income to every inhabitant of this One World in the shortest possible time;

AWARE that industrialised countries have not been able to maintain full employment and that economic recession has resulted in widespread unemployment;

NOTING that the Conference is a major initiative on the part of the International Labour Organisation towards the efforts that many of the member countries are making to establish a more equitable international economic order, and that it is consistent with the deliberations of the important world conferences of recent years;

RECALLING further the conclusions of the Sixth and Seventh Special Sessions of the United Nations General Assembly, in particular Resolution 3202 (S-VI) concerning the Establishment of a New International Economic Order, and Resolution 3362 (S-VII) concerning Development and International Economic Co-operation;

NOTING that underemployment, unemployment, poverty, malnutrition and illiteracy are caused by both national and international factors; that at the national level they are caused by structural factors emanating from underdevelopment and, at the international level, they are due mainly to the deteriorating situation in developing countries, which is partly the consequence of cyclical and structural imbalances in the world economic situation;

RECOGNISING that one of the primary objectives of national development efforts and of international economic relations must be to achieve full employment and to satisfy the basic needs of all people throughout this One World;

COMMITTED to the attainment of an equitable distribution of income and wealth through appropriate strategies to eradicate poverty and promote full, productive employment to satisfy basic needs;

NOTING

(a) that unemployment, underemployment and marginality are a universal concern and affect at least one-third of humanity at the present time, offending human dignity and preventing the exercise of the right to work;

(b) that the experience of the past two decades has shown that rapid growth of gross national product has not automatically reduced poverty and inequality in many countries, nor has it provided sufficient productive employment within acceptable periods of time;

(c) the current unsatisfactory international economic situation and the discussions of problems affecting unemployment and related issues in UNCTAD IV;

(d) that the existence of an informal urban sector which has grown out of proportion during the past decades in the developing countries and the chronic lack of jobs in rural areas burden the labour markets and hinder the sectoral and regional integration of national development policies;

(e) that it is necessary to replace the current international division of labour wherein the participation of developing countries in international trade is mainly the exportation of raw materials, semi-processed products and highly labour-intensive manufactured goods and the importation of highly capital-intensive industrial products, so as to enable all countries to engage in other types of production in accordance with their national priorities;

RECALLING the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, in particular Article 23, adopted by the General Assembly of the United Nations in 1948;

CONSIDERING that only productive work and gainful employment, without discrimination, enable man to fulfil himself socially and as an individual, and reconfirming that the assured opportunity to work is a basic human right and freedom;

CONSIDERING that the growth of productive employment is one of the most effective means to ensure a just and equitable distribution of income and to raise the standard of living of the majority of the population;

CONVINCED that the establishment and modernisation of small and medium-sized enterprises in rural as well as in urban sectors will increase the volume of employment and therefore play an important part in a basic-needs strategy, and that the private sector has an important role to play in development and employment creation;

CONSIDERING that integrated development of developing countries can be achieved only in so far as equal priority is attached to the social, economic and political aspects of development;

AFFIRMING that the problems of underemployment, unemployment and poverty must be attacked by means of direct, well co-ordinated measures at both national and international levels;

RECOGNISING that in most developing countries, the government is the principal promoter of development and employment and the competent instrument to achieve a just and equitable distribution of income, with the effective participation of trade unions, rural workers' organisations and employers' associations;

RECOGNISING that international relations should be based on co-operation, interdependence, national sovereignty, self-determination of peoples, and non-intervention in the internal affairs of countries;

RECONFIRMING the importance of regional and subregional co-operation as a major instrument to achieve the expansion of domestic markets, to facilitate the use of modern technologies, efficient industrialisation, better integration into the world economy, and to give greater weight to the positions of developing countries in international relations, with a view to accelerating the development of Third World countries;

NOTING the firm commitment of the developing countries and of some developed countries to implement the New International Economic Order, based on the principles contained in the Charter of Economic Rights and Dutios of States;

