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**PROJECT EVALUATION PROCEDURES IN FIVE CANADIAN
INTERNATIONAL DEVELOPMENT SERVICE ORGANIZATIONS**

by

Frederick Peter Gale, B.A., M.A.

**A thesis submitted to the Faculty of
Graduate Studies and Research in partial
fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of
Master of Arts**

The Norman Paterson School of International Affairs

Carleton University,

Ottawa, Ontario

June 1987

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Graduate Studies and Research acceptance of this thesis, submitted
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the degree of Master of Arts.

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18 June, 1987

ABSTRACT

This thesis examines evaluation procedures in five international development service agencies in Canada. These agencies are CESO, CECI, CUSO, MCCC and WUSC.

The five organizations are profiled under the headings of organizational purpose, institutional structure, budget and international development service activities. The profiles reveal important similarities and differences among organizations.

The five organizations are compared on their approaches to evaluation at each phase of the project cycle. The comparison reveals an emphasis on project identification and planning and project monitoring. Less emphasis is placed on project effectiveness, impact or efficiency.

The thesis concludes that evaluation procedures are underdeveloped in the organizations studied. Agencies need to adopt a comprehensive evaluation strategy (CES) to improve project planning and implementation. The policy implications of implementing CES are examined and a number of practical suggestions for improvement in evaluation procedures are made.

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Finally, I take full responsibility for any inaccuracies and errors in the present text. I hope the thesis will contribute to the continuing debate within the NGO community on what is and is not possible in the field of project evaluation.

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community more generally. Access to internal evaluation studies was difficult due to the understandable reluctance of organizations to release confidential information. Finally, lack of previous research in this area made it difficult to know where to start. The study must be seen as exploratory in nature and as a necessary first step in examining the evaluation procedures of international development service organizations. Suggestions for further research are included in chapter five.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Overall Purpose

This thesis examines the evaluation procedures in five Canadian NGO's which place development workers in the Third World. The five organizations are; Canadian Executive Service Organization (CESO); Centre d'Etude Canadien et de Cooperation Internationale (CECI); CUSO (formerly Canadian University Service Overseas); Mennonite Central Committee of Canada (MCCC); and World University Service of Canada (WUSC). It assesses the adequacy of their evaluation procedures in the light of the present international development assistance environment and of the changes which have taken place in the NGO community in the last 25 years. The central argument of the thesis is that existing evaluation strategies are not adequate to meet present and future challenges. A "Comprehensive Evaluation Strategy" (CES), and a range of practical suggestions are proposed for agencies seeking to improve their evaluation procedures.

1.2 Evaluation: Definition and Purposes

Evaluation is a normal human activity. People carry out informal evaluations every day. The literature on evaluation which developed in the 1960's and 1970's has attempted to make this informal process more formal through the design of explicit evaluation strategies.

Evaluation is a multiple enterprise. There is a multiplicity of evaluation ideologies, models, techniques, stages, levels, styles and purposes. Scriven has noted that "evaluation is a multiplicity of multiples."¹ The multiple nature of evaluation accounts for the complexity of the literature, the proliferation of models and methodologies and the confusion over its purposes and definition.

Many definitions of the term "evaluation" have been proposed. These definitions have often been associated with a particular evaluation technique or model. The definition adopted here is broader than many others and attempts to take into account the complexity of the term. Evaluation is thus defined as *the multiple process of judging the merit and worth of a phenomenon (such as a person, a thing or an idea).*²

One critical feature requiring discussion is the purpose for which an evaluation is carried out. McAnany³ and Freeman, Rossi and Wright⁴ identify three major purposes of evaluation. These are; (a) to improve project implementation; (b) to improve policy analysis and implementation; and (c) to ensure accountability. Traditionally, parties to an evaluation stress one or other of these purposes as the most important. This thesis takes the position that all three aspects are critical.

Krathwohl⁵ has noted that "values" are at the centre of the study of evaluation. Evaluators need to state their value assumptions explicitly. Although not comprehensive, the critical value assumptions of the author in relation to this study are: (i) Evaluation is valuable. (ii) It should be an integral part of the project planning and implementation process. (iii) Qualitative and quantitative methods of

evaluation have equal validity and usefulness in assessing a phenomenon's "value." (iv) Formal evaluation strategies which make explicit the methods, criteria, purposes and assumptions of evaluation are better than informal and implicit strategies. (v) Accountability (in terms of impact and efficiency) is as valid an evaluation purpose as the improvement of project and policy implementation.

1.3 Evaluation of Non-Government Organization Projects

Although most of the non-government organizations (NGO's) have informally evaluated their projects and programs for many years, they have for the most part resisted the adoption of formal evaluation strategies. Starodub⁶ observes three constraints on NGO's use of formal evaluation. These relate to the cost of evaluation, the lack of evaluation capability among staff and the lack of an adequate evaluation methodology for small-scale community projects.

These constraints need to be overcome. The NGO community has grown substantially in the 1960's and 1970's both in their overall number and their size. Many have become established organizations, heavily dependent on government revenues. At the same time the international environment of the 1980's is now more hostile to development assistance and to social service programming. Development assistance NGO's must adapt to the changing international and national climates.

Some recent publications have suggested that NGO's adopt more formal evaluation procedures. These publications have stressed the use of qualitative techniques and participatory styles. They argue that

evaluations should, in most cases, be carried out internally. Thus, Robinson⁷ and Millson⁸ have both made the case for "participatory evaluation" in CUSO. Participatory styles of evaluation stress the interdependent nature of project implementation. The ACVAFS "Evaluation Sourcebook"⁹ also places emphasis on participation in evaluation. It argues that NGO personnel are capable of carrying out good quality evaluations and it makes the case for the "demystification" of the evaluation process.

1.4 Thesis Outline

The thesis is organized in five chapters. Following this introduction, chapter two provides background on the emergence of international development service and the major issues it faces. Chapter three profiles the five Canadian international development service organizations studied and draws some conclusions about their similarities and differences. Chapter four examines the evaluation procedures used by these agencies at different stages in the project cycle. The final chapter concludes that agencies need to adopt a comprehensive evaluation strategy. It then examines the policy implications of adopting such a strategy.

1.5 Limitations of the Study

There are limitations to the present study. Cost prevented the author from travelling extensively to gather more elaborate data. Cost and time made it impossible to extend the study to other international development service organizations or to the NGO

community more generally. Access to internal evaluation studies was difficult due to the understandable reluctance of organizations to release confidential information. Finally, lack of previous research in this area made it difficult to know where to start. The study must be seen as exploratory in nature and as a necessary first step in examining the evaluation procedures of international development service organizations. Suggestions for further research are included in chapter five.

NOTES

¹ Michael Scriven, "Evaluation Ideologies," in Evaluation Models. Viewpoints on Educational and Human Service Evaluation, eds. George F. Madaus, Michael S. Scriven and Daniel L. Stufflebeam (Hingham MA: Kluwer-Nijhoff, 1983), p. 77

² Such a definition embodies those implicit in Michael Scriven, "Evaluation Ideologies," pp 76-80, and Carol Weiss, Evaluation Research: Methods for Assessing Program Effectiveness (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall, 1972), p. 1

³ Emile G. McAnany, "Is Evaluation Useful?" Development Communication Report 29 (January 1980), p. 1

⁴ Howard E. Freeman, Peter Rossi and Sonia Wright, Evaluating Social Project in Developing Countries (Paris: OECD Development Studies Centre, 1979), pp. 23-24.

⁵ David R. Krathwohl, "The myth of Value-Free Evaluation," Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis 2 (January-February 1980), pp. 37-45

⁶ Linda Starodub, "Evaluation and Non-Governmental Organizations," International Council for Voluntary Agency News 88 (December 1980), pp. 33-34

⁷ William J. Robinson, "Evaluating International Development Assistance Programs: the Case of CUSO Ghana" (M.A. Thesis, Norman Paterson School of International Affairs, Carleton University, Ottawa, 1982)

⁸ Noel T. Millson, "An Evaluation Design for NGO's in International Rural Development: The CUSO-Sudan Program" (M.A. Thesis, University School of Rural Planning and Development, University of Guelph, 1986)

⁹ Daniel S. Pietro, gen. ed., Evaluation Sourcebook for Private and Voluntary Organizations (New York N.Y.: American Council of Voluntary Agencies for Foreign Service, 1983)

CHAPTER 2

INTERNATIONAL DEVELOPMENT SERVICE : EVOLUTION, AIMS AND ISSUES.

2.1 Introduction

Three separate fields of activity accounted for the emergence of international development service in the 1950's and their later growth in the 1960's and 1970's. These were, (a) the rise of the international volunteer movement; (b) the growth, after 1948, of international development assistance and, in particular, technical assistance; and (c) the shift from physical infrastructural development to human resource development.

This chapter identifies the contribution made by these three fields of activity. It traces the history of international development service and its subsequent evolution in Canada. It discusses difficulties in the interpretation of data. It examines the changing international development assistance environment and current issues within the field.

International development service has its own vocabulary. A section is included below on terminology to clarify the meaning of some basic terms.

2.2 Terminology

The term "international development service organization" is used to refer to a non-governmental, non-profit organization which recruits, selects, funds and sends development workers to work in

developing countries. The term "service" implies that remuneration is not the major consideration of such individuals. The term "international" is used to distinguish the transnational nature of this form of development service from "domestic" development service which occurs when nationals undertake service in their own countries.

This use of the term "international development service" does not distinguish between the various categories of development service workers. CUSO uses the term "cooperant," WUSC uses the terms "General Volunteer," "WUSC Associate," and "Cooperant," MCCC uses the term "Volunteer," CECI uses "Cooperant" and CESO uses the term "Volunteer Consultant." These distinctions are based more on levels of remuneration, experience and conditions of service than on the role filled by the individual. The general term used here for all categories of personnel is "development worker."

The term "international development service" also incorporates the "international volunteer movement" referred to in 2.3 below. It extends the category of personnel referred to beyond that of the "traditional" international volunteer. It thus expands the category of "development worker" to include not only volunteers, but local contract teachers, cooperants, semi-professionals, professionals and others who work under the auspices of an international development service organization.

It is appreciated that some organizations will have trouble with this terminology as it does not clearly distinguish between volunteers on the one hand and paid "professionals" on the other. For many organizations, the voluntary motivation of their personnel is crucial

For the purposes of this paper, however, it is less relevant. Procedures for the evaluation of international development service projects are not contingent upon such distinctions.

Confusion can occur in the use of the terms "project" and "program." A project refers here to the placement of a development worker (or development workers) in a specific geographical location to carry out certain specified activities. Examples of such projects include a teacher-trainer placed in a teacher-training institution or a nurse-midwife in a rural clinic. A further distinction is drawn between "large projects" and "small projects." The former have budgets in excess of one million dollars, are implemented over several years and have specially recruited project teams. "Small projects" have smaller budgets, are usually planned over a two year period or less, and do not have a specially recruited project team.

A program refers to the placement of a sectorally similar group of development workers on a regional or national basis. An example of a program would be the Zimbabwe Teacher's Program operated by WUSC. It consists of teachers placed in rural secondary schools in Zimbabwe.

The placement of development workers can be categorized in different ways. (i) A "singular placement" refers to a development worker who is placed in a project without other development workers. Such assignees normally have minimal support by way of additional project funds or transport. (ii) An "integrated placement" consists of a number of development workers placed in the same project, but not necessarily in the same sector. (iii) A "program placement" refers to the placement of a number of development workers in the same sector either regionally or nationally.

Integrated placements and program placements can be evaluated at the level of the "singular placement" i.e. integrated and program placements are combinations of "singular placements". Thus the basic unit of analysis is the "singular placement".

A final source of confusion is the plethora of terms available to indicate the countries to which development workers are sent. Terms such as "the Third World", "developing country", "underdeveloped country", "the South", "underprivileged countries," etc., have all been used. Each term has its defenders and detractors and it is not possible to satisfy all readers at the same time. The author regards the terms used as unsatisfactory but does not wish to add a new term to a field already overburdened with possibilities. It is therefore proposed to use the terms interchangeably, with a preference for "developing country". The term "underdeveloped country" will not be used since it is pejorative.

2.3 The Evolution of the International Volunteer Movement.

International development service has its foundation in the growth of the international volunteer movement. It evolved out of the international work-camp movement initiated by Pierre Ceresole in the 1920's.¹ The organization to which this movement gave rise was called Service Civil International (SCI). It is still in operation today with the major function of organizing international volunteer work-camps usually of short duration.

Ceresole met with Mahatma Gandhi in 1931 and subsequently visited India where he and three other volunteers spent three years working with victims of the Bihar flood.² An Indian branch of SCI was

formed which is still active and organizes a number of international work camps. Later still, in 1947, SCI initiated a series of work-camp projects in Greece and Italy on a longer-term basis.

SCI was not the only international agency involved in student cultural exchanges. The European Student Relief (ESR) program - later to become International Student Service (ISS) and later still to change its name to the World University Services (WUS) - was also established in 1920 to help students in the aftermath of the first World War. It was dedicated to cultural cooperation, peace and student assistance around the world. In the 1950's its emphasis shifted to educational and development programs and it fostered short-term intercultural work camps for students from different countries.

SCI and WUS stressed the values of intercultural learning, peaceful coexistence and volunteer cooperation. They established the values upon which the international development service organizations would be based. Many of today's international development service organizations started out as volunteer sending agencies. Many of them now send other categories of development workers who can no longer be classified as volunteers. This again demonstrates the need for the more inclusive term "development worker."

2.4 Technical Assistance.

The second key influence on the growth of international development service was the initiation of the United Nations Technical Assistance Program in 1948. It was followed by the Expanded

Technical Assistance Program in 1949. However, "technical assistance" had existed long before the term came into being. Domergue notes that;

Activities which would now be labelled "technical assistance" can be traced back to antiquity, as, for instance, the contacts between the Babylonian and the Egyptian empires, between ancient China and some of its neighboring countries, and perhaps also among some of the pre-Columbian peoples in Central and South America.³

The term "technical assistance" was used to distinguish this form of aid from financial and equipment assistance for infrastructural projects which came in the form of loans and grants. It now refers to the establishment of projects such as dams, roads, and railways and the provision of qualified personnel to advise and train developing country nationals. Also included under the heading of technical assistance is the provision of fellowships and training grants to suitably qualified individuals from the developing countries.

The increased interest in technical assistance, particularly in the provision of qualified professionals, was a key factor in the subsequent rise of international development service. Initially, technical assistance "experts" were extremely well-qualified, often the best in their profession. A place for less qualified individuals was not immediately recognized as Bock noted in a survey of attitudes of 55 "technical assistance consultants" in 1954.⁴

The successful emergence of international development service as one component of technical assistance was made possible when it became clear that there was a role for young university graduates and that they could cope with the hazards of life in the developing countries.

2.5 The Shift to Human Resource Development Projects

The emergence of international development service received strong theoretical support from the work of T W. Schultz. This made investment in human resource development a central objective of the development process. The articulation of human capital theory coincided with the arrival of the most important international development service organizations in the late 1950's. It was decisive in ensuring that economic and infrastructural support were made available for training and education in the developing world.

Its impact on technical assistance can clearly be seen in Table 1. While total bilateral development assistance increased fourfold between 1963 and 1985, there was a sevenfold increase in bilateral technical assistance. The percentage of bilateral development assistance allocated to technical assistance increases from a low of 15 percent in 1963 to a high of 31.9 percent in 1973. It fluctuates around 29.7 percent between 1974 and 1985.

The milestone in the development of human capital theory was the publication in 1960 and 1961 of Schultz's articles entitled "Capital Formation in Education"⁵ and "Investment in Human Capital."⁶ Although the theory can be as complex as any other economic theory, its basic concepts are straightforward. All factors of production (land, labor and capital) benefit from investment which makes these factors more productive. Land may be unproductive if it is stony, badly drained and unfertilized. Take away the stones, drain and fertilize it and it will be more productive. In essence, the same analogy can be applied to labor. Labor can either be skilled or unskilled. Skilled labor is more

TABLE 1¹ (\$ Million US)²

**DAC Technical Assistance as a Component
of Total DAC Development Assistance**

Year	Total Official Bilateral Development Assistance (DAC Countries)	Total Technical Assistance from Bilateral Aid Sources (DAC)	Technical Assist- ance as a percentage of Bilateral Assist- ance
1963	5,712.3	858.4	15.0
1964	5,440.8	949.6	17.5
1965	5,773.1	1,048.0	18.2
1966	5,919.1	1,215.5	20.5
1967	6,212.8	1,318.6	21.2
1968	6,586.1	1,429.3	21.7
1969	5,699.3	1,527.5	26.8
1970	5,683.5	1,511.0	26.6
1971	6,430.7	1,690.3	26.3
1972	6,755.2	1,839.1	27.2
1973	7,155.1	2,280.3	31.9
1974	8,255.4	2,494.3	30.2
1975	9,815.5	2,921.6	29.8
1976	9,495.4	2,874.9	30.3
1977	10,083.7	3,066.4	30.4
1978	13,122.6	3,779.6	28.8
1979	15,913.8	4,684.7	29.4
1980	17,640.8	5,475.4	31.0
1981	18,282.7	5,248.5	28.7
1982	18,534.0	5,390.0	29.1
1983	18,528.0	5,841.0	31.5
1984	19,667.0	5,930.0	30.2
1985	21,916.0	6,001.0	27.4

¹ All figures are taken from Reports of the Chairman (sic) of the Development Assistance Committee of the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), 1964 to 1986.

