

Measuring the Economic and Social Contributions of Volunteering

Anthology of papers
from the Plan of Action
Innovation Challenge



Plan of Action
to integrate volunteering
into the 2030 Agenda

This anthology brings together the papers developed under the Plan of Action Innovation Challenge on measuring volunteering under the 2030 Agenda

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Introduction: innovation challenge on measuring volunteering and the 2030 Agenda

Meeting the ambitions of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development and the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs)¹ requires the efforts of all of society. Everywhere, every day, ordinary people act on the issues they care about. Over one billion active volunteers perform a wide range of roles, including providing care and support to neighbours, extending basic services to underserved areas, campaigning for policy change and building new relationships across polarized communities.²

Research shows volunteers make contributions to our societies both through the direct tasks or activities they complete and indirectly by improving health and well-being, increasing skills and confidence, and strengthening trust, cooperation and innovation in communities. However, to date, there has been limited investment in building on this research to analyse the benefits of volunteering and to integrate it into policy priorities at the national or subnational levels. Stronger evidence and models could help nurture volunteering and its positive contributions both for individuals and societies.

To address this gap, the United Nations Volunteers (UNV) programme, under the Plan of Action to Integrate Volunteering into the 2030 Agenda,³ created an opportunity for individuals and institutions to develop and showcase approaches to modelling the economic and social contributions of volunteer work to allow governments and policymakers to consider and apply them in the context of the SDGs as part of the Innovation Challenge Fund on Measuring Volunteering and the 2030 Agenda.

The Innovation Challenge aimed to foster innovative ideas on how to apply existing data and research on volunteering to the 2030 Agenda and the SDGs, focusing on questions in four areas:

- Analytical approaches: Which qualitative and quantitative analytical frameworks or models can help understand the contributions of volunteers to the SDGs at community, district, municipal or national level?
- Alternative data sources: What are some freely available data sources that can be combined to provide insights or analysis on volunteerism and how can this be done?
- Measures: Which supplementary indicators or targets could better integrate an understanding of citizen contributions to specific SDG goals, targets or indicators?
- Models of development: Can analytical models incorporating volunteering tell us more about the nature and quality of human development?

Innovation teams

As a result of an open call for proposals in December 2019, seven teams were selected to form a community of practice and participate in the challenge. The group met for a two-day workshop in Addis Ababa in March 2020, just before global travel restrictions and other measures to prevent the spread of COVID-19 were put in place.

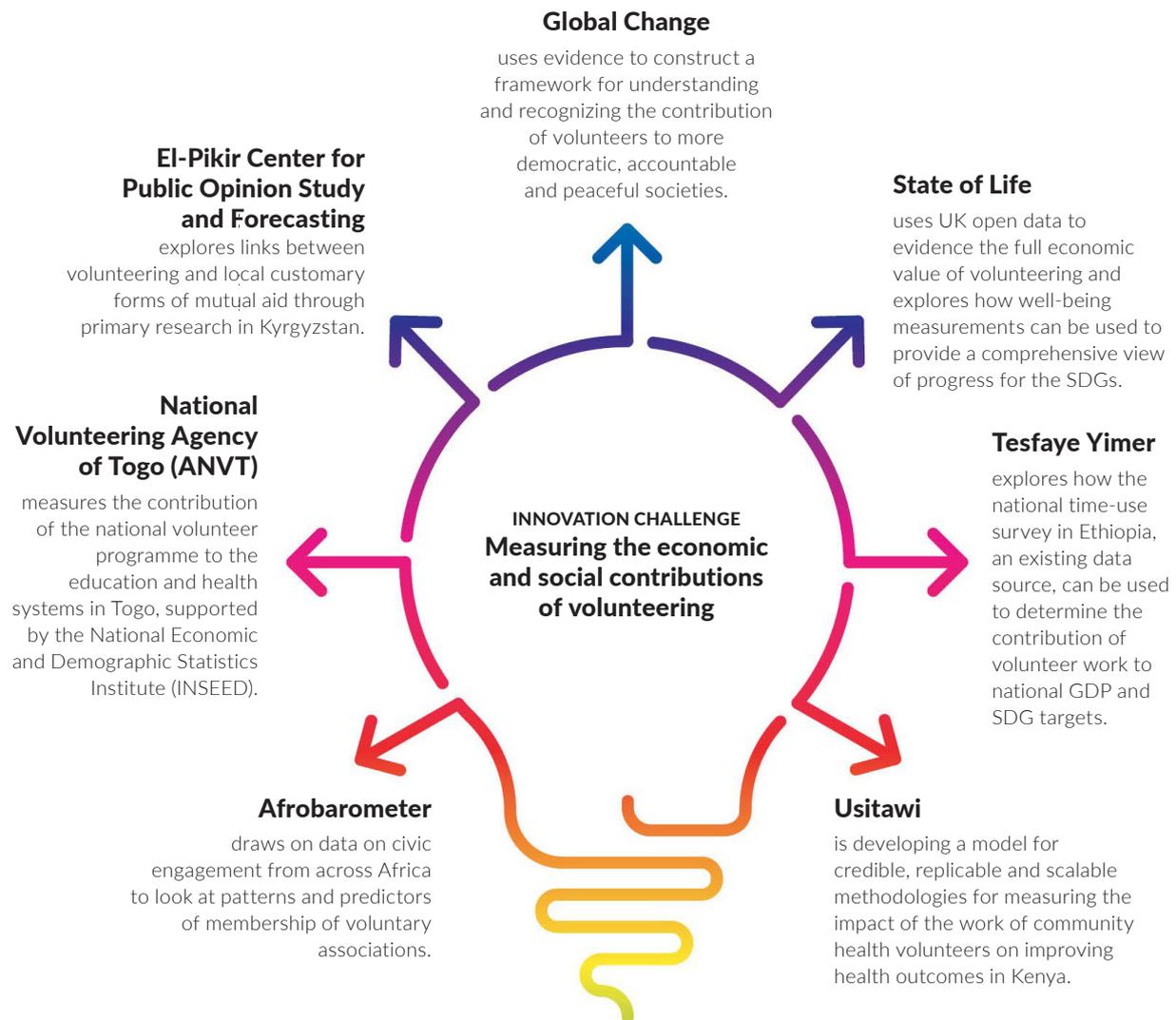
Through active participation via a WhatsApp group, e-mail and the peer-review of each other's work, the group has contributed not only to understanding pathways to improve measurement of the contributions of volunteering to the 2030 Agenda and its principles (including leaving no one

1 United Nations (2020) *Transforming our World: The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development*. A/Res/70/1.

2 United Nations Volunteers (UNV) programme (2018). *Global trends in volunteering infrastructure*. Bonn: UNV.

3 First established in A/Res/70/129 *Integrating volunteering into peace and development: the plan of action for the next decade and beyond*. Most recently updated in the United Nations (2020) *Plan of Action to Integrate Volunteering into the 2030 Agenda*. A/Res/73/140.

behind) but also to showing what global collaboration bridging North–South, cultural, linguistic and other barriers could look like.



