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**THE ADMINISTRATION OF TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE:
A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF ADMINISTRATION OF BILATERAL TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE PROGRAMS
OF FIFTEEN FOREIGN COUNTRIES**

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This is a staff paper which is being circulated in a limited way for comment.

The conclusions reached, and the recommendations made, are the author's own at this point in his research. They may well be revised on the basis of staff discussions and further investigation.

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INTRODUCTION

This is the first draft of a comparative study of the technical assistance programs of fifteen industrially advanced or advancing countries: France, the United Kingdom, Belgium, West Germany, Italy, the Netherlands, Sweden, Switzerland, Denmark, Finland, Norway, Portugal, Canada, Japan, and Israel. The countries were selected on the basis of the volume of technical aid they have provided, and, practically speaking, the availability of research materials. Although it may not be possible to compare every aspect of each country's program with similar aspects of other programs, sufficient comparability exists to warrant a country by country study of each of several features of technical assistance programs.

It is well known that technical assistance is provided both bilaterally and multilaterally. This study, however, is bilaterally oriented for at least two reasons. First, most technical assistance is provided bilaterally. A reliable source estimates that approximately 88% of all technical assistance is provided on a bilateral basis. Second, to the best of the author's knowledge, a comprehensive study of non-United States bilateral technical assistance does not exist. This in itself establishes the need for such a contribution.

It is necessary at the outset to define the term "technical assistance." Representatives from the several states in this study define the term differently, but the words "transmission of technical knowledge and skill," or their equivalent, are usually common to all definitions. The definition selected for this study, one that each technical assistance agency in the countries of this study would undoubtedly endorse, is from West Germany:

" . . . technical assistance is understood as representing all those measures which are intended to help to increase the productivity of labour and to raise the standard of living in the developing countries by the transmission of technical knowledge and skill (in the widest meaning of the word) of their peoples, as a means of supporting the maintenance of the principles of freedom in their political, social and economic systems."¹

¹Dr. Norbert Berger, "Bilateral Technical Assistance," Das Parlament (Bonn), October 10, 1962, p. 10.

Several countries, including France, Italy, Switzerland, and the United Kingdom, (as well as the United States) use the words "technical cooperation" instead of "technical assistance." The word "cooperation" is substituted for "assistance" to give emphasis to the necessity of the two-way process in technical assistance.²

In order to identify the major characteristics of the several programs and to provide a basis for comparison, a separate chapter is devoted to each of the countries, except for Finland, Norway, and Portugal. Very little information is presently available on their programs. Except for those three countries, each chapter is similar in form, organized on the basis of the following topics: motives for technical assistance, main channel for assistance, geographic concentration of assistance, administration, forms of technical assistance, planning and priorities, local coordination, and the requirements placed on recipient countries. In the concluding chapter, the several programs are compared and contrasted and an attempt is made to show the need for further donor sophistication in some cases.

²The following additional terms are here defined as used in this study:

Experts - All persons whose role is to give advice, conduct surveys or research, or help in the establishment of institutions or new activities. Furthermore, the words "experts" and "advisors" are interchangeable. (The United States Agency for International Development uses the term "technicians".)

Teachers - This term will be normally limited to persons filling regular teaching posts in educational institutions both in the donor states and in the recipient countries. When the position is mainly advisory, although some teaching is included, the terms "experts" or "advisors" will be used.

Fellowships and Scholarships - These terms will be used interchangeable. They refer to education financed by the donor state, either in the donor or recipient country. (The U.S. uses the term "participants".)

Students - Persons formally studying at academic institutions including universities, colleges, primary or secondary schools.

Trainees - Persons participating in on-the-job training or group courses in industries, training centers, specially constituted training programs, or in some cases, formal study at universities.

Local - This term is used to refer to the provision of technical assistance in the receiving country. The term "host" may be used synonymously.

The first topic in each country study dealing with the motives for technical assistance is perhaps the most subjective. For the most part, the motives are those identified by representatives of the donor states themselves. Such a subjective discussion of motivation is open to criticism; anyone who is familiar with the national character of the British, French, or Belgian peoples, for example, might quarrel with their respective self-assessments. At least a short discussion of motives is appropriate, however, for upon them largely depends a country's preference both for the channeling of its aid (bilateral or multilateral, or both), and for its choice of geographic concentration, which in turn helps to shape the administrative structure for and forms of technical assistance.

In describing the administration of each country's technical assistance program, the author has tried to determine which minister, or ministers (in regard to France and Japan) have ultimate responsibility. A discussion then follows of the main office or department which receives and processes requests, arranges surveys, consults with appropriate ministries from which experts or teachers may be drawn, and maintains contacts with private industries, universities, or other institutions which either provide technical assistance themselves, or serve as sources for additional "official" experts and teachers. The executive agency which actually provides or sees to the provision of technical assistance is identified if it is separate from the main administrative agency.

The forms of technical assistance are next discussed. Technical assistance is generally provided in two main categories: education and training in either the developed or developing country, and the provision of experts and teachers who can both temporarily alleviate skilled manpower shortages and transfer their skills through advising, education, or training. In most country discussions a sub-topic is devoted to each of the forms of technical assistance.

In most country studies it will be readily discerned that there is little or no planning of technical assistance prior to receiving requests from the developing countries. Donor planning in most countries is a matter of receiving a request from a prospective recipient, determining the availability of skilled manpower and funds, considering the request against short or long-run foreign policy objectives, and making a final decision of acceptance or rejection. The closely related consideration of priorities may be described as donor preference for providing technical assistance to specific countries for reasons which include former colonial relationships, trade potential, or political sympathies. It may also mean giving preference to requests for assistance which donors feel particularly capable of providing; for example, fisheries projects in the cases of Sweden and Norway, and agricultural and craftsmanship training in the case of Germany.

For the purposes of this study, the coordination of donor programs is the degree of cooperation among bilateral donors, between bilateral and multi-lateral donors, and between donor and recipient. There are at least three objectives of coordination: first, to reduce the duplication of effort among donors; second, to provide technical assistance which will form an integral part of a country's overall development plan; and third, to provide a ready communications channel between donor representatives and donor headquarters. Although the need for coordination at the local level is obvious, the reader will note that little has taken place. It should be mentioned early that the coordination of technical assistance as a responsibility of the developing country, the most appropriate approach, is conspicuous in its almost complete absence from references by donor states in the literature utilized for this study.

The last topic of each country discussion will show that some donors are more demanding than others in requiring recipient governments to furnish personal accommodations, tax exemptions, internal travel allowances, and other provisions for experts. In the provision of fellowships and training awards, the donor country usually requires the government or educational authority of the student to provide the necessary funds for round-trip travel expenses. Sometimes, however, this expense is paid by the student himself.

Certain topics in each country study will be discussed more intensively than others. This is partially due to the interests of the author, but also to the candidness of country representatives in their preparation of the various pamphlets, bulletins, periodicals, and other pieces of literature utilized. The available information on certain topics is so scant in the case of some countries that it may appear that a particular section or two could as well have been disregarded. For the purposes of comparison and unity, however, no matter how limited the data, an attempt has been made to describe the position of each country on each topic unless no information at all has been made available.

Although several aspects of the country programs may be compared, the quantitative contributions of these countries may not be compared for several reasons. First, some countries list the expenses incurred for the provision of equipment as technical assistance; others do not. Second, fiscal years; upon which figures are sometimes based rather than calendar years, differ from country to country. Third, experts are sometimes counted twice in one year if they perform tasks in two different countries during the same year. Fourth, some countries do not list experts if they accompany capital investment projects. Some countries do list them. Fifth, experts and teachers are often grouped

together. Other times they are separated. Sixth, several countries report the numbers of experts and fellowships provided on a yearly basis, other countries group them for periods of two or more years.

In spite of the preceding differences and several others, tables have been assembled in most country discussions to give the reader some idea of each donor state's quantitative contributions. Except for a few tables which have been extracted in their entirety from particular sources, they have been constructed solely to fulfill the needs of this study. The point that the author wishes to make by including UN data in a few country studies is that United Nations contributions by most donors are extremely small when compared with their bilateral contributions.

Technical assistance is one of the most important forms of development aid. It is also relatively inexpensive when compared with financial or capital aid. One source notes that technical assistance accounts for approximately one-fifth of all grant aid disbursed by the world's major contributing states, though in Africa this amount rises to about one-third.³ Unlike capital aid, technical assistance is person-to-person contact at the working level. It is helping others to help themselves.

The problems faced by donor country representatives actually implementing technical assistance may seem insurmountable. For example, a British physician in Turkey may wonder why his assistance is needed, knowing there are approximately 2,000 Turkish doctors practicing outside their homeland.⁴ In another country, an expert may question the significance of a slight increase in agricultural output

³Angus Maddison, "The Role of Technical Assistance in Economic Development," The OECD Observer, No. 7 (December, 1963), p.6.

⁴Ibid.

if the birth-rate is continuing to rise unchecked. In other countries, unstable political climates may make even short-range planning impossible.

It is not the purpose of this study to show the need for an increase or decrease in technical assistance. The fact is that a growing amount of technical assistance is being provided by countries other than the United States. There is no comprehensive study presently available on these programs. One source estimates that 77,000 of the 102,500 experts and teachers provided by all donor states in 1962 were from the states selected for this study.⁵ A comparative study of their technical assistance programs is most certainly appropriate.

⁵Ibid., p.5 (statistics computed from Maddison's figures - does not include Portugal or Finland).

FRANCE

Motives for Technical Assistance

Many years ago, through its colonial administration of several African countries south of the Sahara, and Algeria, Morocco, Tunisia, Laos, Viet Nam, and Cambodia, France set the pattern for its present geographic concentration of technical assistance. From its very early days as a colonial power, France sought almost complete integration of colonial representatives into French political life. President Leopold Senghor of Senegal, for example, greatly assisted in the drafting of the Fourth French Republic Constitution. In addition, during both the Fourth and Fifth Republics, the Upper House has been presided over by a native of French Guiana.¹

The widespread use of the French language in the former colonies has to some degree inspired this pattern of technical assistance. It is only natural that countries having a common means of communication would establish links. The same may be said of French Culture. U. W. Kitzinger explains this factor in his book, The Politics and Economics of European Integration. Kitzinger notes that the French saw it as their "noble task" to turn Africans into Frenchmen. This is not to say, however, that the possibility of France using technical assistance as a means of continuing colonial influence should be discounted.

At the direction of President Charles de Gaulle, a commission was established in March, 1963, under the chairmanship of the former Minister of Industry, Jean-Marcel Jeanneney, to examine the reasons behind French foreign aid. The utility and means of extending aid were also to be examined. At least one point made by the Jeanneney Commission should be stressed. The Commission felt that the basic motive behind French aid was France's desire for eminence. Certainly this desire for eminence is of paramount importance to President de Gaulle.

¹U. W. Kitzinger, The Politics and Economics of European Integration (New York: Frederick A. Praeger, Inc., 1963), p. 98.

The Jeanneney Commission also found that France was receiving decreasing economic advantage from aiding the developing countries. The Commission reported that France should not exaggerate the political argument for aid, namely that with decreased aid, the underdeveloped countries would fall within the influence of the communist powers. Finally, the Commission recommended that France should not increase her present contribution to foreign aid unless her gross national product also increased. Aid granted in 1962 amounted to slightly less than 2% of the French gross national product, compared to no more than 1% of GNP contributed by most industrially advanced countries, including the United States.

Exactly what measures, if any, will be taken by France as a result of the Jeanneney Report, it is difficult to determine. One measure may have been suggested in a speech made by Premier Georges Pompidou before the National Assembly on June 10, 1964. Premier Pompidou noted that in 1964, France's aid contribution would total about five billion francs (\$1 billion), but that in the future the program may have to be reduced. He said that France's first concern was for the former colonies, but added, "We are happy to reinforce our economic presence in Greece, Turkey, Iran, Mexico, Spain and also Latin America where, unhappily, our means are not up to the immensity of the needs."

Main Channel for Technical Assistance

France prefers to provide technical assistance bilaterally. A major reason for the French bilateral orientation is the special position taken by France to give priority to assisting its former colonies and dependent territories. The two tables which follow clearly show that far greater numbers of French experts and amounts of money have been provided bilaterally than through the United Nations, for example.

FRENCH EXPERTS PROVIDED BILATERALLY AND RECRUITED
BY THE UNITED NATIONS, 1962-1963

Year	Full Year Bilateral	Partial Year Bilateral	UN Expanded Program	UN Regular Program
1962	18,603	849	129	94
1963	17,826	1,028	329	215

FRENCH TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE DISBURSEMENTS
1960-1963 (\$ millions)

Year	Bilateral Technical and Cultural Assistance	UN Expanded Program (pledges)	UN Special Fund (pledges)
1960	\$ 100.0	\$ 1.5	\$ 1.1
1961	203.1	1.9	1.1
1962	228.3	1.9	1.1
1963	295.4	1.9	1.1

Geographic Concentration of Technical Assistance

As previously mentioned, France concentrates its technical assistance in her former colonies. All aid to Tunisia, however, has recently been terminated due to the May 12, 1964 land-nationalization law, primarily affecting French landowners in that country. An order banning the establishment of cooperatives, unless they meet certain state specifications, has also upset the French.

Aid to Latin America has been of a smaller volume in the past, but the June, 1964 visit to Mexico and the October, 1964 visit to the rest of Latin America by President de Gaulle indicates a step-up in foreign aid, including technical assistance, despite the speech by Premier Pompidou. As may be seen in the next table, there has been very little change in the concentration of technical assistance from 1962 to 1963, although Latin America is not specifically cited.

**FRENCH TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE DISBURSEMENTS BY GEOGRAPHIC AREA,
1962-1963 (\$ millions)**

Year	Algeria	Overseas Territories	African and Malagasy States	Morocco and Tunisia	Vietnam, Laos and Cambodia	Overseas Departments	Other
1962	\$ 38.3		\$ 102.7	\$ 18.3	\$ 6.0	\$ 48.9	\$ 14.0
1963	50.1	\$ 0.4	136.4	27.3	7.7	55.8	17.7

Administration

The administration of French technical assistance is decentralized and quite complex. Bilateral technical assistance responsibility is shared among the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, the Ministry of Finance and Economic Affairs, the Ministry of Technical Cooperation, and the Secretary of State for Algerian Affairs. Multilateral technical assistance is the exclusive responsibility of the Minister of Foreign Affairs.

The Ministry of Foreign Affairs is responsible for the overall administration of social and cultural activities, the formation of general technical cooperation policy, and budget allocations to finance all technical assistance

activities. In addition to its multilateral responsibilities, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs is exclusively responsible for technical cooperation with Cambodia, Laos, Viet Nam, Tunisia, and Morocco. For the purposes of local administration, there is a French technical cooperation mission in each of these countries, responsible to both the Ambassador and the representative of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs in the nearest French diplomatic mission.

The Ministry for Finance and Economic Affairs is responsible for the economic aspects of technical assistance to the non-French community countries in Latin America, the Near-East, Middle-East, and the Far-East. Non-economic aspects of French technical assistance to the countries in these areas, as noted above, is the responsibility of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. The coordination of the ministries furnishing technical assistance in these countries is usually carried out by a special French agent, responsible to the cultural counselor at the nearest French diplomatic mission. Agents are provided particularly when technical assistance is substantial.

The Ministry of Technical Cooperation is completely responsible for technical assistance activities in the former French colonies and trust territories: Cameroun, the Congo (Brazzaville), the Ivory Coast, Dahomey, Gabon, Upper Volta, Madagascar, Mali, Mauritania, Niger, the Central Africa Republic, Senegal, Chad, and Togo. The Ministry of Technical Cooperation is assisted in carrying out this task by a separate directorate for cultural and technical cooperation, and a separate directorate for financial and economic affairs. Technical assistance in each of the fourteen countries just listed is administered on the local level by a special technical mission attached to the nearest French diplomatic mission.

The Secretary of State for Algerian Affairs is a separate administrative unit handling technical cooperation exclusively with Algeria. Very little information is presently available on the details of technical assistance by this agency due to Algeria's recent independence.

Forms of Technical Assistance Available

Training Courses - Training courses are generally not intended for students who wish to proceed with university studies, but for those who have already acquired professional experience and wish to further develop that experience in French industry or public departments. Training is administered in large part by semi-public organizations such as ASTEF (the Association for the Organization of Training Courses within French Industry).

ASTEF was established in 1958 by national and private industrial firms under the auspices of the French Ministries of Foreign Affairs, Finance, and Economic Affairs. Fellowships are granted to foreign trainees by the French Government at the request of foreign authorities. ASTEF, in turn, plans training programs at the request of French Governmental Departments. ASTEF fellowships are completely paid by the French Government, including living, insurance, typing, and round-trip travel expenses. ASTEF courses conducted between September, 1962, and September, 1963, lasted three to nine months each. The fields of specialization included refrigeration techniques, building and construction, sanitation, operational research, telecommunications, and business management. In 1962, there were 2,080 ASTEF grants. The French Government planned 5,000 grants annually, commencing sometime during the five year period which began in 1963. Training is usually given in France, although when on-the-spot training is deemed advisable, it is given in the developing country.

Applications for training are submitted to the appropriate ministry by the requesting country, either after consultations between the French Embassy Education Mission representatives and country representatives, or after the meeting of a joint commission of French Embassy representatives and local associations for technical and educational cooperation with France. The latter is more often the case. The joint commissions meet a few months prior to each school year.

Fellowships - A quota of available fellowships is established for each less developed country in the overseas French community. Fellowships are offered for courses of study from the humanities to the most advanced sciences. A French estimate of university students and trainees from the developing countries in 1962 was approximately 15,000. Some 9,000 fellowships or training awards are included in this total. Training and education facilities are catalogued by the Ministry of Education.

Experts - The provision of French experts may be divided into two groups, long-term secondments and short-term missions. Long-term secondments may be defined as the provision of French experts or teachers to the developing countries for periods in excess of one year. Arrangements for long-term secondments are concluded between France and the receiving government for specific projects or certain sectors of education, administration, agriculture, medicine, and other specialties. Long-term secondments are renewable.

The purpose of short-term missions is to supply technical assistance according to specific requests up to the limits of available experts and funds for periods of one year or less. Appropriations for short-term missions are arranged on a country or group of countries basis.

France suffers shortages of experts in industrial production, public utilities, and engineering. These shortages are due in large part to more

attractive salaries in private industry. To offset this liability, the French Assistance and Cooperation Fund has been established which supplements the salaries of experts in these and other categories.