² The figures have not been adjusted to take account of inflation during the period.

productive than unskilled labor, and unskilled labor can be made more productive by investment in training, education, health and nutrition

Human capital theory spawned a large number of studies on the economic returns to investment in education, health and family planning. It led to the calculation of both private and public rates of return to these forms of investment. In general, the studies were encouraging, with private rates of return being greater than public rates of return, and both usually exceeding the rate of return obtainable in alternative investment strategies.⁷

Human capital theory did not contribute to the establishment of either technical assistance or international development service. It provided, however, a rationale for its continuance and expansion. Western economists, many of whom were responsible for the planning and delivery of overseas aid, accepted the theory and the value it placed on human resource development. This was translated into the provision of funds to the development service organizations to enable them to carry out and expand their work. It was through this indirect but nonetheless vital theoretical support that international development service, which got off to a faltering start in 1958 with the establishment of Voluntary Service Overseas, was able to expand so rapidly in the 1960's and 1970's.

2.6 International Development Service Organizations: An Overview of their Development

Although there were a number of initiatives in the 1950's to establish prototype international development service organizations, it was really the formation of Voluntary Service Overseas (VSO) in Britain that marked the breakthrough.⁸ It established the basis for the many national and non-governmental development service organizations that exist today.

VSO was the first organization to clearly establish its purpose as the sending of volunteers for long-term development service to a number of developing countries. Its initial emphasis was very much as a 'youth' organization and the volunteers it sponsored in its initial years were school-leavers. It was also a small, poorly funded initiative and had difficulty attracting government support in its early years. It was the launching of the US Peace Corps in 1961 that established the reality of long-term international development service and made it acceptable to politicians and bureaucrats in developed nations.

The US Peace Corps was set up on an altogether different scale than the organizations which it preceded. By Executive Order of United States President John F. Kennedy, the Peace Corps was founded with a large staff and a mandate to place young Americans in projects around the world. The objectives of the organization were outlined in its Declaration of Purpose

The Congress of the United States declares that it is the policy of the United States and the purpose of this Act to promote world peace and friendship through a Peace Corps, which shall make available to interested countries and

areas men and women of the United States qualified for service abroad and willing to serve, under conditions of hardship, if necessary, to help the peoples of such countries and areas in meeting their needs for trained manpower, and to help promote a better understanding of the American people on the part of the peoples served and a better understanding of other peoples on the part of the American people⁹

The establishment and development of the Peace Corps was critical for the growth of international development service. Firstly, it was a government initiative, completely funded from the United States treasury. As a result it was able to operate on an altogether different scale than the non-governmental organizations (NGO's). Secondly, it sought to recruit volunteers with professional or technical skills for long term assignments and concentrated on university graduates and other qualified professionals. It thus established two of the fundamental ground-rules for this type of international volunteer placement; a minimum of two years overseas service and a recognizable skill or profession which can be put to use.

The 1960's and 1970's saw a growing interest in the area of international volunteer development service. The establishment of the United Nations Volunteers (UNV) in 1971 confirmed this trend and extended international volunteer development service to the multilateral level.

The UNV grew quickly during the 1970's and by the end of the decade there were approximately 1,000 UNV's annually in the field. Volunteers were recruited from all countries in the United Nations and

this prompted some criticism. It was argued that the United Nations should not be encouraging the "brain drain" by recruiting badly needed qualified personnel from one developing country to serve in another

At the international level, two coordinating bodies were established with responsibility for coordinating volunteer service at the international level. In recognition of the need to coordinate volunteer service at the intergovernmental level, the International Secretariat for Volunteer Service (ISVS) was formed at the instigation of the United States in 1962.¹⁰ This was followed by the formal incorporation of the Coordinating Committee on International Voluntary Service (CCIVS) in 1966. It had existed informally from the mid-1950's and functioned as a coordinating body for the international volunteer non-governmental organizations.

This brief outline has highlighted the major institutional developments that have contributed to the rise of international development service. It presents the international context against which the growth and development of Canada's contribution to international development service can be compared and contrasted

2.7 International Development Service in Canada

The evolution of international development service in Canada parallels the growth of such service in other Western nations. In the 1950's a number of individuals came together to form the organization Canadian Overseas Volunteers (COV).¹¹ Chief among these was Keith Spicer who in 1959 had received a Canada Council fellowship to study Canada's Asian aid program. Spicer, like Alec Dickson, was captivated by

the potential of youth to provide service to developing communities. He formed an alliance with Fred Stinson, a member of the Ontario Parliament and representative to the Parliamentary Standing Committee on External Affairs. They eventually succeeded in raising sufficient funds from private sources to put fifteen volunteers into the field. These departed on August 16th, 1961 bound for India, Ceylon and Sarawak.

But the early 1960's was a time of intense activity in the area of international development service in Canada. Although COV was the first organization to put development workers in the field, there was by no means unanimity on the need for such an organization. Nor was there agreement that COV was the appropriate vehicle for Canadian international development service if a need were demonstrated. Other organizations were forming at the same time as COV. Canadian Voluntary Commonwealth Service (CVCS), the initiative of Guy Arnold, was formed and combined the concepts of short-term work-camp placements with longer term international development service. In Quebec, organizations such as Le Centre de Formation pour l'Envoi de Techniciens en Pays Sous-Developpees and Le Mouvement Universitaire National pour le Developpement Outre-Mer began to mount overseas volunteer programs.¹²

A key individual at this point was Lewis Perinbam who had, a number of years earlier in 1959, made a proposal for a 'Canadian Volunteer Program' to the Canadian government. It was becoming clear that there was a need for coordination among the different volunteer programs and Perinbam sought the formation of Canadian University Services Overseas/ Service Universitaire Canadien Outre-mer.

(CUSO/SUCO) A meeting was held for interested parties, including representatives from COV and CSVS, on June 6th, 1961 at McGill University. The meeting was a stormy one in which organizational interests predominated. The motion to establish CUSO/SUCO was ultimately passed and the major step was taken in launching international development service in Canada.

Although CUSO/SUCO was the first major Canadian organization in the field of international development service, the early 1960's saw a sudden increase of interest in and institutional support for international development service in Canada. This resulted in the formation of Canadian Executive Service Overseas (CESO) in 1967 to fund and place retired Canadian executives. Other organizations that began to recruit and send development workers included World University Service of Canada (WUSC), the Mennonite Central Committee of Canada (MCCC) which funded development workers within a Christian religious tradition, and Centre Canadien d'Etude et de Cooperation Internationale (CECI) which has grown into the largest of the francophone sending agencies.

2.8 Data Problems

There are serious problems with the statistics on person-numbers in technical assistance and international development service. These are highlighted in Table 2 below. It is not clear from the table who is being counted. The figures between countries and within a country may therefore not be comparable. France does not provide data from 1980 onwards, while Ireland has never provided any data. Canada's data show

TABLE 2¹
Publicly Financed Technical Co-operation
Personnel by Individual Donors.

Countries	Number of Persons						
	1970	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985
Australia	1 024	1 356	1 351	1 574	1 755	1 965	1 860
Austria	288	555	562	430	458	409	--
Belgium	3 199	3 022	3 138	(3 100)	3 051	2 944	--
Canada	3 080	2 057	1 345	3 242	3 454	698	4 309
Denmark	774	1 045	1 023	1 051	1 159	1 281	1 129
Finland	98	117	181	176	176	147	133
France	38 122	--	--	--	--	--	--
Germany	6 344	5 850	5 903	5 865	5 629	5 827	5 514
Ireland	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
Italy	1 507	1 597	1 714	2 190	2 445	2 736	2 907
Japan	2 629	8 215	9 878	11 011	11 094	12 721	14 380
Netherlands	1 177	2 963	2 689	3 192	2 942	3 254	2 912
New Zealand	--	608	449	421	439	460	519
Norway	505	433	464	521	459	549	564
Sweden	658	510	526	549	(560)	581	553
Switzerland	729	1 060	1 035	1 012	1 028	--	--
U K	17 354	7 614	6 512	5 973	5 765	5 364	5 444
U S.	22 417	11 447	13 498	14 408	17 186	19 771	19 887
Total DAC							
Countries	99 905	(71 579)	(73 400)	(77 845)	(80 730)	(82 900)	---

¹ The Table is reprinted from the Report of the Chairman (sic) of the Development Assistance Committee, 1986 Review: Development Cooperation, (Paris: OECD, 1986). Table 16, p. 243.

remarkable fluctuations. This is due to changes in the Canadian counting procedures, particularly in the figures quoted for 1984 and 1985. In 1984 only directly sponsored CIDA experts were counted, while in 1985 all directly and indirectly sponsored persons were counted. This included persons sponsored through the development service NGO's. The figures overall are very inaccurate and highly aggregated. They do not discriminate between technical assistance experts and development service personnel or between short and long-term placements. The figures for total DAC numbers are estimates. They appear to reveal a slight upward trend in the 1980's from 71,579 in 1980 to 82,900 in 1985. However, until more accurate data can be obtained and until better counting criteria can be established, it will remain unclear how many persons are engaged in technical assistance.

A study being carried out by Secor Consultants on behalf of CIDA has identified twelve international development service organizations in Canada which, between them, account for the vast majority of Canadians being sent overseas to work in development service projects. A list of eleven of these appears in Table 3 together with figures for total revenue and numbers of volunteer development workers sent in 1985-1986. The Mennonite Central Committee of Canada was dropped from the study for technical reasons.

The table makes it possible to compare the total range of international development service with the sample selected for this study. Thus, the total number of new short term assignments in 1985-86 was 990. CESO, CUSO, CECI and WUSC accounted for 309 (or 31% of total

TABLE 3¹

**Canadian Development Service Organizations: Budget and
Volunteer Development Worker Placements by Organization.
1985-1986.**

Organizations	Volunteer Placements			Total Budget (C\$ millions)
	Long Stay	Short Stay	Total	
Canada World Youth (CYC)	-	361	361	8.98
Canadian Crossroads International (CCI). ²	-	177	177	1.24
Canadian Executive Service Organization (CESO)	-	273	273	4.84
Organization for Cooper- ation In Overseas Develop- ment (OCCO). ²	-	77	77	0.79
CUSO	185	23	208	23.02
Centre canadien d'étude et de coopération inter- nationale (CECI)	116	6	122	10.31
World University Service of Canada (WUSC). ³	77	7	84	28.66
Organization canadienne pour la solidarité et le développe- ment (OCCSD).	67	6	73	3.92
Volunteer International Christian Service (VICS)	23	0	23	0.20
Plenty Canada	11	3	14	1.61
Emmanuel Relief and Rehabilitation International	42	57	99	1.96
Totals	521	990	1,511	85.53

¹ I am grateful to Ted Thiessen and CIDA for their permission to quote these statistics in advance of the finalized report from Secor Consultants Inc.

² Figures for total revenue are from 1984-85.

³ Figures refer to WUSC's general volunteer category and do not cover other WUSC overseas personnel.

short term assignments). The total number of new long term assignments was 521. CUSO, CEGI and WUSC accounted for 378 of these (or 73% of total long term assignments). The total budget for the period in all organizations was \$85.53 million, of which CESO, CUSO, CEGI and WUSC accounted for \$67.01 million (or 78% of the total budget). Although CWY and CCI are included in the general category of international development service, there are grounds for excluding them from consideration in the present study. CWY and CCI emphasize development education and intercultural learning in their overseas placements. Placements are for a short-period and school-leavers and university undergraduates form the target group. If CWY and CCI are not included in the concept of "international development service" for the purposes of this study, then the overall representativeness of the sample (CESO, CUSO, CEGI, MCCC and WUSC) is increased.

Unfortunately, full data from the Secor study are not yet available and secondary sources have had to be relied on in this thesis for most of the subsequent information provided. This has been problematic in many ways. The records of each organization cover different accounting periods and the method of calculating budgetary expenditure varies. Different organizations compile and report data on their development workers in different ways. Due to these problems, the comparisons made between organizations in this study with respect to the budget and the number, sector and geographical region of development workers should be taken as indicative and not definitive. The Secor study is thus timely as it will enable data from each of the eleven international development service organizations to be compared with each other.

2.9 Canadian International Development Service Organizations: Challenges and Choices

The international development service organizations find themselves today in a different and more hostile international development assistance environment than that which prevailed in the 1960's. The overall climate then was positive, favored innovation and recognized the importance of human resource development. Since 1980, however, a new era of "realism" has been evident in the developed countries. This "new realism" is a response in part to the perceived excesses of social policy and programming in the 1960's, to the oil-price shocks and subsequent international recession of the 1970's and to the perceived "failure" of two international development assistance decades to substantially alter the living standards of the majority of the world's population. Today's international assistance environment is thus more negative in outlook, less inclined to view human resource development as a panacea for all development ills, as likely to place the emphasis on trade as well as aid, and less inclined to unquestioningly accept the superiority of NGO programming over bilateral or multilateral channels.

International development service agencies have been adapting and changing in order to meet the present and future challenges of this new environment. Such adaptation and change has raised new issues about the nature of international development service. These issues are (a) the appropriate role and skills of the development worker; (b) the need to avoid competition and to increase partnership with domestic development service agencies; (c) the move from "small project" development service assignments to "large project" technical assistance projects; and (d) issues relating to funding and accountability.

(a) The role of the development worker is in the process of being redefined. Initially, this role was seen as the provision of lower-level technical skills. This view stressed technical competence as the most important aspect of development worker selection and saw international development service as a direct extension of technical assistance.

Another view emphasized the role of the development worker as an "agent of change". Its supporters conceived development work as having a political dimension in mobilizing people around development issues. Both aspects are now important elements in the redefinition of the development worker's role. Such a redefinition has been brought about by the move from small projects to large projects, by the move from formal institutional placements to informal rural development projects and by the increased emphasis on community development and partnership. The development worker of the future is thus more likely to require skills in group work, rural animation, committee coordination and administration and community development.

(b) The need to avoid competition from and promote partnership with local communities in developing countries is a result of a greater sense of self-assurance in such communities coupled with the growth of domestic development service. Such self-assurance was evident at a major conference on "Partnership and Volunteer Service" held in Bobo Dioulasso in Bourkina Fasso (then Upper Volta) in 1981. The conference participants concluded that "the receiving and sending organizations and the communities should reexamine together the principle and methods of sending volunteers."¹³ The impetus for this call for a radical re-examination of the principals of international development service

came from the Third World delegates who argued that traditional agency placement policies were not appropriate at the local community level.

The growth of domestic development service organizations on the other hand has the potential to compete with the international development service agencies in a number of sectors. In order to avoid such competition, the international development service agencies have sought a supporting role. More frequently, development workers are being placed directly with domestic development service agencies and other developing country NGO's. International development service organizations now stress the importance of working with local community groups in partnership. The growth of domestic development service has, as noted above, been one factor in shifting the role of the development worker towards a greater emphasis on community development and committee skills.

(c) Large project development assistance, often stressing a community development approach, has been increasing rapidly within the major development service organizations in Canada. CECI, CUSO and WUSC all show evidence of the trend to large, multi-sector, multi-annual projects with large budgets and specially selected project teams. This coincides with an increased perception of NGO's in Canada as project implementers, particularly in areas that require community participation. One of the by-products of this trend is a decreasing number of opportunities for Canadian development workers overseas. Although the annual revenues of the agencies are increasing, this is not being translated into an increase in the number of development workers being sent. The overall number of development workers is likely to

decline in future years as project implementation, rather than development worker placement, becomes the focus of many of the agencies studied.