This anthology brings together their research, organizing the final papers in three clusters:

- **Part I: Exploring alternative sources of data on volunteering and the 2030 Agenda.** Given the lack of official national statistics on volunteering, particularly in the global South, two teams of innovators used alternative data sources to analyse patterns of volunteering and what they mean for its contributions. **Afrobarometer** drew on its unique cross-country survey data from 27 countries in Africa to link civic engagement and volunteerism, while **Tesfaye Yimer** analysed time use survey data to understand patterns of volunteering in Ethiopia.
- **Part II: Capturing the intrinsic value of volunteering.** Not only is volunteering beneficial in terms of its impacts, it is also valuable in its own right. The **EI-Pikir Center for Public Opinion Study and Forecasting** in Kyrgyzstan provides insights on national volunteering practices via its pioneering nationally representative survey on volunteering. Similarly, **Global Change** provides a unique framework not only to capture the voice of volunteers in their contribution to SDG16+ to create peaceful, just and inclusive societies, but also to celebrate their contributions. Finally, **State of Life**

uses United Kingdom survey data to examine the relationships between volunteering and well-being and the potential insights the survey data can offer other countries around the world.

- **Part III: Measuring the support of volunteering for service delivery.** The final papers show the instrumental value of volunteering to delivering the 2030 Agenda more directly. The **National Volunteer Agency in Togo (ANVT)** explores the measurement of volunteering contributions to health and education outcomes. Similarly, **Usitawi Consultants Africa** builds a model to assess the contributions of community health workers to national health commitments and the health indicators of the SDGs in Kenya.

What can we learn from this challenge?

Together, these papers show how the diversity of volunteering practices around the world make complex and context-specific contributions to the 2030 Agenda.

This measurement work is still in its early stages but the papers show that capturing the resource contributions of volunteers is typically more straightforward than more in-depth valuations, including the qualitative aspects of volunteering. Further progress will require both more and better statistical data, ideally allowing some comparability across contexts, and stronger models for estimating social value.

In terms of qualitative approaches, measuring volunteerism at the local and community level remains critical to appreciate its contributions and potential. Methods that incorporate volunteer voices are important and co-creation through joint measurements requires further investment, beyond the project level.

Beyond these insights, the papers show the future of global and collaborative innovation is bright. While several innovators had long histories working on the measurement of volunteerism, others brought new insights to work on volunteering measurement for the first time.

Their combined efforts show there is considerable interest in this work among development stakeholders. The opportunity for teams to collaborate, share and cross-learn through a community of practice has proven an effective model for generating new evidence and approaches on a challenging topic.

Next steps

Endorsed by the United Nations General Assembly in 2015, the Plan of Action to Integrate Volunteering into the 2030 Agenda brings together United Nations Member States, the private sector, civil society, academia and stakeholders to collate and share knowledge on volunteering for the SDGs. As part of the Plan of Action, a virtual Global Technical Meeting was held over five days in July 2020, to present regional and country experiences on partnerships with volunteers under the 2030 Agenda.

This anthology and a report entitled *Measuring Volunteering for the 2030 Agenda: Principles, Tools and Practices*⁴ informed the preparation of the event and are available online on the UNV Knowledge Portal on Volunteerism as a resource for the Decade for Action on the 2030 Agenda.

To continue the space for innovation on measuring volunteering and the 2030 Agenda, two of the teams will be awarded further funding to carry out their research in the remainder of 2020 to continue pushing the boundaries of measurement. The results will be published on the UNV knowledge portal in early 2021.⁵

4 Plan of Action (2020). *Measuring volunteering for the 2030 Agenda: Toolbox of principles, tools and practices*. Bonn: UNV.

5 <http://knowledge.unv.org>.

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Part I.

Exploring alternative sources of data on volunteering and the 2030 Agenda



Who gets involved? Insights from Afrobarometer on civic engagement in Africa and implications for fostering volunteerism in pursuit of development goals

CAROLYN LOGAN, JOSEPHINE APPIAH-NYAMEKYE SANNY AND KANGWOOK HAN

The Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) set ambitious targets for countries and societies to improve lives and livelihoods around the world. While the expectations of meeting these goals largely fall on governments, it is widely recognized that joint effort by citizens and their governments will be needed to achieve the best outcomes. Citizen action takes place in many forms and forums, including organizing and working together on shared goals, providing mutual support and assistance, campaigning or advocating for shared needs and engaging with governments, making demands on them and holding them to account. While some citizens may become involved in a formal capacity, such as through paid employment in non-governmental advocacy or service organizations and through employment with governments or other service providers, large numbers will – and must – be engaged in a voluntary capacity. Understanding the nature of this voluntary engagement is a key goal of this analysis.

Nonetheless, advocates of volunteerism in Africa have been plagued by a lack of data on who engages in voluntary service, how much they contribute, in what formats and what the outcomes are. Only a handful of governments have collected data on this topic. Yet our ability to foster and build support for volunteerism is partly dependent on how well we understand the ways people are already engaging every day in these critical but uncompensated contributions in pursuit of the public good.

Afrobarometer data can help to fill this void. Although Afrobarometer has not collected data with the explicit aim of studying volunteerism, for more than 20 years it has captured extensive, nationally representative data on respondents' levels of political and civic participation (much of which can be classed as volunteerism) across seven rounds of surveys in 38 countries. This includes membership of religious and civic organizations and participation in individual and collective efforts to engage with leaders and voice community needs. In particular, in addition to membership of associations, Afrobarometer tracks the contact of respondents with political and community leaders, their attendance at community meetings and their efforts to join with others to address issues or express their views. These kinds of civic engagement are the cornerstone of volunteerism to solve problems and improve lives.

Understanding who engages, under what circumstances and why provides a foundation on which to more effectively promote civic engagement and volunteerism in pursuit of the SDGs and

core development objectives. This paper explores Afrobarometer data on civic engagement with four core goals:

- specify how Afrobarometer indicators of civic engagement link to core understandings of volunteerism and its various typologies;
- map profiles and patterns of the people who engage in volunteerism, especially at the country level;
- model voluntary civic engagement to identify the key factors and contexts that facilitate or inhibit it at both the individual and country level; and
- use these profiles and models to identify entry points for activists who want to foster or support voluntary civic engagement.

Our analysis identifies several factors that shape voluntary civic engagement, from socio-demographic ones such as education and wealth, to citizens' socio-political engagement, their personal sense of efficacy and their overall trust in their governments. Country contexts are important, as we see wide cross-country differences in levels of volunteerism. Among other aspects, wealthier countries, on average, report less volunteerism, while democracies report more. We have found evidence that confronting unmet needs – whether one's own or those of others – is a major motivating factor of voluntary engagement. These findings suggest a number of opportunities and entry points for increasing citizen engagement.

The paper is organized in two parts. Part A begins with a discussion of knowledge on volunteerism and participation, highlighting the lack of evidence and data sources on Africa and how civic engagement intersects with volunteerism. Part B explores Afrobarometer data in depth, first by developing descriptive profiles of the participants in voluntary civic engagement and then through statistical analysis to identify key driving factors. The final section presents recommendations for acting on these findings.

How civic engagement maps to volunteering

Linking volunteerism to civic and political participation

The United Nations Volunteers (UNV) programme and the International Labour Organization (ILO) describe volunteer work as “unpaid work carried out for the benefit of those outside the household” while for CIVICUS it involves “contributing time, skills, ideas and talents for charitable, educational, political, economic, humanitarian or other worthwhile purposes”.¹ To be voluntary, these contributions must be uncompensated, undertaken freely (not coerced) and serve the common or collective good, rather than for private or personal gain.

In 1999, UNV identified four categories of volunteerism:²

- **Mutual aid/self-help** – joining informally with others to meet a perceived need.
- **Philanthropy and service to others** – working together to provide services to others in need.
- **Civic participation** – for example, involvement in political or policy processes.
- **Advocacy and campaigning** – to secure change.