Relations with Non-Governmental Organizations

Technical assistance is not provided by the private sector in France as it is in the United Kingdom and other European countries. Several semi-public agencies and research institutions, however, provide technical assistance, sharing expenses with the French Government. ASTEF, for example, is a semi-public establishment, which is financed almost wholly by the French Government and works closely with the French civil service.

Experts are recruited from private firms, universities, and training schools. Each expert who is not a member of the public service is required to sign a contract with the ministry which recruited him. There is great mobility of skilled personnel among educational institutions, private firms, and the French Government.

Planning and Priorities

The French Government assumes special responsibility for her dependent territories. No master-plan for providing assistance to these countries and independent states exists, however. Planning exists only in the sense that first priority is given to dependent countries. Within this context, technical assistance is planned on the basis of requests from developing countries and the availability of French funds and experts.

France places great emphasis on the provision of teachers in all levels of education. The next table shows the number of teachers abroad, and in Algeria, for 1962 and 1963.

FRENCH TEACHERS AND FOREIGN STUDENTS ABROAD AND IN FRANCE,
1962-1963

Year	Teachers Abroad	Teachers in Algeria	Students and Trainees in France
1962	29,491	14,162	9,197
1963	29,695	12,390	11,571

The priority placed on education also includes the training of teachers. The emphasis on education by France and other donors is not wholly a donor decision, but a priority established by the developing countries themselves. France is practically the only donor state in this study providing primary education.

Another natural priority for French technical assistance is the provision of public administration experts, particularly to the newly independent French-speaking states south of the Sahara. In those states, the French are simply finishing a job started in colonial days.

The French Government places great importance on economic and social surveys. Such surveys attempt to maintain the proper balance between social and economic investment. When French experts are given survey assignments, agreements are signed between the recipient and France to ensure follow-up action. Lastly, as a result of economic and social surveys, it is hoped by France that the developing countries will be able to plan their own development.

Coordination of Technical Assistance with other Donors

Very little information is available regarding the participation of France in donor-to-donor coordination of technical assistance. It has been

reported, however, that France has coordinated her technical assistance with other donors in joint meeting organized by the recipient states. It is the French position that the coordination of technical assistance is no one's business but that of the developing countries'.

Requirements Placed on Recipients

It is believed by the French that a contribution to technical assistance by the recipient government is a mark of sovereignty. It is for this reason and for reasons of minimizing expense that the recipient countries must contribute to the salaries of experts on long-term secondments, and make allowances for internal travel. During short-term missions, the recipient country is required to provide personal accommodations and per-diem allowances for experts in some cases. In addition, the French require customs exemptions and fiscal and legal immunities for all experts. The status of a United Nations expert is often taken as a standard.

Requests for fellowships, industrial training courses, experts, and surveys must be submitted through the proper diplomatic channels. Long-term secondments of French experts must be arranged well in advance through government-to-government agreements.

A good knowledge of the French language is indispensable for study in France. Although the French do not at first insist that each trainee have a working knowledge of the French language, they reserve the right to cancel an ASTEF training grant if sufficient knowledge is not gained within three months of arrival.

During his study in France and after his return home, a trainee must submit to ASTEF several quadruplicate reports from ten to fifteen pages in

length, using the French language. The reports include the student's assessment of training received and the advantages accruing to him as a result of his study.

Students may not participate in political activities while in France.

THE UNITED KINGDOM

Motives for Technical Assistance

The United Kingdom has for several years been a major contributor of technical assistance to the world's less developed countries, particularly those countries which are member of the British Commonwealth. The present geographic concentration of assistance in India, many English-speaking African states, and other Commonwealth states is largely the result of former British colonial administration.

There are, nevertheless, several other motives for British technical assistance. In the first place, it may safely be concluded that economic motives were primarily responsible for colonization. Once the penchant for economic gain was being satisfied, however, humanitarian desires for social and economic development assumed greater importance. Development required the transfer of skill, which Britain provided.

Second, British assistance slowly became a means of helping the colonies to help themselves. In the opinion of U. W. Kitzinger, the British never saw the colonial peoples as potential citizens due to class and color consciousness at home.² Although difficult to compare colonial policies, the British did not develop an overseas "community feeling" as did the French. The colonies were permitted to emerge relatively independently, but under British rule. Ultimately, British foresight led to education or self-government.

Third, foreign aid has long been an arm of British foreign policy. Very briefly, the national security of Britain has been strengthened by

²Kitzinger, op. cit., p. 98.

influencing the public opinion of the recipient peoples through the use of foreign aid, including technical assistance.

Fourth, Britain aids developing countries with which it trades. This is a natural occurrence, however, for it can easily be understood that technical assistance tends to build stable surroundings for trade and marketing relationships. A great deal of British aid is tied, but this practice is not limited to Britain.

Main Channel for Technical Assistance

The special responsibility assumed by Britain for the underdeveloped countries of the Commonwealth is a major reason for providing assistance through bilateral channels. Tables which will be introduced later clearly show that large numbers of experts, education and training awards, and amounts of money have been provided bilaterally. The table on page 20 shows that the ratio of bilateral to multilateral expenditures has been as high as seven to one.

Geographic Concentration of Technical Assistance

British technical assistance may be found in East, Central, and West Africa, India, Asia, the West Indies, and Oceania. Tables on the next two pages provide analyses of the geographic distribution of experts, scholarships and fellowships. The independent Commonwealth countries command the majority of educational awards and expert services. It will be seen in the following administrative analysis that a particular plan or scheme exists for each regional concentration of recipient countries.

BRITISH OVERSEAS APPOINTMENTS (EXPERTS) MADE DURING 1962
BY GEOGRAPHIC AREA*

Geographic Areas	Number
East Africa	631
Central and Southern Africa	167
West Africa	115
North Africa	48
South America	96
Caribbean	79
South and South East Asia	224
Other Asian Countries	158
Oceania	39
Europe	59
Others	21
	<hr/>
TOTAL	1,637

*"A total of 1,369 appointments were made on behalf of certain independent Commonwealth countries, dependant territories and foreign governments, and of these some 950 were under the Overseas Service Aid Scheme; 131 appointments were made under regional programmes such as the Colombo Plan and Special Commonwealth African Assistance Plan, and 137 appointments were made by international agencies as a result of recommendations put forward by the Department of Technical Cooperation." (Discussions of each scheme or plan will follow.) Aid to Developing Countries (London: Her Majesty's Stationery Office, Cmd. 2147, September, 1963), pp. 49-50.

**FELLOWSHIPS AND OTHER TRAINING AWARDS IN BRITAIN FOR STUDENTS
FROM THE DEVELOPING COUNTRIES DURING 1962/1963**

Regional Analysis	Number
Independent Commonwealth Countries (Colombo, SCAAP, CENTO, SEATO)	2,196
Dependent Territories	517
Middle East and Africa	1,000
Turkey	181
South East Asia and Far East	566
Latin America	384
	<hr/>
TOTAL	4,644

Subject Analysis	Number
Arts and Humanities	436
Education	1,295
Medicine	686
Science and Technology	1,083
Social Science	875
Miscellaneous	269
	<hr/>
TOTAL	4,644

Administration

The main administrative body for technical assistance in Britain is the Department of Technical Cooperation,³ established in July, 1961. The Department is headed by a minister who is designated the Secretary for Technical Cooperation. He may or may not hold cabinet rank. The office of the Director General, a civil service position, is second only to the Secretary. The Department numbers about 950.

Among its many administrative duties, the Department is responsible for general technical assistance policy-making. It also coordinates the work of various associated governmental and private organizations providing technical assistance. In carrying out educational technical assistance in the Commonwealth, for example, the Department utilizes the following associated organizations: the Directorate of Overseas Surveys, Overseas Geological Surveys, the Anti-Locust Research Center, the Bureau of Hygiene and Tropical Diseases, and the Tropical Products Institute. Private organizations providing technical assistance include various universities, councils, and institutes.

No single ministry is responsible for the funding of all aid, although the financing of technical assistance is generally the responsibility of the Department of Technical Cooperation. About half of the foreign aid expenditure is subject to annual Parliamentary approval, the remaining part enacted by separate special legislation. The Department itself will soon have the power to make small grants of capital to meet building costs in connection with projects of a technical assistance nature.

³In October, 1964, the Ministry for Overseas Development was formed. Very little information, however, is yet available on the administrative structure of the new Ministry. The information listed in this section, therefore, is in part no longer applicable.

There are several other technical assistance tasks of considerable importance undertaken by the Department of Technical Cooperation. First, the Department recruits qualified personnel for overseas civil service appointments. Second, the Department itself provides advisers in administrative, agricultural, medical, scientific, social and educational areas. Third, in order to provide personnel and technical advice, generally on the basis of requests, the Department maintains close contacts with the Foreign Office, the Commonwealth Relations Office, the Colonial Office, and the Central Africa Office. These four offices decide whom to aid and how to aid through joint policy decisions.

Special services for the local administration of technical assistance exist in only a few countries. Instead, the nearest British diplomatic mission usually channels the aid and maintains liaison with the recipient country.

Overseas Service Aid Scheme - The first of several bilateral channels for the provision of British technical aid is the Overseas Service Aid Scheme. Financially speaking, the largest amount of British technical aid is disbursed through this scheme. This program was established to continue the employment of former British colonial servants until they could be replaced by nationals of countries receiving their independence. Before independence, the colonial governments paid the British salaries in full, but now the United Kingdom pays part of the salary and travel expenses. In January, 1962, 39 overseas governments were being served by approximately 15,400 officers, (see table on following page).⁴

Colonial Development and Welfare Act (CDW) - Technical assistance is also provided to British dependent countries through the Colonial Development and

⁴Large amounts of money provided under this scheme are given to pensioned officers. This is hardly technical assistance. (See Expenditures Table on page 20).

Welfare Act. The Colonial Office, with the concurrence of the Treasury, is responsible for approval of territorial requests under this act. In 1945, the CD&W made \$336 million available for the ten year period 1 April 1946 to 31 March 1956. Subsequent to 1956, additional funds were appropriated, including \$393.5 million by the Act of 1959, for the period 1959 to 1964, including \$127 million unspent from a previous appropriation. An additional \$76.2 million was allocated for research and the development of both education and technical cooperation during the 1959-1964 period. The specific amounts of money available under this act are disclosed to the developing countries several years in advance of actual disbursement. As a result, the British hope that realistic planning will be systematically undertaken by the recipient governments, providing the framework for specific programs and projects.

BRITISH STAFF IN POST UNDER THE OVERSEAS SERVICE AID SCHEME, January, 1962.

By Regions	Number of Officers	By Classification	Number of Officers
Africa:			
East Africa	10,542	Administration	2,450
West Africa	547	Transportation & Comm.	1,480
Central and South Africa	2,305	Agriculture, Forestry and Veterinary	1,570
Far East	728	Medical	1,700
Pacific and Indian Ocean	787	Education	2,000
West Indies	505	Police & Prisons	2,780
Aden	200	Eng. & Public Works	2,520
Other Territories Falklands, Malta, Gibraltar, St. Helena	101	Miscellaneous	1,215
TOTAL	15,715	TOTAL	15,715

The Colombo Plan - The Colombo Plan, established in 1959, is another outlet for the provision of technical assistance. Unlike the Overseas Aid Scheme, experts provided under this plan are normally appointed to executive positions in the recipient governments. The Colombo Plan is essentially a collection of bilateral aid programs for the underdeveloped countries of south and south-east Asia, although it is sometimes erroneously referred to as a multi-lateral program. There are no pooled funds under this plan. Major donors include the Commonwealth countries of Australia, New Zealand, and Canada. Outside the Commonwealth, the United States and Japan are also principal donors.⁵ Funds contributed by the United Kingdom to the Colombo Plan and other plans for the purpose of technical assistance are listed on the following page.

Special Commonwealth African Assistance Plan (SCAAP) - Technical assistance provided through SCAAP is made available to the independent Commonwealth states of Africa. The criteria for the provision of experts, training facilities, and funds through SCAAP may be adjusted with the changing needs of the developing countries. West African SCAAP countries, for example, have had to provide counter-parts (nationals to learn experts' skills) as a condition for receiving experts. The changing needs of East Africa could well establish different criteria to that area.

⁵Full membership of the Colombo Plan is as follows: Australia, Bhutan, Brunei, Burma, Cambodia, Canada, Ceylon, India, Indonesia, South Korea, Japan, Laos, Malaysia, Nepal, New Zealand, Pakistan, the Philippines, Thailand, Britain, the USA, and South Vietnam.

BRITISH EXPENDITURES ON TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE, 1960-1964
(\$ millions)*

	1960-61	1961-62	1962-63	1963-64	(Estimates)
Bilateral Assistance					
Overseas Service Aid Scheme	--	36.6	39.8	43.4	
Other Expenditures on Pensionable Overseas Officers	5.6	1.6	1.1	1.1	
Commonwealth Educational Cooperation	0.9	1.9	1.8	4.0	
Regional Programs					
Colombo Plan	3.7	4.1	4.5	6.3	
SCAAP	.5	1.6	2.7	6.2	
CENTO	1.5	2.3	2.6	2.4	
SEATO	.03	.06	.05	.1	
Non-Commonwealth Countries in Africa	.07	.09	.1	.6	
Commonwealth Countries in the Caribbean	--	--	.04	.8	
Other Countries	--	--	.07	1.1	
TOTAL Regional Programs	5.8	8.1	10.1	17.5	
Technical Assistance to Colonies	3.6	3.7	4.8	--**	
Research	3.6	3.9	4.4	5.5	
Home-based Activities	2.9	2.5	2.6	2.0	
Miscellaneous	.4	.2	.7	.3	
TOTAL Bilateral Technical Assistance	22.8	58.5	65.2	73.8	
Multilateral Assistance	9.0	9.0	9.0	11.0	
TOTAL Technical Assistance	31.8	67.5	74.2	84.8	

* Converted from original table using the factor \$2.80 per pound.

** From 1 April 1963, this total is included in regional programs.

Foundation for Mutual Assistance in Africa South of the Sahara (FAMA) -

Technical assistance provided through FAMA is made available to non-Commonwealth African countries south of the Sahara. Funds and the criteria for the provision of technical assistance under this program are established in the same manner as they are for SCAAP. Funds for FAMA countries have not been large when compared to Colombo and SCAAP expenditures, but the 1963-64 estimate shows a significant increase, (See table on previous page). Teachers of English are in particular demand in FAMA countries.

Central Treaty Organization (CENTO) - Most of the technical assistance requests of Iran, Turkey, and Pakistan are processed through the Economic Committee of CENTO. If funds are available, however, the United Kingdom will consider ad hoc direct requests. CENTO is the only bilateral channel through which Iran and Turkey may receive British technical aid. Priority is normally given to projects which have been processed through the Economic Committee. All projects approved by the Committee are later arranged directly with the recipient country.

Forms of Technical Assistance Available

Britain provides technical assistance in almost every conceivable field through the provision of experts, fellowships, scholarships, training awards, bursaries, and small amounts of equipment. Special emphasis is placed on education and training, since the British believe that the developing countries attach the greatest importance to the development of their educational systems at all levels. The next table shows the classification of experts appointed during 1962. A few of the specific plans or schemes through which technical assistance is provided are then discussed.

**BRITISH OVERSEAS APPOINTMENTS (EXPERTS) MADE DURING 1962
BY FUNCTION**

Function	Number
Accounting	15
Administration	33
Agriculture	97
Architecture and Town Planning	30
Broadcasting	5
Economics	6
Education	542
Engineering	254
Fisheries and Forestry	28
Geology	18
Income Tax	10
Industry	10
Legal	19
Marine	17
Medical	115
Nursing	104
Police	28
Secretarial	55
Survey (land)	28
Veterinary	15
Others	208
	<hr/>
TOTAL	1,637

Commonwealth Scholarship and Fellowship Plan - Five Hundred scholarships per year are available under this program for persons from the overseas Commonwealth, including dependent territories. Most scholarships are at the post-graduate level, although undergraduate scholarships are available in exceptional circumstances. Full costs of student tuition and maintenance are borne by the British Government. Travel expenses to and from the United Kingdom are met by the governments or the educational authorities of the students.

Commonwealth Teacher Supply Scheme - This program was established to assist overseas Commonwealth states and dependent territories in employing British teachers to fill key positions in schools and universities. Teacher salaries are paid by the recipient countries, but Britain provides supplementary funds to bring the salaries up to British standards. In 1962, approximately 542 teachers were recruited for overseas service. In 1963, this number rose to 636.

Commonwealth Teacher Training Scheme - On the average, 400 bursaries are annually awarded to teachers from the overseas Commonwealth under the Commonwealth Teacher Training Scheme. Costs of tuition and accommodations are borne by the British Government. Travel to and from Britain is the responsibility of the recipient teacher's government or education authority.

Training Program-Colombo Plan - Training provided to persons from Colombo Plan countries almost always takes place in the United Kingdom. Persons receiving training under the Colombo Plan are usually from senior supervisory, administrative, executive, or professional positions. Training costs under this program are partially assumed by Britain. Periods of training last from three months to three years. Almost any form of administrative, technical, or scientific training is available.

Experts Program-Colombo Plan - Experts and teams of experts are provided to Colombo Plan countries, subject to temporary shortages in some specialties. The financing of experts is a joint responsibility of the British and recipient governments. There is great flexibility in determining contributions. Experts are provided for periods of up to three years. In 1962, the Department of Technical Cooperation made approximately 131 appointments of experts to countries comprising the Colombo Plan and SCAAP. Unfortunately, data on the number of experts for the two plans separately are not available.

Planning and Priorities

There is no overall planning of British technical assistance. It is generally British policy to provide technical aid on the basis of specific requests within the planning and priorities established by recipients. There may be exceptions, however. The first technical assistance responsibility of Britain is to her dependent territories. Britain sometimes makes technical assistance suggestions to the colonial governments concerned. At other times, the International Bank and other international authorities make appraisals of the developing countries' needs, which are taken into consideration by Britain and the colonial governments.

The British Government attaches special importance to meeting requests for projects which form an essential part of overall development planning. It is not a rigid requirement, however, that receiving countries have development plans in order to receive British technical assistance. The British are making available a number of economists from universities and schools who will be able to review development plans on survey trips to the developing countries.

Special emphasis is placed on the training of civil servants for public administration. A high priority is also placed on education at the secondary level, and the supply of secondary school teachers.

Coordination of Technical Assistance with Other Donors

The United Kingdom is a cooperating member with other donors in a number of organizations, including the Colombo Plan and SCAAP. To what degree this cooperation constitutes coordination is difficult to determine.