(d) Funding, accountability and systematic project evaluation

The move from small project to large project implementation has had a dramatic effect on the size of the financial resources available to the NGO community. It has also increased substantially their dependence on outside donors, particularly CIDA, to provide and to continue to provide such funding. This dependence on public funds raises the question of accountability and evaluation. Evaluation within the NGO community has traditionally had low priority. Most organizations prefer to channel their resources into programming. Evaluation is seen as a drain on these resources with no obvious benefits. The substantial increase in public funding of NGO's has highlighted weaknesses in their evaluation procedures and processes. Such weaknesses are compounded by the noted difficulties in evaluating development service projects.¹⁴ These difficulties are basically threefold; (a) international development service projects are only one factor contributing to development in a community or region; (b) they require, in the case of large projects, a substantial period of time to pass before they can be demonstrated to be effective; and (c) they are often less amenable to quantified evaluation methodologies.

2.10 Conclusions

International development service organizations must today operate in a more hostile international and national development

assistance environment. In order to meet the challenges of the 1980's these organizations have been redefining their aims and objectives, and restructuring their approaches to international development assistance. This has resulted in a move away from traditional "singular placements" to large project implementation based on partnership with host communities and domestic NGO's. It has resulted in the use of greater public funds to support overseas projects and has raised the question of public accountability for project expenditure. This trend in the NGO community in Canada is likely to continue and grow. In response it is important that Canadian international development service agencies reexamine their evaluation procedures and adopt a more systematic, formal and comprehensive approach to project evaluation.

NOTES

¹ Robert Morris, Overseas Volunteer Programs (Lexington, MA: Lexington Books, 1973), p. 3

² Ibid., p. 4

³ Maurice Domergue, Technical Assistance: Theory, Practice and Policies, Praeger Special Studies in International Economics and Development, (New York: Praeger, 1968), p. 1

⁴ Edwin A. Bock, Fifty Years of Technical Assistance: Some Administrative Experiences of US Voluntary Agencies (Chicago: Public Administration Clearing House, 1954), p. 29.

⁵ T. W. Schultz, "Capital Formation in Education," Journal of Political Economy (December 1960)

⁶ Idem, "Investment in Human Capital," American Economic Review (March 1961).

⁷ See, for example, the World Bank, World Development Report (Washington D.C.: World Bank, August 1980) for a discussion on different rates of return to farmers with different levels of education and technology.

⁸ See Moira Dickson, A Chance to Serve (London: Dobson Books, 1976)

⁹ Irene Pinkau, An Evaluation of Development Services and their Co-operative Relationships: Compendium of Development Service Vol. 1 (Washington: Society for International Development, 1977), p. 268

¹⁰ Morris, Overseas Volunteer Programs, p. 6.

¹¹ I am particularly indebted to Ian Smillie's book, The Land of Lost Content: A History of CUSO (Toronto: Deneau Books, 1985) for much of this section on the early development of CUSO and other Canadian development service organizations.

¹² As quoted in Smillie, The Land of Lost Content, p. 15

¹³ Regional Conference of International Volunteer Service, RCIVS Colloque, Series No. 11, Bobo Dioulasso, Upper Volta, 13-19 December, 1981, Partnership and Volunteer Service: Realities and the Way Forward (Bonn: RCIVS, 1981), p. 29

¹⁴ See, for example, Domergue, Technical Assistance, pp. 157-159; Morris, Overseas Volunteer Programs, pp. 264-285; and F. J. Tickner, Technical Cooperation (London: Hutchinson, 1965), Chapter 10, pp. 175-195

CHAPTER 3

PROFILES OF FIVE CANADIAN INTERNATIONAL DEVELOPMENT SERVICE ORGANIZATIONS

3.1 Introduction

In chapter two we noted that a study being carried out by Secor Consultants Inc. identified 12 Canadian International Development Service Organizations. These organizations account for the majority of all international development service placements from the NGO community in any one year. Two of these organizations (Canadian Crossroads and Canada World Youth) are not involved in international development service *per se*. These organizations sponsor young Canadians (usually between 18 and 21 years of age) on short-term intercultural exchange programs. They were thus excluded from this study. Five of the remaining ten organizations were selected as the sample group for the purposes of this study. The five organizations selected were; Canadian Executive Service Organization (CESO); Centre Canadian d'Etudes et de Cooperation International (CECI), CUSO, the Mennonite Central Committee of Canada (MCCC); and World University Service of Canada (WUSC).

3.2 Sample Selection Criteria

In selecting the five organizations examined in this study, a number of criteria were used to ensure that they were representative of all aspects of Canadian NGO international development service organizations. The criteria used were,

(a) The organizations selected would account for a significant proportion of all development workers travelling overseas in any one year. This was met by including the three largest development service organizations, CUSO, WUSC and CECI in the sample.

(b) The organizations selected would cover the major geographical areas where Canadian development workers serve. This was met by selecting organizations operative in francophone Africa (CECI), anglophone Africa (CUSO, WUSC), the Caribbean (CESO, CUSO), Asia (WUSC, CUSO, MCCC) and Central and South America (CUSO, CECI, MCCC, CESO).

(c) The organizations selected would operate in a wide range of project sectors. This was met by selecting organizations involved mainly in the educational sector (WUSC), the business sector (CESO), the agriculture and rural development sector (CECI and MCCC) and in all sectors (CUSO).

(d) The organizations would cover the range of experience and age of development workers. The development workers selected in all organizations span a wide range of ages and levels of experience. CESO deals exclusively with development workers who are highly experienced consultants. They are normally early retirees, or senior executives. The other sending agencies send development workers of all ages and all levels of experience. However, CECI and MCCC development workers tend to be on average a bit older (average 33-35), while WUSC and CUSO development workers are on average between 25 and 30 years of age.

(e) The stated aims and objectives of organizations sending development workers differ in a number of ways. This selection criterion

was met by choosing agencies that offer different organizational perspectives. MCCC has a clearly religious dimension to its work. WUSC and CESO are involved in the provision of technical assistance. CECI and CUSO are more closely associated with programs designed to alleviate rural poverty.

A complete survey of all Canadian international development service agencies was not carried out for the following reasons,

(i) preliminary research indicated that systematic project/program evaluation is a new phenomenon among international development service agencies. Correspondence from the U.S. Peace Corps, the British Volunteer Service Overseas (VSO) and the Irish Agency for Personal Service Overseas (APSO) confirmed this view. These agencies are in the process of exploring possible approaches to systematic evaluation.

(ii) It was hypothesized that the larger organizations would be more likely than the smaller organizations to have developed their evaluation procedures. This hypothesis was made on the basis of experience and on the likely availability of organizational resources to carry out systematic evaluations. Such resources consist of time, money and expertise, all of which are more likely to be available to larger rather than smaller organizations.

(iii) A comprehensive survey of all Canadian international development service organizations would have been time consuming and would have been unlikely, given the above factors, to add to the overall validity of the results. Further work should be done to confirm the analysis presented here and to determine to what extent the evaluation procedures differ from those outlined in the agencies not studied.

3.3 Organizational Profiles

Each of these organizations is profiled below under the following headings (a) Organizational purpose; this outlines the major reason for the establishment of the organization and its purpose in sending development workers to work overseas (b) Institutional Structures, this section profiles the organizational membership, the election of the Board and committee structures (c) Budget, this section outlines the sources of revenue currently being used to finance overseas and domestic operations (d) International development service; this section profiles the number of development workers serving overseas, their terms and conditions, their sector of operation and geographical location.

Unless otherwise stated data used in this section have been obtained from annual reports, internal memorandum, correspondence, and interviews with key individuals from the organizations. A copy of the guided interview schedule is appended in Appendix A. It has not been possible in the space available to provide a detailed analysis of the organizational structure of each of the agencies examined. Organizational purposes, structures, budgets and overseas operations differed across a wide-range of dimensions. The purpose in presenting the profiles is thus to familiarize the reader with the major features of each of the organizations studied in order to better situate the discussion of evaluation procedures contained in the following chapter.

3.4 Canadian Executive Service Organization (CESO)

(a) Organizational Purpose:

CESO was formally established in 1967 under the inspiration of Maurice Strong who at the time was Director General of the External Aid office. The 1985/86 Annual Report notes:

One of his first initiatives in Ottawa, was to enlist close friends in the voluntary, corporate and professional sectors, to create an organization that would recruit early retirees willing to provide the same leverage for the Canadian Aid Dollar, supplied by CUSO, at the outset of a career¹

Initially, in the first year of operation, CESO supported twenty projects to Tanzania, Brazil, Algeria, Kenya and the Caribbean. The "Volunteer Consultants" were retired business-people who had many years experience in bus, rail and truck transport, shipbuilding, and pulp and paper manufacture among other areas. This emphasis on providing high-level technical assistance to requesting clients has remained CESO's chief focus and main organizational purpose.

CESO's program has expanded considerably from its early years. In addition to assisting developing countries in the provision of volunteer consultant development workers, it expanded its mandate in 1969 to include projects with Canada's Native Peoples. This sector has grown to dominate CESO's work, to the extent that, in 1985/86, it supported 297 overseas projects and 1,208 projects with Canadian native peoples². In recognition of this change in emphasis, it altered the CESO acronym from Canadian Executive Service Overseas to its present title.

(b) Institutional Structure CESO is a non-profit, non-governmental organization. It has a large number of individual and associate sustaining members, mainly from the Canadian business community. A Board of 18 directors is elected at the Annual General Meeting. It, in turn, forms the Executive Committee of 8 members, which has responsibility for overseeing the work of the organization between

board meetings. In addition, there is an Advisory Council of 46 members, composed mainly of retired and senior Canadian executives.

The organization has its head office in Toronto, with regional offices in Vancouver, Edmonton, Regina, Winnipeg, Ottawa, Quebec, Truro, Moncton, and Halifax. CESO appoints field representatives in the developing countries where it operates. Such representatives have experience and contacts in the business community. Approximately 33% of these positions are filled on a full-time basis,³ with the overseas representatives receiving a commission for each successful placement made. There are now CESO representatives in 41 countries around the world.⁴

Overseas representatives are responsible for identifying projects on which volunteer consultant development workers work. Local CESO clients contribute in-country costs including food and accommodation. CESO provides travel, insurance costs and a small weekly allowance of \$65. CESO consultants spend an average of 40 days on overseas assignment, with the range varying from one to six months. In addition to its overseas operation, we have already noted CESO's substantial program with Canadian Native Peoples.

(c) Budget CESO's total budget for 1985/86 was \$4.84 million of which \$2.83 million was contributed by CIDA (58%) and \$1.57 million (32% of total funds) by the Department of Indian Affairs and Northern Development (DIAND).⁵ In total, therefore, CESO is 90% dependent for total operational funding on these two sources. CESO makes a contribution in kind (through foregone consultant fees and the contributions of overseas clients) which it estimated at a total dollar

equivalent of \$4.2 million in 1985/86. CESO's fundraising activities are small, accounting for at most \$0.21 million or approximately 4% of total revenue

(d) International Development Service. CESO sponsored 297 projects in 1985/86 in 44 different countries. CESO's major area of activity is Central and South America (49%) although it is operative in the Caribbean (20%), and Asia and the Pacific (24%). It has the least number of projects sponsored in Africa, which formed only 7% of total projects in 1985/86.

CESO consultants spend an average of 40 days on overseas assignments. During that period they provide their consultancy services free of charge to the overseas partner. Their time is spent in examining the operation of the business and discussing its problems. Assistance normally takes the form of advice on technical, administrative or other production matters in an effort to overcome the difficulties identified.

In terms of sectoral activity, the majority of CESO's placements were made in the manufacturing sector. A total of 110 of the 297 placements were made in this sector which represented 37% of all placements.⁶ The manufacturing sector outlined in the 1985/86 Annual Report included such headings as "Arts and Crafts", "Automotive", "Chemical", "Food and Drink", "Pharmaceutical and Textiles." CESO was also active in placing its assignees in projects in the service sector, which accounted for 21% of total placements. This included areas such as accounting and finance, advertising, aviation, communication and data processing. Other areas in which volunteer consultant development workers were placed included the local government sector (18% of total

placements), the primary resources sector (14% of total placements) and the agriculture sector (10% of total placements).

The manufacturing sector predominated in all regions, but was particularly important in South America, while the service sector contributed substantially to overall project numbers in the Caribbean

3.5 Centre Canadien d'Etudes et de Cooperation Internationale (CECI)

(a) Organizational Purpose CECI was formed in 1958. Its original mandate was to provide a documentation and training centre for people travelling to developing countries. It still fulfills this function through its impressive library on international issues and rural development. It also places particular emphasis on the orientation and training of development workers. CECI has always emphasized the importance of an integrated rural development approach, and its projects focus for the most part in this sector.

In 1968 CECI's mandate was expanded to include the sending of Canadian development workers to provide support and technical assistance overseas and to the planning and implementation of large multi-sector, multi-year integrated rural development projects. Its purposes are thus now; (a) the provision of technical assistance appropriate to the needs of developing countries; (b) the training of prospective development workers for overseas work; and (c) the maintenance of an up-to-date library, documentation and research centre.

(b) Institutional Structure CECI has a membership structure drawn from different sectors of Canadian society. These include ex-development workers, university professors, members of religious institutions and the business people. Each year the Annual Assembly elects an Administrative Council, which acts as the policy forming body in CECI. Organizational policy is carried out by the staff under the overall management of the Director General

Organizationally, CECI is divided into nine different divisions. These include responsibility for (i) Volunteer Projects; (ii) Rural Development Projects; (iii) Human Resource Development Projects, (iv) Micro-Enterprise Projects; (v) Training Services; (vi) Documentation, Research and Evaluation, (vii) Recruitment and Selection, (viii) Administrative and Financial Services; and (ix) the Quebec Office. The most important of these in terms of budgetary expenditure are the Volunteer Projects' Division and the Rural Development Projects' Division.

There are 49 staff in the head office (this includes five staff who are based in the Quebec office), and ten field representatives based mainly in francophone Africa.⁷ These have primary responsibility for project identification and volunteer placement. Like a number of the other international development service agencies, CECI also implements large integrated rural development projects for other agencies, mainly CIDA. There are thus a further 23 project staff based in 14 different developing countries.

(c) Budget. CECI's total budget for 1985/86 was \$10.31 million.

Of that, a total of \$8.9 million (or 86%) was received from CIDA.⁸ This figure is, however, exclusive of the support fund for co-operant development workers (\$0.7 million) and funds for feasibility studies and consultations (\$0.25 million). The bulk of these funds are also provided by CIDA, which brings the total funding from CIDA to approximately \$9.85 million (or 96% of total annual revenue).⁹

Of the funds received from CIDA, the majority (approximately 54%) are received for development worker operations, training, research and documentation. To this should be added the Project Support Fund which accounts for a total of 7% of total budget and raises direct and indirect support for development workers to 61% of total budget. Although CIDA funding has traditionally been provided for CECI's volunteer program, there has been rapid growth in the funding provided to the rural development project sector in recent years. Funds for such projects grew from \$1.02 million in 1985 to \$2.6 million in 1986, an increase of 155% over the previous year.¹⁰

CECI is thus highly dependent on CIDA for the bulk of its funding. It does not have a fundraising division and public donations form a very small percentage of its total annual income.

(d) International Development Service. There are basically two aspects to CECI's international development service program. The first is CECI's volunteer development worker projects. CECI had 214 volunteer development workers in post as of 31st March, 1986. Of these, 70 were in the formal education sector (33%), 45 were in the health and social science sector (21%), and 39 were in the informal education sector (18%). The number of volunteer development workers placed by

CECI has grown substantially in recent years. This growth was evident in 1985/86 which saw an increase of 44% over the previous year, with numbers rising by 65 from 149 in March 31st, 1985.¹¹

CECI places volunteers mainly in francophone countries. In 1985/86, 71% of all volunteer placements were made in Africa with the majority being placed in Senegal (22), Gabon (22), Mali (20) and Burkina Fasso (18). Latin America and the Caribbean countries accounted for 20% of the remaining placements with the majority of these (25) in Haiti. The Indian Ocean and Asian region accounted for 9% of total placements with the Comoro Islands being by far the largest placement country (20).¹²

CECI volunteers are older than those of other agencies generally, with the average age being 35 years. They receive the normal benefits that other agencies offer (including airfares, medical insurance, and accommodation), but receive a living allowance from CECI which is somewhat higher than those offered by other agencies. In addition it operates a substantial Project Support Fund which disbursed \$1.32 million in 1985/86. These funds, which ranged from \$2,000 to \$20,000 per project grant, are given to support the volunteer development workers by providing technical equipment, transport, teaching aids and other project related items.