In 2020, a fifth category of “**volunteering as leisure**” was also added to reflect how volunteers in other areas, such as environmental conservation or in the arts and sports can also contribute to building a better world.³

Volunteerism can be informal and based on direct action and engagement with recipients, or it can be more formal and indirect, mediated through voluntary organizations or associations.

While we have a robust analytical framework and a solid typology, sound and specific data on levels of volunteerism, especially data that can be disaggregated into these categories, are often still difficult to come by, especially in Africa.⁴ The ILO has found that between 2007 and 2017, just 13 countries on the continent captured any measure of volunteerism in their official statistics. The lack of data makes it hard to build up a full picture of the modes and mechanisms of volunteerism, its contributions to social development and its potential to help achieve the SDGs and other core development goals.

There is, however, a rich body of research and evidence on civic and political participation that can be brought to bear on the study of volunteerism, as there is significant overlap between these forms of engagement. Civic and political participation can take many forms, from contacting leaders to working for a political campaign, voting and protesting. Clearly not all of these constitute volunteerism. Yet a large amount of the engagement commonly described as civic or political participation also falls under the umbrella of volunteerism. This can include collective efforts (both formal and informal) to secure resources and services to meet community needs, to fight to protect a right or for advocacy on behalf of underserved groups.

Using the category of civic and political participation to describe volunteerism is not without its challenges. Some of the activities that we describe as civic or political participation – voting or protesting, for example – clearly fall outside the scope of volunteerism as described above. In contrast, other types of behaviour may constitute volunteerism when they serve a collective purpose – for example, contacting a leader to advocate for a new school or health clinic – but not when undertaken in pursuit of more personal or private interests, such as asking for a job or scholarship. As such, categories and boundaries do not always align easily.

Given the lack of data on volunteerism in Africa, it is important to focus on the extensive overlap between these categories of behaviour, rather than the differences. The wealth of data available on civic and political participation offers an essential starting point for exploring many unanswered questions about voluntary civic engagement. Much can be learned from existing data resources, such as Afrobarometer surveys, which we will explore in the remainder of this paper.

Measuring volunteerism as voluntary civic engagement using Afrobarometer surveys

Afrobarometer is a pan-African, non-partisan survey research network that provides reliable data on African experiences and evaluations of democracy, governance and quality of life. Seven rounds of surveys were completed in up to 38 countries between 1999 and 2018. Round eight surveys are planned in at least 35 countries in 2019–2020.

Afrobarometer conducts face-to-face interviews in the language of the respondent's choice with nationally representative samples that yield country-level results with margins of error between ± 2 and ± 3 percentage points at a 95 per cent confidence level. The Afrobarometer surveys use the same questionnaires and methods, allowing both longitudinal and cross-sectional comparisons of data on voluntary civic engagement.

This paper draws primarily on data from 45,823 interviews completed in 34 countries between September 2016 and September 2018 during Afrobarometer round seven and makes comparisons with previous data from previous rounds. The countries covered are home to almost 80 per cent of the continent's population. The data are weighted to ensure nationally representative samples. When reporting multi-country findings, such as regional or Africa-wide averages, all countries are weighted equally (rather than in proportion to population size).

Afrobarometer asks respondents about a number of different kinds of civic engagement and political participation. Despite the fact these questions were designed with the goal of understanding political and social engagement broadly, rather than volunteerism specifically, the findings provide significant insights into patterns of voluntary civic engagement. Specific modes of participation captured by Afrobarometer include attending a community meeting, joining forces with others to raise an issue, contacting government, political or civil society leaders, and active involvement in a community group or voluntary association.

Table 1.1 shows some key characteristics of the modes of participation measured by Afrobarometer, including whether the participation takes place formally through an organization or is a form of informal engagement. We also record whether for our purposes the mode of participation can be considered a form of volunteerism or may also take place for personal or private reasons. In addition, we map these measures of participation onto the UNV typology of volunteerism described above.

		Afrobarometer civic participation indicators			
		Active member in or official leader of a voluntary association or community group	Attend a community meeting	Get together with others to raise an issue	Contact leaders
Typology of volunteerism	Formal or informal	Formal	Informal	Informal	Informal
	Can have non-volunteer purpose		X	X	X
	Mutual aid/self-help	X	X	X	X
	Philanthropy and service to others	X		X	
	Civic participation	X	X	X	
	Advocacy and campaigning	X		X	X
	Volunteering as leisure	X		X	

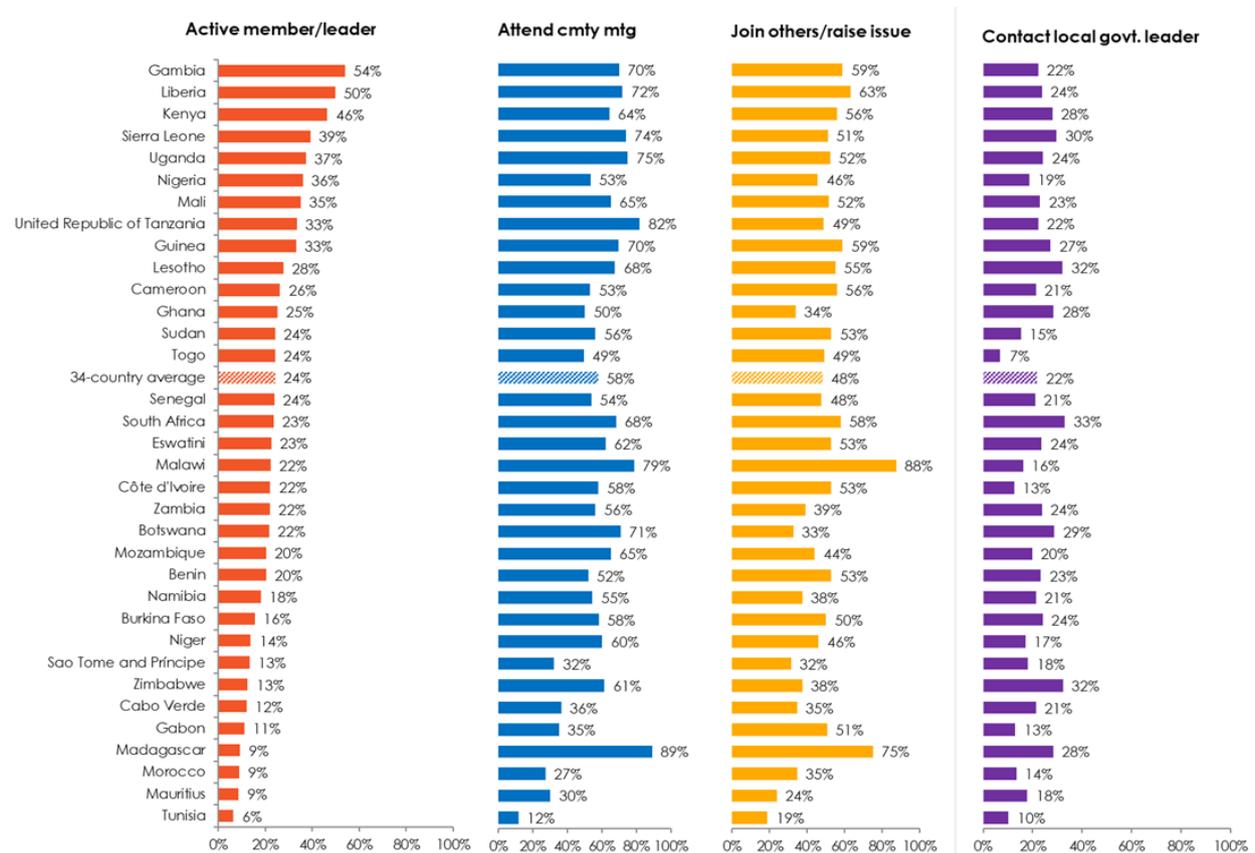
Table 1.1 Mapping Afrobarometer civic participation indicators onto modes of volunteerism

Among the Afrobarometer indicators, active engagement with a voluntary organization is the only mode of participation that can be consistently described as being formal or organized. Moreover, this mode of volunteering is, almost by definition, consistently for the community, rather than for pursuit of private objectives. In contrast, the other three measures capture informal, non-organizational forms of volunteerism or participation. Perhaps more importantly for our purposes, all three can take place either for purposes that benefit the community and others outside the household or in pursuit of more personal agendas. As such, while we might anticipate that the bulk of participation captured by these measures reflects the principles of volunteerism, they may also capture other non-volunteering participation.