Britain has reported that coordination at the local level sometimes takes place on an ad hoc basis, as for example in the case of the joint

Nigerian/British/American investigation (the Ashby Commission) into post-secondary education and its applications to Nigeria. Very little information is available on the results of this investigation, although it has been reported that a commission headed by a Nigerian, assisted by an American and a British expert, was established to coordinate external education aid. Discussions on the possibility of aid to the veterinary faculty at Makerere University have also taken place. To assist in discussions of this type, there are approximately ten British technical assistance attaches in Africa and the Middle East, Pakistan, and Malaysia. Their duties also include liaison with recipient governments, keeping informed on the economic and social plans of the country, and acting as "hubs" for technical assistance activities.

It is important to note that the British feel that much more needs to be done in this important function, thus helping to prevent the duplication of donor effort and, more significantly, to increase effective overall development planning. Accordingly, the British have encouraged their dependent territories to centralize the coordination of aid in the administrative machinery of their governments. A special section in the Treasury of Kenya now performs this function in that country. In Zanzibar, the Financial Secretary is responsible for questions of coordination. The Minister for Economic Development in Uganda coordinates external aid. Practically all other independent Commonwealth states have established procedures to coordinate aid, although the degree of success achieved has not been reported.

Requirements Placed on Recipient Countries

Formal government to government agreements are required under the Overseas Service Aid Scheme and SCAAP. They are not required by the British

Government under the Colombo Plan or CENTO. The trend is to formal written agreements, however.

The British Government feels that it is normal to expect the receiving country to make some contribution to technical aid, but the terms vary widely. The salaries and internal travel expenses of British experts in foreign governments, for example, are usually paid by the recipient governments, but no charge is made for the recruiting or other overhead expenses.

Under the Colonial Development and Welfare Act, some costs must be borne by the beneficiary, but the amounts differ from project to project. For technical assistance channeled through the Colombo Plan, the recipient country contributes toward local expenses, including personal accommodations of experts. Requirements placed on countries for technical assistance received through SCAAP and FAMA are the same as for the Colombo Plan. No financial contributions are required for technical assistance under CENTO, except as specified by the CENTO Economic Committee.

Developing country counter-part personnel are usually required for all projects where British experts are provided. It is also required that recipient countries exempt British experts from all taxes on professional and technical equipment, personal effects, and salary.

BELGIUM

Motives for Technical Assistance

The Belgian Government, not unlike France and Britain, provides the greatest amount of its technical assistance to its former colonies, the Congo, Rwanda, and Burundi. The recent independence of these countries, however, has been a chief factor in causing a change in Belgian motives and with it changes in the levels and forms of technical assistance.

A good example of this change is cited by U. W. Kitzinger, who notes that prior to the independence of the less developed countries, Belgium stressed elementary education. As a result, during colonization, natives rarely held positions of responsibility or high status. Higher education for supervisory personnel was restricted so development could progress in an orderly fashion, undisturbed by native intellectuals "looking for political independence and personal power."⁶ As a result, says, Kitzinger, "When the Belgians moved out of the Congo, chaos ensued!"⁷ Since independence, training for supervisory positions has become important and nationals of the former colonies now receive fellowships for university educations.

The example just cited should not imply that economic and political motives are the sole reasons for Belgian aid. Belgian culture, language, and the desire to continue a task already begun under colonial rule are also motives. Indeed, a variety of motives exist for Belgian aid as they do for all donors' aid.

⁶Kitzinger, op.cit. pp. 93-99.

⁷Ibid., p. 99

Main Channel for Technical Assistance

The overall orientation of Belgian technical assistance is bilateral. Belgium has reported that UN experts cost three to four times as much as Belgian officials doing the same job in the Congo. This is, of course, only the Belgian viewpoint. Another source notes that comparisons will show that the administration of United Nations technical assistance in the field is by far the lowest among aid-giving organizations.

Belgium has recently indicated that it now recognizes the advantages of multilateral technical assistance, and therefore may be expected to step up aid through these channels. Tables which follow will show that Belgian efforts in the three areas of experts, fellowships, and financial disbursements are strongly bilateral. The reader will note in the following table that there have been significant decreases in the disbursement of funds for the purposes of bilateral technical assistance. Belgium has not commented on the decreases. One possible explanation for the decreases may be that the governments of the Congo, Rwanda, and Burundi are now bearing a greater part of the costs.

BELGIAN TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE DISBURSEMENTS, 1961-1963 (millions)

<u>Year</u>	<u>Amount</u>
1961	39.7
1962	21.6
1963	23.6

Geographic Concentration of Technical Assistance

It has been emphasized in this country analysis that the Congo, Rwanda, and Burundi are the chief recipients of Belgian technical aid. During 1962, when approximately \$21,600,000 was expended for bilateral technical assistance, most of it went to these three states. In 1963, 80% of all Belgian exports went to the Congo, plus 76% of all Belgian fellowships. Turkey, Yugoslavia, and Greece are examples of non-African states receiving Belgian aid.

Administration of Technical Assistance

The administration of Belgian technical assistance was reorganized in 1962 as a result of the changed relationships in the Congo. The new agency, the Development Co-operation Office, was established with the functions of overall administration, and planning and research. A research and information department within the Office has the responsibility for keeping up to date on world cooperation and development. The Co-operation Office also maintains close contacts with university centres interested in development assistance. The Development Co-operation Office is directly responsible to the Minister of Foreign Trade and Technical Assistance: the Secretary-General, director of the Office, is in turn directly responsible to the Minister.

Other tasks of the Development Co-operation Office are varied: training, recruiting and assigning Belgian experts, providing invitations for study and training to prospective students, providing accommodations for newly arriving students, coordinating technical assistance agreements with multilateral organizations, and providing Belgian facilities and equipment to the developing countries.

The Development Co-operation Office has a governing body, the Ministerial Committee on Development Co-operation. For the most part, the Ministerial Committee makes technical assistance policy decisions and oversees their implementation by the Development Co-operation Office. The Committee is composed of the Prime Minister and the Ministers for Science, Finance, Foreign Affairs, Foreign Trade and Technical Assistance, Education, and Culture. Additional duties of the Committee include the coordination of inter-ministerial technical assistance matters, the preparation of budget proposals for technical assistance, and the examination of draft laws and decrees.

Forms of Technical Assistance

Training Courses-The objective of Belgian training is to fill the middle-level manpower needs of developing countries.⁸ Training takes place in the developing countries through the provision of experts, and in Belgium through university, governmental, and industrial training courses. In Belgian governmental departments, trainees are offered positions in foreign and economic affairs, welfare, agriculture, public works, statistics, and administration. In the private sector, training is available in education, welfare, and various communications fields. Any field of specialization is open to trainees in Belgian universities.

⁸Middle-level manpower has been defined as "that wide category of vocationally skilled workers from which we exclude top management and the most highly trained professional people on the one hand, and unskilled labor on the other." Francis W. Godwin, Richard H. Godwin, and William F. Haddock, (eds.), The Hidden Force (New York: Harper and Row, Publishers, 1963), p. 2.

Fellowships-The objective of Belgian fellowships is to educate students from the less developed countries, thus providing high-level supervisory and related skills. Courses are available in a wide number of fields: medicine, pure and applied sciences, fine arts, social sciences, and agriculture. Science education and research in tropical subjects is also available. The Institut Belge de Recherche Scientifique outre-mer (IBERSOH) is responsible for the coordination of science education and research, the provision of science experts by various institutes, and the training of experts, scientists, and research workers.

The following table is a numerical listing of Belgian fellowships for students from the developing countries. It should be understood that the

BELGIAN FELLOWSHIPS FOR STUDENTS FROM THE DEVELOPING COUNTRIES, 1961-1963

<u>Year</u>	<u>Fellowships</u>
1961	1,005*
1962	1,996**
1963	2,357

*Total number provided during year

**Average number of fellowship-holders present during year

awarding of fellowships does not limit a student to study in an academic institution. Conversely, university study may be undertaken by non-academic trainees. The Belgian Government considers fellowships and training awards as the most effective and economical method of supplying technical assistance.

Experts and Technicians-Belgian experts are experienced specialists who are sent to the less developed countries for a specified period of time for the sole purpose of training and advising local personnel. It is expected that the expert will be replaced as soon as possible by a national of the less developed state, to complete the task or project begun by the Belgian expert. Technicians do not train successors, but fill technical positions in the developing countries for as long as is necessary. A distinction between experts and technicians is necessary for an understanding of the new "Belgian technical assistance concept."

According to this concept, the provision of technical assistance is not a matter of career appointments or re-employment of former civil servants, but one of secondments. A team of experts is regarded as outmoded. The primary objective is to produce skilled personnel as soon as possible. Belgium fears that if experts remain too long, a special foreign group is formed, thus inviting the charge of neo-colonialism. There is, however, no limit to the period of time "technicians" may remain in a country; therefore Belgium would seem to be vulnerable to the charge of neo-colonialism, in spite of its "new concept."

Belgium provides experts and technicians in almost any field, but the greatest numbers may be found in the fields of education, public health, scientific research, and public services, in that order. Reserves of Belgian technical personnel are available in agriculture, community development, and education. The Development Co-operation Office maintains an up to date card index on Belgians who are willing to carry out overseas duties.

Article 16 of the Belgian Militia Acts, dated April 30, 1962, gives

young men who wish to claim a military exemption the alternative of serving a three year tour performing technical assistance duties in the developing countries. During the period April 30, 1962, to December 31, 1963, 1,195 persons claiming this exemption served in the following countries: the Congo 332, Tunisia 91⁹, Rwanda 34, and Burundi 25. The greatest numbers of exempt personnel were in missionary, engineering, and teaching fields. A table listing the total number of Belgian experts and technicians during the period 1961 to 1963 completes this section.

**BELGIAN EXPERTS AND TECHNICIANS SERVING IN THE DEVELOPING
COUNTRIES, 1961-1963**

<u>Year</u>	<u>Number</u>
1961	2,500*
1962	2,593**
1963	2,484***

*Total number employed during year, including 1,150 teachers

**Average number employed during year, including 1,207 teachers; does not include approximately 282 experts paid by recipient governments in Tunisia, Guinea, Morocco, and other countries, nor does this figure include 739 persons serving overseas in lieu of military service.

***It is not clear from the source if this figure includes 1,119 persons exempt from military service.

⁹The large number of Belgian experts in Tunisia may be indicative of a new geographic concentration outside the former Belgian colonies.

Planning and Priorities

The planning of Belgian technical assistance is based upon requests on the one hand and Belgian resources on the other. This of course, resembles other donor planning. At the executive level, planning is a responsibility of the Development Co-operation Office. At a higher level, the Ministerial Committee on Development Co-operation also takes part in the limited planning process.

Education, including the training of teachers, receives the highest priority in Belgian technical assistance. At the end of 1963, for example, 60% of all Belgian personnel in the Congo were teachers.

Coordination of Technical Assistance with Other Donors

Belgium has had only limited experience with the coordination of its technical assistance at the local level, but is aware of the urgent need and is taking corrective action. The following example attests to this need. There were approximately 2,200 UN and 2,000 Belgian technicians in the Congo during 1963. Coordination in this case took place only on the personal initiative of the technicians. The National Consultative Commission on Assistance in the Congo has recently been established, however, with the objective of coordinating bilateral and multilateral aid. In addition, a joint Belgian-Congo Commission is now coordinating Belgian bilateral technical aid.

Requirements Placed on Recipients

As of March, 1962, no specific requirements were being placed upon the recipients of Belgian technical assistance. At least one special

agreement for the purpose of technical assistance has recently been signed by both the Belgian and Congolese Governments, however. This agreement notes the individual responsibilities of each government, the details of which have not been made generally available. Belgium, like other donors, also prefers her technical assistance to be an integral part of an overall development program, but apparently does not refuse assistance if this request is not fulfilled.

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WEST GERMANY

Motives for Technical Assistance

The previously discussed motives for British, French, and Belgian technical assistance may be reduced to three broad categories: political, economic, and humanitarian. Each of these motives is present in every donor country. They differ only in degree, dependent on foreign policy objectives, wealth, and domestic situation.

Germany is different from the three preceding countries because it does not have overseas colonies or recently emancipated former colonies in which to concentrate its technical assistance. As a result, it is comparatively free to use its technical aid not only to reinforce present political relationships, but to win new ones.

It is interesting to note that political and economic considerations have worked both for and against the provision of technical assistance by West Germany. For example, in May, 1956, during negotiations for the establishment of the Common Market, France placed the question of the Association of the Overseas Countries on the agenda as a condition for going ahead with further discussion. The majority of the potential membership agreed that some arrangement for association with the Common Market would have to be made for the former colonies of France, Britain, Belgium, and the Netherlands. The German delegates knew that acceptance of this condition would commit Germany to a substantial contribution to the accompanying Overseas Development Fund. The fund would be used as a source of financing technical assistance, as well as other forms of development aid. With no colonies of her own, the German delegates at first refused to accept the French condition. As time passed, however, Chancellor Adenauer accepted

the French demand, for he didn't want to stall indefinitely the establishment of the Common Market. The long-run economic potential of the Common Market was obviously more attractive to Germany than her immediate objection to a contribution to the Development Fund. Germany soon pledged 200 million dollars to the Development Fund for the period 1953 to 1962. This amount was raised to 240 million dollars for the following five year period.

The Development Fund controversy brings into play several aspects of German motives for granting technical assistance. It exemplifies the fact that long-run German political and economic objectives usually seem to prevail.

Main Channel for Technical Assistance

It should be emphasized that one of West Germany's paramount desires is to make new political allies and to reinforce those relations already in effect. Political and economic considerations have, therefore, created a strong bilateral orientation for German technical assistance. Dr. G. H. Sachs, Ministerial Director for Economic Cooperation, seems to summarize the German position on bilateral and multilateral aid when he says, "It should be noted that the Federal Republic regards multilateral development as a valuable supplement to bilateral aid."

Geographic Concentration of Technical Assistance

Prior to 1960, German technical assistance was concentrated in the Near East and South East Asia. This concentration was for the most part due to the preponderance of requests from countries in these areas. Very little aid went to Africa, for most African countries were still not independent, relying almost solely on their colonial powers.

In the latter part of 1960 and 1961, the focus of German technical aid shifted slightly to Africa. This shift continued during the following two years. The following table shows the shift to Africa more than doubled from 1962 to 1963, as did the total amount of German technical aid. It is

REGIONAL DISBURSEMENTS OF GERMAN BILATERAL TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE,
1962-1963

<u>Region</u>	1962		1963	
	<u>\$millions</u>	<u>\$</u>	<u>\$millions</u>	<u>\$</u>
Europe	\$1.4	4.2	\$1.6	2.5
Africa	5.2	15.3	12.0	18.9
Latin America	1.1	3.3	6.2	9.8
Asia	7.2	21.6	16.5	26.0
Other	13.1	55.0	27.0	42.6
Totals	\$32.9*	100.0*	\$63.3	100.0*

*No reason offered by source for inaccuracies in totals

interesting to see that German assistance to Latin American expanded from \$1.1 million to \$6.2 million during the same period. Even in 1963, however, Asia was still the geographic area receiving most German technical assistance.

Administration

The administration of German technical assistance is a responsibility of the Federal Ministry for Economic Co-operation, established in 1961. One of the main objectives of the Ministry is to coordinate all measures for German development aid. It is also responsible for the budgetary control of all aid funds.

There are several interdepartmental committees attached to the Ministry for Economic Co-operation. The Committee for Development Policy, as might be implied from its name, establishes general policy. The chairman of the Policy Committee is a representative of the Ministry for Economic Co-operation. Other members of the Committee are from the ministries concerned: the Foreign Office; the Federal Ministries for Internal Affairs, Finance, Economics, Food, Agriculture and Forestry, Labor and Social Affairs, Transport, and Federal Property; the Federal Bank of Issue; and the Chancellor's Office.

The Committee for Development Policy has two permanent subcommittees, the Interdepartmental Technical Committee for Capital, and the Interdepartmental Technical Committee for Technical Assistance. The former committee has the function of advising the parent committee on development projects for which capital assistance might be granted. The latter examines all projects of a technical assistance nature and advises the Committee for Development Policy.

The execution of technical assistance is the task of the semi-public German Economic Improvement and Finance Company, Inc. (Deutsche Wirtschaftsförderung und Treuhand-GmbH). On behalf of the Federal Government and at government expense, this company engages the necessary staff to put the various projects into operation. The company also procures the necessary equipment and material for each project.

Special services do not exist on the local level for the channeling of German technical aid. The channeling of aid and liaison with the recipient government are the responsibilities of the nearest German diplomatic mission in the receiving country.

Forms of Technical Assistance Available

Training Courses-Approximately two-thirds of the German technical assistance effort is devoted to agricultural and craftsmanship training. Whenever possible, Germany prefers to train students and trainees in the developing countries themselves. The next table is a partial list of German training centres and their functions in various countries. When training is not possible in the developing country, it is conducted in German factories, institutes, industries, agricultural establishments, and other institutions.

GERMAN TRAINING CENTRES IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

<u>Country and City</u>	<u>Type Training Centre</u>
Afghanistan, Kabul	Handicraft school
Afghanistan, Kabul	Industrial management school
Afghanistan, Kabul	Institute for industrial teachers
Afghanistan, Kabul	Technical college
Afghanistan, Kandahar	Technical school
Afghanistan, Khost	Technical school
Ceylon, Colombo	Motor training workshop
Colombia, Baranquilla	Works manager school
Egypt, Cairo	School for executives
India, Iihla	Prototype and training workshop
Iran, Teheran	Senior industrial school
Iran, Tabriz	Technical school
Iraq, Bagdad	Senior industrial school
Jordan, Irbid	Industrial school
Lebanon, Beirut	Amilieh Technical Institute
South Korea, Incheon	Technical personnel school
South Vietnam, Saigon	Technical personnel school
Sudan, Khartoum	Training works establishment
Syria, Aleppo	Institute for technical training
Thailand, Bangkok	Technical personnel school

The majority of trainees in Germany may be found in large industrial plants and factories. Additional training opportunities exist in several

fields, particularly in co-operatives in the fields of savings, credit, and agriculture, but to a lesser degree in textiles, chemical industries, and mineral oil processing. In 1962, more than 1,000 trainees were financed by the Federal Government and approximately 400 sponsored by the Lander (German states). Approximately 10,000 "free" trainees were financed by industry and other non-governmental organizations during the same year.

Training varies from three months to three years, the average being eighteen months. Preference in the selection of trainees is usually given to those persons already possessing some knowledge in the specific fields for which they are competing. The German Government generally provides full tuition, fees, and personal accommodations. Travel to and from Germany is normally an expense provided by the recipient government.