The second arm of CECI's international development service is its rural development projects. Implementation of such projects began in 1981 but expanded from five in 1984/85 to ten in 1985/86. These projects are planned over a seven to ten year period and have large multi-annual budgets. Three of these projects were in Haiti, with the

remainder in Burundi, Ivory Coast, Mali, Guinea-Bissau, Zaire, Burkina Fasso, and Niger. The projects are implemented by project officers, of which there were 23 were in 1985/86. Of these, six were in the agricultural sector, eight were involved in peasant organization and five were in health. The remainder were spread through the sectors of technology and rural engineering.¹³

3.6 CUSO

(a) Organizational Purpose CUSO was established in 1961 and rapidly became the largest of the Canadian international development service organizations. During its early years, its primary purpose was the placement of skilled Canadians overseas. It recruited a large number of its volunteer development workers from university campuses and its name was originally an acronym for Canadian University Service Overseas. In 1981 the acronym was dropped and the name of the organization is now simply CUSO.

CUSO adopted a development charter in 1973 which clearly spelled out its approach and response to development and the developing countries.¹⁴ Implementation of this charter has resulted in the placement of fewer volunteers in the formal educational system and an expansion in community development programs. Like CECI, CUSO has also expanded to include the planning and implementation of large, multi-annual projects. Such projects have not, to date, involved substantial numbers of development workers. A recent publication thus specifies CUSO's present purposes as:

to improve the lives of the poor and powerless such as peasant farmers, poor women, the landless and slum-swellers by;

- sharing technical skills through the placement of volunteer-workers (known as cooperants)
- obtaining funds for development projects, and
- forming partnerships between people in Canada and the Third World¹⁵

(b) Institutional Structure In 1981 CUSO altered its constitution to become a broad-based membership organization. Members of the public can now join on payment of a membership fee. The Board is elected bi-annually through a complicated regional process and the directors include several Third World members. The most noticeable aspect of CUSO's overall structure is the emphasis that has been placed on decentralized planning and project implementation.

Within Canada, CUSO has 16 regional offices. These function, in conjunction with CUSO's local committees, to recruit, select and pre-orient development workers. They also assist the local committees in fundraising and development education work. This section of CUSO activity is coordinated by the Canadian Operations Division (CANOPS), based in the head office in Ottawa.

Overseas, each field office has a field staff officer (FSO) who is responsible for program and project implementation. The work of the FSO's in one region - for example West Africa which includes the FSO's based in Togo, Ghana, Nigeria (which has three offices based in Ibadan, Kaduna, and Kano), Sierra Leone, and the Gambia - is coordinated by the Regional Field Office (RFO). The RFO reports to the Overseas Operations Division (OVOPS) in Ottawa and has responsibility for project

coordination and planning at the regional level

Of the 139 total staff members of CUSO, 75 are based in Ottawa, 27 in the Canadian Regional Offices and 37 in Overseas Field Offices as regional representatives ¹⁶

(c) Budget CUSO's budget has grown steadily over the last four years from a total of \$14.87 million in 1983 to a total of \$23.02 million in the year ending 31st March, 1986. Of this total, fully \$19.69 million was disbursed by CIDA which represents 85.5% of CUSO's total budget ¹⁷. Total fundraising for 1986 was \$1.5 million which represented an increase of 23% on the 1985 total. It still, however, represents only 6.5% of overall revenue with the balance coming from other agency contributions and miscellaneous sources.

It should be noticed that an increased proportion of CUSO's budget is being allocated to "large projects". Expenditure in this area, where the emphasis is on project implementation rather than the placement of development workers, has increased from a total of \$0.6 million in 1981/82 to \$2.025 million in 1984/85 ¹⁸. This rise in large project expenditure is likely to be an increasing percentage of CUSO's overall budget.

(d) International Development Service CUSO's overseas work can be divided into two separate activities. The placement of volunteer development workers (cooperants) and project implementation. Development worker placements are all made on volunteer terms. CUSO relies on the host government in most instances to pay the local salary costs of the development worker and to provide accommodation. In some cases CUSO supplements the local allowance where there are large unfavorable currency fluctuations.

As of March 31st, 1986 there were a total number of 484 development workers in the field.¹⁹ Of these 216 were in the education sector (45%) while 88 were in the agricultural, forestry and fisheries category (18%). The remainder were fairly evenly spread among the categories of health, technical projects and business. Although almost 50% of CUSO's development worker activity is in the area of education, much of this educational work is in the teacher training and non-formal education sectors.

Geographically, CUSO operates in six regions of the world. These are identified by the organization as Asia, the Caribbean, ECSA (East, Central and Southern Africa), Latin America, Pacific and the West Indies. Except for Asia (54) and the Caribbean (22) the distribution of CUSO volunteer development workers is even through the other regions with an average of 102 per region.

There are two types of project funding in CUSO based on size. "Small projects", normally with a budget of \$100,000 or less, are supported through the CUSO/CIDA Project Pool, which is funded by CIDA on a three-to-one basis up to a certain maximum amount (\$1.01 million in 1985/86). Part of this fund is set aside as a "discretionary fund" for use by the FSO's. Such discretionary funds can be disbursed by the FSO up to a maximum value of \$2000 per project. Other sources of funding for CUSO's small projects come from special funds made available through CIDA's ICDS and NGO divisions, Mission Administered Funds (MAF's) made available through Canadian High Commissions and non-CIDA sources from Canada and other international NGO's.

The "large projects" in which CUSO is engaged are normally funded through CIDA's country focus program. An example of a large project is the North East Thailand Project. It covers a period of six years and is funded mainly out of CIDA resources (\$3.3 million, CUSO \$0.2 million). The project aims to assist 30,000 rural poor in 52 villages by introducing water supply, new farming practices and fish culture. A community development approach is being adopted and the project is being implemented in close cooperation with Thai NGO's and the Thai government.²⁰ Large projects are thus integrated, multi-annual, large budget operations normally implemented by CUSO with cooperation from local partners.

3.7 Mennonite Central Committee of Canada (MCCC)

(a) Organizational Purpose. The Mennonite Central Committee of Canada is part of the larger Mennonite Central Committee (MCC) which has its headquarters in Akron, Pennsylvania. It was founded as a coordinating committee for the Mennonite Brethren in Canada and the United States. As such, its purposes are broader than those of the other international development service agencies and more integrated into the overall objectives of the Mennonite Church. These objectives are outlined clearly in a 1976 paper which remains the most comprehensive statement of overall MCC policy. It states that the objectives of the MCC are,

- 1 To share resources in the name of Christ and proclaim Jesus as Lord
- 2 To establish and preserve an identity as free as possible from those nationalistic, cultural and ideological interests which are contrary to our understanding of faithfulness to Christ and to seek to meet human need in any nation regardless of political identity or affiliation
- 3 To participate in a development process based on local capacity and self-reliance, by which persons and societies come to realize the full potential of their human, natural and spiritual resources
- 4 To follow the example of Christ, in striving for justice in identifying with the weak and oppressed and in reconciling the oppressor and oppressed
- 5 To provide relief for victims of disasters in ways which encourage their maximum initiative, dignity and participation
- 6 To sensitize our constituency to the injustices and human suffering which exist at home and abroad, so that the church can participate in MCC ministries with greater understanding and follow a life style commitment consistent with Biblical and Anabaptist principles
- 7 To attempt to influence, out of our experience, public policy decisions which affect victims of war, hunger and injustice with sensitivity to and in consultation with national churches and groups to which we relate
- 8 To support and cooperate with national churches and mission boards, especially in places where Mennonite and Brethren in Christ missions and churches are present. Where no Christian groups are present, MCC'ers should see themselves as a nucleus for a Christian fellowship²¹

In its efforts to meet these objectives MCC organizes a number of different programs based in the United States, Canada and overseas. The sponsoring of development workers is thus one activity among many others that contributes to the realization of the above objectives

(b) Institutional Structure. An Annual Conference is held in January each year to elect the twelve person Executive Committee. The Executive Committee is composed of six Canadian and six United States representatives. It meets four times a year and oversees the work of the entire organization. This includes, in addition to the sponsoring of development workers overseas, the transportation of relief supplies, various refugee projects, a North American based network of Craft and Thrift stores, peace education and work with minority groups in Northern America. The total staff complement of MCC in 1985 was 190. Of this, 23 were based in the MCCC office in Winnipeg, 2 in the Ottawa office, and a further 50 in the different MCCC provincial offices. ²²

Within Canada, MCCC has responsibility for the recruitment and selection of Canadian development workers. They are interviewed at their local MCCC office, and if deemed suitable for overseas service, their resumes are forwarded to the appropriate overseas representative who makes the ultimate decision to accept the candidate. Orientation and other details of the placement process take place at MCC headquarters in

Akron

In addition to the recruitment and selection function, MCCC has responsibility for Canadian programs. These include fundraising and project submissions to CIDA, the provincial governments and the Canadian Foodgrain Bank. It also has responsibility for the placement of domestic volunteers in MCCC offices, alternate schools and other socially oriented projects, work with native groups, peace work and work on mental health issues.

(c) Budget The total MCC budget for the year ending November 30th 1985 was \$33.8 million (US) which represented an increase of 8.7% over the budget for the previous year. Of this, MCCC contributed \$13.7 million (US) or approximately 40% of total revenue.²³ This revenue came from two main sources, CIDA provided \$2.04 million (US) in direct grants, while the Canadian Foodgrain Bank provided the cash equivalent of \$7.36 million (US) in wheat and other agricultural products. Together these two sources of funding accounted for approximately 69% of total MCC Canada funds with the balance coming from a range of other provincial and church funds. MCC has a diversified funding base in Canada and in the United States.

(d) International Development Service. Of the total number of 976 in-service personnel that MCC supported in 1985, 398 were from Canada, and 564 were from the United States. The remaining 14 were from Asia, Europe, and other continents. Many of the 398 Canadians were working in MCCC or MCC offices and were not on overseas assignments in developing countries. Thus, a total of 141 Canadian development workers were working overseas in developing countries under the auspices of MCC as of January 1986.²⁴

MCC operates in six geographical regions of the world. It works in Africa, Asia, Europe, Latin America, the Middle East, and North America. In terms of the number of development workers placed in overseas development programs, it has its biggest program in Bolivia. In 1985 there were 53 MCC development workers in Bolivia, mainly in the areas of agriculture (15), education (13), health (9) and support services (8). Of this total of 53, 14 were Canadian and these were concentrated in

the sectors of education (4), support services (4) and social services (3). Like most of its other programs, the program in Bolivia is an integrated rural development program. Activities within the agricultural sector of this program included work with appropriate technology, completion of a "Family Horticulture Manual," work on pasture demonstration plots, initiation of a dairy project and a number of other demonstration and training projects. Within the education sector, MCC teachers worked in three communities supporting Bolivian teachers and providing in-service training courses to them as well as providing teachers to an agriculture training centre. In the health sector, programs included community health and education programs, a nutritional survey, a vaccine campaign, and health education courses held for small communities.

Of the 141 Canadian MCC volunteers, 16 were posted to Bangladesh, 15 to Egypt and 14 to Bolivia. The rest were spread out in all of the other countries where MCC works. Of the 141, 32 were in agricultural services, 32 were in support services, 31 were in education and 12 were in social services. The remainder were in other sectors like economic services, technical services and health 25

3.8 World University Service of Canada (WUSC)

(a) Organizational Purpose: Historically WUSC was set up to assist post-war European students and to raise awareness of international issues through development education programs. The 1985 Annual Report notes however that,

WUSC has developed primarily into an implementing agency active in the fields of training and technical assistance for developing countries 26

WUSC's main purposes are thus two-fold (a) The provision of training opportunities in Canada for students from other countries, particularly from the developing countries, and (b) the provision of Canadian development workers to work on technical assistance projects in the developing countries. It has, however, recently developed a third purpose. In response to the mounting crisis in Africa, WUSC established a Relief and Recovery Division in 1984. The purpose of this division was to initiate a relief operation in the Ogaden region of Ethiopia. Thus, in summary, WUSC can be said to have three major purposes, (i) Foreign student training in Canada; (ii) the placement of Canadian development workers overseas, and (iii) the organization of relief and recovery operations in crisis situations overseas.

(b) Institutional Structure WUSC was incorporated in 1957. It has a membership which, in 1985-86, consisted of 89 universities and colleges of Canada, 41 active local committees and 320 Alumni members. Members meet in January each year at the Annual Assembly to elect the Board of 21 Directors. The Board of Directors meets four times a year to determine overall policy.

WUSC has its head office in Ottawa and a regional office in Montreal. WUSC has a staff complement of 150, almost all of whom are based at its national headquarters. There are field offices in 17 developing countries.

Internally, WUSC has five divisions. These are, Finance and

Administration, Canadian Programs; Relief and Recovery; Program Development, and Overseas Programs. Each of these departments has specific responsibility for certain WUSC functions

The Finance and Administration division is responsible for all financial and administrative aspects of WUSC including internal accounting and personnel management. The Canadian Programs division is responsible for both student training programs and constituency services. The former refers to the coordination of over 500 students and trainees who came to Canada in 1986 while the latter refers to the servicing of the WUSC local committees, the Alumni Association and public relations and media work.

The Relief and Recovery division is responsible for a number of WUSC's programs in Ethiopia, Sudan and Zaire. These programs have been mounted in cooperation with the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), the UN Secretary General's Special Representative in Sudan, and Ethiopia Airlift. The major activity of WUSC's field relief teams has been the transportation of food to the relief regions and the distribution of seeds, blankets, clothing and soap. In areas where the relief situation has improved, WUSC has turned its attention to the establishment of longer term projects.

The Program Development Unit has a crucial role in the identification, planning and evaluation of WUSC projects. Its function is to generate new ideas for programming projects, to negotiate the details for implementation with donor agencies and to oversee the evaluation of the programs/projects at their termination.

The Overseas Programs division has two sections, an

anglophone and a francophone section. This division is also responsible for the implementation of WUSC projects and programs and the placement of development workers overseas.

(c) Budget. WUSC's budget has grown substantially in recent years reflecting expansion in its three major areas of activity. In the year ending September 30th, 1985, WUSC's total budget was \$19.34 million. This increased to \$28.66 million in the year ending September 30th 1986, an increase of 48% over the previous year.²⁷ The bulk of this increase in revenue came from the UNHCR projects which WUSC implemented in Ethiopia and Zaire.

Total CIDA revenues for the 1986 financial year amounted to \$15.56 million with approximately 50% of this coming from CIDA's Institutional Cooperation and Development Services (ICDS) Division. This sum represented 54% of WUSC's total income for the year. Of more concern for the organization may be the relatively small amounts raised by local committees and the private sector, coming to a total of \$1.79 million in 1986 and representing 6.2% of total revenue. The UNHCR and CIDA revenues, taken together, account for 84.4% of total funding.

(d) International Development Service. WUSC has a number of different programs for the placement of development workers. There were 128 general volunteers in the field in 1986, serving on 2 year contracts with a minimum level of remuneration.²⁸ 110 (86%) of these were engaged in teaching in secondary schools. The remainder came from a variety of disciplines including an architect, a doctor, two program planners, a nurse and an agro-economist. In terms of geographical location, 103 (80%) were based in the southern African countries of Botswana (32), Lesotho (31), Malawi (21) and Swaziland (19). The other

volunteers were placed in francophone African countries, the only exception being the placement of 15 teachers in Bhutan in Asia.

The WUSC Associates program originally sponsored Canadian university lecturers to teach in developing countries. Recently its mandate has been broadened to include professionals "who could play an advisory role in a range of sectors linked to development, either in government ministries or parastatal organizations and institutions" ²⁹ In 1986 there were 23 Associates serving on a wide array of projects, all but one of them in Africa. The largest Associates programs are in Malawi (4) and Zambia (4) but the group is characterized by a great deal of diversity both geographically and sectorally.

WUSC has been responsible for recruiting Canadians for the UNV program since 1974. Only 3 were recruited in 1986. An instructor of Aviation English was placed in China, a computer specialist was sent to the Congo, and an Audio-Visual specialist was sent to Mali.

In addition to its placement of general volunteers, Associates and UNV's, WUSC has also initiated a number of 'cooperant' development worker projects since 1977 in the educational, health and agricultural sectors. The largest of these in terms of cooperant numbers is undoubtedly the Zimbabwe Education Program. There were 101 teachers and teacher-trainers in the field in 1986 in rural secondary schools and teacher training colleges in Zimbabwe. Approximately 150 cooperants were working overseas under the auspices of WUSC in 1986 in Zimbabwe, Tunisia, Peru, Swaziland and the Organization of Eastern Caribbean States (OECS).³⁰

3.9 Similarities and Differences in Five Canadian International Development Service Agencies: Some Conclusions

There are a number of similarities and differences that emerge from these brief profiles of Canadian International Development Service Agencies. These are discussed below.

(a) **Organizational Purposes** There are philosophical differences between the organizations in how they view the development process. The Mennonite Central Committee of Canada emphasizes the religious vocation and sees international development service within the context of Christianity, peace and justice. This emphasis on justice is shared by CUSO which stresses the importance of working with the poorer sectors of society. The process of development for both these organizations is seen in terms of 'empowerment' and solidarity with the poor. They thus place more weight on the political aspects of international development assistance noted in chapter 2.