NOTING that a review and appraisal of the strategy for the Second Development Decade (Resolution 3517 of the United Nations General Assembly) are taking place and that preparations for the Third Development Decade have commenced;

CONVINCED that the strategy for the Second Development Decade needs to be complemented by a programme of action to guide international and national development efforts towards fulfilling the basic needs of all the people and particularly the elementary needs of the lowest income groups;

RECALLING that the ILO, particularly through its World Employment Programme, has a direct responsibility for elaborating such a strategy with regard to the achievement of full productive employment in decent working conditions, and ensuring respect for the freedoms and rights of association and collective bargaining laid down in Conventions Nos. 87, 98 and 135;

The Conference hereby adopts this Declaration of Principles and the Programme of Action and requests the Governing Body of the ILO to implement the Programme of Action where appropriate in co-operation with other international organisations.

APPENDICES C

REFERENCES

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DEFINITIONS

Attitude: Way of being, thinking and acting – negative or positive – of a person with respect to self, others, local community, nation, and international community.

Categories: Classification of information on the basis of selected indicators

Cause/Reason: A condition, or problem, consisting of demand for action and availability of resources at the same time, that permits or leads to subsequent activity.

Changes – Social/Economic: Variation in the structure and conditions – negative or positive – affecting person-to-person relations, or actual or potential income.

Community: Given number of persons living within a specific geographical area who share institutions and values, and where there is a significant social interaction.

Community Development: Mobilization and advancement of people living within a specified geographical area, sharing institutions and values in terms of social and economic well-being, self-reliance and determination, and equal opportunity and justice.

Dependence: Situation in which an individual, community, or nation, chooses to rely, trust, or is forced to rely, contingent upon outside decisions or aid.

Development: Mobilization and advancement of people, to maintain and achieve an adequate livelihood and self-reliance, in contrast to advancement of institutions and profits.

Development Services: Work programs for the mobilization and advancement of people, carried out for a specified period with attention and devotion, in response to needs, and for the benefit of others.

Education: Process of instruction and learning – both intentionally (schools) and non-intentionally (via environment/home) to prepare a person to function in a broad range of occupational and societal roles.

Education System: A structured and intentional arrangement for instruction and learning responding to needs for:

– "formal" education through schools and institutions of higher learning, and

– "non-formal" education through a variety of learning programs.

Effectiveness: Program output (achievements) compared to the objectives and the causes/reasons for the existence of a development service.

Efficiency: Program output of a development service compared to costs/program input.

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Employment System:

– "Formal" Employment, a structured arrangement for work by people, governed by protected markets and requireing formally acquired skills, in response to economic needs, and for profit.

– "Informal" Employment, work by people in an unstructured small scale arrangement within the framework of licensing policies, relying on indigenous resources, family ownership and governed by unregulated and competitive markets, requireing no formal skills in response to needs, and for profit.

Goals: Preferred outcome of a program or program sectors of an institution in terms of targets to be achieved in a specified period of time.

Interdependence: Situations in which individuals, communities or nations – whether by choice or force – rely, and interact mutually on one another's decisions, actions or aid.

Leader: (a) A person placed in a legal or admired position commanding authority to direct an organization or group of people.

(b) An individual having the personal authority to direct/influence other people or groups of people.

Leadership: (a) A position of command to direct an organization of group of people.

(b) A behavior that exerts authority and influence over people or groups of people.

(c) A capacity to motivate people to follow an individual's direction.

Model: A representation of something considered as a standard of excellence to be imitated.

Motivation: Impulse – positive or negative – that causes a person to act in a certain way and with a certain intensity or commitment.

Need: A quantitatively and qualitatively structured profile of conditions which require relief, and determine the nature of the response.

Objectives: Preferred outcome of activities of an organization in resonse to needs without specifying a time-frame.

Obligatory Development Service: Work programs for the mobilization and advancement of people whose participants join because of legally binding arrangements, and carry out their work with attention and devotion, for a specified period of time, for the benefit of others with minimum and equal remuneration

Program: A plan or outline of operation, defined by goals in response to established needs (volunteer service program, training program, work program).