The Carl Duisberg Association is responsible for the welfare of all foreign students and trainees and for the general supervision of training courses. From 1956 to 1963, this semi-public association assisted more than 4,000 trainees in industrial occupations, the greatest numbers being found in mechanical and electrical engineering. To fulfill its welfare responsibility, by 1962, the association had established 11 Land Centres, 67 Foreigners Circles (clubs), and 41 information offices in 108 towns.

Fellowships-During 1962, 1,500 students from the less developed countries were financed by the Federal Republic. The greatest numbers of students studied in the following fields, in descending order of priority: medicine and pharmacy, technology, natural sciences, law, social sciences, cultural sciences, and agriculture.

The majority of West German universities are very overcrowded. In addition to the universities, however, there are approximately eighty

engineering schools open to students from the developing countries. Overcrowding in these schools is not as much a problem as in the universities. Courses of study last approximately two years.

Foreign students attending German schools must meet the same entrance requirements as do German students. Most teaching is in the German language.

Experts-Shortages of skilled personnel are especially acute in West Germany. These shortages are primarily due to full domestic employment. To offset this problem, the government has established special institutes for the training of potential experts. In agriculture, for example, practical training has been initiated in rural development and tropical agriculture. Industrial training and public administration institutes have also been established.

The last table of this chapter lists for the period 1956 to 1961 the number of experts who have performed tasks in connection with specific projects. The list is not all-inclusive, but is meant to present a fairly comprehensive picture.

The Federal Republic usually rejects requests from the less developed countries for material and equipment alone. Requests are normally met only when a German expert or additional teaching personnel can accompany the equipment to put it to its most effective use.

GERMAN EXPERTS AND THEIR SPECIALIZATIONS, 1956-1961

<u>Specialization</u>	<u>Number</u>
Trade and Industry	101
Agriculture and Forestry	89
Transportation	35
Economic Advisors	26
Public Health	17
General Administration	14
Posts and Telecommunications	14
Information	11
Housing and Community Development	10
Other	<u>14</u>
Total	331

Planning and Priorities

One of the several forms of technical aid offered by West Germany is assisting the developing countries to formulate their development plans. When the developing countries take advantage of this offer, it may be concluded that German aid is a part of an overall plan; otherwise, aid is provided on a "requests" basis.

The Federal Republic establishes sectoral and regional priorities, based for the most part on economic and social conditions in the developing countries. The consideration of trade potential and political ties, however, are also influencing factors in meeting requests.

It should be repeated that the German Government places a high priority on the training of craftsmen and agricultural personnel, as well as on

the establishment of overseas training centres. Countries requesting craftsmanship training, having trade potential, and openly displaying Western political sympathy are more likely to be assisted than those countries which do not.

Coordination of Technical Assistance with Other Donors

Very little information is presently available concerning the coordination of the German technical assistance program with other donor programs. It can be stated, nevertheless, that Germany does not desire fixed coordination procedures at the local level. Instead, it is the German position that coordination should be pragmatic.

Requirements Placed on Recipients

The Federal Republic varies the requirements for its technical assistance from project to project and country to country. During most projects, however, recipients are required to supply or erect buildings for experts, provide personal accommodations, counter-part personnel, and local costs.

Government to government agreements indicating how the governments will cooperate are usually required. When agreements are not signed, "special notes" are utilized.

ITALY

Motives for Technical Assistance

Italy may well have reached a position of technological sophistication more recently than any other state in this study. It is well known that this advanced position is almost entirely limited to the northern part of the country, with vast areas of poverty and economic depression in the south, Sicily, and Sardinia. This rather uneven development tends to split Italian thinking on technical assistance. One group wishes to limit assistance to the homeland. The other group, the one obviously wielding more power, favors both internal and external assistance. The second group is also more susceptible to external pressures from other European states to help in the great task of assisting the underdeveloped countries of Africa, Asia, and Latin America.¹⁰

The internal pressures for developing the homeland and external pressures for outside development are in conflict. Sufficient pressures for outside technical aid have been generated, however, for Italy has embarked upon a modest program of overseas technical assistance. It may, nevertheless, take several years for some sort of harmony to be realized between the Italian sector wishing to restrict development to the homeland, and the sector wishing to expand assistance for overseas development.

Although Italy had a limited colonial history when compared to Britain and France, it has assumed a continuing responsibility for its former colony,

¹⁰ Italy's one hundred million dollar contribution to the Common Development Fund of the European Economic Community for the period 1963-1968 marks a sixty million dollar increase over her original forty million dollar contribution five years prior. This was the largest increase by any member state and appears to be an example of these external pressures.

Somalia. Somalia is the chief recipient of Italian technical assistance.

Main Channel for Technical Assistance

The recent industrialization of Italy, however uneven, has tended to create a greater Italian desire for recognition as a source of aid for international development. To attain recognition, and for political and historic reasons, Italy prefers the bilateral channel for the provision of its technical assistance.

Geographic Concentration of Technical Assistance

A geographic concentration of Italian technical assistance exists in its former colony, Somalia. Somalia accounted for \$3.5 million of the total Italian technical assistance disbursement of approximately \$4.14 million in 1962.

Another area of preferred geographic concentration is the Mediterranean basin. Training centres have been established in Egypt, Iraq, Lebanon, and Turkey. In addition, minor agreements have been arranged with Argentina, Brazil, Iran, Morocco, Poland, Tunisia, and Yugoslavia.

Administration

Italian technical assistance activities are centralized in the General Directorate for Cultural Relations, established in December, 1960. The General Directorate is administratively attached to the Foreign Ministry. To assist the Directorate, two subordinate committees have been created to establish general development policy and to coordinate the various forms and sources of technical assistance.

The first committee is the Italian National Committee for International Technical and Economic Co-operation. This Committee consists of forty

representatives from various ministries, the Italian Hydro-Carbons Office, the Industrial Reconstruction Institute, the General Confederation of Italian Industry, the Italian Exchange Control Office, and other agencies. The National Committee carries out studies and research concerning technical assistance problems. It also advises the government on general policy and necessary legislation. It is assisted in these tasks by many subcommittees, including those in the fields of agriculture, commerce, public health, and vocational training.

The Restricted Executive Committee is the second subordinate committee. The Executive Committee maintains liaison between the National Committee and the appropriate governmental departments and services for the execution of technical assistance. This Committee is comprised of top-level personnel from various ministries and is headed by the Under Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs.

Responsibility for the execution of technical assistance projects lies with the Service for International Scientific and Technical Co-operation. The Service includes representatives from various ministries, semi-public, and private bodies when they are given responsibility for a technical assistance project.

Italy does not maintain separate overseas services for the provision of technical assistance. Instead, this is an additional duty of a representative in the nearest Italian diplomatic mission.

Forms of Technical Assistance Available

Italy provides experts and fellowships in many fields of higher education, agriculture, public administration, and vocational training, including

medicine and veterinary medicine. Experts have also been utilized for surveys in development planning, weather forecasting, forestry, agriculture, and transportation. Technical training usually takes place in Italy, but is also accomplished in technical training centres overseas

Experts and fellowships are fairly well balanced in terms of costs to the Italian Government. Very little equipment is provided. In 1962, personnel expenses amounted to approximately \$1.9 million, and fellowships \$1.76 million out of a total bilateral program costing \$4.14 million. Equipment accounted for \$490,000 of the total. The following table is a list of fellowships, experts and disbursements for technical assistance during 1961-1962.

ITALIAN FELLOWSHIPS, EXPERTS, AND THE DISBURSEMENT OF FUNDS
FOR BILATERAL TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE, 1961-1962

<u>Year</u>	<u>Fellowships</u>	<u>Experts</u>	<u>Disbursements</u>
1961	2,032 ¹	407 ³	\$4,500,000 ⁵
1962	1,871 ²	318 ⁴	4,140,000

¹Total number fellowships provided during year

²Average number fellowship-holders present during year

³Total number employed during year

⁴Average number employed during year

⁵Not known if this figure is a disbursement or a commitment

Italy prides herself on being a source of European culture. Its traditional system of education reflects this culture. It is interesting to note, however, that Italy is converting several of its schools, formerly used for teaching the classics, into technical and vocational schools.

Planning and Priorities

Technical assistance is for the most part supplied simply on the basis of requests. Italy has reported that her technical assistance is supplied neither with a particular purpose in mind nor for a specific duration. However, an exception was the two year agreement with Somalia for the period July, 1960, to the end of June, 1962. Unfortunately, the details of the Somalia agreement are not available.

For historic reasons, requests from countries comprising the Mediterranean basin may be given special priority, but most requests are met or rejected on the basis of the availability of personnel and funds to fulfill the request. Somalia, of course, receives first priority. Italy also feels that due to her experience in the fields of education and training, it is appropriate to give priority to requests of an educational or training nature.

Coordination of Technical Assistance with Other Donors

Literature pertaining to the coordination of Italian technical assistance does not give adequate coverage to this subject. Many developing countries, for example, have an office or agency to coordinate technical aid. Italy does not feel that the recipient can be expected to coordinate technical assistance, although no explanation is offered for this conclusion.

Italy has also reported that it has attempted to coordinate her bilateral program with multilateral programs at the local level, but no mention is made of coordination with bilateral programs. It is Italian opinion that multilateral and bilateral coordination have not been satisfactory due to the friction created by experts' salary differences. Italy obviously feels that larger salaries give multilateral representatives a sense of

superiority when working with lower paid Italian representatives.

Requirements Placed on Recipients

No specific concentrations in terms of money or manpower are generally required of recipients of Italian technical aid. An exception is the Italian-Somalia agreement of 1961. Under this agreement, the Somali Government provides allowances for Italian experts' internal travel expenses and unexpected work flowing from the original agreement. Another exception is a verbal agreement with Ethiopia-Eritrea providing experts with monthly allowances and costs of accommodations at recipient expense.

Italy insists that requests for technical assistance must be well-founded. Requests may be accepted or rejected on this basis. It was mentioned earlier that the state requesting aid need not specify the exact purpose. This seems inconsistent with Italy's insistence upon honoring only well-founded requests.

THE NETHERLANDS

Motives for Technical Assistance

Until recently, it would have been fairly easy to explain why the Netherlands provided technical assistance. During the several years prior to 1963, the main concentrations of technical assistance were in the overseas Netherlands Kingdom, that is, Netherlands New Guinea, the Antilles, and Surinam. Recently, the Netherlands has been moving its technical aid away from the Kingdom to other developing countries. Much of the aid still being provided to countries in the Kingdom is provided at the sole expense of the recipients. In addition, the disbursement of Dutch bilateral funds and UN pledges for technical assistance have been increasing, but the latter at a faster rate. The provision of technical assistance, therefore, is not only moving to countries outside the Kingdom, but also through the United Nations. As a result, it would appear that political and economic motivation of the earlier colonial period is now assuming secondary importance in Dutch thinking. Conversely, social and economic development, for its own sake, is an increasingly important motive.

Main Channel for Technical Assistance

The Netherlands provides the greatest amounts of its technical assistance through the Expanded Program, Special Fund, and regular programs of the United Nations and the specialized agencies. The next table shows the differences in appropriations for United Nations and bilateral technical assistance.

NETHERLANDS TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE DISBURSEMENTS, 1957-1963 (\$millions)

<u>Year</u>	<u>Bilateral*</u>	<u>UN Expanded Program (pledges)</u>	<u>UN Special Fund (pledges)</u>
1957	0.85	\$.97	\$ --
1958	.85	1.10	--
1959	.85	1.20	2.44
1960	.85	1.32	2.40
1961	.85	1.57	2.60
1962	.86	1.50	2.60
1963	1.73	1.80	3.90

*1957 to 1961 figures are estimates only, "... the Netherlands budget annually features an amount of roughly U.S. \$850,000." The Netherlands and Technical Assistance (n.p., September, 1962), p. 5.

A part from Dutch experts recruited by the United Nations, the Netherlands has created two categories of experts: those financed by the Dutch Government and those which are financed solely by the developing countries. Both are, of course, provided bilaterally, but the Dutch Government reserves the title "bilateral experts" for those persons which it finances. On the basis of available information, the Netherlands is the only donor in this study providing a large number of experts for foreign government employment solely at the receiving governments' expense for a period of several years.¹¹

¹¹Belgium provided experts during 1962 with no remuneration from the host government (see page 11 footnote 2). One year, however, does not establish a trend.

Britain, for example, provides personnel for overseas government positions, but assumes part of the salary expenses.

Many Dutch experts are employed by the governments of Surinam and the former Netherlands New Guinea. The following table is a list of experts provided bilaterally and at the expense of recipient governments. This table tends to reinforce the proposition that motives for Dutch technical assistance are changing. Although the United Nations receives the largest portion of Dutch technical assistance funds, suggesting an altruistic outlook, the greatest numbers of experts provided on a country to country basis are financed solely by the recipient governments. Further discussion of the requirements placed upon recipients will again draw the reader's attention to this relationship.

**NETHERLANDS EXPERTS PROVIDED BILATERALLY AND AT THE EXPENSE OF
FOREIGN GOVERNMENTS, 1959-1963**

<u>YEAR</u>	<u>Bilateral</u>	<u>Foreign Government Expense</u>
1959	19	180
1960	15	206
1961	19	211
1962	30	172
1963	38	150*

*Surinam only

Geographic Concentration of Technical Assistance

The present concentration of Netherlands technical assistance may not be found in one or two countries. During 1961 and 1962, however, the

Netherlands Antilles and Surinam received a total of \$60,000 and \$140,000 for technical assistance purposes. In 1963, Surinam received technical assistance in the reduced amount of \$100,000, but the Antilles received none. Outside the Kingdom, Iran, Pakistan, Mexico, and Brazil are among those countries receiving Dutch technical assistance.

Administration

Unlike most West European countries, the administration of Dutch technical assistance has not been recently reorganized. The Committee for International Technical Assistance was established in 1950. The main task of the Committee is to advise the government on policy matters relating to Netherlands participation in technical assistance to the developing countries. The Committee is also the main coordinating body for technical assistance within the government itself. Members of the Committee are representatives from all the ministries concerned with technical assistance and finance. A representative from the Ministry of Foreign Affairs is the Committee president.

The Office for International Technical Assistance is the main body in the Dutch technical assistance structure, and the executive body for the Committee. It is directly responsible to the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. There are four main departments within the Office for International Technical Assistance: the General Department, Experts Department, Fellowships Department, and the Projects Department.

The Office acts as an interdepartmental organ in the fulfillment of its tasks. It maintains direct relations with the various ministries concerned with technical assistance. Direct contacts are also maintained with universities, private industry, engineering offices and other private agencies.

In addition, the Office is a coordinating body for the recruitment of Netherlands experts for employment with the United Nations.

In 1957, the Dutch Government charged the Office of International Technical Assistance with the execution of the bilateral program, Nederlandse Technische Hulpprogramme (NHP). About \$850,000 was budgeted on an annual basis for the NHP from 1957 to 1962. A \$10,000 increase was added in 1962. In 1963, the total amount was more than doubled to a total of \$1,730,000. Even with this large increase, the NHP does not approach the larger Dutch pledges to the United Nations, again showing the secondary nature of its bilateral program.

Forms of Technical Assistance Available

Fellowships-available literature pertaining to the Netherlands Fellowship Program does not clearly indicate differences between awards to trainees and awards to students. About 160 fellowships to both students and trainees were awarded on an annual basis between 1960 and 1962. Many more students and trainees were received through multilateral organizations during the same period. The following table is a simple listing of the number of Dutch fellowships awarded bilaterally.

NETHERLANDS FELLOWSHIPS FOR STUDENTS FROM THE DEVELOPING COUNTRIES, 1960-1963

<u>Year</u>	<u>Fellowships</u>
1960	135
1961	180
1962	173
1963	208

Until recently, the emphasis was on training conducted in the Netherlands rather than in the developing countries. Courses were offered in photogrammetry, photogeology, aerial photography, agriculture, construction, and engineering. There is now a strong emphasis on the establishment or the strengthening of training facilities in the developing countries. The orientation of training courses is changing to meet the local problems of the developing countries. Previously, they were more generally oriented.

Fellowships provided by the Netherlands are usually at the post-graduate level. Education and training courses are still being conducted at schools and universities in Delft, Wageningen, Rotterdam, and the Hague. Lectures are usually in English, although courses in French and German have been offered. The duration of education and training fellowships has been six weeks to two years.

Experts-The experts program is designed to meet requests from developing countries in fields in which the Netherlands feels it has specific knowledge and experience: public utilities, administration, agriculture, transportation, and health and education. Shortages of experts are very pronounced in economics, finance, and public administration. Almost all experts in the bilateral program are government officials who are appointed by the Office for International Technical Assistance.

Expert assignments are usually of short duration, six months or less. Longer assignments, especially in the teaching fields, have lasted two to three years. Expert salaries vary from \$2,800 to \$11,200, depending on experience and educational levels. In an effort to make duties more attractive, the government taxes only half of each expert's salary. Other benefits include

paid travel expenses, social security, and family accompaniment.

Associate Experts-The Associate Experts Program was established in 1954 to alleviate the shortage of experienced experts available to United Nations agencies. Under this program, young university graduates are employed to assist skilled experts. Once in the field, associate experts may be used at the discretion of the UN specialized agencies, although all costs are borne by the Netherlands. Associate experts may be found in the same fields as skilled experts; they have recently been recruited for statistical, agricultural, and social welfare duties.

Associate expert assignments are usually made for periods not exceeding three years. They are appointed by the Office for International Technical Assistance. An associate expert receives about \$150.00 per month, plus a daily subsistence allowance and travel, medical, and social security expenses paid by the Netherlands.

Appointment as an associate expert does not imply renewal or future placement in any UN program or agency; however, between 1954 and 1961, 13 were taken on as full-time experts with the UN Expanded Program. By the end of 1960, 62 associate experts had been appointed, 42 for FAO projects, 11 for UNESCO, and 9 for other United Nations projects.

In addition to the associate experts program, a volunteer, "Peace Corps" style program was recently established. In 1963, 20 volunteers were placed in Cameroon, and 21 in Brazil.

Expanded Technical Assistance Projects Program-The Expanded Technical Assistance Projects Program was established in 1963 to carry out projects which form an integral part of a national development program in a recipient

country. Under this program, close cooperation with the recipient government is required, both in sharing costs, planning, and making skilled personnel available. Projects must be of a training or demonstration character. This program may be the foremost step at planning and coordination of technical assistance taken by any country in this study. Unfortunately, details on its operation are not available.

Pre-investment Program-The exact objectives of the Netherlands Pre-investment Program have not been made clear by the Netherlands. The following projects, financed by funds originally budgeted in 1957 and 1958, indicate that the program may be an attempt to introduce technical assistance programs which it is hoped will help to maintain a balance between economic and social development: a model carcass reduction plant in India; an experimental polder (land reclamation) in Saurashtra, India; a sugar manufacturing plant in Libya; and an additional polder in Missolonghi, Greece.