In contrast, WUSC and CESO emphasize the technical assistance aspects of their work. The organizational purpose is to send suitably qualified Canadians to developing countries to work on technical assistance projects. There is less concern that these projects will benefit the "poorest of the poor" and the organizations are more concerned with the "economic" aspects of a country's development.

CECI's approach appears to be something of a combination of the two. On the one hand, it has identified the rural sector as its major area of concentration, and its development workers operate mainly in agricultural and related services.³¹ On the other hand, there is an emphasis on technical skills, with the recruitment of more experienced development workers.

(b) Institutional Structure. The organizations differ in their degree of decentralization. CUSO, for example, has a highly decentralized structure both in Canada and overseas. Programming decisions are made, for the most part, in the field and the head office functions more as a coordinating centre within the organization's overall structure. WUSC on the other hand is highly centralized, with most of the project planning being concentrated within the Program Development Unit in head office. WUSC does have a number of field offices, but the organizational structure is vertical, rather than horizontal as in CUSO.

The other three agencies can be placed along this continuum from centralized to decentralized structure. A level of centralization is apparent in MCCC, through the operations of its main office in Akron, although it does have a highly developed network of overseas representatives, as well as a number of regional offices in various parts of Canada. CESO is centralized in its overseas operations, although its Canadian operation is less so. CECI also combines aspects of both high centralization and decentralization. It has regional field offices to which it devolves much of its volunteer development worker placement program. For large projects, however, it operates a much more centralized structure, with control being exerted from the head office.

Although all of the organizations have some type of membership structure, the constituencies vary considerably. CUSO is the only organization to have a broad based membership structure. The other organizations draw on support from the university, business, religious and returned development worker's sector for their members.

(c) Budget. Four of the five organizations are highly dependent on one or two sources of funding. In three of the cases examined (CUSO, WUSC and CECI) CIDA is the major source of support. In the case of CESO, CIDA and DIAND are the major funders, while only MCCC can be regarded as having a diversified funding base. The level of dependence of the organizations for their overseas operations on CIDA implies that this organization can exert considerable influence on them in terms of project and program practices.

The organizations differ in size and overall budget. CESO is the smallest, with a total of \$4.85 million. MCC is the largest although this is somewhat misleading since this incorporates substantial funds from the United States. The Canadian contribution of MCCC totals approximately \$13.68 million (US)³² with a substantial proportion of this coming from the Canadian Foodgrain Bank in the form of food grain. If the MCC contribution to MCCC is discounted, then the largest organization in terms of budget is WUSC at \$28.66 million.

(d) International Development Service. There is a diversity of program types, countries of concentration and sectors of operation among the agencies studied. In terms of the skills sought by the agencies, CESO places senior or retired executives and operates mainly in the manufacturing sector. CECI's development workers are on average 35 years of age and work in the agricultural and related rural development sectors. WUSC volunteers are younger and are almost exclusively involved in teaching in rural secondary schools. MCCC are engaged almost equally in agriculture, support services and education, within the context of their integrated rural development projects. CUSO

covers a wide range of projects and skills with a concentration in education (both formal and non-formal) and agriculture, forestry and fisheries

Geographically, the organizations again have somewhat different areas of concentration. CECI works almost exclusively in francophone Africa, while CESO's major area of concentration is Central and South America and it does almost no work in Africa. WUSC's total program of general volunteer, associate and cooperant development workers is centered almost entirely in anglophone Africa. CUSO works in all countries, including large programs in anglophone Africa, Latin America and the Pacific and West Indies. MCCC has volunteers concentrated in Africa and Asia.

Summary tables of these data are presented in Tables 4, 5 and 6 below. The tables provide indications on the range of regions, sectors and budgets within the organizations studied. A further note of caution is warranted in interpreting this data. Given the differences with which each agency presents its data, the number of different ways of calculating the total number of volunteers, the different types of sectoral categorizations used, and the differences in the financial years among agencies, these figures are at best indicative. Definitive figures should be available in the future following the study presently being carried out by Secor Consultants Inc.

TABLE 4

**Geographical Location of Development Workers in Five
Canadian International Development Service Agencies.
(No.'s of Development Workers)**

Region	CESO	CECI	CUSO	MCCC	WUSC	Total
Africa	19	178	197	59	264	717
Asia	78	3	54	39	30	204
Caribbean	55	26	22	11	---	114
Latin America	145	25	110	27	---	307
Middle East	---	---	---	5	---	5
Pacific & West Indies	---	20	101	---	---	121
Totals	297	252 ¹	484	141	294 ²	1468

¹ The higher figure for CECI development workers is used in the computation of geographical placement. It is taken from data provided on page nine of the Rapport Annuel, 1985-1986

² This figure incorporates WUSC's General Volunteers, WUSC Associates and Cooperants. The figure for cooperants, in particular, is unreliable, and is estimated from information provided in the WUSC Annual Review for 1985-1986.

TABLE 5

**Sectors of Operation of Development Workers in Five
Canadian International Development Service Organizations.
(No.'s of Development Workers)**

Sector	CESO	CECI	CUSO	MCCC	WUSC	Total
Agriculture	73	30	88	41	3	235
Business	110	---	55	---	---	165
Education	26	109	216	31	259	641
Health	26	45	57	22	5	155
Support Services	62	17	---	41	9	129
Technical Services	---	13	68	6	18	105
Totals	297	214 ¹	484	141	294 ²	1430

¹ The lower figure for the number of CECI development workers is used here, drawn from page ten of the Rapport Annuel, 1985-1986

² This figure incorporates an unreliable estimate for the number of WUSC cooperants. The figures are thus indicative of magnitude and not definitive.

TABLE 6

**Contributions to Five Canadian International
Development Service Agencies: Major sources of Revenue¹
(millions of Canadian dollars)**

Budget Item	Organizations					Total
	CESO	CECI	CUSO	MCCC ²	WUSC	
CIDA	2 83	9 8	19 69	2 85	15 56	50.73
Other Federal Gov't	1 57				1 42	2.99
Provincial Gov't & Other Agencies				0 54	0 03	0.57
Canadian Food- grains				10 28		10.28
Canadian Donors	0 45	0 51	3 33	5 43	2 06	11.78
UNHCR					8 63	8.63
Foreign Donors				13 24	0 96	14.20
Other Funds				13 77		13.77
Totals	4.85	10.31	23.02	46.11	28.66	112.95

¹ All figures are taken from the 1986 Annual Reports and Annual Reviews of the Agencies surveyed

² Figures from the MCCC Annual Workbook for 1985 are stated in United States Dollars. These have been converted at the rate prevailing at the end of December, 1985 as per note 23 in Chapter two. The rate of exchange was estimated at \$1 3970 Canadian to \$1 US.

NOTES

¹ CESO, Annual Report 1985-1986 (Toronto: CESO, 1986), p. 2

² Ibid., pp. 7,8

³ Interview with Janine Timari and Nicole Gold, CESO Offices, Toronto, April 25th, 1987

⁴ CESO, Annual Report 1985-1986, p. 20

⁵ Ibid., pp. 10-13

⁶ Ibid., p. 7

⁷ CECI, Rapport Annuel 1985-1986 (Montreal: CECI, 1986), p. 5

⁸ Ibid., pp. 19,20.

⁹ Ibid., pp. 19,20.

¹⁰ Ibid., p. 19.

¹¹ Ibid., p. 10, and see also CECI, Rapport Annuel 1984-1985 (Montreal: CECI, 1985), p. 9

¹² The figures come from CECI's 1985-1986 Annual Report. There is a discrepancy between the figures given in page nine on the pull out map and those presented overleaf in the tabular section. The tabular section indicates a total of 214 development workers in the field while the pull-out section indicates there are 252. No explanation is provided for the discrepancy.

¹³ CECI, Rapport Annuel 1985-1986, pp. 8-10.

¹⁴ CUSO's development charter commits CUSO members to the following,

(a) To increase their awareness of the causes of inequitable development and to support programmes designed to eliminate these inequities.

(b) To recognize that involvement in the development process can embrace both service in another country and action at home.

(c) By their lifestyle and work to reflect sensitivity and respect for different values and cultures.

(d) To recognize that elements in their own country may be involved in the exploitation of other peoples

(e) To support all people who seek to strengthen their country's social, economic and political development in a manner consistent with the United Nation's Universal Declaration of Human Rights

¹⁵ CUSO, Our Strength is People Working Together (Ottawa CUSO, No date), p. 2.

¹⁶ E G Thiessen, "A Profile of CUSO," (Ottawa January, 1986), Appendix 5, Table 2 (Typewritten)

¹⁷ CUSO, CUSO Annual Report 1985-1986 (Ottawa: June, 1986), p. 6

¹⁸ Thiessen, "A Profile of CUSO," Appendix 6, Table 3

¹⁹ The Cooper's and Lybrand Consulting Group, Strategic Evaluation of CUSO's Organizational Effectiveness (Ottawa: Coopers and Lybrand, 1987), p. 96.

²⁰ Ibid., p. 31

²¹ Mennonite Central Committee, "MCC Statement on Program Assumptions, Objectives and Priorities," 1/24/78, Section A. (Typewritten).

²² Mennonite Central Committee, Mennonite Central Committee Workbook 1985 (Akron, PA: Mennonite Central Committee, 1986), p. 193

²³ Ibid., pp. 171-184. Note that the funds are in US dollars. Note 1, Foreign Currency states; "The Canadian accounts are converted to the U.S. Dollar equivalent using the rate of exchange at year end."

²⁴ Ibid., p. 193. See also statement from Winnipeg office entitled "Personnel System Statistics: Canadian Origin", 12/1/86

25 Ibid

26 WUSC, WUSC 1985 Annual Review (Ottawa: WUSC, 1985), p 4

27 WUSC, WUSC 1986 Annual Review (Ottawa: WUSC, 1986), p 18

28 Ibid, pp 19,20

29 Ibid, p. 21

30 Figures for the number of WUSC cooperants are taken from the 1986 Annual Review, but these do not clearly state the exact numbers. Calculations are based on figures given in text and are a conservative estimate of the total number of cooperants.

31 This statement could be held to conflict with the figures in Table 2. However, it should be noted that most of CECI's educational activity is of a rural, informal nature. It includes substantial numbers in animation and training, management and technical education. The difficulty in categorization again highlights the need for a full survey using standardized instruments.

32 The exchange rate for the Canadian dollar at years end in 1985 was approximately 0.75 cents U.S. This gives a value of \$18.24 million (Canadian) as the total Canadian contribution to MCC

CHAPTER 4

EVALUATION PROCEDURES IN FIVE CANADIAN INTERNATIONAL DEVELOPMENT SERVICE ORGANIZATIONS

4.1 Introduction

This section analyses the evaluation procedures in use in five Canadian international development service organizations. The discussion is supplemented by information received from the United States Peace Corps, the British VSO and the Irish organization, APSO.

The chapter is organized as follows. A section outlining the procedures used for gathering the information is presented first. This section also provides an indication of the limits of the present study. The study then examines the evaluation procedures of five organizations by comparing and contrasting these procedures with each other during each phase of the project cycle.¹ A further section highlights some other issues of relevance, such as the position of the evaluation unit within the organizational structure, evaluation budgets, evaluation attitudes and philosophy, and views on the experience and skills required of evaluators and evaluation missions. Finally, some of the common elements in evaluation procedures among the agencies are considered.

4.2. Methodology and Procedures

There are a number of difficulties in carrying out research work.

in the governmental and non-governmental field. Chief among these is obtaining permission to use confidential organizational files and reports. A balance needs to be struck between the organization's need for confidentiality and the researcher's need for access to information. Even when a guarantee of confidentiality is given, organizations can be wary of researchers whom they do not know and from whom they have only a verbal agreement that anonymity will be preserved.

The present research had to be carried out in such circumstances. The five organizations surveyed were helpful in providing background information and in setting aside time for an interview. There was greater reluctance in releasing evaluation reports. It is thus intended to preserve organizational anonymity as far as possible in the discussion that follows. Agreeing to such a condition was the only means by which the present writer could have carried out this research. The procedure adopted here is similar to that used by Peter Bachrach in his examination of evaluation case studies from a number of European agencies and UNESCO. In the introduction to his study, Bachrach notes:

Though there are indications that the situation may be changing, the key characteristics of evaluations of development programmes are still decentralization and confidentiality. Both obviously hinder the identification and summarization of case studies of evaluations. . . . The cases reported on in this paper come basically from six sources: the aid agencies of France, Sweden, and the United Kingdom; the Development Centre and the Institute of Development Studies of the University of Sussex; and UNESCO. Virtually all of the cases were formally published, but concern for the sensitivities of all concerned has resulted in an effort to preserve the anonymity of the countries and institutions involved.²

Similar concern for the organizational sensitivities of those who participated in this research project has prompted the author to ensure, as far as possible, that organizational anonymity will be preserved in the discussion that follows

The basic tool for gathering information on the evaluation procedures of the the organizations studied was a guided interview (see Appendix B). The guided interview was prepared following Patton.³ It consisted of a series of key questions that related to evaluation procedures during different stages in the project cycle

The procedure used by the author was as follows; contact was established by correspondence with each of the five development agencies. This initial communication outlined the purpose of the study and requested general information on the evaluation procedures in use in the agency. Further correspondence, telephone calls and/or visits were made to meet key individuals in each organization and to discuss informally the project evaluation procedures. These preliminary contacts enabled the author to develop some hypotheses about the evaluation procedures being used. It also established a rapport between the organization and the author. Subsequently, the organizations were interviewed using the guided interview schedule described above.

These interviews were recorded on a tape-recorder by the author. All organizations except one were interviewed and recorded in this manner. In the latter case it was not possible to interview the organization and the author relied on correspondence and telephone conversations.

The author also met with representatives from the evaluation divisions of CIDA, the North-South Institute and the IDRC. These organizations outlined their evaluation procedures. In addition, they were a useful source of general information on Canadian evaluation procedures, and evaluation procedures in the non-governmental sector.

In addition to interviews and correspondence, the author reviewed, where possible, a number of evaluation reports on projects being implemented (or completed) by the agencies studied. Such reports were made available by three of the five agencies. They were made available on the understanding that the content of each report would remain confidential to the author. Reviewing the evaluation reports made it possible to compare the evaluation procedures being used internally (some of the reports were carried out by agency staff) and externally (a number of the reports were carried out by external consultants). The reports were an excellent source of information and further meta-analysis of evaluation reports in this field would be a very fruitful undertaking.

Although the initial correspondence was designed to establish contact with the Canadian organizations, it was also useful in providing supplementary and spontaneous information not covered in the guided questionnaire. In addition, detailed and useful responses were received from the three non-Canadian development service organizations studied. The United States Peace Corps drafted a detailed letter on their present evaluation procedures and provided information on past and present evaluation studies. The British Organization, VSO provided copies of its evaluation report forms and

made some general comments on the problems they encountered in their evaluation procedures. The Agency for Personal Service Overseas (APSO) shared its recently completed institutional review which contained a short section on evaluation.

The author also has considerable personal experience in the identification, implementation and evaluation of international development service projects. He taught in Malaysia for two years as a volunteer development worker with VSO and later worked for four years as a program officer with the Agency for Personal Service Overseas (APSO) in Dublin, Ireland. During that time he became familiar with the project identification and evaluation procedures being used by Irish development service organizations.

4.3 Project Identification and Planning in Five Canadian International Development Service Agencies.

Four of the five agencies interviewed drew a distinction between two types of projects. "Large projects" referred to multi-year, large budget (one million dollars and over) projects that were designed to have wide coverage (several villages, a region, etc.). Procedures for identifying and planning such projects varied in their details. There was overall agreement, however, that such projects were identified locally, sometimes through the field representative and at other times via a CIDA project officer based in the Canadian Embassy or High Commission. Following the identification of a project by the organization, a feasibility study was carried out (one agency indicated it carried out pre-feasibility studies before a more formal feasibility

study was done) The feasibility study drew up a project proposal which was subsequently submitted to donor agencies for funding. Because the donor agency in most cases was CIDA, the Logical Framework Analysis (LFA) approach was adopted at the project planning stage ⁴

For smaller projects, which generally referred to the placement of development workers, the procedures were less formal. Since CIDA was not sought as a funding partner, the LFA approach was not used. Instead, agencies set out broad criteria for project selection which were considered at the project identification and project planning ⁶ stage. All agencies agreed that the paradigm case was when the agency was spontaneously approached by the overseas partner with a clearly specified project proposal and personnel description that was consonant with the agencies project selection criteria and general objectives. All agencies also agreed that the paradigm case was rare in actual occurrence, and that the role of the field representative was crucial in the project identification and project planning stage. In almost all cases, it was considered important that the project be identified locally. The more clearly the project was specified, the easier it was to develop a personnel specification and the better the match between the needs of local partners and the skills of the development worker.