In terms of linkages to the typology of volunteerism, like association membership, getting together with others more informally can also be associated with any type of volunteerism. However, the other two measures (attending a community meeting and contacting leaders) link more selectively. When leaders are contacted by volunteers, for example, it is likely to be in pursuit of a local or community self-help need or to advocate for a policy or action. Community meetings are also likely to be narrower in terms of the scope of their intended impacts.

Across 34 countries, attending community meetings is on average the most common form of civic participation (Figure 1.1): nearly six in 10 Africans (58 per cent) attended a community meeting during the past year. Nonetheless, there are wide variations across countries, from as high as 89 per cent in Madagascar, 82 per cent in Tanzania and 79 per cent in Malawi to just 12 per cent in Tunisia. Half of respondents (48 per cent) joined others to raise an issue at least once during the previous year, a practice that is extremely common in Malawi (88 per cent) and Madagascar (75 per cent). Yet fewer than a quarter of respondents in Mauritius (24 per cent) and Tunisia (19 per cent) reported having done so.

Figure 1.1 Participation in Africa across 34 countries, 2016–2018⁵



About one in four Africans (24 per cent) say they are either leaders or active members of voluntary associations or community groups. This figure is highest in the Gambia (54 per cent), Liberia (50 per cent), and Kenya (46 per cent), where around half of citizens report active membership or leadership of voluntary associations, compared to fewer than one in 10 in Morocco (9 per cent), Mauritius (9 per cent), Madagascar (9 per cent) and Tunisia (6 per cent).

For the purposes of this analysis, we wish to focus on the form of participation that best represents the concept of volunteerism or voluntary civic engagement. In making this selection, we consider what each indicator captures, as well as how it is linked to other forms of participation and to the typologies of volunteerism as described above.

Attending a community meeting is significantly correlated with all the other indicators. However, as already noted, we expect that this indicator may substantially overstate volunteerism or even capture the concept poorly. Community meetings are held for various reasons, including information gathering or information sharing and for government to organize community activities or action. They may be social or civic events and can be called by political leaders or organized by community members. Similarly, participation may be entirely voluntary, or it may be partially or substantially coerced through some degree of social or political sanction. This means that despite its correlation with other indicators, this indicator is too broad to serve as an adequate proxy for volunteerism.

For the purposes of this study, using contact with local government councillor as an indicator also has some weaknesses. Aside from attending a community meeting, it is not significantly correlated with other indicators. In addition, the question asks whether respondents made contact about an important problem or to voice their views. This means this indicator captures both contact made by individuals seeking to address community problems and contact that occurs to solve personal problems, which would fall outside our definition of volunteerism.

In contrast, the two other indicators capture forms of participation more closely aligned with the definitions of volunteerism or voluntary civic engagement of interest here. The two variables are significantly correlated, although, as noted, absolute levels reported for “getting together with others to raise an issue” (48 per cent) are approximately double the rates at which people report being active in or leading voluntary or civic organizations. This is perhaps not surprising, as engaging with an association or organization requires more commitment than the more informal and perhaps more episodic engagement that may be captured by getting together with others. It is also consistent with findings reported elsewhere that people are significantly more likely to engage in informal forms of volunteerism than formal, organizational engagement.⁶ Both indicators clearly capture participation whose nature and goals are shared. They also exclude the sort of engagement aimed only at addressing personal issues that might be captured by the “contact” indicator.

Although either variable could potentially serve our purposes for exploring volunteerism, we have opted for the more stringent indicator of active membership in or leadership of a voluntary association or community group. This suggests ongoing voluntary civic engagement, as opposed to potentially short-term activity around a single issue or event. It also excludes protest and related activities.

It is important to acknowledge the limitations of focusing on this indicator, particularly as it only captures formal associational volunteering, rather than the full scope of both formal and informal engagement. Due to the higher demands formal volunteering places on individuals, focusing only on this type may under-represent the engagement of some categories of participants, especially women and those with less ability to commit time or resources on an ongoing basis. This weakness is exacerbated by the fact that none of the Afrobarometer indicators capture time invested in this voluntary work, a critical factor to consider, especially for poorer and female respondents. Nonetheless, while membership or leadership of an association is not a perfect indicator, the wealth of data available on this indicator has a great deal to tell us not only about formal volunteerism but about volunteerism more generally.

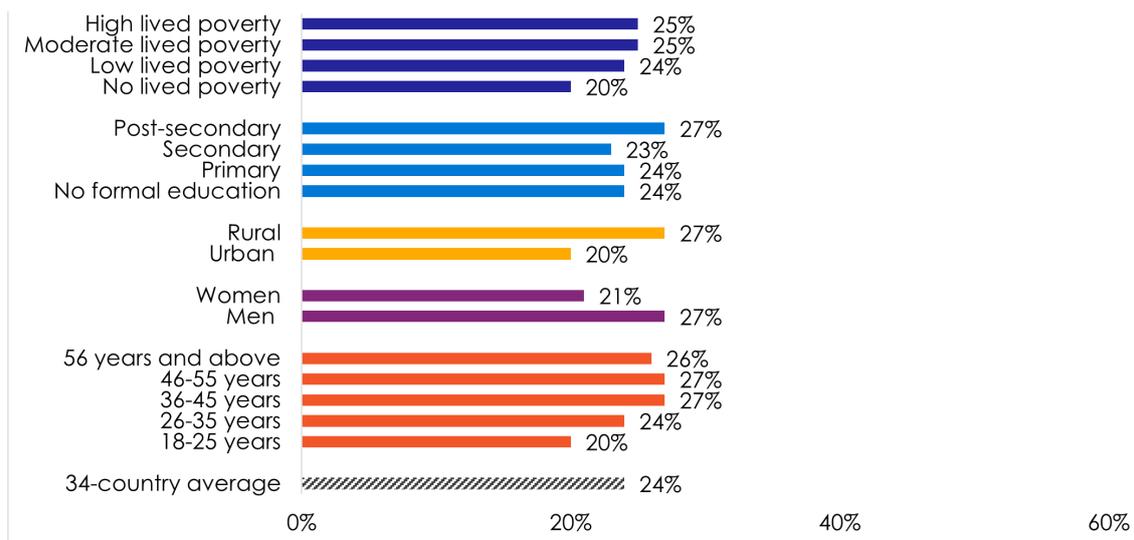
The remainder of this paper will focus on membership or leadership of a voluntary association or community group as a key indicator of voluntary civic engagement. The following sections will first offer a descriptive analysis of who volunteers in this way. We will then continue with a more comprehensive statistical analysis of various factors at both the individual and country level that may shape the propensity of individuals to engage. Finally, we will conclude with some thoughts on entry points for encouraging and supporting voluntary civic engagement based on these findings.