Planning and Priorities

The allocation of funds for technical assistance is largely provided on the basis of specific requests and the availability of Netherlands experts, training facilities, and funds. The newly organized Expanded Technical Assistance Projects Program, however, may be a step in the direction of more detailed planning, since the program requires close donor and recipient cooperation. Under this program, technical assistance requests must form an integral part of the developing countries' overall development plans.

Countries requesting technical assistance which the Netherlands feel especially qualified to extend are likely to receive priority. Among training requests given a priority would be those in fields such as education, health, transportation, and agriculture.

Coordination of Technical Assistance with Other Donors

No information is presently available on the coordination of technical assistance between representatives of the Netherlands and other donors. The Netherlands feels, however, that it is important to stress the role which the UN Resident Representative could play in the coordination of multilateral and bilateral technical assistance.

Requirements Placed on Recipients

Requests for technical assistance must be well-founded. They must be detailed to prove conclusively that assistance will be beneficial to the developing countries.

When experts are provided bilaterally, the recipient country is required to supply local transportation, office facilities and equipment, tax exemptions on household effects, and written indemnification freeing the Netherlands from claims due to any act or omission of the expert while on official duty.

Recipients of fellowships are expected to turn knowledge gained at the expense of the Dutch Government to the benefit of their own country. It is requested, but not specifically required, that fellowship recipients should be university graduates.

Agreements must be signed between the Netherlands and the receiving government, specifying the responsibilities of both under the Netherlands Pre-investment Program. Counter-part personnel are also required under this program.

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SWEDEN

Motives for Technical Assistance

Many years before this decade of development,¹² Sweden played a role in development assistance through its commercial links with underdeveloped countries and contacts through the Swedish Red Cross, the Swedish chapter of Save the Children, and various missionary societies. Exactly how much of this aid, dictated by economic, religious, and humanitarian motives, was of a technical assistance nature, is difficult to determine. A recent study of the Swedish Missionary Council, representing 19 religious organizations, however, showed that 60%-70% of their total expenses were for technical assistance.

It wasn't until the end of World War II and the establishment of the United Nations that the Swedish Government began to contribute significantly to technical development in the underdeveloped countries. Indeed, most Swedish technical assistance has since that time been disseminated through the United Nations.

The early emphasis on private aid and the continuing emphasis on the channeling of official technical assistance through the United Nations tends to suggest that Swedish motives are humanitarian and nonpolitical in character. Sweden also believes its bilateral technical assistance provides relief from great power pressures seeking to win the sympathies of the developing countries. In short, Sweden hopes that its technical assistance to

¹²The 1960's were declared the Decade of Development by the United Nations General Assembly in December, 1961. For further information, see: Department of Economic and Social Affairs, The United Nations Development Decade, Proposals for Action, A Report by the Secretary-General (New York: Department of Economic and Social Affairs, 1962).

the less developed countries will provide them with a choice between the East and the West.

Main Channel for Technical Assistance

The channeling of Sweden's technical assistance is decidedly multi-lateral, particularly through the United Nations. Analysis of the following

SWEDISH BILATERAL TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE EXPENDITURES, 1958-1962

<u>Purpose</u>	<u>1958/59</u>	<u>1959/60</u>	<u>1960/61</u>	<u>1961/62</u>
Ethio-Swedish Building Institute, Addis Ababa	\$150,000	\$150,000	\$230,000	n o t
Pediatric hospital, etc., in Addis Ababa	120,000	100,000	120,000	u v
Swedish-Pakistani Institute of Technology of Karachi	140,000	120,000	190,000	e i l
Family planning project, Ceylon	40,000	40,000	40,000	a b l e
Scandinavian hospital in Korea	190,000	580,000	500,000	
Other assistance	---	---	40,000	
Seminars in Sweden	30,000	60,000	60,000	
Scholarships for other studies in Sweden	20,000	40,000	60,000	
Administration	20,000	40,000	60,000	
Total Expenditures*	\$770,000	\$1,120,000	\$1,220,000	\$2,350,000

* Due to rounding and conversion, totals may not be precisely accurate

SWEDISH TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE PLEDGES TO THE UNITED NATIONS, 1959-1963
(Millions)

<u>Year</u>	<u>UN Expanded Program*</u>	<u>UN Special Fund</u>
1959	\$.90	\$2.10
1960	.90	2.10
1961	1.00	2.10
1962	1.50	5.00
1963	2.01	5.26

*Does not include UN Regular Program

tables will show that this is the case in the disbursement or pledging of funds for the purposes of technical assistance. Sufficient data are not available to provide a comparison of Swedish exports moving under the bilateral and multilateral auspices. A table showing the number of fellowships granted bilaterally, together with the number of UN fellowships for students from the developing countries in Sweden will follow later.

Geographic Concentration of Technical Assistance

Sweden's early bilateral technical assistance efforts were concentrated in Ethiopia and Pakistan during 1954 and 1955. Since that time, Sweden has expanded its bilateral efforts to include Ceylon, Ghana, India, South Korea, Liberia, Nigeria, Tanganyika, and Tunisia. Swedish technical assistance in these countries is not of great magnitude, except perhaps in the case of Tunisia, which will be referred to later in this chapter.

Administration

At the highest governmental level, technical assistance is the responsibility of a Minister without Portfolio, who is assisted by the Minister

of Foreign Affairs. Everyday administration is the task of the Swedish Agency for International Assistance ("Nämnden för internationellt bistånd, NIB), established in January, 1962.

The NIB is an independent administrative agency within the Ministry for Foreign Affairs. During 1962, the NIB had a forty member staff. It is headed by a Secretary-General and consists of four divisions. Information on the exact function of each division is not available, but the titles seem to be self-explanatory: Planning and Budgeting, Expert Recruitment, Fellowships, and Information.

An advisory council, comprised of sixty representatives from professional and humanitarian organizations, is administratively attached to the NIB. Other Nordic countries have seats on the council, which may indicate the desire for coordination of other donor programs with Sweden's technical assistance program.

A governing board has also been established for the NIB. This board consists of representatives from the Foreign Ministry, Education and Finance Ministries, the four main political parties, industry, trade-unions, cooperatives, and humanitarian organizations.

Forms of Technical Assistance Available

Sweden provides technical assistance through the familiar forms of fellowships, training awards, and experts. Very little equipment is provided.

Fellowships and Training Awards-Fellowships and training awards for study in Sweden are available in many fields, including veterinary medicine, foundry technology, physics, and plant genetics. Students financed bilaterally and multilaterally often attend the same courses, especially when fellowships are provided by FAO and UNESCO. The place of study is usually a Swedish university.

The following table for the most part lists only those fellowships and training awards for study in Sweden. Comparable data are not available for overseas training, but a random sampling provides the following information. During 1961, the Ethio-Swedish Institute of Building Technology at Addis Ababa had 90 students, graduating 10. During 1962, the Swedish-Pakistani Institute of Technology had 140 students in attendance.

In 1960, Sweden trained several midwives and nurses in Ghana. For several years, the Scandinavian training hospital in Seoul, South Korea, has been training doctors, nurses, and technicians. Sweden, Norway, and Denmark have coordinated their programs in making the hospital project a success.

SWEDISH AND UNITED NATIONS FELLOWSHIPS FOR STUDENTS FROM THE DEVELOPING COUNTRIES, 1956-1961, and 1962

<u>Year</u>	<u>Bilateral</u>	<u>UN Expanded Program</u>	<u>UN Regular Program</u>
1956-1961	156	465*	890
1962	40	90	88

*Does not include 1956 contributions

Experts-During 1962, Sweden provided 59 experts bilaterally, compared with more than 100 multilaterally. Although a list of different skills is not available, several experts served with the Kilibia fisheries project in Tunisia. This bilateral project is one of Sweden's most recent and successful. It has expanded from a pure fishery operation into the building of a small hospital and supplying it with Swedish medical staff for a period of eight years. The improvement of the local water supply has also been undertaken by Swedish experts.

Swedish experts may be found in other fields, including vocational training and family planning. Sweden contends that her family planning programs have met with great success in Ceylon, Pakistan, and Tunisia.

Planning and Priorities

All Swedish technical assistance is provided upon the specific requests

of developing countries. Once requests have been received, planning is the responsibility of the NIB. Sweden tries to provide technical assistance to those countries requesting aid which are similar in size to the Swedish homeland and whose needs she feels most capable of fulfilling. For example, special attention is given to requests in the general areas of vocational training, fisheries, and medical and veterinary technical assistance. Priority is also given to requests which are not met by the United Nations -- family planning, for instance.

Coordination of Technical Assistance with Other Donors

Sweden has taken several positive steps in the coordination of her technical assistance program with those of other donors, particularly other Nordic programs. Results of coordination with other Nordic states at the local level are the training hospital in Seoul, South Korea, and a farm institute, health center, and secondary school in Tanganyika. In addition, an African institute has been established in Sweden to serve all Nordic countries. The purpose of the institute is to train Scandinavian experts who are going to serve in African countries.

Whenever possible, Sweden tries to coordinate her bilateral program with multilateral programs operating in Sweden. The first such effort was in 1954 when several Swedish experts, in cooperation with the FAO, conducted a nine month veterinary seminar.

Requirements Placed on Recipients

A detailed survey of all available governmental information, plus private correspondence, reveals that the only requirement placed upon recipient governments for Swedish technical assistance is that they must pay a

minor share of experts' personal accommodations or a fixed-rate housing allowance. Technical assistance agreements are usually not required, but an exception is the agreement signed with Tunisia for the Kalibia fisheries project. This is the first such agreement required by Sweden, but the details have not been made easily accessible.

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DENMARK

Motives for Technical Assistance

Denmark provides most of its technical assistance through the various programs and specialized agencies of the United Nations. It may be assumed, therefore, that Danish motives are for the most part humanitarian and altruistic. Denmark also has an expanding bilateral program, thus is not completely free of economic and political motives.

Main Channel for Technical Assistance

As just noted, Denmark's technical assistance is primarily channeled through the various agencies of the United Nations. Under the Danish Finance Act of 1955/56, however, \$28,955 was appropriated "for preparatory investigations and for direct assistance to governments of less developed countries asking for technical assistance in fields where Denmark has special qualifications." It must be concluded that Denmark has seen the need for aid on a bilateral basis due to its 1955/56 appropriation and ensuing appropriations, including \$4.6 millions committed for 1963. Both bilateral and multilateral contributions increased from 1962 to 1964, but the bilateral scale showed a higher rate of increase.

Geographic Concentration

Although Denmark's bilateral program is quite modest when compared to her larger multilateral contribution, there are, nevertheless geographic concentrations of her bilateral program. In 1962 and 1963, several exports and fellowships were placed at the disposal of Tanganyika, the Congo (Leopoldville), Burundi, Uganda, Thailand, Syria, Pakistan, and Peru. The

greatest Danish concentration was in the Congo, 44 advisers and teachers from a total of 70 supplied to all countries in 1963.

Administration

The administration of Danish technical assistance was reorganized in 1962. In accordance with Act Number 94, passed by the Danish Parliament on March 19, 1962, the Board for Technical Co-operation was established. The Board is composed of nine members, leaders of both government and non-government organizations active in technical assistance, appointed by and responsible to the Minister of Foreign Affairs. A secretariat for technical cooperation was also established to assist the Board.

The Board for Technical Co-operation is charged with making government grants available for technical assistance projects to both government and non-government organizations capable of providing assistance. The Board also supervises and coordinates government projects and acts in an advisory capacity to non-governmental agencies. In addition, the Board makes funds available for information activities in both public and private areas.

To advise the Board, the Council for Technical Co-operation was established. Members of the Council are also appointed by the Minister of Foreign Affairs. They include representatives from practically all non-governmental aid-giving organizations.

Forms of Technical Assistance Available

Education and Training-Fellowships for study in Denmark are provided on the basis of developing country requests and the availability of Danish facilities to fulfill the requests. In 1962, 58 fellowships and training

awards were provided, and in 1963, 112. Practical aspects of agricultural activities attracted the greatest attention of students, followed by industrial and technological training. Applications for scholarships, fellowships, and training awards are processed as they are received through diplomatic channels.

Experts-The Danish Government provided 15 experts in 1962 through its bilateral channel. In 1963, this figure rose to 70, including 45 teachers. On 1 October 1963, the greatest numbers of advisers and teachers were in the Congo (Leopoldville) 44, followed by South Korea 15, Tanganyika 11, and one to three advisers each in Jordan, Syria, India, Thailand, Tunisia, Uganda, Peru, and Pakistan. New Projects calling for the provision of Danish experts were a joiner's school in Monastir, Tunisia, a secondary school in Burundi, a training dairy in La Molina, Peru, and several other projects in the infant stages.

Funds for Danish overseas aid in 1962, including technical assistance, were raised through a national campaign. The total amount was then matched by the Danish Government. Since that time, funds have not been raised by campaigns, but have been allocated in the annual budget.

Technical assistance "small projects", projects which will cost not more than \$145,000 during the entire lifetime of the project, may be approved by the Board for Technical Co-operation. Several projects may be approved in this manner if the Board does not exceed the total amount authorized in the annual budget for small projects. Funds for projects exceeding \$145,000, "major projects", must be secured through separate legislation, such as the joint Nordic project in Tanganyika referred to previously in the report on Sweden. A total commitment of approximately \$4.6 million was authorized for bilateral technical assistance in 1963, (small and major projects).

Planning and Priorities

Planning for Danish technical assistance is a responsibility of the Board for Technical Co-operation. It is their policy to allow the developing country to decide what kind of project should be provided, but the Board decides on whether or not Denmark has the resources to fulfill the request. The interest of the would-be recipient country is measured by the contribution it is willing to make, the degree of integration the proposed project has to overall country development, plus other qualitative and quantitative tests. No information is available on the specific requirements Denmark normally requests from recipients in the provision of its technical assistance.

The priorities placed on technical assistance by the Danish Government fall within the veterinary and agricultural fields. An application for any skill is considered by the Board for Technical Co-operation, however.

Coordination of Technical Assistance with other Donors

Denmark has coordinated her technical assistance program with the programs of other Nordic states in both Tanganyika and South Korea. It may be assumed that projects of this magnitude were coordinated both among the donors and the developing countries themselves.

Requirements Placed on Recipients

Requirements for the provision of Danish technical assistance vary from project to project. It is generally expected, however, that the receiving government will pay experts' local expenses and provide personal accommodations and office space. Travel expenses for fellowship-holders

are normally paid by the developing country or the student himself.

Fellowship-holders must have a working knowledge of the English language.

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SWITZERLAND

Motives for Technical Assistance

Political neutrality is a basic tenet of the Swiss technical assistance program. Neutrality tends to place Switzerland in a more altruistic position than most countries in this study; Swiss technical assistance seems to have humanitarian motivation.

It is doubtful that Switzerland provides assistance with great hopes for increasing the number of neutral countries in the world today. However, the Swiss believe their political neutrality is attractive to developing countries as is their history, which is devoid of a colonial past. In addition, Switzerland, like Sweden, prefers to think of her aid as a third choice for the developing countries, one between the East and West.

After considering Swiss neutrality, further investigation of motives would lead only to very speculative conclusions. Very briefly, neutrality does not necessarily negate a state's desire to proselytize another state, but this does not appear to apply in the case of Switzerland.

Main Channel for Technical Assistance

Various sources indicate that Switzerland prefers to utilize the several agencies and programs of the United Nations in providing technical aid. Reference to the fellowships table on page 75 nevertheless, would show that the Swiss Government does not clearly prefer either the United Nations or a bilateral approach in providing technical assistance. The following table would indicate preference for a bilateral approach, but, as noted, the bilateral data are only estimates. In another area, that of experts, larger numbers are provided to the United Nations than bilaterally (see page 76). Another source, however, has reported that if the expenses for bilaterally

SWISS TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE DISBURSEMENTS, 1961-1963 (\$millions)

<u>Year</u>	<u>Bilateral</u> ¹	<u>UN Expanded Program (pledges)</u> [*]	<u>UN Special Fund (pledges)</u>
1961	\$3.00	\$.47	\$.47
1962	3.00	.81	1.05
1963	3.00	.81	1.05

^{*}Does not include UN Regular Program

¹Bilateral figures are estimates only

financed experts, fellowships, and equipment were totaled in the approximately ten projects which were being carried out in October, 1963, the bilateral costs would be in excess of the Swiss technical assistance contributions to the United Nations. One year hardly establishes a trend, but it will be interesting to note the future Swiss emphasis on the channeling of its technical aid.

Geographic Concentration of Technical Assistance

Switzerland does not concentrate its technical assistance in any one or two developing countries. In 1962, twenty-two developing countries received a total of thirty-eight Swiss experts, including six in Algeria, four in Tunisia, and three each in Thailand and Guinea. During 1963, the same number of countries received fifty-two Swiss experts, including three experts each in the Congo (Leopoldville) and Rwanda. There was very little change otherwise. A wide distribution of scholarships and training awards to students and trainees from the developing countries also characterized this two year period.

Administration

Overall administration of Swiss technical assistance is the responsibility of the Technical Cooperation Division of the Foreign Ministry. The Delegate for Technical Cooperation, whose office was established in the spring of 1961, heads the division.

The Office of the Delegate for Technical Cooperation is comprised of the Delegate and his Deputy, plus a small secretariat.

The strength of Swiss technical assistance is in the large number of non-governmental organizations providing aid. Activities of the Delegate's staff, therefore, are largely oriented toward linking public and private technical assistance efforts. In addition to assisting the Delegate in the coordination function, the duties of the secretariat include publicizing Swiss technical assistance efforts and programming group discussion and study visits.

Three administrative sections assist the Delegate in other activities. They are concerned with projects and planning, the selection and accommodation of scholarship holders, and finding experts. The last section also furnishes necessary equipment and teaching supplies to experts. The Delegate and his staff also provide cooperation with the various United Nations programs in recruiting experts and providing technical assistance in Switzerland.

Forms of Technical Assistance Available

Fellowships and Training Awards-Switzerland annually provides a modest number of fellowships and training awards for study in Swiss universities and in the developing countries. There are at least two reasons for the

modest number of awards. In the first place, Swiss universities are very overcrowded, and secondly, language difficulties of students and trainees often make study very difficult. One would expect language difficulties to be little or no problem in Switzerland, a multi-lingual country, but this is obviously not the case. Reference to the following table will show that the total number of fellowships and training awards increased sharply from 1961 to 1962. Switzerland has not commented on this increase, at least not in the literature provided to the author.