For large projects, feasibility studies consulted a range of officials in Canada and overseas with an interest in the implementation of the project. These included local partners, potential project beneficiaries, local, regional and national government officials, and other international development agencies. Feasibility studies

generally provided a descriptive analysis of the region in terms of its history, geography, social structure, economic resources and present obstacles to development. Where possible, this was supplemented by data from local sources and elsewhere. In general, feasibility studies were conducted over a two to three week period in the field, with a team of between one and three persons. None of the agencies interviewed indicated that such feasibility studies included systematic baseline surveys of the regions in which the project was situated. Two of the agencies implied that this would be desirable, particularly in terms of measuring project impact.

Data collection for small projects was not extensive. Small projects were essentially identified and planned locally and feasibility missions were not a feature of their identification or selection. The less formal procedures for selecting small projects resulted in a less detailed project specification.

4.4 Monitoring Evaluation in Five Canadian International Development Service Agencies

Monitoring evaluation provides information to project managers (and project participants) on whether the project is fulfilling its purpose.⁵ Three of the five agencies drew a distinction between the monitoring procedures used in large and small projects. In the case of large projects there are three major actors in the monitoring process: the project team, the field representative and the head office representative. Depending on the organization, the role of the field office is rendered more or less important. The basic administrative tool for the monitoring of large projects is a regular report from the

project team, usually prepared by the project head. This report is descriptive of work done since the last report, progress made on project implementation and problems encountered. It is also usually accompanied by a financial statement of income and expenditure for the period. Such reports were prepared monthly by two of the three agencies working with large projects. The report is received by the head office, sometimes via the field representative and sometimes directly, depending on line responsibility. The field representative can act as a monitoring agent of the project through periodic visits to the project site. Such visits occur with wide variability ranging from once a year to four times a year. The frequency of the visits is related to the role of the field representative in the project implementation structure.

The third element in project monitoring is normally the annual or semi-annual project review. This phase of evaluation has also been referred to as 'on-going evaluation'.⁶ The procedures for conducting an on-going evaluation involve the project team, the field representative and the field office. The annual review provides an opportunity to review progress, to note achievements and difficulties, and to plan the coming years' activities. It also provides an opportunity for the agency to formally consult with partners on the direction, speed and implementation procedures of the project. All organizations stressed the importance of the overseas partner's participation in this process.

For small projects, the monitoring procedures again vary in their details, but not in their generality. There were four actors

involved in the monitoring process of small projects. The key administrative tool was the evaluation report completed by the development worker at different stages during project implementation. One organization received quarterly reports, another received reports annually, and a third agency received reports at the end of each eighteen month period (For examples of some of these standardized reporting documents see Appendix C) Standardized reporting forms were used by three of the agencies surveyed, while in the other two agencies, headings were provided on topic areas that the development worker should cover when writing the report. Two organizations used a "project objectives approach" to small projects. Both organizations expected the development worker to complete a project analysis after a certain period of time in the field. Such an analysis would form a work plan for the remainder of the project and could be used in evaluating whether the project was meeting its objectives or not.

In all of the agencies except one, the reports were completed by the development worker and forwarded to either the field office or head office. In one agency, the report was prepared by the field representative or line manager. This was subsequently read by the development worker who signed the form and made additional comments as necessary. The form was then forwarded to the head office.

In the other four agencies the form/report was normally sent via the field representative (where there was one) for comments before being forwarded to head office for filing. Agencies that had decentralized functions normally did little processing of the forms at

head office and relied on the field office to carry out the majority of the project monitoring.

In addition to the completion of periodic field reports by the development worker, the field representative also made regular visits during the course of the project. The frequency of these visits varied considerably between and within agencies. Some agencies reported visits at least twice a year, while others reported field visits once a year, or occasionally once in the two year assignment period. The field visits offer the development worker and the local partner the opportunity to discuss the project's progress and to report on any problems in its implementation.

The monitoring of small projects also takes place during field visits by staff from head office. Again, the frequency of these visits is variable but they normally occur not more than once in the year. Such visits provide head office staff with the opportunity to observe progress on the ground. Problems in implementation can be dealt with and decisions on project extension can be discussed.

All agencies requested a final project report from their development workers. Such final reports were prepared in the same way as the interim reports. In all cases except one, the processing and monitoring of reports by the head office was ad hoc. In many cases, agencies recognized this as a weakness. Development worker's reports were filed, with little attempt made to determine the achievements of the project in the light of its objectives, or to compare reports either sectorally or geographically. Content analysis of these reports has also not been attempted with the notable exception of one agency. In this

agency, a final status report was prepared on the assignment. This was a compilation of all reports received including, (a) the initial project request, (b) the project-plan developed by the development worker, (c) the final report from the development worker (including in many cases a technical report), and (d) a final report from the project beneficiary. The final status report was prepared by analyzing these reports and noting the phases of project development and any discrepancies between implementation and objectives that emerged over time. The project evaluators in this instance also rated the projects in terms of "successful," "partially successful" and "failure."

- This was not done in any of the other agencies studied.

In all cases monitoring evaluation was essentially a descriptive process. Systematic data collection procedures were not a feature of the monitoring process, although agencies did report project data if available. No specific data collection techniques were in use in any of the agencies, and the collection of data was left to the discretion of the development worker (in the case of small projects) or the project manager (in the case of large projects). Financial data were reported as part of the budgeting and accounting process, but this was less for purposes of monitoring evaluation than for reasons of financial accountability and for the annual agency audit.

4.5 Effectiveness/Outcome Evaluation in Five Canadian International Development Service Agencies.

Effectiveness or outcome evaluation assesses whether the project is succeeding in meeting the objectives described in the

project plan. Procedures for evaluating project outcomes or effectiveness were again determined by the type of project being evaluated. Large projects were normally evaluated by outside consultants. The procedures for evaluating such projects varied in detail but contained the following major elements. The donor agency (usually CIDA), required a full evaluation report at the end of each of the phases of a project's implementation. Each phase was normally three years in length. CIDA usually selected the outside consultants to carry out the evaluation, while the terms of reference were drawn up in conjunction with the sending/implementing agency. Consultancy evaluations varied across a number of dimensions; in the time taken to complete the study, in the number of people participating, and in the cost of carrying out the study.

In general such external evaluations were carried out as follows. Key interviews were held in Canada with CIDA staff, implementing agency staff and, if necessary, other persons deemed to have relevant expertise. Files were reviewed, budgets analysed, and a clear conception of the project was formulated. This was followed by a field visit of between two to three weeks. The number of people making such a field visit varied between one and three people, often with complementary skills. The external consultants interviewed members of the field office, project personnel, government officials, local community representatives and key individuals from other agencies. Following the field visit, a report was produced which was distributed to the donor agency (CIDA) and the development service organization. This report was normally in the form of a draft and provided all

parties with the opportunity to respond critically before the final report was produced

Where possible the external consultants attempted to evaluate project effectiveness and outcomes. However, data on project outcomes were often difficult to interpret or to obtain. Many evaluation reports thus concentrated on providing a subjective, qualitative analysis based on the interpretation of a wide range of opinions. The reports also emphasized inputs rather than outputs, since the latter are harder to demonstrate and measure. Again, such reports often dealt with project coverage rather than usage. Thus, it was relatively easy to estimate the number of persons the project "covered" with reference for example to the number of people in the immediate region benefitting from the project. Whether all the people in the project region are in fact being affected by the project is harder to determine.

In small projects, the question of outcome and effectiveness evaluation was even more perplexing. One agency noted that outcome evaluations were generally not done, and where they were done they tended to be more informal than formal. Another agency noted that, with the move to a "project objectives" approach, the plan drawn up by the development worker after a period of experience in the field acted as a statement of project objectives that could later be used in determining the effectiveness of the project. Two agencies indicated that effectiveness was measured by the reports received by the project beneficiaries. If the the project beneficiaries indicated they were satisfied with the project and that the development worker had performed well, this was taken as an indication of project

effectiveness. One agency did not comment specifically about effectiveness evaluation but it was noted that it did carry out occasional (one per year) annual reviews of one of its country programs. Such annual reviews presumably made some attempt to assess effectiveness, although it is not clear how this was done.

As a general comment, respondents were less sure how to answer the question on project effectiveness, than the questions on either project identification/planning or project monitoring. This was particularly true when small projects were being discussed. This related to the perceived difficulty in clearly demonstrating project effectiveness in general, and the particular difficulty presented by the evaluation of small projects. One agency indicated that it was considering doing a follow-up study of its small projects one after project completion to determine whether or not there was a demonstrable effect.

Data collection techniques normally consisted of informal and semi-formal interviews held with key informants involved in the project implementation process. Occasionally, an opinion survey was used of project participants (both assignees and host partners). Such data were analysed informally to determine rough percentages of partner satisfaction with comparisons being made with satisfaction ratings given by assignees. Data were rarely presented on increased production figures, reduced rates of malnutrition, increased income, increased school pass rates, or other quantifiable indicators. Most indications of project effectiveness were thus anecdotal, and experimental or quasi-experimental designs were notably absent from the discussion and presentation of the reports.

4.6 Impact Evaluation in Five Canadian International Development Service Agencies

Impact evaluation refers to the overall effect of the project on the socio-economic, cultural and political environment in which it is situated. Its perspective, unlike effectiveness evaluation, is systemic in focus.⁸ Three of the five agencies did not carry out impact evaluations. A fourth agency did not provide information in this area. The fifth agency indicated it was committed to determining project impact and had occasionally carried out baseline data gathering surveys and attempted to develop social indicators of project impact. This procedure had not yet produced an impact evaluation study although an attempt was being scheduled for late 1987/1988 to gather and assess such data.

Again, the distinction was noted between large projects and small projects. Little or no work had been done on impact evaluation in small projects and the evidence was anecdotal. Three of the five agencies pointed out how difficult it was to do impact evaluation studies of small projects, more particularly in projects that did not have "direct" benefits in terms of increased productivity or quantifiable output.

With large projects, the possibility of doing impact evaluation was recognized by two of the agencies as being feasible. The difficulties in carrying out such an evaluation included selecting a valid set of social indicators, doing an accurate base-line survey and a follow-up survey at some pre-determined point in the future. One agency pointed out that systematic evaluation was newly established in the agency. A considerable amount of catching up had had to be done in other areas of evaluation.

4.7 Efficiency Evaluation

Efficiency evaluation seeks to determine whether project benefits have been produced at a reasonable cost⁹ Three of the five organizations interviewed considered efficiency evaluation to be less important than effectiveness evaluation or project relevance The fourth organization indicated that an efficient project occurred when the partner organizations needs were met by the provision of the appropriate development worker with the requisite expertise and skills If the match between the project and the development worker was poor then this was an inefficient use of resources The fifth organization did not provide details on its approach to the evaluation of project efficiency

No distinctions were drawn between large and small projects by the organizations Three of the organizations expressed reservations about the usefulness of CBA, SCBA and CEA¹⁰ Such reservations referred to the assumptions that it was possible to cost project benefits and compare levels of efficiency on this basis

4.8 Other Evaluation Issues

(a) Institutional Arrangements.

(i) Of the five organizations studied, three had evaluation units These varied in their general purpose and sophistication In one agency, two evaluation officers reported to a member of senior management Their function was to review evaluation reports from the field and compile summary reports of all overseas projects These projects were then rated as successful, partially successful or a failure. Such

summary reports were presented to the senior manager responsible for evaluation and circulated to relevant desk officers

In another agency, the "Office of Planning and Evaluation" was the responsibility of a senior manager. Responsibility included the setting of overall evaluation policy, the commissioning of external evaluations and the drawing up of terms of reference for internal and external evaluations. This organization was in the process of decentralizing the evaluation process to the regional and country level. The role of the "Office for Planning and Evaluation" was thus also to coordinate the evaluation efforts of the various regional and country offices. This evaluation unit represented the most sophisticated studied. It had produced an evaluation manual laying out the organization's evaluation philosophy and methodology, and provided information on how to carry out evaluations together with examples

In the third instance, two senior officers had responsibility for project evaluation. There was no evaluation unit and the officers' evaluation work formed part of their overall duties. Their responsibilities included the carrying out of in-house evaluations of overseas projects, in particular the large projects implemented by the agency. The officers had been chosen with complementary skills; one held a doctorate in anthropology, while the other was a graduate in statistics/ mathematics. A number of internal and external evaluations had been carried out by the agency and they intended to review the studies done to determine an overall integrated approach

One of the agencies had a program development unit which had responsibility for project identification and planning. Effectiveness

and other forms of evaluation were normally carried out by external consultants of the large projects implemented by the agency.

Although all agencies had been evaluating their projects since their inception, formal evaluation procedures were established in three of them in 1982, 1984 and 1986. All three of these agencies made the point that systematic and formal evaluation was a relatively new concept within their agency and that a lot of catching up had had to be done to develop and establish more comprehensive evaluative practices.

(ii) Only one agency indicated that it had allocated a specific percentage of total budget to the evaluation process. This was set at 1% of total annual revenue. Exact figures for expenditure on evaluation were not available from other agencies, but a rough cost estimate could be arrived at by computing the salary figures for the evaluation personnel. In all cases this figure was less than one percent of total agency income.

(iii) There was no consensus among agencies on whether evaluation should be carried out internally or externally. One agency indicated that all evaluations except monitoring and planning evaluation were carried out by external consultants. Two agencies indicated a preference for internal evaluation at every stage of the project cycle. Finally, another two agencies studied indicated that they commissioned both internal and external evaluation studies.

(b) Evaluation Constraints.

Organizations differed on the kinds of evaluation constraints they experienced. In general, however, there was consensus that the major constraints were the cost of evaluation and time. Two

organizations drew attention to the relevance of project size as a constraint to comprehensive evaluation. Comprehensive evaluations can be costly and small projects do not have the budgets to support high cost evaluations.

Another constraint that was noted by two agencies was the absence of good data. This lack of data made it difficult to analyse the effectiveness and impact of overseas projects. It also made evaluations costly, if data collection was to be carried out by the organization. Data collection and data quality were thus two of the concerns raised under this heading.

Three agencies felt they had the necessary internal resources to carry out project evaluations. One agency felt that it needed more personnel to cope with the volume of evaluation material it was receiving and processing.

(c) Attitudes to Evaluation.

Overall attitudes to evaluation varied and were not easy to assess. Of the organizations interviewed, three appeared to have positive views of evaluation and its benefits. This was characterized by the establishment of evaluation units, the vesting of personnel with responsibility for evaluation and familiarity with evaluation processes and procedures. While it would not be correct to characterize the other two agencies as having negative attitudes to evaluation, nevertheless evaluation was less of an agency priority. In one agency it was felt that "more intuitive approaches" to the evaluation of its activities was preferable to comprehensive, formal evaluation. In another agency, concern was expressed that evaluation might interfere in the planning

and implementation of overseas projects.

Different evaluation philosophies were evident during the interviews held with the different agencies. Probably the clearest dichotomy to describe was a difference between the agencies in their attitudes to quantification. Two agencies indicated that they felt that quantified evaluation procedures were less useful than other more qualitative approaches. Two other agencies indicated that their approach was mainly qualitative, but this was due to external constraints rather than preference. One agency had developed a clear commitment to "participatory evaluation" while another had a clear view of evaluation as an integral part of the "action-research" process. Another agency expressed a preference for "activity-focused" evaluation.¹¹

(d) Evaluator Skills and Evaluation Missions.

Differences existed among agencies in their perception of the personal and professional characteristics required of an evaluator. One agency stressed common sense and integrity and expressed concern that in some cases it was in the evaluators own interests to modify reports to make them acceptable to the commissioning agency. Failure to do so could result in the evaluator being overlooked in the next round of contracts. Another agency felt that an evaluator should have a knowledge of evaluation methodology, a knowledge of the development process, a knowledge of non-governmental organizations and an understanding of the agency for whom the evaluation was being carried out.

Sectoral expertise was felt to be important by three agencies if

the project being evaluated required specific technical skills. One agency expressed the view that evaluation missions should be composed of a minimum of two persons with complementary expertise. Such missions should have a minimum of two months to carry out the evaluation. Four weeks should be spent in the field of which three would be at the project site and the fourth in wider consultation with national government officials, other international development agencies and local experts.