Program Areas: Sectors of operations, determined by specific performance requirements and procedures, i.e. work program areas: health service, technical training, agriculture, etc. Normally, development services describe the emphasis of their work programs by area rather than by project.

Project: An undertaking, actual case of execution determined by goals, location schedule, resources and results, governed by management procedures.

Recurrent Education: Education system providing life long opportunities for different types of education, at different times, places, and on various levels.

Service: Work performed with attention and devotion, in response to causes and needs, for the benefit of others, that does not entail financial gain for those who serve.

System: A structured arrangement of procedures, methods or components that responds to a need.

Training: Process of instruction and learning to prepare an individual for performance of a specific task, or set of tasks, required for a particular job or occupation.

Voluntarism: Any theory which holds that reality is ultimately of the nature of the will, or that the will is the primary factor in experience.

Volunteer: A person who enters into service of his own free will without expecting monetary gain.

Volunteer Development Service: Work programs for the mobilization and advancement of people, whose participants join of their own free will, to carry out their work for a specific period, with attention and devotion for the benefit of others and at a minimum or no remuneration.

Work: A physical, mental, moral and purposeful effort in a structured environment, in response to a need, determined by cultural, religious, philosophical and economic standards, resulting in specified achievements, personal satisfaction, and often economic gain.

APPENDIX C-2

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. . . about the author

Dr. Irene Pinkau came to this project from a broad experience in management, teaching and research related to rural development, out-of-school education and development, and community services. A German citizen, she entered an agricultural apprenticeship after her Abitur (Baccelaureat). As an agricultural assistant she was then eligible for courses in natural science and advanced agriculture at the University of Jena and, later, Stuttgart-Hohenheim, both in Germany. After completing those studies with a masters degree in agriculture, she pursued a doctoral degree which she received in agricultural management and economics in 1952. Her appointment as assistant professor at the newly founded Institute for Agricultural Extension Service and Communication Research at the University of Stuttgart-Hohenheim concerned work-study, women's roles in agriculture and the assessment of different educational and training modes and methods. Further studies covered home economics (graduation as teacher), occupational education (equivalent of masters degree) and public administration (post graduate degree required for civil service).

As executive secretary for seven years she directed the program for rural youth work in Germany under the auspices of the National Council of Churches, which involved community based seminars, community services, farmers' re-training, staff development, adult education at the national level and the establishment of a national rural youth academy and a Heimvolkshochschule (along Grundtvig's Scandinavian concept) for the church of Rheinland. In 1963, she was the first department head on the board of the newly founded German Volunteer Service (Deutscher Entwicklungsdienst), setting up the initial operations for volunteer recruitment, selection and training. Training being her main mandate, she developed curriculum and methodology with the assistance of a devoted staff, established two training centers in rented facilities in Germany and conducted the first in-country training of volunteers in developing countries close to their project sites. During these early days the question of the linkage of Development Services and Recurrent Education came up again and again—especially in discussions with the Institute for Educational Planning of the Max-Planck-Society. She served as director of training until the end of 1966 when she was assigned by the German Government to the International Secretariat for Volunteer Service, then headquartered in Washington, D.C.

In Washington, with ISVS as director for evaluation and research, her emphasis shifted to Domestic Development Services in developing countries and their broader role in society. She conducted a related staff study, two inquiries in preparation for the establishment of the United Nations Volunteers, and acted as Program Director for a number of seminars on issues such as: volunteer training, evaluation of volunteer services, the peace related roles of volunteer services, social change and conflict resolution. When ISVS moved its headquarters to Geneva, Switzerland, in December 1970, she became director of the North American Regional Office. It was during that period that this study was discussed and its scope formulated. Since 1955, she has been involved in many international activities such as ecumenical work camps, a study of rural youth in India, project evaluations in Bangladesh (then East Pakistan), West Pakistan and India, and joint projects with European Middle Eastern countries.