SWISS AND UNITED NATIONS FELLOWSHIPS FOR STUDENTS FROM THE DEVELOPING COUNTRIES, 1961-1962

<u>Year</u>	<u>Bilateral</u>	<u>UN Expanded Program</u>	<u>UN Regular Program</u>
1961	262	88	203
1962	526	293	183

The Swiss prefer to conduct their training in the developing countries whenever possible. The reason for this preference is that the Swiss feel foreign students too easily sever ties with their homelands, or have difficulties in reintegration after leaving Switzerland. It is also feared that many students stay in Europe after study in Switzerland.

Experts-Very few Swiss experts are available for overseas assistance due to domestic manpower demands. When available, however, experts may be supplied in the fields of agriculture, forestry, hotels and tourism, scientific research, administration, banking, and vocational training. The total number of Swiss experts provided bilaterally and recruited by the United Nations are listed in the table below.

SWISS EXPERTS PROVIDED BILATERALLY AND RECRUITED BY THE
UNITED NATIONS, 1962-1963

<u>Year</u>	<u>Bilateral</u>	<u>UN Expanded Program</u>	<u>UN Regular Program</u>
1961	38	64	48
1962	52	66	60

In extending technical assistance, the Swiss often provide several forms of aid in a single project, that is, experts, fellowships, and equipment. In addition, they try to extend aid to a geographic area similar in size or terrain to Switzerland. An example of assistance in a country of similar terrain is the Central Dairy at Katmandu, Nepal. It is there that all the milk from the entire Katmandu Valley is processed. The dairy is manned by Swiss experts and has been provided with Swiss equipment. It should also be mentioned that the Katmandu project has expanded. It now includes three cheese dairies in several nearby locations. Communications, transportation, and a small hospital have also been added.

Planning and Priorities

The planning of technical assistance is a responsibility of the Office of the Delegate for Technical Cooperation. All assistance is provided on the basis of specific requests from the developing countries, and the availability of skilled Swiss personnel and funds. Technical assistance projects are worked out in detail before their implementation. Follow-up studies are conducted afterward.

Coordination of Technical Assistance with Other Donors

A survey of available literature does not reveal specific examples of the Swiss Government coordinating its bilateral program with those of other donors at any level. Mr. F. T. Wahlen, Economics Minister, noted in November, 1959, however, that he thinks a better coordination of all efforts would be desirable.

Requirements Placed on Recipients

The Swiss Government demands a fair contribution of personnel and funds from a recipient country when Swiss technical assistance is provided. It is felt by the Swiss that a contribution is symbolic of country interest and project continuity. Available literature does not define "a fair contribution."

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ISRAEL

Motives for Technical Assistance

Israel is a country of little more than two million people. The country is not richly endowed with natural resources and has a climate very unsuitable for agricultural production, mostly due to a chronic water shortage. Facing problems of development at home, compounded by the hostility of the Arab block, however, Israel has since 1957 been sending several experts to less developed countries and receiving their students and trainees. Motives for Israeli technical assistance, therefore, are ones of empathy for the people of the developing countries and a desire to gain new political allies. As a developing country itself, though in an advanced stage, Israel is also seeking expanded trade and economic relations. The use of technical assistance may be a partial means to these ends.

Main Channel for Technical Assistance

Israel prefers to extend her technical assistance bilaterally rather than multilaterally. It is apparent that Israel believes her desires for additional political, economic, and trade relationships can be more readily secured through the bilateral channel. As a member of the United Nations, however, Israel also supports the technical assistance activities of the Expanded Program, Special Fund, and Regular Programs.

Geographic Concentration

During 1961, 1266 students and trainees from the developing countries studied in Israel at the expense of the Israel Government. In 1962, the total increased to 1619. Countries sending 20 or more students and trainees in either 1961 or 1962 are listed in the next table. In addition to

the figures listed below, however, there were an additional 311 students and trainees financed by Israel for study in the development countries themselves: Kenya 26, Liberia 80, Sierra Leone 56, W. Nigeria 113, and E. Nigeria 36. It can be easily seen from the table that the largest numbers came from the African states of Kenya, Nigeria, and Tanganyika. Outside Africa, Iran and Cyprus rated very highly. Latin American countries are most notable by their absence from the table. In 1961, 16 awards went to 7 Latin American countries, and in 1962, 142 awards to 19 Latin American countries.

FELLOWSHIPS AND TRAINING AWARDS IN ISRAEL FOR STUDENTS FROM
THE DEVELOPING COUNTRIES, 1961-1962 (20 or more listed only)

<u>Country</u>	<u>1961</u>	<u>1962</u>
Cyprus	45	133
Cameroon	20	15
Central Afr. Rep.	58	33
Congo (Brazz.)	43	23
Congo (Leo.)	73	36
Ethiopia	23	24
Ghana	31	21
Ivory Coast	44	25
Kenya	55	112
Liberia	24	14
Madagascar	22	41
Nigeria	115	90
Sierra Leone	26	26
Tanganyika	96	149
India	23	16
Nepal	23	20
Thailand	22	16
Turkey	13	44
Dahomey	5	20
Uganda	17	29
Iran	7	95

In 1961, approximately 280 experts served in 30 developing countries. In 1962, the total number grew to 395 experts in more than 40 countries. Countries receiving five or more Israeli experts in either 1961 or 1962 are listed in the table below. It is obvious that Burma is the only country outside Africa receiving more than five experts in 1961, and Burma, Turkey, and Iran more than five in 1962. It is not a profound conclusion, therefore, that the greatest geographic concentration of Israeli experts was in Africa during 1961-62, particularly Tanganyika, Ethiopia, Ghana, Kenya, Nigeria, and Guinea. Notably absent from the table are five or more experts in India and the various countries in Latin America.

ISRAELI EXPERTS IN THE DEVELOPING COUNTRIES, 1961-1962
(five or more listed only)

<u>Country</u>	<u>1961</u>	<u>1962</u>
Central Afr. Rep	5	7
Chad	5	1
Ethiopia	17	24
Ghana	13	14
Kenya	6	12
Mali	10	1
Nigeria	9	11
Tanganyika	17	16
Burma	17	7
Turkey	1	7
Cameroon	-	6
Ivory Coast	1	9
Iran	-	17
Guinea	9	7
Niger	2	5

Administration

In early 1959, a section of the International Organization Department was established to deal with Israeli technical aid to foreign countries. In May, 1960, the section became what is now known as the Department of International Cooperation. Administratively, the Department is headed by the Director-General who is responsible to the Minister for Foreign Affairs. In 1962, the Department was staffed with 48 administrative personnel, but all authorized positions had not been filled.

There are three main sections within the Department. The first section deals with Israeli experts for overseas positions. The second oversees training in Israel, and maintains liaison with its officers of the universities in Tel Aviv and Haifa; a sub-section keeps contacts with trainees after they have completed their training. The third section deals with administrative and financial matters pertaining to technical aid.

In recruiting experts, the Department consults with liaison officers in various Ministries: Agriculture, Defence, Education, Health and Housing. Liaison officers may also be found at the Weizmann Institute at Rehovot, and at the Technion (Technical University at Haifa). The liaison officers find the proper expert, assist in his release, and if necessary help to persuade him to accept the position. Persuasion is not always necessary, of course, and often the liaison officer immediately knows by name the man for the job. Sometimes the process is really one of simplicity, that is, when the would-be recipient requests an expert by name.

A technical assistance section is also attached to the Prime Minister's office. Among the duties of this section is the processing of applications

from Israelis who wish to fill technical assistance positions with the United Nations.

Forms of Technical Assistance Available

Education and Training-Israel's education and training program is divided into three main categories: (a) group courses for study in Israel, (b) group courses for study in the developing countries, and (c) individual training courses (usually held in Israel). Formal study in the first category may last one month to six years. Courses in agricultural cooperation and criminology are at the short end of the time scale, and the study of medicine at the six year end. Most instruction is in the English language, with a few courses offered in French and Spanish.

Between 1958 and 1963, more than 6000 students and trainees from Africa, Asia, Latin America, and the countries of the Mediterranean Basin attended a total of approximately 116 courses in Israel. Courses of study were primarily in the fields of agriculture, education and vocational training, community development, and cooperation and trade unionism. The following table is self-explanatory.

**TRAINEES AND STUDENTS FROM THE DEVELOPING COUNTRIES IN ISRAEL,
1958-1962**

<u>Year</u>	<u>Approx. No. of Countries Represented</u>	<u>Trainees and Students</u>
1958	26	137
1959	26	213
1960	51	572
1961	62	1266
1962	77	1619

During 1963, 39 separate courses of study were scheduled in Israel: ten in agriculture, seven in education and vocational training, six in nursing (including public health), four in cooperation and labor, two in administration, six in community development, and three in academic studies. Although unnecessary to list all courses by name, offerings in the field of agriculture included poultry husbandry, agricultural instructors and extension workers courses, irrigation techniques, cattle husbandry, planning and development, irrigation in arid zones, fertilizers, and fisheries. The duration of the courses were 2 1/2 months to 4 months.

Even though the intent of this study is not to discuss in detail any part of the private sector in its technical assistance efforts, the Afro-Asian Institute for Labour Studies and Cooperation is worthy of note. The Institute was established in 1960 by the Israeli General Federation of Labour, better known as the Histadrut. The objective of the Institute is to train persons for labor movements in Africa and Asia. Study at the institute is a combination of practical observation, basic ideas, theory of trade union work, and cooperatives and settlements. Women, as well as men attend the Institute, symbolic of the belief held by Israel that women play an important role in the developing countries. The Institute presents its courses in both the English and French languages. Tuition, board, lodging, and pocket money are provided by labor organizations both in Israel and around the world. Travel expenses to and from Israel must be borne by the student's sponsor or by himself. During the period 1958-1962, 109 Asian and 345 African students attended the Institute, representing 37 countries. (Not included in the Asian figure are 189 students from

Burma, mostly ex-soldiers and their wives.)

Institutions of higher learning in Israel at which students from the developing countries may attend include the Technion (Israel Institute of Technology) at Haifa, Hebrew University in Jerusalem, Tel Aviv University, Bar Ilan University in Ramat Gan, and the Weizmann Institute of Technology in Rehovot. Study at the Weizmann Institute is for persons wishing to earn doctorate degrees only.

Courses of study in the developing countries themselves are usually of short duration. They are intensive, however, and are designed to meet the specific needs of the developing countries. There are 24 proposed courses for 1964-65 in industrial management, cost accounting, building and road construction, office and personnel management, municipal government management, and adult education. These courses are offered in English, French, and Spanish, but English accounts for the greatest amount of instruction.

Training courses tailored to meet the specific needs of individuals are for the most part undertaken in Israel, not in the developing countries. In recent years, courses in the following specialties have been provided, to mention but a few: arid-zone agriculture, afforestation, fine mechanics and precision work, industrial techniques, national insurance, and nuclear physics.

Whenever possible, Israel tries to extend technical assistance through the "integrated project approach". Very simply, the integrated project is one where (a) the various training courses in Israel, (b) the destination of trainees at the end of their courses, and (c) the duties of the Israeli

expert overseas are planned well in advance. The integrated project approach is also assurance of a link between a project in action and the accompanying training.

Experts-Between 1958 and 1962, Israel placed approximately 1078 experts¹³ in over 100 developing countries. The following table functionally depicts the figures:

ISRAEL EXPERTS ABROAD, 1958-1962

<u>Field</u>	<u>No. of Countries</u>	<u>No. of Experts</u>
Medicine	19	171
Agriculture	35	245
Youth Leadership	23	130
Education	11	102
Industry, Building, and Engineering	19	105
Economics, Admin.	13	66
Other	39	<u>259</u>
	Total	<u>1078</u>

Specific examples of projects undertaken by experts include an eye clinic in Monrovia, with several sub-clinics in outlying places; construction of the building which now houses Sierra Leone's Parliament in Freetown, a nautical school in Accra, a children's school in Upper Volta, and dental, TB, and mental health projects.

Israel prefers to specialize in small projects, that is, where a

¹³Experts performing duties in more than one country during the same year are undoubtedly counted more than once.

survey can be made and the recommendations quickly implemented by a small number of experts. Emphasis is placed on the word "quickly". Israel has found that the speed of selection and dispatch of experts is a factor which weighs very favorably with the developing countries. As might be expected, the number of experts for overseas work is steadily increasing:

ISRAELI EXPERTS, 1958-1962

<u>Year</u>	<u>Experts*</u>
1958	40
1959	80
1960	163
1961	280
1962	395

*Experts performing duties in more than one country during the same year are counted more than once.

The total disbursement of funds for experts amounted to \$802,800 and \$1,280,000 for the years 1961 and 1962, respectively. In total, bilateral technical assistance disbursements amounted to \$2,863,100 and \$4,379,400 for the same two year sequence.

Planning and Priorities

The planning of Israeli technical assistance is not greatly unlike other donor planning, that is, on the basis of requests. Israel, however, has noted that the Prime Minister, Foreign Minister, or some other cabinet minister, while visiting a developing country may offer technical assistance in the form of fellowships or experts in a particular field. Similarly, a

foreign government cabinet member or nationalist leader may be visiting Israel and request that an expert trained in a specific field be sent to his country. All requests are later processed by the Department of Technical Cooperation in cooperation with other ministries and public bodies.

In regard to training courses in Israel, the heads of the Israeli diplomatic missions in Asia, Africa, and Latin America are briefed prior to assuming their posts. Further briefings are given during "home leave" or other visits. Courses to be made available are suggested by the various Israeli Ministries or the Foreign Ministry itself. Lists and particulars are printed on the proposed course, in the language in which the course will be offered, and distributed to the Israeli diplomatic missions. Heads of each mission receive quotas from the Foreign Ministry for each course. The appropriate cabinet head in the government of the developing country is asked by the Israeli representative if his government would care to take advantage of the offer. During this process the diplomatic mission heads may deal directly with the appropriate Israeli Ministry which is bearing most of the responsibility for the technical assistance in question. Similarly, heads of most foreign governments accredited to Israel, may deal directly with the appropriate Israeli Ministry in this matter.¹⁴

In establishing priorities for the provision of technical assistance, Israel prefers to give aid in those fields which she feels she is most capable of providing: agriculture, education, and vocational training. In both 1961 and 1962, these fields involved the biggest participation of trainers and instruction by experts. Courses in youth leadership, cooperation and

¹⁴Edwin Samuel, "The Organization of Technical Assistance from Israel," Public Administration in Israel and Abroad, 1962, No. 2, (Jerusalem: Jerusalem Post Press), p.65.

trade unionism, and the role of women in the developing society also received large numbers of students and trainees.

Coordination of Technical Assistance with other Donors

Israel has not reported the coordination of her technical assistance program with other donor programs. This statement covers both bilateral to bilateral coordination, and coordination of donor programs by the developing countries themselves.

Requirements Placed on Recipients

As a general rule, when Israeli experts are working in the developing countries, the receiving country pays travel expenses to and from Israel, salaries, and local expenses. When the recipient is unable to pay the scale at which Israelis are accustomed, the Israel Government pays a supplementary allowance.

When students come to Israel, the foreign government usually assumes external travel expenses. Tuition and other accommodations, however, are borne by the Israeli Government. In some cases, even travel expenses are paid by Israel. When foreign technicians come to Israel for similar study, the same rules apply as for students.

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JAPAN

Motives for Technical Assistance

Japanese technical assistance is provided for several reasons. It is first a complement to Japanese economic growth. This is especially true since practically all development aid, including technical assistance, is tied to purchases in Japan. Secondly, relations established between Japan and recipient countries through technical assistance also provide Japan with potential sources of raw materials and trade. Third, Japan hopes for firm political relationships as a result of aid.

Main Channel for Technical Assistance

Japan extends most of her technical assistance bilaterally. Like other donors, the Japanese Government also supports the various technical assistance programs of the United Nations and regional organizations, especially the Colombo Plan and the Asian Productivity Organization, (APO).

Geographic Concentration

The geographic concentration of Japanese technical assistance is clearly in the Colombo Plan countries of South and South East Asia. Cambodia and Burma received 405 Japanese experts from a total of 500 provided through the Colombo Plan for the eight year period, April, 1954, to August, 1962. 69 Japanese experts went to the Middle East and Near East, 20 to Latin America, and 6 to other Asian countries during the same eight year period.

Students and trainees from the Republic of China, although not a member of the Colombo Plan, received 720 training awards during the eight year time span. Colombo members received the next greatest number of training

wards: Thailand 611, India 442, Indonesia 341, and the Philippines 311. During 1962 and 1963, there was an increased concentration of technical assistance to Cambodia, followed by India, Thailand, and Pakistan.

Administration

Administration and the implementation of Japanese technical assistance is the responsibility of the Overseas Technical Co-operation Agency (OTCA), established in July, 1962. A main task of OTCA is intra-governmental coordination, since each of the following ministries has an administrative unit for technical assistance: the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, the Ministry of Finance, the Ministry of International Trade, and the Economic Planning Agency. In reality, however, the bulk of the technical assistance responsibility lies with the Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

The Foreign Affairs Ministry has a major sub-agency, the Economic Co-operation Bureau. The Bureau is, in turn divided into two technical cooperation sections. The first section is responsible for the administration of technical assistance in the following four separate geographic areas: South and South East Asia, North East Asia, the Middle East and Africa, and Latin America. The second technical cooperation section administers the Overseas Technical Training Scheme, the Mekong River project, and assistance through the Asian Productivity Organization. The Reparations Division of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs has been administering technical assistance to Burma and Laos. It is reported to be undergoing (or by this time "undergone") new placement in the Economic Co-operation Bureau.

Private technical assistance facilitation is a responsibility of the Ministry of International Trade and Industry. The Ministry of Finance

maintains control over all financial commitments, including technical assistance. The Economic Planning Agency is concerned with technical assistance in so much as one of its objectives is to coordinate all development aid, the economic aspects of technical assistance included.

Forms of Technical Assistance Available

Education and Training-Most students and trainees received in Japan are, as previously stated, from the developing countries of the Colombo Plan. The greatest numbers of students and trainees have studied agriculture, education, administration, management, and public welfare, in that order. Most training in Japan is group training. Students and trainees are not expected to learn the Japanese language. Stipends, travel to and from Japan, and other expenses are paid by the Japanese Government. Training in the developing countries is the task of the Overseas Technical Development Scheme.

Experts-The following table lists the total number of experts and trainees financed by the Japanese Government during the eight year period April, 1954, through August, 1962, with separate figures for 1962 and 1963. It is difficult to comment on these data due to the inconsistency in reporting. Increases from 1962 to 1963, however, are not insignificant in the training category.