4.9 Summary and Review.

Evaluation systems, methodologies, procedures and practices varied widely in the agencies studied, and within agencies between large and small projects. Comprehensive and formal evaluation is a relatively new phenomenon in all agencies, and is more likely to be carried out on large projects. Large projects are also more likely to be evaluated by external consultants. Small projects are evaluated less formally and less rigorously.

Agencies carry out more extensive planning and monitoring evaluation than effectiveness, impact or efficiency evaluation. They allocate a maximum of one percent of total revenue to formal evaluation and in many cases the amount allocated is substantially less. There are differences in agency attitudes to evaluation, and in the selection of an appropriate evaluation methodology. The emphasis of all agencies is on qualitative rather than quantitative evaluations, formative rather than summative evaluations¹² and on project inputs and project coverage rather than project outputs and project usage. The policy implications of this analysis are detailed in the final chapter which follows.

NOTES

¹ For further discussion on the Project Cycle, see for example, CIDA, Project Evaluation. Perspective and Methodology (Ottawa: CIDA Evaluation Division, October 1977), p. 23-45, and Howard E. Freeman, Peter H. Rossi and Sonia R. Wright, Evaluating Social Projects in Developing Countries (Paris: Development Studies Centre, OECD, 1979).

² Peter Bachrach, Evaluating Development Programmes: A Synthesis of Recent Experience, Occasional Papers in Experiences in Rural Development, No. 3. (Paris: OECD Development Centre, 1977), p. 1.

³ Michael Quinn Patton, Practical Evaluation (Beverly Hills: Sage, 1982), Chapt. 6, especially pp. 163-164.

⁴ See CIDA, Project Evaluation, 1977.

⁵ Monitoring evaluation is discussed extensively in Freeman, Rossi and Wright, Evaluating Social Projects in Developing Countries, pp. 77-100. See also Daniel Pietro, gen. ed., Evaluation Sourcebook for Private and Voluntary Organizations (New York: ACF/AVS, 1983), pp. 33-34.

⁶ CIDA, Project Evaluation. Perspective and Methodology, p. 24.

⁷ Freeman, Rossi and Wright, Evaluating Social Projects in Developing Countries, pp. 103-163.

⁸ For further discussion on impact evaluation, see Henry Riecken and Robert Boruch, eds., Social Experimentation: a Method for Planning and Evaluating Social Interventions (New York: Academic Press, 1975).

⁹ For an overview of the issues, see Freeman, Rossi and Wright, Evaluating Social Projects in Developing Countries, pp. 165-193.

¹⁰ CBA refers to Cost-Benefit-Analysis; SCBA refers to Social-Cost Benefit Analysis; and CEA refers to Cost-Effectiveness-Analysis.

¹¹ For definitions of these and other terms see Michael Scriven, Evaluation Thesaurus (Inverness, Calif Edge Press, 1981)

¹² For the distinction see Michael Scriven, "The Methodology of Evaluation", in David Hamilton, David Jenkins, Christine King, Barry MacDonald and Malcolm Parlett, Beyond the Numbers Game. A reader in Educational Evaluation, (London MacMillan Education, 1977), pp 126-129

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CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSIONS AND POLICY RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 The Changing Environment of International Development Assistance

In chapter two it was argued that the international development service agencies today find themselves in a more hostile international development assistance environment. This has led to changes in the role and skills of the development worker, in the types of projects supported in the developing countries, and in the sources of finance for project support. This issue of funding emerges as a critical one from the analysis of the five agencies presented in chapter three.

Agencies have adopted a variety of funding strategies in an effort to adapt to the changing policy environment of the 1980's. Some agencies have placed the emphasis on diversifying their funding base and are seeking to implement projects for other donor agencies, particularly multilateral donors like the UNHCR. Others have sought to expand their domestic fundraising efforts to increase the total percentage of funds contributed by the Canadian public to their agency. The two strategies are not exclusive but both have limitations. Given the annual expenditure of the agencies analysed in this paper, it is unlikely (with the exception of MCCC) that they will be able to extricate themselves from reliance on CIDA funding. Indeed, all the signs are that, with the shift to large project funding through CIDA's country focus program, the agencies will become more financially dependent on CIDA funding. It is in this context that the need for a clearly articulated evaluation policy becomes evident.

Even if the international development service agencies remain unconvinced about the value of evaluation for program planning and improvement, the external constraints imposed on them from outside will make it hard for them to avoid developing a more comprehensive evaluation strategy

5.2 Towards a More Comprehensive Evaluation Strategy

It is clear from the analysis of the five agencies studied that they are all involved in evaluating their projects and programs. The evaluation procedures used have been developed on an ad hoc basis. The emphasis has been placed on project planning, implementation, and performance monitoring of development workers. The agencies have not sought to develop a systematic evaluation strategy embodying effectiveness, impact and efficiency evaluation. It is clear that these agencies will come under increasing pressure to evaluate their projects more formally. It is also important that the NGO community at large recognize the value of evaluation and seek to incorporate a comprehensive strategy into the project planning and implementation process. Systematic evaluation is the best means of providing agencies with accurate feedback on the projects they implement. It thus has tremendous potential as a programming tool to improve project planning and implementation.

Traditionally, the international development service agencies as a group have relied on a project evaluation strategy that is implicit rather than explicit, informal rather than formal, and internal rather than external. A shift to a more systematic evaluation strategy seeks to make

the evaluation process explicit, formal and external as well as internal. In the development assistance environment of the 1980's, international development service agencies must seek to convince not only their donors but the general public and doubting members of the aid community about the validity and worth of the development service concept. They need an evaluation strategy better designed to convince a sceptical audience.

A comprehensive evaluation strategy (CES) has been outlined by Freeman, Rossi and Wright as follows:

A comprehensive evaluation of a contemplated social programme would ordinarily include all four sets of questions mentioned above [project planning questions, project monitoring questions, impact assessment questions and efficiency questions] starting with the planning phase questions and ending with estimates of costs to benefit or effectiveness. For already designed and in-place social programmes, comprehensive evaluations consist only of answering the last three sets of question, starting with the project monitoring questions and ending with issues involving cost effectiveness.¹

The comprehensive evaluation strategy suggested here covers essentially the same elements as the strategy suggested by Freeman, Rossi and Wright. It draws a distinction, however, between effectiveness/outcome evaluation and impact evaluation which is not present in their work. Impact evaluation, in the sense used by Freeman, Rossi and Wright is similar to effectiveness/outcome evaluation as used here. It refers to evaluation which measures the immediate project outputs and the success of the project in meeting its objectives.

The term "impact evaluation" is used, it will be recalled, for assessing the global macro-economic effects of the project in the longer term

The key elements of a comprehensive evaluation strategy are as follows,

(a) CES integrates the evaluation process into the project planning and implementation process. Evaluation becomes an important tool in programming and is not an afterthought. Freeman, Rossi and Wright note that evaluation can be viewed as a sequential activity.² Before evaluating a project's impact, one must first ascertain if the project was effectively implemented. Evaluation at the implementation stage precedes evaluation at the effectiveness/ outcome stage. Similarly, efficiency evaluation is contingent upon the project's demonstrated effectiveness. This sequential nature of CES implies that the necessary baseline data gathering and monitoring procedures be in place at the project planning stage. Frequently, evaluation studies report a failure to gather the necessary baseline data for later phases of evaluation. The failure to adequately plan to evaluate makes it difficult to analyse project effectiveness, impact or efficiency. The evaluators have to rely, by necessity, on opinion surveys and other more qualitative evaluation procedures.

The emphasis placed on data collection through baseline community surveys and the analysis of existing social survey data available within the project region is another essential element of CES. Such a strategy does not replace the more qualitative approaches being utilized presently. Qualitative and quantitative analysis are not competitive but complementary approaches.³ Over reliance on either of these techniques is undesirable. Quantitative data analysis can be

particularly persuasive when agencies address more sceptical audiences. The application of such techniques is likely to be a growing requirement of large project evaluations funded by CIDA or the multilateral development agencies.

Agencies are likely to object to the implementation of CES on a number of practical and theoretical grounds. The objections have merit and need to be considered. The practical problems associated with CES are discussed below in section 5.3. The theoretical difficulties will be dealt with briefly here. The first of these argues that CES is an inappropriate strategy for human resource development projects which have qualitative rather than quantitative "outputs". This objection may have had more relevance when Canadian international development service agencies were entirely involved in small project programming. It has less relevance for agencies that are becoming substantially more involved in community based programming. Even in the case of small project implementation, however, there are many ways of collecting and analysing data that would assist in the project evaluation process. Some practical suggestions in this area are presented in section 5.4.

A second objection raised by the NGO community relates to management styles. Many agencies are committed to non-hierarchical managerial styles and prefer to operate a "horizontal" as opposed to "vertical" organizational structure. Project evaluation methodologies which place emphasis on quantitative data analysis and efficiency are regarded as reinforcing hierarchical organizational structures, and as having a disempowering effect on the project beneficiaries. While there is no doubt that CES has been used for the most part within

hierarchical institutions, there is nothing inherent in the techniques that makes them hierarchical. Specialists are required in all organizations and it is the manner or style in which they exercise their specialization which becomes the critical issue. The author sees no necessary conflict in implementing a comprehensive evaluation strategy within either an "action-research" or "participatory" style of evaluation.

5.3 Policy Implications for Canadian International Development Service Agencies

The adoption of a comprehensive evaluation strategy has a number of policy implications:

(a) The need to develop an evaluation policy. Only one of the five agencies surveyed had developed a clearly articulated evaluation policy. Two agencies had produced evaluation manuals. Other agencies had put many of the elements of an evaluation structure in place but without any overall evaluation policy or set of institutional guidelines. This approach has created deficiencies in their evaluation procedures. It has led to an emphasis on the project identification and monitoring phases of the project cycle and a relative neglect of the evaluation of project effectiveness, impact and efficiency. It is therefore critical that agencies develop a definitive evaluation policy which details the function of project evaluation within the agency, its role in all phases of the project cycle, the methodologies that are acceptable, the evaluation style and the institutional, financial and human resources that are available to carry it out. An evaluation manual should also be produced which specifies how project evaluations are to be conducted within the agency together with examples of the evaluation strategy proposed.

(b) The need for an evaluation budget Evaluation can be expensive Agencies are concerned that funds set aside for project evaluation are diverted away from more urgent needs in program implementation. This view separates evaluation from programming and disregards the potential savings made through better project planning A comprehensive evaluation strategy demands that agencies increase their expenditure on evaluation It is recommended that such expenditure be set at two percent of total agency revenue This would, in all agencies, substantially expand the funds available to carry out project evaluation It is impossible to escape the conclusion that evaluation procedures will not improve unless financial resources are channelled into the area by the agencies themselves In an effort to reduce the initial burden on the agencies an approach could be made to CIDA for special and additional funds for the development and/or expansion of an evaluation unit within each of the development agencies

(c) The need for personnel trained in project evaluation Agencies also need to examine their personnel policies and resources Evaluation has traditionally been carried out by project planners, field officers and head office administrators with limited experience in project evaluation methodologies Personnel experienced in data analysis, cost-benefit analysis and survey techniques have not generally been sought If evaluation is to play a more central role in all aspects of project implementation, there are implications for the training and hiring practices of the international development service agencies It is important that project teams incorporate personnel with expertise in carrying out baseline surveys and developing project monitoring processes Where possible, such expertise should be used or developed

locally by employing nationals as consultants and using local third level institutions.

(d) The need for an in-house evaluation unit The development of CES within agencies will require institutional support and coordination. Exact institutional arrangements will vary among agencies, but a minimum requirement is the establishment of an in-house evaluation unit with a degree of independence from other units within the overall organizational structure. The evaluation unit would have responsibility for coordinating the evaluation work of the agency, participating in drawing up terms of reference of external evaluations requested by donor agencies, ensuring that the evaluation requirements as outlined in the evaluation manual are being implemented, and initiating internal evaluations of agency projects. Such a unit would also act as a resource to project teams and project planners and maintain an up-to-date library of evaluation reports and relevant academic literature. An important responsibility of the unit would be to cooperate with other agencies in developing and expanding the knowledge of evaluation strategies, models, styles and techniques that can be used by the international development service agencies.

(e) Although much of the necessary evaluation work can be done by the in-house evaluation unit, there is also a need for outside consultants. External consultants are more impartial and lend a necessary objectivity to the evaluation process. On large projects, there may be a need for external consultants to be involved at the project planning stage in order to ensure that appropriate data are collected. External consultants could also play a useful role in helping agencies develop formal evaluation procedures suited to their needs.

(f) The need for evaluation workshops. There is a need for more systematic research among evaluation professionals and the NGO community on appropriate methods for evaluating small projects. Initially, a working group of the Canadian Council for International Cooperation (CCIC)⁴ could meet to discuss the issues and to develop some proposals. A series of workshops on evaluation methodology could be organized to further the debate in this area. This workshop series would examine the issues and difficulties that the NGO community confronts in carrying out comprehensive evaluations and would seek solutions to these problems through the commissioning of research reports and discussion documents. Such discussions should also be stimulated at the international level through the Regional Conference for International Volunteer Service (RCIVS)⁵ in Europe and through CCIVS at the global level.

(g) The need for a recipient country perspective. The promotion of international and national cooperation is important for other reasons. Project evaluation is normally seen from the point of view of the implementing agency or the donor agency. Rarely is it seen from the perspective of the developing country. But the implementation of a project in a developing country constitutes a social intervention that can have positive or negative consequences. The margin for error in many such developing communities is very small. Planning such social interventions in the developing countries are more critical than if they were to take place within Canada. It is thus crucial that social interventions be well planned, well executed and comprehensively evaluated. It is also important that agencies strengthen the developing countries' capacity to carry out this kind of evaluation activity.

themselves. International and national cooperation among the development agencies can contribute to the formation of a view of evaluation that incorporates the perspective of the developing country. Such a perspective would stress the importance of developing local evaluation expertise through the third level institutions, of using local consultants to carry out baseline surveys and other evaluation procedures and of encouraging community participation in the project planning and evaluation process.

5.4 Some Practical Suggestions

The agencies surveyed in this study held different views on the value of project evaluation. All of them had taken steps to establish more formal evaluation procedures in recent years. Most of this work has been carried out in a vacuum, and the agencies are isolated from each other in their policy development. The workshops proposed above, and greater national and international efforts to debate the need to adopt CES will go some way to relieving this sense of isolation. In the short term, however, there are some practical steps that agencies could take to improve their present evaluation procedures. These are discussed below in relation to large and small project evaluation.

(a) Large Project Evaluation

(i) Agencies operating large projects should formally adopt the logical framework analysis method of project planning. This would recognise the de facto situation and would enable them to assess better the strengths and weaknesses of the approach and to adapt it to their needs.

(ii) Agencies should collect baseline data through community or regional surveys and make use of secondary sources of data (such as censuses, other agency surveys or locally gathered community data) where possible. In the process, they should seek to strengthen their own data gathering and analysis expertise and to develop such expertise locally within the communities in which they work.⁶

(iii) Agencies should develop suitable project monitoring indicators that will enable the project team to analyse the ongoing appropriateness of the project. Such data should be gathered regularly and systematically and should be integrated into the project plan to enable a more extensive effectiveness evaluation to be carried out.

(iv) More time should be allocated for conducting an evaluation mission. The maximum time allocated to project evaluation missions at present is four person months. More frequently, project evaluations are carried out over a two month period, with one month spent in the field. This is not a sufficient duration to carry out a full and comprehensive evaluation of large projects. There are some doubts as to the appropriateness of the accepted method of carrying out project evaluations. Evaluators are not in the field for a long enough period to gain the trust of key partners and individuals. They are often unfamiliar with the culture, language and setting of the project. They have to quickly adapt to climate, local conditions and travel constraints. Evaluation is usually done in a hurry and unanticipated project effects are rarely systematically addressed. Different and opposing perspectives within the community are not systematically sought. It is recommended that the evaluation of large projects be built into the

project plan and that an evaluation function be assigned to one of the team members.⁷ External evaluations should be conducted by local consultants in conjunction with the evaluator from the project team. Such evaluations could be planned and executed in the developing country. This would solve the problem of time constraints imposed by evaluators based in the developed countries.

(v) Agencies need to develop criteria on which of their projects to evaluate. Sufficient funds are unlikely to be available for all projects to be evaluated comprehensively at the same time. Decisions on which projects to prioritize for evaluation should be made with reference to such factors as number of people covered by the project, geographical size of the project region, innovative nature of the project, size of the project budget and amenability of the project to comprehensive evaluation.

(b) Small Project Evaluation

Small project evaluation is in most cases a rather different exercise to large project evaluation. A number of practical suggestions can be made to improve project evaluation procedures in this sector.