Findings of Afrobarometer data

Who participates?

We begin our assessment of who participates with an overview of the socio-demographic profile of individuals who identify as participating in voluntary civic engagement. The findings for the 34 countries reveal several patterns (Figure 1.2).

Figure 1.2 Average profile of participants in voluntary civic engagement (group members/leaders)⁷



Firstly, men engage at significantly higher levels than women (27 per cent compared to 21 per cent). Rural inhabitants are also considerably more engaged than urban residents (27 per cent compared to 20 per cent). The patterns for other socio-demographic characteristics are more subtle: the differences among older age cohorts (36–45 years of age, 46–55 and 56 and above) are not significant (26–27 per cent), while the youngest cohort (18–25 years of age) is significantly less likely to participate (20 per cent).

The statistics show a similar pattern for poverty: there are no significant differences among those with low, moderate, or high lived poverty (24–25 per cent), while people with no lived poverty are significantly less engaged (20 per cent).⁸ Regarding education, respondents with post-secondary qualifications (27 per cent) are significantly more likely to engage than those with less education (23–24 per cent).

It is also worth noting the apparently contradictory findings whereby the low levels of poverty and education seem to have contrasting effects. Respondents with no lived poverty participate at the lowest rate while respondents with the highest levels of education participate at the highest rate. As we will see later in this article, the negative effects of rising incomes on participation may be counterbalanced by the positive effects of rising education.

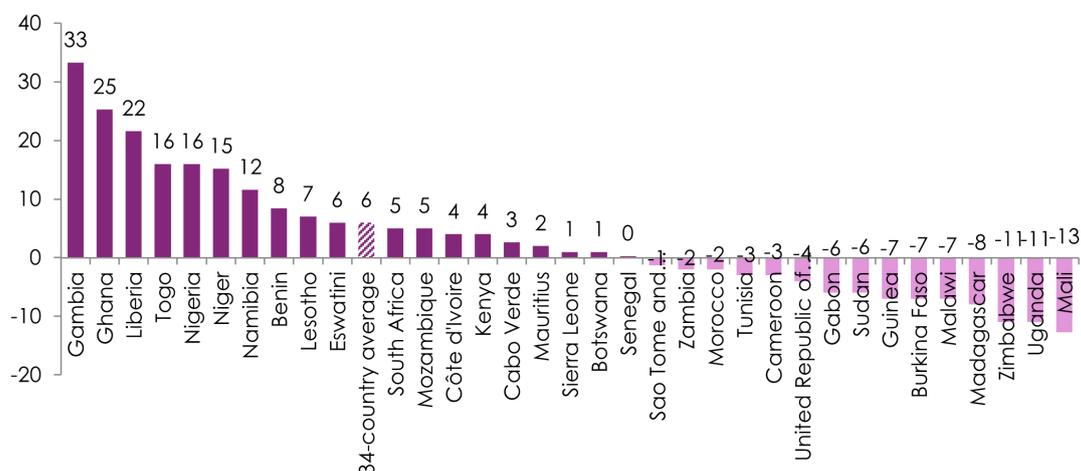
Gaps in voluntary civic engagement

One way to examine these differences descriptively is to compare the gaps between the highest and lowest categories across countries. For example, on average across the 34 countries, there is a rural–urban gap in voluntary civic engagement of eight percentage points, the largest difference across all the socio-demographic factors examined.⁹ However, this average hides significant variations across countries. The gap is much wider in Ghana, Liberia, Mali, Togo and Zambia, where urban residents are 17–22 percentage points behind their rural counterparts. In contrast, urban residents in Burkina Faso, the Gambia and Morocco are just four percentage points more likely than rural residents to participate in voluntary civic engagement. These significant differences highlight the importance of distinctive country features and profiles in understanding individual decisions to engage in this form of volunteerism. Note that gaps of two percentage points or less are within the margin of error and not considered significant.

The findings are similar for gender. The average gap between men and women is seven percentage points but it is much wider in Liberia (20 percentage points), Sierra Leone (18 points), Guinea (17 points), and Nigeria (15 points). There is no country where women participate more than men in this particular measure of formal volunteerism, although in Kenya, Lesotho, Madagascar, Morocco, Namibia, Tunisia and the United Republic of Tanzania, participation by men and women is statistically equal. The findings are also mixed when it comes to age: Lesotho and Liberia have the largest gap in participation (26 percentage points) between the oldest age cohort (56 years and above) and the youngest (18–25 years). In contrast, in Cabo Verde, Gabon, Morocco and Tunisia, young adults are more likely than older citizens to be active members or leaders of voluntary associations.

Although the average gap between the most and least educated respondents is marginal, the country-level results show some of the widest variations. While in general participation is more common among respondents with a higher level of education, especially in Morocco (23 percentage points), Senegal (17 points) and Gabon (16 points), in several countries the opposite is true. Citizens with no formal education in Eswatini, Gambia, Ghana, Mali and Niger are more likely than those with post-secondary education to participate (5–15 percentage points). There is no significant difference between the highest and lowest levels of education in Lesotho, Madagascar and Namibia.

Figure 1.3 Gap in voluntary civic engagement between people with high lived poverty and no lived poverty (percentage-point difference in participation rate), 2016–2018



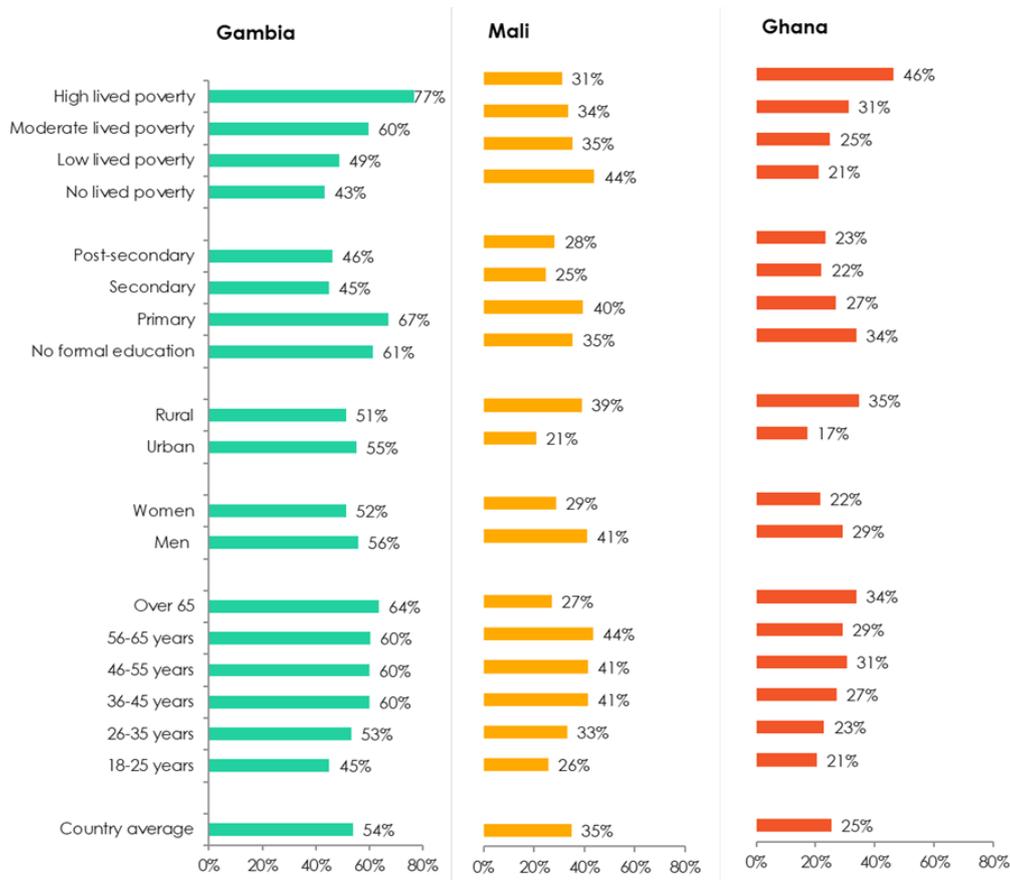
Note: A negative number means participation was higher among respondents experiencing no lived poverty, compared to those experiencing high lived poverty.