JAPANESE EXPERTS, AND STUDENTS AND TRAINEES FROM THE DEVELOPING COUNTRIES, 1954 to 1962, 1962, and 1963

<u>Date</u>	<u>Experts</u>	<u>Trainees</u>
April 1954 to August 1962	500	4,007
1962	268	792
1963	264	1,071

Most experts as well as trainees, are provided through the Colombo Plan, 405 during the eight year period shown in the preceding table. Experts are largely recruited from Japanese public utility companies, although a large number are government officials. In 1962, 208 experts were provided in agriculture, light industries 76, construction 52, and public welfare 46. Communications, education, and mining followed with approximately 30 each. The Japanese Government provides experts' salaries, outfitting allowances, and travel expenses to and from the recipient countries.

Until 1964, very little equipment was provided in the Japanese technical assistance program. In 1962, for example, Japan spent \$720,000 for equipment, mainly for experts in the fulfillment of their duties, training, and research. In 1964, the Japanese budget for the first time included an appropriation for equipment over and above the equipment needed by experts, \$139,000. In the next table of appropriations for technical assistance, it is not known whether or not equipment is included. Except for that, the table needs no explanation.

TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE APPROPRIATIONS (Millions)

<u>Year</u>	<u>Amount</u>
1962	\$3.6
1963	4.5
1964	6.1

Planning and Priorities

Japanese technical assistance is planned largely on the basis of

specific requests from the developing countries. Approval of requests is based on the following criteria: the appropriateness of assistance requested to overall development country objectives, the Japanese-recipient country strengthening of relations, qualifications of Japan to supply the assistance requested, and the availability of staff and facilities. Technical assistance is also planned on a regional and country basis, but primarily within the context of requests.

Requests for technical assistance in the form of training appear to receive highest priority. In October, 1962, there were ten Japanese training centres in the developing countries:

JAPANESE TRAINING CENTRES IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

<u>Country</u>	<u>Type Training Centre</u>
India	Prototype industrial production
India	Agricultural demonstration farm
India	Marine products processing
Pakistan	Agricultural training
Thailand	Tele-communications and virus research
Iran	Small scale industries
Afghanistan	" " "
Ghana	" " "
Ceylon	Fisheries
Brazil	Textile manufacturing

These centres are administered by the Overseas Technical Training Centre Development Scheme to train what the Japanese term "junior technicians". Both the establishment and the operation of the training centres have been presented by the Japanese Government as forms of technical assistance.

Coordination of Technical Assistance with Other Donors

There is no available information regarding the coordination of Japanese technical assistance on the local level with other donors. Several missions were sent to various south-east Asian countries in 1963 to assess Japanese technical assistance, however, with hopes for improving its effectiveness. This may be a step in the direction of coordination if it is not already taking place.

Requirements Placed on Recipients

When Japanese technical assistance is provided to recipient countries of the Colombo Plan, they are required to provide living accommodations for experts, medical facilities, internal transportation, and income tax exemptions. The same requirements are usually requested of non-Colombo countries. In addition to these requirements, under the technical training centre program the recipient country is usually required to provide land and a building, to share operational expenses, and to provide necessary staff personnel.

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CANADA

Motives for Technical Assistance

Canadian motives for technical assistance are not unlike those for other countries discussed up to this point. For example, on August 20, 1963, Mr. P. M. Towe, Deputy Director General of the External Aid Office noted that Canada enjoys close relations with countries where their aid is present. Towe also quoted J. K. Galbraith, who described aid as an "indispensable solvent of tension." From these two references it may be seen that there is a desire for political return as a result of aid. Canadian technical assistance is also a stimulus to the home economy, for both Canadian goods and services are provided under her bilateral program. By tying much of her aid, Canada hopes to help reduce its balance of payments difficulties. Lastly, Towe has remarked that most Canadians think it simply wrong for a nation endowed with natural resources, wealth and skills not to share them. In brief, development aid, including technical assistance, is provided for political, economic, and humanitarian reasons.

Main Channel for Technical Assistance

Canada, as the majority of donors in this study, prefers to extend her technical assistance bilaterally. As a member of the United Nations, Canada also supports the Regular and Expanded Programs, plus the Special Fund and the various specialized agencies. Regionally speaking, Canada extends technical assistance through the Colombo Plan and SCAAP.

Geographic Concentration

Canadian technical assistance has been concentrated largely in the countries of the Colombo Plan, especially India. Another concentration

may be found in the independent Commonwealth countries of Africa (SCAAP). In September, 1963, there were 97 Canadian teachers and 31 advisers on missions to Africa under SCAAP. It is interesting to note, incidentally, that India and Pakistan are also donors to SCAAP, giving aid to several developing Commonwealth states in Africa.

Administration

The administration of Canadian technical assistance is centralized in the External Aid Office, reorganized in 1960. The Office is headed by the Director General, who is in turn responsible to the Minister of External Affairs.

There are five main divisions within the Office: Planning and Policy Coordination, Capital Assistance, Education, Administration and Finance, and Technical Assistance. The Planning Division is responsible for establishing Canadian policy on all forms of aid, economic, cultural, as well as technical. Decisions regarding technical assistance are made by the Director General after preparation in the responsible division, usually the technical assistance division.

The Director General also heads the External Aid Board, an advisory body composed of senior civil servants from the Departments of Finance, External Affairs, and Trade and Commerce. The External Aid Office, in addition, receives advice from other ministries, institutions, and educational authorities.

The Canadian definition of technical assistance may seem restrictive. Deputy Director General of the External Aid Office, P. M. Towe, has said, "Technical assistance, as defined in our programs, relates only to the sending

abroad of teachers and technical advisers and the bringing of students to Canada to be trained in universities or practical institutions." Technical assistance is not classified as the provision of educational equipment or the construction of schools and training centres. Advisers who are sent abroad to accompany the provision of capital aid projects are not counted as providing technical assistance. With these points in mind, it is not difficult to see that Canadian technical assistance accounts for only 5% of its total aid program, although this figure rises considerably in Africa.

Forms of Technical Assistance Available

Education and Training-Most of Canada's recent technical assistance has been in the form of education and training, particularly in the developing Commonwealth countries of Africa. Training and education almost always takes place in Canada, not the developing countries. Training/^{is}design-
ed for middle or high-level staff personnel and civil servants. About three times as much money is disbursed for training compared to the provision of exports. Overall technical aid disbursements amounted to \$4.6 millions in 1962, compared to \$6.3 millions in 1963. Training courses have been available in Co-operatives Development, Public Administration, Community Development, and Trade Union Organisation and Management. Training is provided in commercial and industrial establishments, plus governmental departments.

University study at all levels is available to students from the developing countries. The Canadian Government provides transportation to and from Canada, living expenses, fees, and book expenses. University enrollments have been restricted only in medicine and veterinary medicine,

(apparently due to over-crowding). Although most education and training awards go to students from the developing countries of the Commonwealth, in April, 1961, the Canadian Government announced it would make \$300,000 available on a yearly basis for education in the French-speaking African states. During 1963, at least twenty secondary school teachers and a number of film units were sent to Africa under this program. Canada's French and English bilingualism makes both education and training very attractive to these recipients. The following table is a simple listing of the numbers of developing country trainees and students in Canada from 1960 to 1963. Most of the students and trainees studied engineering, agriculture, medicine and health, in that order.

STUDENTS AND TRAINEES FROM THE DEVELOPING COUNTRIES IN CANADA, 1960-1963

<u>Year</u>	<u>Students and Trainees</u>
1960	711
1961	849
1962	1,043
1963	1,430

Experts-Canada, as many other donors, prefers to use the word "advisor" rather than "expert" or "technician" since it is believed that the first term is more descriptive of the service to be rendered. Regardless of terms, advisors are of short supply in all fields. In almost all cases, advisors are government employees. The private sector is utilized very little, although university professors perform advisory duties in some fields. The

next table provides a year to year listing of Canadian advisers and teachers for the years 1960 to 1963.

CANADIAN ADVISERS AND TEACHERS ABROAD, 1960-1963

<u>Year</u>	<u>Teachers and Advisers</u>
1960	83
1961	126
1962	235
1963	341

When available, advisers may be found in many fields, especially agriculture, fisheries, and mineralogy.

Equipment is provided for the purposes of technical assistance, but is listed as capital aid. As of November 1962, a maximum of \$1,000 per project could be spent on equipment if: (1) the equipment was needed by a Canadian adviser to carry out his work, or (2) if the equipment was needed for some special implementation as recommended by the adviser, or (3) if needed by a former Canadian trainee. In the last two cases the cost of transportation is charged to the recipient country.

Planning and Priorities

The planning of Canadian technical assistance takes place in the External Aid Office. For the most part planning is responsive, almost entirely dependent on developing country requests. The Director of Technical Assistance may approve minor requests falling into existing program estimates.

Larger requests are referred to the Planning and Policy Coordination Division.

Priority given to requests for special technical assistance skills or programs of study is largely a matter of Canadian specialties and available advisers. In general, preference is given to requests of an economic rather than social nature, for example, natural resource development and surveying. Special emphasis is continuously placed on bringing students and trainees to Canada for scientific and technical training.

Coordination of Technical Assistance with Other Donors

There are no formal arrangements for the coordination of Canadian technical assistance with other donors on the local level, nor has the Canadian Government reported the coordination of its program with other donors as performed by the governments of the developing countries. Coordination is primarily a matter of personal contact and inclination, although advisers are urged to consult other donors to avoid duplication of effort.

Requirements Placed on Recipients

Formal agreements must be signed between Canada and the receiving government in the provision of technical assistance. For smaller projects, these agreements usually require the recipient governments to provide housing, local transportation, medical facilities, and tax exemptions on income and equipment for advisers and teachers. In larger projects the recipient is required to provide operational facilities, local personnel, and the provisions just mentioned for smaller projects.

OTHER COUNTRIES

At least three additional country programs should be discussed, those of Finland, Norway, and Portugal. The format used in the country studies up to this point, however, cannot be continued. Several attempts have been made to secure the necessary information, but these attempts have not met with complete success.

FINLAND

Finland's technical assistance efforts have been almost completely limited to contributions of funds and experts to the United Nations. United Nations fellowship-holders, also study in Finnish universities. The United Nations is in fact the only multilateral organization through which Finland has contributed technical aid.

Administratively, Finland does not have a separate agency or department to deal with technical assistance. Instead, it would appear that the modest amount of technical assistance provided is an additional responsibility of the Ministry of Commerce and Industry.

During the period October, 1957, to October, 1962, Finland participated in one bilateral program -- with India. This program included the sending of two Finnish experts to India, an engineer and a forester. Both experts were concerned with forest industries. Since 1962, Finland has coordinated her efforts with those of other Scandinavian countries in sending school teachers and agricultural experts to Tanganyika.

NORWAY

The administration of Norwegian technical aid is centralized in the

Norwegian Agency for International Development (NORAD), established in February, 1962. Organizationally, NORAD includes the Council, Board, and Secretariat. Very little information is available on the functions of these groups or their relationships with one another. The Council, however, is obviously a large advisory body. Representatives from Denmark, Finland, Iceland, and Sweden, as well as Norway, were among those present during several of the nine Council meetings in 1963.

Norway, as other Nordic states, prefers to provide technical assistance to the less developed countries through the United Nations. Experts recruited by NORAD for technical assistance programs of the U.N. and its specialized agencies numbered 45 in 1963, 37 in 1962, and 24 during 1961. Twelve additional Norwegian experts during this three year period were recruited by the United Nations specialized agencies themselves. Norway also provides associate experts to the U.N., (much like same as the Netherlands). Five associate experts were placed in the operational care of the United Nations in 1962. Comparable data on the number of experts provided bilaterally are not available. In April, 1963, however, the Norwegian Storting established a peace corps. In 1963, 17 volunteers were sent to Uganda; 20 were expected for the 1964 group. The first group included volunteers for duties in health, agriculture, forestry, social work, and civil engineering.

In the category of education and training, Norway received 57 U.N. Fellowship-holders during 1962. During the same year, 42 were financed bilaterally. The bilateral figure, however, includes several fellowships which were granted in cooperation with private organizations.

It follows that the disbursement and the pledging of funds for technical

aid are also strongly multilateral. In 1962, the bilateral disbursement of technical aid funds amounted to \$50,000, and in 1963, \$110,000. These amounts account for approximately one-third the total technical aid appropriation during each of the two years. The largest amount of bilateral aid, both in terms of experts and money, has been utilized for the Indian-Norwegian fisheries project which began eleven years ago in Kerala. The project has since expanded to include medical assistance, an ice plant, and frozen fish plant.

As a result of the original and ensuing projects, discussions have been held to coordinate and further expand medical and health assistance. Participating in these discussions have been representatives from the World Health Organization and the Norwegian and Indian Governments. As example of bilateral and multilateral coordination, Norway will supply instructors, equipment, and medicines; India will assume the payment of local expenses as well as provide local personnel; WHO will provide personnel, medical equipment, and other medicines. The overall project now encompasses assistance to several Indian states, although as stated earlier, it originally began in Kerala. Proposals for future technical assistance are a vocational school and industrial centre.

In other bilateral technical assistance projects, Norway has coordinated her program with those of other Nordic states in Tanganyika and South Korea. Future technical aid is planned for a development centre in Madagascar, the building and operation of a fishery research vessel, the training of Ghanaian personnel in the operation of modern fishing vessels, and the sending of experts to Nigeria, East Africa, and Cyprus in various specialties.

PORTUGAL

Portugal's technical assistance is almost completely confined to its overseas provinces of Cape Verde, Guinea, Angola, Mozambique, Macao, and Timor. The choice of programs and amounts of assistance to be provided are dependent upon the economic and social levels of development in each of the provinces and the availability of skilled personnel and financial resources in Portugal. Desired levels of social and economic development, together with proposed means of attaining these levels are noted in long-range development plans. The plans are established by the Central Planning and Integration Service in Portugal in cooperation with Technical Planning and Economic Integration Commissions in each of the provinces. The Central Services and Provincial Commissions were established in October, 1962.

The Second Development Plan has been recently completed, covering the years 1959 to 1964. This plan included technical aid and economic expansion in the broad sectors of scientific exploration, natural resource utilization, land settlements, communications and transportation, education and health, local (urban) improvements, and government buildings and equipment. The Ministry for Overseas Provinces implements the plan in each province by sending teams of experts who work closely with the Provincial Planning and Coordination Commissions in carrying out their specialties.

In September, 1963, each overseas province established a Provincial Commission for Scholarships and Students' Hostels. The Commissions are primarily responsible for stimulating and assisting in the establishment of hostels and scholarships. Scholarships are divided into two categories; those designed to help in the payment of expenses for books, travel,

matriculation fees, and subsistence; and scholarship loans to be repaid after a student completes his education and secures a position.

During the period 1962-1963, prior to and during the establishment of the Provincial Scholarships and Hostels Commissions, approximately 1,010 scholarships were awarded: Angola 261, Cape Verde 82, Guinea 73, Mozambique 68, St. Thomas and Principe 11, and Macao 7. More than 350 scholarships were not listed as to country in the available literature. No scholarships were listed for Timor. The largest numbers of scholarships were awarded for study in the following fields, in descending order of priority: medicine and veterinary surgery, letters, science and pharmacy, law, economics and finance, agronomics, and commercial instructor courses. The largest numbers of scholarships, 366, were not listed as to subject. Although more than 1,000 scholarships were awarded, more than 3,000 students from the overseas provinces were studying in Portugal during 1962-1963.

In regard to experts, the following data are not complete, but give some idea of Portuguese assistance. During 1963, approximately 980 experts were performing duties in the provinces. Nearly 200 were operational; the other 780 performed advisory services, approximately 500 for periods of 30 days or more, and 280 less than 30 days. Angola was the recipient of the largest numbers of experts, followed by Mozambique, St. Thomas and Principe, Cape Verde, Guinea, Timor, and Macao. Medical, agronomical, public works, and communications appear to have been the most widely represented fields. As far as the coordination of Portugal's technical assistance program with other donors' programs is concerned, Portugal has reported that this question is not applicable. The overseas provinces obviously receive almost all of their assistance from Portugal.

CONCLUSIONS

Motives and Geographic Concentrations

Each donor state is motivated not by one, but by several considerations, in granting technical assistance. Countries having a colonial past, particularly Britain, France, and Belgium, tend to concentrate their technical assistance in countries with which they are constitutionally linked or in which they were at one time the colonial power. Each of these countries provides less than 10% of its official bilateral assistance to countries with which there are no special links. Despite this fact, there is a trend to diversity. A major factor is that developing countries are requesting assistance from several donors rather than one. Portugal, of course, presently concentrates almost 100% of its technical aid in the overseas Portuguese provinces. ✓

All countries, to a large degree, supply technical assistance on the basis of developing country requests. There is a tendency for requests to establish a geographic pattern for the concentration of technical assistance. Germany, for example, claims that this is a major reason for the large concentration of her aid in Asia. *reasons? impact on effectiveness*

It is difficult to determine which countries are motivated more than others by humanitarian considerations. The political neutrality of Sweden and Switzerland, however, tends to make them appear more altruistic than other countries.

All countries provide technical assistance with hope for economic and political gain. In fact, one source notes that two-thirds of all bilateral

aid extended by most of the donors in this study is subject to procurement restrictions, better known as tied aid.¹⁵

Channeling of Technical Assistance

Most donor states prefer to extend technical assistance through bilateral channels. The Netherlands, Sweden, Finland, Norway, and Denmark are the only countries of the fifteen which are clearly UN-oriented in provided aid. Switzerland's preference for the channeling of its aid is at present divided. France, Britain, Belgium, Germany, Italy, Japan, Israel, Portugal, and Canada provide assistance mainly through bilateral channels. The special colonial responsibilities of France, Britain, Belgium, and Portugal have required a bilateral orientation.

relative effectiveness?

Administration

Each donor, with the exception of France, has established since 1960 a central department, a special service, or an independent agency for the administration of technical assistance.¹⁶ Each is a part of a ministry, usually that of foreign affairs. The French Government is concerned about the large number of services administering aid, and in 1963 began reorganization studies. The establishment of new technical assistance services in the other states has taken place due to the growing demands for technical assistance by the less developed countries and the necessity for a more systematic response to those demands by the various donor governments.

In most donor countries, a high-level committee is responsible for

¹⁵Willard L. Thorp, Development Assistance Efforts and Policies of the Members of the Development Assistance Committee, 1964 Review, The Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development, September, 1963, p. 35

¹⁶This statement does not necessarily include Finland, about which very little information is available.

advising the government on general technical assistance policy matters and necessary legislation. These committees are sometimes used as systems of internal coordination, particularly when inter-ministerial committees are responsible for advising the government.