(i) Agencies should draw a greater distinction between the project and the assignee. It is often assumed that an assignee who returns early represents a project failure. The project should be clearly separated from the assignee, and the project should be evaluated independently of whether the assignee returned early or not. Conversely, the non-early return of assignees is not an indication, as it is often taken to be, of project success.

(ii) Agencies should move in the direction of a "project's

objectives" approach to small project programming. This procedure draws the development worker into the project planning process and sets agreed project objectives following an initial period of project familiarization. This approach is particularly appropriate in the light of the observed shift from formal sector to informal sector project placements. Less structured work environments demand a greater degree of responsibility be exercised by the development worker and the implementing agency. Failure to meet the project objectives, or the development of additional and/or alternative objectives, can then be monitored and the project evaluated more effectively. Such monitoring can be done by the development worker in conjunction with the immediate line-manager and the field office. Final project evaluation should concentrate on whether the objectives were appropriate, whether they were met by the development worker and whether the project should be continued. Agencies should also adopt the system of rating their small projects as "successful," "partially successful" or "failure."

(iii) Agencies should give greater consideration to identifying the different levels at which project evaluation can take place. Evaluation can occur at the level of the "singular project", and this is the level that is normally considered. It can also take place at the level of the "integrated placement" or at the level of "program placement" as noted in chapter two. Evaluation at these levels permits a greater aggregation of data and a broader view of the achievements of the overall project or program. Teachers' programs can be evaluated by taking each teacher as a unit of analysis to assess the impact and effectiveness of this form of assistance on the educational sector of the

country⁸ Integrated rural development projects, or other integrated projects, can be evaluated at the level of the overall aims and objectives of the "integrated project" rather than at the level of the individual placement. Agencies should conduct more meta-evaluations by carrying out content analyses of existing evaluation reports. Such meta-evaluations can reveal strengths and weaknesses in existing evaluation arrangements and suggest ways of improving the agency's evaluation procedures. Meta-evaluations are not costly and are a useful step in the development of an agency's overall evaluation policy.

(v) Agencies should conduct follow-up evaluations of their projects after completion. Such evaluations must be carried out with due regard for unbiased sampling procedures. Follow-up evaluations will answer a number of questions about the longer term effectiveness and impact of the small projects implemented by the agency. At present, many agencies report anecdotal evidence of project effectiveness following project implementation. This anecdotal evidence needs to be supplemented by a more formal survey of the range of agency projects to assess to what extent projects implemented in the past have had an effect or an impact. Such follow-up evaluations could take place one, five and ten years after project implementation to determine the immediate and subsequent effects on the community.

(vi) Agencies should develop more sophisticated methods of assessing the cost-effectiveness and efficiency of their projects. Although there are a number of methodological and theoretical barriers to be overcome, the agencies, making use as they do of relatively low-cost personnel, are likely to have a competitive advantage over

other organizations in this area. This competitive advantage needs to be demonstrated and documented more adequately so that the efficiency of these organizations emerges more clearly.⁹

5.5 Final comments

This thesis has explored how five international development service agencies evaluate their projects and programs. The analysis reveals a need for these agencies to expand their evaluation activities and to adopt a comprehensive evaluation strategy. In some agencies the elements of such a strategy are being put into place. In others the process is just beginning. More work needs to be done within and between agencies on developing more appropriate evaluation strategies to meet the challenges of the 1980's.

The results of this study are generalizable to other Canadian international development service agencies and to North American and European agencies. Private correspondence from the US Peace Corps, the British VSO and the Irish APSO lends credence to the view that evaluation policies and procedures in these agencies are at an early stage of development internationally. The results are also generalizable beyond the specific area of international development service to the non-governmental organizations generally. NGO's have been slow to accept the need for comprehensive evaluation for the same reasons as the international development service organizations. They confront the same general development assistance environment, are increasingly dependent on CIDA funding and thus face a similar need to develop a comprehensive evaluation strategy.

The present study was exploratory in nature. There are a number of other areas of further research that would be of practical benefit. Research on the 'project objectives' approach for small projects is necessary to develop a comprehensive evaluation strategy in this sector. More meta-evaluations would highlight the strengths and weaknesses of existing approaches to evaluation in this area. Further research needs to be done on the decreasing number of Canadian development workers serving overseas and the implications of this for development education and intercultural learning.

Techniques for effectiveness, impact and efficiency evaluation need to be developed which are cost effective in themselves and adapted to small project analysis. Particular emphasis needs to be placed on the problems and constraints of comprehensive evaluations that take place in a cross-cultural environment.¹⁰

This thesis represents an evaluation of the evaluation procedures of five development organizations. It thus constitutes a meta-evaluation. It, in turn, can be evaluated in different ways. The author's criterion is that it be used to provoke discussion and debate and to further the development of evaluation procedures in the NGO community.

NOTES

¹ Howard E. Freeman, Peter H. Rossi and Sonia Wright, Evaluating Social Projects in Developing Countries (Paris: OECD Development Studies Centre, 1979), p. 35

² Ibid., p. 35

³ See, for example, Thomas D. Cook and Charles S. Reichardt, eds., Qualitative and Quantitative Methods in Evaluation Research (Beverly Hills: Sage, 1979)

⁴ CCIC is the umbrella organization for all Canadian non-governmental organizations. One of its roles is to stimulate discussion and policy formation on critical issues facing the NGO community.

⁵ RCIVS is an umbrella organization for European non-governmental and semi-governmental international development service organizations. It organizes an annual colloque on themes relevant to development service. Its headquarters is in Bonn, West Germany.

⁶ Agencies would find it useful to consult the following, Louise White, An Approach to Evaluating the Impact of Aid Projects. AID Program Design and Evaluation Methodology Report No. 5 (Washington, D.C.: AID, March 1986). Also relevant is the following unpublished proposal, Peace Corps, "African Food Systems Initiative: Project Outcome Indicators Questionnaire," Washington: Peace Corps Office of Planning and Policy Analysis, undated (Typewritten).

⁷ For an interesting practical example of the operation of an on-site evaluation unit see World Bank, Measuring Project Impact: Monitoring and Evaluation in the Pider Rural Development Project - Mexico. World Bank Staff Working Paper No. 332 (Washington D.C.: World Bank, 1979).

⁸ The author has developed a proposal to evaluate the Zimbabwe Expatriate Teachers' Program in this manner. Over 1,000 teachers from Canada, Britain, Ireland, West Germany and Australia work in the schools in Zimbabwe. Such a large number of teachers permits the possibility of a sophisticated quasi-experimental evaluation design.

⁹ For some ideas on what can be achieved in this area readers should consult Jim Utterback and Steven R Heyman, "An examination of Methods in the Evaluation of Volunteer Programs " Evaluation and Program Planning 7 (1984) 229-235

¹⁰ See Abraham S Ross, "Practical Problems Associated with Programme Evaluation In Third World Countries " Evaluation and Program Planning 7 (1984) 211-218

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APPENDIX A
GUIDED INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

GUIDED INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

General Agency Information.

Name of Agency.....

Name of Contact.....Date.....

1. How many development workers served overseas in 1986?

Provide breakdown by age, sex, professional skills and marital status

2. What were their terms of service?

Duration of service and type of contract (volunteer, local contract, professional, other)

3. What were the five major sectors of service provided?

Education, health, agriculture, small industry, cooperatives, community development, women, other

4. What is the major purpose of your agency in sending Development Workers/ Cooperants to work overseas?

Technical assistance? Counterpart Training? Agents of Change? Economic Development? Social Development? Intercultural Learning? Other?

5. Does your agency place development workers singly or in groups?

6. What are the 5 countries to which most development workers were sent in 1986?

7. What major trends do you notice in the area of overseas development service?

8. Resource available for consultation.

- annual reports
- evaluation manuals
- evaluation reports
- agency experts
- books and periodicals
- thesis/studies

APPENDIX B
INTERVIEW GUIDE

EVALUATION STRATEGIES IN CANADIAN DEVELOPMENT SERVICE ORGANIZATIONS: AN INTERVIEW GUIDE.

Name of Agency.....

Name and Position of
Respondent.....

Date..... Time.....

1. Project Planning

- How are projects planned in your agency?
- What techniques are used in carrying out project planning?
- Who plans projects in your agency?
- What data are sought and collected?
- Where does the authority lie for project approval/disapproval?
- Is evaluation integrated into the project planning process?
- Who/what is consulted during the planning process?

2. Project Monitoring

- How are projects monitored in your agency?
- What techniques are used in monitoring projects?
- Who monitors projects in your agency?
- What data are sought and collected?
- Who/what is consulted during the monitoring process?

3. Outcome/ Effectiveness Evaluation

- How does your agency evaluate project outcomes?
- Who carries out the outcome evaluations?
- What data collection techniques are used?
- Are unanticipated outcomes sought?
- How is this done?
- Who carries out the evaluations?

4. Impact Evaluation

- How does your agency evaluate project impact?
- What impacts are evaluated?
- Who carries out the impact evaluations?
- What data is sought?
- Are specific research designs used?
- Are unanticipated impacts sought?
- If so, how?
- Who is consulted during the course of an impact evaluation?

5. Efficiency Evaluation

- How does your agency evaluate project efficiency?
- What techniques are used?
- How is data collected to measure efficiency?
- Who carries out efficiency evaluations?
- Who is consulted during the course of an efficiency evaluation?

6. Factors Affecting Evaluation

- What are the most important factors affecting the decision to carry out an evaluation in your agency?
- What is the overall budget allocated to evaluation in your agency as a percentage of total budget?
- Who within the agency has responsibility for project evaluation?
- What skills exist within the agency to carry out project evaluation?
- How are evaluation reports used in the agency?
- What projects are prioritized for evaluation?
- Why are they so prioritized?
- What problems do you encounter with evaluation in your agency?

APPENDIX C

SAMPLES OF PROJECT MONITORING REPORTS

VOLUNTEER CONSULTANT'S REPORT OF ASSISTANCE RENDERED

Please complete on site when your assignment has terminated and send to CESO OPERATIONS CENTRE within two weeks after project completion date. If you require more space, include additional sheets of paper.

Project No. _____ Country _____ Purpose _____

Volunteer _____ Client _____ Date _____

1. Give a detailed description of the problem and the actual assistance rendered in sequence of action. If applicable, include any circumstances affecting the project such as relations with client, working conditions, illness, etc.

RAPPORT SUR L'AIDE FOURNIE PAR LE CONSULTANT VOLONTAIRE

Veillez remplir sur les lieux lorsque votre engagement est terminé et envoyez ce rapport au CENTRE DES OPERATIONS DU SACO dans l'intervalle de deux semaines après la date d'achèvement du projet. Si vous désirez plus d'espace, ajoutez d'autres feuilles de papier.

Projet No _____ Pays _____ But _____

Volontaire _____ Client _____ Date _____

1. Donnez une description détaillée du problème et de l'aide réelle fournie selon les étapes de l'exécution. S'il y a lieu, indiquez toutes les circonstances affectant le projet telles que relations avec le client, conditions de travail, maladie, etc.

VOLUNTEER-CONSULTANT'S REPORT OF ASSISTANCE RENDERED

Project No. _____ Country _____ Volunteer _____

2. How do the results achieved compare with the conditions to be altered and the goals outlined in the Project Work-Plan? Comment on any significant differences between your Work-Plan and the achieved results.

3. How will this project benefit the client, it's employees and/or other people or enterprises?

RAPPORT SUR L'AIDE FOURNIE PAR LE CONSULTANT VOLONTAIRE

Projet No _____ Pays _____ Volontaire _____

2. Comment les résultats obtenus se comparent-ils aux conditions à changer et aux objectifs décrits dans le plan d'exécution du projet? Faites des commentaires concernant toutes différences marquées entre votre plan d'exécution et les résultats obtenus.

3. Comment ce projet profitera-t-il au client, à ses employés et/ou à d'autres gens ou entreprises?

VOLUNTEER-CONSULTANT'S REPORT OF ASSISTANCE RENDERED

Project No. _____ Country _____ Volunteer _____

4. What improvements and changes have already been accomplished and what recommendations or plans are still to be carried out? If you were to visit this client a year from now, where would you look to evaluate the ultimate effect of your work?

5. How could this project have been made more effective by a) CESO, b) the client, or c) the Overseas Representative?

Canadian Executive Service Organization
Operations Centre,
1867 Yonge Street, Suite 200,
Toronto, Ontario, CANADA
M4S 1Y5

Encl/Envelope

RAPPORT SUR L'AIDE FOURNIE PAR LE CONSULTANT VOLONTAIRE

Projet No _____ Pays _____ Volontaire _____

4. Quelles améliorations et changements ont déjà été accomplis et quelles sont les recommandations ou plans qui restent à exécuter? Si vous deviez rendre visite à ce client dans un an, que chercheriez-vous pour évaluer l'effet ultime de votre travail.

5. Comment ce projet aurait-il pu être plus efficace, par a) le SACO, b) le client, ou c) le représentant outre-mer?

ZIMBABWE PROGRAMME - FINAL POST REPORT

NAME: _____ Date: _____

JOB TITLE: _____

NAME OF SCHOOL/COLLEGE: _____

ADDRESS OF SCHOOL/COLLEGE: _____

This report is to be completed near the end of your contract in Zimbabwe. Its purpose is to obtain your opinions on your job and on the programme as a whole.

In addition to this report we would welcome any good photographs.

Please return the completed report via your Field Director.

Thank you,

Richard C. Day
Manager
Zimbabwe Programme

1. What would you consider the successes and the failures of your time in Zimbabwe?

2. How satisfying have you found the work and the social aspects of being a co-operant in Zimbabwe?

3. Could you have been better prepared? In what way?

4. What should WUSC be doing that it isn't? What is it doing that it shouldn't?

5. What suggestions do you have for new volunteers -
a) specific to your particular posting?

b) generally to those entering the country?

6. What items do you recommend future volunteers bring with them to the country?
(Anything advisable not to take?)

7. Please comment on mail delivery. How long did it take to receive mail
(air/surface) from Canada? Any restrictions?

8. Do you think that there is justification for replacing you with another
WUSC cooperant? If yes, please outline recommendations for the best kind of
recruit. If no, please explain.

9. Please comment on the availability of food and services in Zimbabwe.

10. Was your salary and/or allowance adequate?

PERFORMANCE EVALUATION REPORT (PER)
Mennonite Central Committee

21 S. 12th Street
Akron, PA 17501

201 - 1483 Pembina Highway
Winnipeg, Manitoba R3T 2C8

NAME _____

EVALUATOR _____

Relationship of Evaluator to Worker _____

Assignment Location _____

A. The Assignment

1. Assignment Title:

2. Program Responsibilities:

3. Other MCC Responsibilities:

B. Work Performance

This part of the evaluation is designed to describe how the worker plans, executes, and evaluates his/her work. Provide information which identifies the worker's strengths and limitations in each area. Evaluate work performance, not personality characteristics.

1. Organizing work (planning, goal setting, time management, etc.)

2. Execution of work (creativity, initiative, decision-making, co-operation, quality of work, co-operation with MCC program).

3. Evaluation of work (measures work progress, follow-through, makes necessary modifications).

C. Relational and Cultural Factors

Please describe in detail how this worker's strengths and limitations in the following areas contribute to effectively meeting the demands of the assignment. Consider both relationships with colleagues and with others with whom he/she has contact.

1. Communication skills (speaking, listening, respecting opinions, etc.)

2. Leadership (supervision, delegation, tolerance, trust, self-appraisal, etc.)

3. For overseas assignments: Cultural adjustment and language (respect for nationals, language competence, flexibility, lifestyle, relationships with the MCC team).

For North American assignments: Adjustment to the new location (respect for and understanding of local people, flexibility, lifestyle, relationships in unit life).

For headquarters assignments: Adjustment to the office (respect for co-workers, flexibility, understanding of MCC).

D. General

1. How does this worker integrate and demonstrate Christian faith in his/her assignment (participation in local church, relationship to local Christians, etc.)?

2. To what extent do present responsibilities make use of this person's abilities, interests, training, and experience? For which other jobs within MCC (overseas and domestic) is he/she potentially qualified?

3. In light of this person's long-range expectations and potential, is another term of service indicated? Consider personal, professional, vocational, health, family, financial factors, etc.
4. What plans have been made for growth in the areas identified as needing improvement (personal, counselling, study, further orientation, etc.)?
5. What enrichment experiences are recommended that would increase this person's effectiveness? (to be decided and arranged with the MCC supervisor)
6. Other observations:

WORKER'S STATEMENT AND SIGNATURE

_____ I have read and discussed this with the evaluator.

_____ I have attached additional comments/corrections.

Worker's Signature _____ Date _____

Evaluator's Signature _____ Date _____

END

21.06.88

FIN