The relationship between wealth and levels of engagement is the least consistent across countries (Figure 1.3). On average, people with lower levels of wealth participate more than people with higher levels. However, this is only true in 15 of the 34 countries. The gap reaches 33 percentage points in the Gambia and 25 points in Ghana. In contrast, there are 12 countries where people with higher levels of wealth are actually more likely to participate, albeit by generally narrower margins. In another seven countries, there is no statistically significant gap.

Country profiles

While we can build a general profile of who participates based on our 34-country data, there are significant differences across countries. Generating profiles for each of the 34 countries in the sample and comparing just a few highlights these differences. For example, Figure 1.4 compares the Gambia, Ghana and Mali, three countries with moderate to high levels of participation. Gambia and Ghana follow the most common trend of higher participation among groups with higher lived poverty, while Mali displays the opposite pattern. The Gambia also stands out as one of the few countries where urban participation rates are higher than those in rural areas. All three of these countries show relatively average patterns for age (middle and/or oldest cohorts participate more), while patterns for education vary, with higher engagement among groups with lower levels of education.

Figure 1.4 Profiles of countries with moderate to high participation, 2016–2018



(percentage identifying as an “official leader” or “active member” of a voluntary association or community group)

Trends over time

A key question when it comes to studying volunteerism is whether the practice is increasing or decreasing: have economic, social or political trends over the past decade resulted in more or less voluntary civic engagement? If people with higher lived poverty are more likely to participate in voluntary organizations, as shown by the aggregate data, have the economic gains that have reduced levels of poverty across many countries in Africa also resulted in lower levels of volunteerism? Or does increasing urbanization – where engagement levels are typically lower – mean less engagement? Or are these factors potentially countered by higher levels of education, which are associated with higher levels of voluntary civic engagement?¹⁰

Afrobarometer data suggests that levels of associational membership have been remarkably stable over time, at least as a whole. Whether we compare the 33 countries included in the sixth and seventh rounds, the 31 countries in rounds five to seven or the 20 countries included since round four, there is very little variation over time.

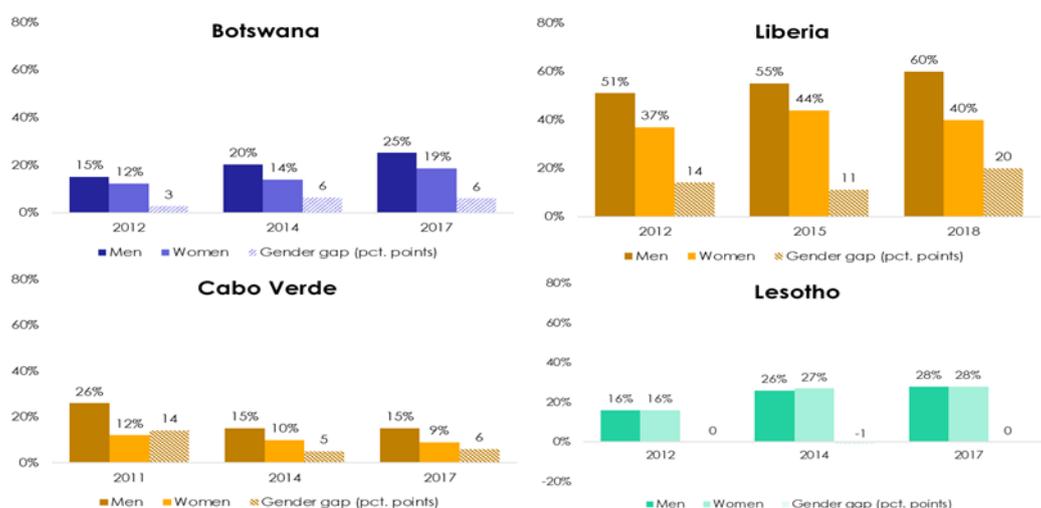
However, when we examine trends at the country level, this apparently stable average obscures a number of modest country-level gains and losses. Starting with the levels of participation recorded in round five (2011–2013), the sharpest increases are recorded in Lesotho (+12 percentage points), Uganda (+11 points), South Africa (+10 points) and Nigeria (+10 points). In contrast, Zimbabwe (-8 points), the United Republic of Tanzania (-8 points), Cabo Verde (-7 points), Mauritius (-7 points) and Senegal (-6 points) record the largest declines in active membership or leadership of voluntary groups. Smaller changes are observed elsewhere and there were no significant changes in Eswatini, Kenya, Morocco, Niger, Togo and Zambia.

Trends in gender gaps

Given the critical role women play in fighting for better services and bringing about change in their communities, together with their under-representation in formal voluntary civic engagement via associational membership, we are particularly interested in tracking trends in participation over time by gender. However, again there is limited evidence of aggregate change over time: the gap in levels of engagement between men and women has consistently remained at 5–6 percentage points across the last decade.

Again, there is some variation at the country level. For example, despite recording the largest increase overall, Lesotho has consistently shown no gender gap in voluntary membership since 2011, with men and women both becoming more engaged and at approximately equal rates (Figure 1.5). In contrast, while participation has also increased in Botswana (albeit to a much lower degree), the gender gap has more than doubled over the same period, rising from just three percentage points in 2012 to six in 2017. Similarly, Liberia has recorded substantial increases in already very high levels of participation, although the gender gap has also increased substantially.

In contrast, Cabo Verde has reported an eight-point fall in the gender gap (from 14 percentage points to six points). However, this is largely a result of decreasing participation over the past decade, a trend that was most pronounced among men. Similar patterns are observed in Burkina Faso, where the gender gap has shrunk by six percentage points, Côte d'Ivoire (5 points), Mauritius (5 points), the United Republic of Tanzania (5 points), Cameroon (3 points), Malawi (2 points) and Senegal (2 points). All these countries recorded declines in both overall levels of participation and in gender gaps.

Figure 1.5 Changes over time in the gender gap in voluntary civic engagement, 2011–2018

(Percentage identifying as an “official leader” or “active member” of a voluntary association or community group)

Modelling participation at the individual and country levels

Socio-demographic factors are clearly not sufficient to fully describe and understand who participates in volunteering and who does not. While they provide readily identifiable characteristics of individuals that can be used to help define priorities and guide interventions, we must develop a deeper understanding of the factors that shape voluntary civic engagement, looking beyond these descriptive features to individual attitudes and preferences, as well as to societal characteristics that can shape an individual's propensity to engage in civic action.

Several aspects of individual attitudes and preferences may be directly relevant to levels of civic engagement. We incorporate these factors in three broad categories:

- socio-political engagement, which includes news consumption and interest in politics;
- personal efficacy, which captures an individual's rating of their ability to effect change; and
- institutional trust.

It is also clear there are significant cross-country differences in patterns of engagement, both in terms of the overall propensity to engage and how factors like wealth and education affect it. As such, we also consider several country-level indicators that may be significant explanatory factors, including national wealth, level of democracy and the overall level of infrastructure development.