The executive work of technical assistance is sometimes left to a special agency which draws upon various ministerial departments, private, or semi-public bodies for the provision of experts and teachers. More often, the main administrative agency performs its own executive duties. The executive service or administrative agency is assisted in this recruitment by an inter-ministerial committee or its equivalent. In Switzerland and Sweden, where the private sector is utilized to a large extent, and there are no special executive services, each of the administrative agencies maintains direct contacts with various private organizations and universities. The Netherlands and Canada, at the other extreme, do not generally call upon the private sector for experts or teachers.

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In brief, the administrative structure for technical assistance in each donor state varies with their domestic conditions and the nature and amount of assistance which each provides for overseas economic and social development. What is more interesting than these variations is that donor states are administratively similar in the several respects noted.

A discussion of administration could well include the several topics treated separately in this study: planning and priorities, coordination, and the requirements placed upon recipients. In as much as they will be discussed in the following sections, very little more need be said here concerning administration. It would be difficult to state exactly which

of the technical assistance administrations are more effective than others in accomplishing their assigned tasks. That is beyond the scope of this study ^{why?}

Priority: Education and Training

All donors emphasize education and training in their technical assistance programs. This is only natural, for they are obviously the most expedient methods of transferring knowledge and skill. During 1962, a reliable source indicates that there were approximately 102,500¹⁷ experts provided in total by all world donors, 40,000 of whom were teachers.

The specialties and levels of education and training provided differ from donor to donor. Britain, France, and Belgium place particular emphasis upon education at the secondary level, plus the training of secondary school teachers. Britain is also attempting to increase the flow of British university teachers to overseas technological institutions. In addition to its emphasis upon secondary education, France provides primary education. It is possibly the only country in this study to do so, except perhaps for Portugal. In Belgium, the trend is changing from the secondary to the university level. Sweden, the other Scandinavian countries, Switzerland, and the Netherlands all emphasize education and training, although it is the Swiss position that they are particularly hampered by overcrowding in schools and universities. As much as two-thirds of the overall German technical assistance effort is devoted to craftsmanship and agricultural training. Italy is moving from the classic education to technical training in providing its assistance. Three times the amount of money spent for exports

¹⁷Regardless of reliability, however this number still appears to be inflated — undoubtedly due to several methods of reporting and the natural tendency for a sovereign state to present its program in the best possible light.

is provided for education and training in Canada. Other forms of training and education upon which countries place priority are public administration in the case of Britain, France, Belgium, and the Netherlands, and agriculture in the case of Italy, Germany, Sweden, Switzerland, and Israel.

It is extremely doubtful that anyone would question the need for education and training in the developing countries. Education, however, is not simply a process of transferring knowledge and skill. Education is also a process of overcoming natural resistances inherent in cultural differences between those extending aid and those receiving it. It is the opinion of Dr. Lynton K. Caldwell that cultural differences underlie most of the operating problems encountered in technical co-operation.¹⁸

In the past, more than in the present, change through education was introduced solely with end results in mind. Traders, missionaries, or representatives of colonial governments payed little attention to the effects of the means employed in attaining their ends. Roads built from cities to nearby villages, for example, brought money to those building them and trade goods on which to spend their earnings. The desire for trade soon became an incentive for cash crops, creating an imbalance in the agricultural process. The land was often robbed of its fertility and brought malnutrition to the people.¹⁹ In other cases, technical assistance through education has

¹⁸Lynton K. Caldwell, "The Role of the Technical Assistance Expert," The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, Vol. 323 (May, 1959), p. 92.

¹⁹Margaret Mead, Cultural Patterns and Technical Change (New York: New American Library of Literature, Inc., 1962), p. 253.

failed due to the ignorance of those imparting their knowledge. Turkish farmers for example, have been persuaded to remove stones from their fields in an attempt to expand agricultural production. As a result, their crops withered. The stones had served the purpose of gathering moisture through the long dry weeks of summer.²⁰

It is not the purpose of this section to list a large number of examples showing how technical assistance has failed due to the blindness of those extending it, nor to assess its effect on cultural patterns. Margaret Mead's Cultural Patterns and Technical Change more than adequately describes the problem. Many of the short-sighted "improvements" introduced during colonization, however, are repeated today due to the desire of donor states for political impact upon the receiving peoples. This may well be a reason why donor states do not insist that their technical aid be a part of a country's development plan. Donors will still profit politically, especially if the assistance they have extended is an obvious object of a developing country's national pride.

The need for greater understanding of the culture of the developing country prior to extending assistance is obvious, but it is not a simple matter to decide just how much of an understanding is necessary. It is not likely, for example, that a donor state will spend three to six months training a teacher or an expert who will spend only one to two years, perhaps an even shorter period, in a developing country. Longer and more intensive periods of training emphasizing the solutions to cultural differences are needed nevertheless.

²⁰Dorothy Lee, "The Cultural Curtain," The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, Vol. 323 (May, 1959), P. 122.

Dorothy Lee, in her article, "The Cultural Curtain," notes that "knowledge of the culture may help the worker to rest his proposed change upon the basis of the cultural values, and even to enlist these in his work." In Etawa, India, for example, an expert suggested green manuring to a village leader as a means of increasing agricultural production. The suggestion was at first rejected on the basis that it was a sacred obligation to produce only enough food to feed one's family and the saints and mendicants who may call upon the family. The expert, who was knowledgeable of Brahmanism, replied convincingly that it was important to increase production since many villagers found it impossible to meet their sacred obligations to the family, religious mendicants, and themselves.²¹

In summary, the resistance of established cultural patterns to the transfer of knowledge is a powerful force which must be reckoned with effectively. If ignored, the culture may either negate or substantially reduce the effectiveness of the project in which the assistance is being provided. On the other hand, early recognition of cultural resistance may be used to advantage by the expert. No set of criteria can be established through research which will serve as a solution in all countries. For the most part, each cultural problem will have to be resolved separately.

Expert Shortages

All donor countries suffer shortages of experts in certain categories, particularly engineering, economics, and medicine. Belgium is the only country reporting reserves in any field. This may be due to the "new Belgium

²¹Albert Mayer and others, Pilot Project in India (Berkeley and Los Angeles: University of California Press, 1958), p. 209, as cited in Lee, ibid., p. 125.

concept" of providing technical assistance without reemploying civil servants formerly employed in the Congo for this purpose. A wide variety of problems account for expert shortages in other countries, several of which were mentioned in the country studies, and some of which shall be introduced here. First, there is great domestic demand in almost every donor state for persons whose skill might otherwise be utilized overseas. Further, this demand is complemented by several inducements not always offered by government employment: high salaries, attractive pensions, security, and position. Some skilled personnel might be willing to leave the private sector and serve a two or three year tour overseas, but re-employment, maintenance of seniority, and promotion at home are not guaranteed. For a married expert, there may be tours on which his wife and family may not be permitted to accompany him. Unreasonable age, sex, or experience qualifications may be required. Language difficulties make the recruiting of experts very difficult. Lastly, skilled persons simply may not be interested in overseas employment.

France is taking steps to improve the salary differential through the French Assistance and Cooperation Fund. The Netherlands has raised experts' salaries. In addition, the Netherlands is subjecting only half of each expert's salary to taxation. Further study is necessary on the means of attracting skilled personnel into government service for the purpose of technical assistance.

The shortage of qualified experts is only one of several factors which reduce the effectiveness of expert services. Potential recipients, for example, do not always fully reveal their purpose in requesting aid. In countries having just received their independence, the expert may have to play

a more cautious role than in countries in which there are no fears of foreign intervention.²² Although the expert may be well qualified in his particular field of knowledge, he has frequently been sent to developing countries without sufficient awareness of the principles and objectives of the agency employing him, or of its administrative establishment and character. He needs to know in advance what support to expect, and what language difficulties and other communications problems he may encounter. The expert may have a wife and children. One source notes that the failure of the family to understand and adjust has probably induced more failures than any other single factor.²³ The failure of countries to produce counterparts, or to produce them only after the project has already begun, is another difficulty. This failure may completely change the intended function of the expert from an advisory to an operational role.

It is not difficult to see that the success of a technical assistance project may rise or fall with the quality, training, ingenuity, and attitude of the expert. Although job descriptions may list very neatly the qualities an expert should have to complete a specified task, a written test or personal interview cannot easily determine if an expert has sufficient drive, fortitude, or resourcefulness to accomplish tasks which may not appear in job descriptions. Research is clearly needed in this field.

²²See Caldwell, op. cit., pp 91-99 for these and other examples.

²³Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, The Technical Assistance Expert, A Report on the Conference on Recruitment, Selection, and Training of Technical Assistance Personnel, (n.p., 1962), p. 15.

Additional criteria are needed to measure and predict the success or failure of an expert faced with the many obstacles which have been introduced here.

Planning and Priorities

The planning of technical assistance suggests slightly different processes to each of the donors, but each is fairly well agreed upon providing aid solely in response to requests of the developing countries. Several steps in the provision of technical aid are generally the same among all donors. First, preliminary discussion of prospective technical assistance usually takes place in the donor's diplomatic mission. Second, a formal request for technical assistance is submitted through the proper diplomatic channel by the developing country. Third, once the request is received by the appropriate donor agency, it is considered against the availability of funds, equipment, training and educational facilities, and skilled manpower. Country priorities are then established. In France, Belgium, Britain, and, to a lesser degree, the Netherlands, the appropriate agency, department, or ministry considers the requests of dependant linked countries first, independent linked countries second, and other countries third. Switzerland and Sweden plan on a similar basis, minus linked-country considerations. Instead, a country of similar size or terrain as the Swedish or Swiss homeland is given priority. Japan prefers to concentrate its aid in south-east Asia. Canada, like Britain, for the most part supports the underdeveloped countries of the Commonwealth. Italy gives first priority to the Republic of Somalia and second priority to requesting countries in the Mediterranean basin. Germany gives special consideration to the trade potential of the

developing states, although this is a matter which all donors consider. Most states give additional priority to requests and assistance in functional areas they feel they are particularly qualified. During the planning process, other considerations are taken into account, for example, the use of aid as a means to obtain foreign policy objectives.

That technical assistance is granted on the basis of requests suggests tacit recognition by donors that it is the recipient government which is responsible for establishing a plan for economic development. Most donors ask that their technical assistance be a part of a development plan, but will not reject a request on this basis. Whether part of a larger plan or not, technical assistance may still benefit a donor politically and economically.

The recipient country may not be able to establish and effectively carry out a national development plan. Unable to fulfill this responsibility for several reasons, including an under-staffed or poorly trained bureaucracy, the developing country may have to turn to donors for assistance. As Alvin Roseman says,

"Assisting a country to formulate clear and practicable ideas about its own economic development may, in the long run, be the most significant function of technical assistance. In today's aspiring world, a national economic plan is almost as much an attribute of sovereignty as a national flag."²⁴

Assisting developing countries in establishing a national economic plan, however, is not always a welcome form of assistance. Countries having

²⁴Alvin Roseman, "An American Aid Mission Director's View of Technical Cooperation," The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, Vol. 323 (May, 1959), p. 3.

recently gained their independence are very sensitive about their sovereignty. Foreign economic advisers, even though invited by the developing country, may appear to be substitutes for recently departed colonial representatives. As a result, planning assistance should be available, but not initiated by a donor. If needed, it is the recipient government which must request and assume the responsibility for suggestions of foreign advisers.

Utilization of the United Nations Resident Representative may be part of the answer to development planning assistance. The role of the Resident Representative is already a full one, however, and the political implications of an international representative assisting in the development of a plan which may limit the actions of a sovereign state may not be acceptable. On the other hand, the Resident Representative's political neutrality may make his suggestions less suspect than those of a bilateral representative performing the same duty.

Even with foreign assistance, development plans do not always materialize. Developing countries are not always able to produce and carry out their plans for reasons already stated, i.e., inexperienced, poorly trained or inadequately staffed bureaucracies. Political instability may also result in planning failures. A plan conceived under one administration may not be continued under another.

There is no one solution to the inherent problems of technical assistance planning. To be sure, development planning must be a responsibility of the developing country. In those countries receiving assistance from numerous bilateral and multilateral agencies, planning is obviously more

complex than in countries receiving assistance from only one or two donors. It is only with time and the accompanying slow process of political and social maturation that the complex function of planning will be effectively carried out by the recipient country. Planning by donor governments can be at best of limited scope. It is the recipient which has the major task of insuring the prevention of overlap and the more important task of effectively utilizing the available resources of technical assistance.

Coordination

The term "coordination" may be defined in several ways. For the purposes of this study, coordination is the degree of cooperation between bilateral donors, bilateral and multilateral donors, and donors and recipients. Coordination is concerned with finding a means of providing technical assistance which will not only result in the reduction of similar donor efforts, but will contribute to an overall development plan, using effectively all available resources. In this respect, coordination is not unlike planning.

There has to date been relatively little success in coordinating technical assistance at the local level. Each donor recognizes the need for local coordination, but there have been few formal arrangements. The Ashby Commission for education in Nigeria is one of the few reported instances of formal coordination.

The United Kingdom has remarked that it encourages the centralization of coordination activities in the governments of the developing countries. France has taken a similar position during meetings of the Committee of 10²⁵. West Germany is of the opinion that local coordination should be pragmatic, not one of established procedure.

²⁵ECOSOC Doc. (E/AC.49/SR.23), March 20, 1963, p. 13. The Committee of 10 was an ad hoc committee established under ECOSOC Resolution 851 (XXXII) to discuss and report on several aspects of technical assistance coordination. Represented on the committee were Indonesia, Brazil, Ethiopia, France, Japan, Jordan, the USSR, the United Arab Republic, the United Kingdom, and the USA.

Italy stresses the problem of coordinating bilateral and multilateral programs in the developing countries. Italy notes that the inherent problems are largely due to differences in salary of Italian experts and multilaterally-sponsored experts. Sweden has not reported this difficulty, but the experiences of Sweden and Italy in regard to coordination are not similar. Italy referred to coordination between donors in the field, and Sweden reported on coordination in Sweden itself. It should be added, however, that Sweden, Finland, Norway, and Denmark have coordinated their bilateral programs on the local level in South Korea and Tanganyika.

It can be readily seen that coordination at the local level is a problem still to be resolved. Except for the remark by Britain stating that it encourages the centralization of coordination in the governments of developing countries, and a similar position taken by France, reference to this function as a responsibility of the developing country is conspicuous by its absence in most of the literature made available to the author.

what about DAC? UNBSC? UN regional offices?

It is an accepted proposition that if coordination is to be meaningful, it must take place within the recipient government itself.²⁶ When the recipient government is unable to coordinate effectively the technical assistance efforts of different donors, informal donor arrangements are necessary. Coordination may fail for the same reasons attributable to planning failures, i.e., inexperienced or insufficiently trained bureaucracies, inter-ministerial rivalries, or other petty jealousies. Coordination of technical assistance in Iraq during the several years prior to 1958, for example, was largely

²⁶ Arthur Goldschmidt, "Program Planning and Development," The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science Vol. 323 (May, 1959), p. 57; and ECOSOC Doc. (E/AC.49/SR.22), March 21, 1963, p. 11

the result of informal meetings and telephone contacts between the United Nations Resident Representative and the Director of the United States Aid Mission.²⁷

It was suggested during a meeting of the Committee of 10 on March 20, 1964, that the UN Resident Representative could play a more extensive role in the coordination of both bilateral and multilateral technical assistance, as well as technical assistance between bilateral donors. Such a role would be contingent upon the request of the developing country. The suggestion was greeted with mixed reactions, but France openly rejected the use of the Resident Representative since the multilateral program in a country might account for as little as 1% of the total aid compared to a bilateral program's 99%. It was the French contention that coordination was solely the business of the developing country, and the UN had nothing to say about it. The French position, endorsed by the USSR helps to show the sensitive nature of coordination and the rejection of assistance in this function even by a politically neutral representative.

Four of the countries in this study favor ad hoc coordination among donors at the local level: Canada, Britain, West Germany, and Italy. Other countries have stated that they have not had experience with coordination, or simply ignore discussing it altogether. Britain is the only country implying that informal collaboration among donors should take place after the recipient tries and fails to achieve coordination or when it is apparent that failure is imminent. If coordination were one of strict procedures,

²⁷Henry Wicns, "The US Operations Mission In Iraq," The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science Vol 323 (May, 1959), p. 146.

it simply would not succeed. Every case is different, including the donors and recipient involved, types and amounts of assistance to be provided, and the attitudes of the representatives. Coordination must be flexible.

In summary, if the important function of coordination is to take place, and it is mutually advantageous to both recipients and donors that it does take place, it must be a function of the recipient government. The developing country should use every means at its disposal to achieve coordination itself, even if the absence of a well-staffed and trained bureaucracy makes the task extremely difficult. If it appears that the UN Resident Representative is in a position to assist, he should be called upon. If unable to perform the function itself, the recipient government should not resist informal coordination among donors; indeed it might even invite the various representatives for joint discussions. It is the end product, economic and social development, which must be kept in sight.

The approach of the developing country is dependent upon its own ability to coordinate the various donor efforts, the number of donors involved, and the volume of technical assistance being furnished. It is likely that there will continue to be occasional failures, but coordination by the developing country itself appears to be the most acceptable approach in the long-run. It will help to insure recipient country sovereignty and a minimum of duplication; but most important, it will insure the most efficient use of the resources available according to the recipient's self-established development plan.

Requirements Placed on Recipient Countries

All donors require a contribution in terms of money and/or manpower

from recipients when technical assistance is extended. Terms vary, depending on the availability of donor funds, facilities, and skilled personnel. Britain, France, and Israel require salary contributions from recipient governments for experts. Britain and Germany require external travel expenses to be paid by the recipient country for fellowship and training award holders. Canada, Britain, France, Germany, the Netherlands, and Japan require that internal travel, medical, and other personal accommodations should be provided for experts at recipient expense. There is a trend among donor governments to require the signing of special agreements which specify the responsibilities of each government. Agreements are almost always required by Canada, Britain, France, West Germany, and the Netherlands.

Bilateral technical assistance has become an increasingly important government-to-government relationship. Except for United States technical assistance programs, this relationship has not been studied intensively nor has it been systematically analyzed. Additional research is necessary in an attempt to solve the many problems encountered in technical assistance, particularly in planning, coordination, establishing criteria to predict success or failure of experts, and making technical assistance duties more attractive to experts. There is a need for a study on the contributions of the communist powers, which are competing with the West in this field as in others. This study is offered as a first attempt to organize and to analyze the growing volume of literature and quantitative data in this field of foreign development aid.