Since our dependent variable is binary (1 = engaged, 0 = not engaged) and the units of analysis are individual respondents grouped within countries, we tested the relative importance of each of these explanatory factors using a multi-level logistic regression analysis. Our models include varying intercepts to account for the likelihood that respondents within the same country share similar characteristics. We ran three models (Table 1.2):

- the first includes only the socio-demographic indicators described above and a measure of employment status (unemployed, part-time or full-time);
- the second model adds the other individual-level variables; and
- the third model also includes the country-level indicators.

Here we will focus on the results of the third model, which are consistent with the results in the first two. Note that Sao Tome and Principe is not included in model three because no Polity IV rating is available for the country. This leaves 33 countries.

	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
Education	0.140*** (0.014)	0.068*** (0.016)	0.074*** (0.016)
Lived poverty	0.085*** (0.014)	0.104*** (0.015)	0.092*** (0.015)
Age	0.131*** (0.009)	0.124*** (0.009)	0.135*** (0.010)
Female	-0.295*** (0.023)	-0.188*** (0.025)	-0.163*** (0.025)
Rural	0.449*** (0.025)	0.480*** (0.027)	0.457*** (0.028)
Employment	0.072*** (0.014)	0.033* (0.015)	0.061*** (0.015)
Discusses politics		0.372*** (0.018)	0.371*** (0.018)
Uses traditional news media		0.075*** (0.014)	0.095*** (0.014)
Consumes Internet news		0.004 (0.010)	-0.001 (0.010)
Believes ordinary people can fight corruption		0.015+ (0.008)	0.019* (0.008)
Says local government councillors listen		0.145*** (0.013)	0.139*** (0.013)
Trusts local government council		0.031*** (0.008)	0.028*** (0.008)
Logarithm of gross national income per capita			-0.080 (0.064)
Human development index			-1.354** (0.520)
Polity IV			0.038*** (0.008)
Access to water in enumeration area (country average)			-0.006*** (0.001)
Constant	-1.622***	-2.393***	-1.098***
Country-level variance	1.155** (0.352)	1.012*** (0.297)	0.695*** (0.210)
Countries	34	34	33
Observations	44,929	40,990	39,870

+ $p < 0.1$, * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

Standard errors in parentheses

Table 1.2 Factors driving membership or leadership of a voluntary or community organization (logistic regression)

Results and discussion

We note first that all the socio-demographic factors are significant and operate in the expected directions, as outlined in the discussion of the descriptive findings above. Specifically, voluntary civic engagement increases with education but also with poverty: while respondents with no formal education have a 32.2 per cent likelihood of being a member of a voluntary organization, the figure rises to 36.4 per cent for those with post-secondary education. Moving from the lowest level of lived poverty (no lived poverty) to the highest (high lived poverty) increases the likelihood of participation by seven percentage points.

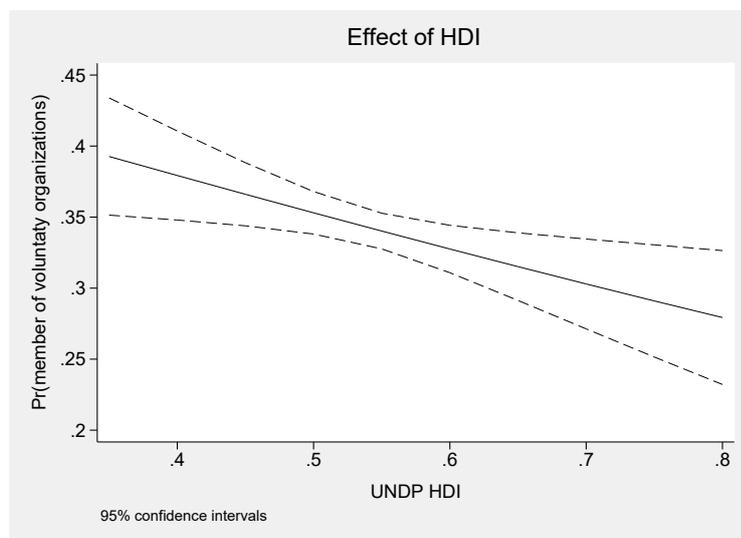
Age also has a strong effect: citizens 56 years of age or older are 10 percentage points more likely to engage than young people. Gender effects are also significant but only produce a difference in the likelihood of participation between men and women of three percentage points. Consistent with the discussion of descriptive patterns of engagement above, significant differences are observed regarding urban–rural location: predicted engagement is much higher in rural areas (38.0 per cent, compared to 29.4 per cent in urban areas).

Finally, we find that employment status also has significant albeit modest effects: individuals with a full-time job that pays a cash income are 2.3 percentage points more likely to participate in voluntary civic engagement compared to those with no employment.

Turning to the other individual-level predictors, we find that individuals' inclination towards socio-political engagement is an important predictor of voluntary civic engagement. A propensity to discuss politics has a substantial effect on predicted probabilities, with those who say they discuss politics frequently predicted to be almost 50 per cent more likely to be active members or leaders of voluntary organizations (28.6 per cent for “never” compared to 42.7 per cent for “frequently”). Exposure to news via traditional media is also significant but Internet news exposure is not.

Efficacy also matters. When local leaders are perceived to be more receptive to hearing from constituents, individuals are eight percentage points more likely to participate. Individuals' sense of personal efficacy in fighting corruption is significant and positive but the impact on predicted probability is negligible. The same can be said for trust in government: the effects are significant and positive but modest. A change in trust in government from the lowest level (not trusted at all) to the highest level (trusted a lot) increases predicted engagement by 2.1 percentage points.

Turning to the country-level factors, as expected, we see that country context also has important effects on individuals' voluntary civic engagement. A higher national Human Development Index is associated with a substantially lower likelihood of voluntary civic engagement, with an 11-percentage-point difference in predicted probability between countries with the highest value (27.9 per cent) and those with the lowest (39.3 per cent) (Figure 1.6). This could suggest that individuals' desire to meet basic human needs – for themselves or for others – is a major driver of voluntary engagement. As basic needs are increasingly met for individuals and societies with higher levels of human development, this key driver of civic participation declines substantially. Gross national income per capita, which is also captured in the Human Development Index, is not significant in its own right. This explanation is also consistent with the finding that increased access to a piped water supply is associated with substantial declines in engagement.

Figure 1.6 Predicted probability of voluntary civic engagement (member or leader) and Human Development Index (HDI)

Finally, we find that people are also more likely to engage when they live in societies that are more politically open and receptive, as shown by the positive sign and significance of the Polity IV indicator. This is consistent with the individual-level finding that the responsiveness of leaders – which is generally, though not always, better in democracies – is also a strong predictor of citizens' propensity to engage.

Entry points: can we increase voluntary civic engagement?

Voluntary citizen participation is a critical component of efforts to improve lives and livelihoods both in Africa and globally, as well as meeting the basic human needs captured by the SDGs. There are two main goals in developing these country profiles and models of voluntary civic engagement. First, they aim to help activists, practitioners and promoters of volunteerism better understand it in the country or countries where they work. The significant differences in overall levels of volunteerism across countries and in the specific profiles of those who participate makes this understanding essential for both analysis and action. Second, once we understand these profiles and the individual- and country-level factors that can foster or inhibit voluntary civic engagement, we can begin to identify entry points for enhancing volunteerism.

As a starting point, it is important to note that while the data show differences across groups in society, they also confirm that people from all walks of life engage in volunteerism. This engagement is not only among people with higher levels of education or older people: people from all socio-economic backgrounds participate.

It is also worth noting that cases where the participation of certain groups is lower (for example, young people) can be regarded as an opportunity, rather than a deficiency. Promoters of volunteerism could target these groups first, identifying ways to encourage them to join their more active counterparts. In short, knowing that the stratum of youngest people and those with the highest levels of wealth or lowest levels of education in a given society is currently least likely to engage in volunteerism does not mean efforts to engage it should be sidelined; rather, their engagement should be prioritized. They are the greatest untapped resource.

Identifying factors that favour greater voluntary engagement (for example, education, efficacy, and interest in politics) and some that discourage it (particularly, increased service provision, wealth, and socio-economic security) allows us to learn several lessons from the findings and identify a number of possible entry points:

- **Promoting education** – Generally speaking, education is linked to higher levels of engagement. Special attention should be paid to approaches that build confidence and capacity. Building an individual's sense of efficacy is likely to further increase engagement. This may mean strengthening educational content on government decision-making processes, such as how legislation is made and how budgets are managed and accounted for. It can also mean incorporating experiential learning to directly expose students to engaging with leaders.
- **Promoting equal access and achievement for education** – Women's engagement is essential to securing the best outcomes for their families and communities. However, we have seen that gender gaps in voluntary engagement tend to mirror those observed elsewhere, such as in education, workforce participation and access to resources. Closing the gender gap in educational achievement is a key starting point for closing gender gaps throughout society. Equal access to education exposes women to decision-making structures and builds their confidence and skills to engage.
- **Understanding women's engagement in order to better promote it** – We need to further explore the obstacles to women's voluntary participation, especially via formal organizational channels such as those examined here. This will allow the identification of ways to overcome gender gaps in participation and volunteerism. Are they caused by a lack of time or a lower sense of efficacy? Can they be explained by social norms regarding men's and women's roles, and/or a concern about social sanctions and risks? Or even fear of retaliation if women try to organize to bring about change in their communities? Time studies, focus group analysis and more in-depth surveys on these questions could help better understand the issues. Organizational training and engagement should highlight the tendency towards male dominance in organizations and associations and promote women's opportunities and access to leadership positions, especially at senior levels.
- **Engaging youth** – Young people are underrepresented in voluntary engagement. New messaging, using new formats like social media to capture their interest and promote voluntary engagement may help to close this generational gap.
- **Efficacy matters** – A sense of efficacy – that is, believing that one's actions can make a difference – makes people more likely to engage. Educating citizens, especially women, about how to effectively engage with the state to achieve community goals, alongside sharing success stories, can increase engagement. Information also enhances efficacy: promoting open government initiatives and related programmes that put more information into the hands of citizens will increase the effectiveness of volunteers and is likely to increase the incidence of volunteerism.
- **Democracy, governance and leadership also matter** – Citizens are more likely to engage when they expect their efforts to be effective. Governments that strengthen their capacity to listen and respond are likely to see a growth in volunteerism and engagement. Governments that recognize they will achieve better results by engaging their citizens in working towards the SDGs and other goals can start by ensuring that elected leaders and government officials – especially at the local level – are open and responsive to citizen input.
- **Identifying community needs and priorities for action** – Our evidence suggests that engagement follows needs, meaning working with communities to identify and build engagement around their priority needs is a key starting point. This may be relatively easy in communities with more needs. The absence of clean water or accessible schools and health care services does not need to be "discovered". In better-off communities, where needs are less obvious, one starting point for building participation may be to identify common goals and priorities. Once a community's most basic needs

are met, can people agree on what comes next? Is their focus on further improving life in their own communities or on advocacy for others?

- **Doing more to measure volunteerism explicitly** – In addition to using surveys such as Afrobarometer, household surveys and other opportunities, analysts, practitioners and promoters of volunteerism should advocate more explicit measures of volunteer engagement that would ideally include measures of time commitment and other indicators.¹¹
- **Building an enabling environment for volunteerism** – Understanding patterns of volunteerism can guide policies on equality, social care and support, labour and related matters, helping reduce obstacles to volunteering and promote an enabling environment.

In short, the findings of this analysis help us better understand the decision to participate in civic engagement and identify entry points for enhancing it. Lower levels of engagement among some groups and even certain countries can be seen as opportunities rather than obstacles, by identifying ways to capture the interest and action of people who have yet to engage.

Notes

- 1** UNV and ILO no date, CIVICUS 2011b.
- 2** UNV 1999.
- 3** Plan of Action 2020.
- 4** UNV and ILO no date.
- 5** Respondents were asked:
“Now I am going to read out a list of groups that people join or attend. For each one, could you tell me whether you are an official leader, an active member, an inactive member, or not a member: Some other voluntary association or community group?” [per cent “official leader” or “active member”] (Note: The other group asked about was “religious group that meets outside of regular worship services,” so engagement in religious organizations is not captured by this indicator.)
“Here is a list of actions that people sometimes take as citizens. For each of these, please tell me whether you, personally, have done any of these things during the past year: Attended a community meeting? Got together with others to raise an issue?” [per cent who say “once or twice,” “several times,” or “often”]
“During the past year, how often have you contacted any of the following persons about some important problem or to give them your views: A local government councillor?” [per cent who say “only once,” “a few times,” or “often”]
- 6** CIVICUS 2011b.
- 7** Respondents were asked: *“Now I am going to read out a list of groups that people join or attend. For each one, could you tell me whether you are an official leader, an active member, an inactive member or not a member: Some other voluntary association or community group?”* [per cent “official leader” or “active member”]
- 8** The Afrobarometer Lived Poverty Index (LPI) measures respondents’ levels of material deprivation by asking how often they or their families went without basic necessities (enough food, enough water, medical care, enough cooking fuel and cash income) in the preceding year. An average score is calculated for each respondent, ranging from zero for those who never went without any necessary item to four for an individual who reports always going without all the items. For our purposes, these scores are condensed into categories of “no lived poverty” (LPI of 0, reported for around 13 per cent of all respondents), “low lived poverty” (LPI of 0.2–1.0, reported for 37 per cent of respondents), “moderate lived poverty” (LPI of 1.2–2.0, reported for 32 per cent of respondents) and “high lived poverty” (LPI of 2.2 or greater, reported for 19 per cent of respondents). For more on lived poverty, see Mattes 2020.
- 9** The rounding of the numbers in Figure 1.2 suggests the difference is only seven percentage points but the actual difference is closer to eight percentage points.
- 10** Krönke and Olan’g 2020.
- 11** UNV and ILO, no date.

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Use of available data sources to measure volunteer work in Africa: the case of Ethiopia

TESFAYE YIMER

In many countries, volunteer work is calculated as part of national labour force surveys. However, many least developed countries have not measured volunteering consistently in this way. This paper looks at whether alternate and available data sources (national household surveys and censuses) can help measure volunteer work and serve as inputs to show the contribution of volunteers to the economy and achieving the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). It focuses on identifying appropriate available data sources, analyses their potential for providing information on volunteer work, models and tests a volunteer measurement approach, and assesses the opportunities and challenges of measurement of volunteer work based on the case of Ethiopia.

Availability of data for measuring and reporting volunteer work

The minimum data requirements for estimating the total number of hours spent volunteering or on community work per year (disaggregated by gender) either directly and/or through organizations for a country as a whole are (a) the time spent by a volunteer on volunteer work per day, week or month in hours and (b) the number of days, weeks or months per year a volunteer provides volunteer work.

Where can this data be found? Many volunteer-involving organizations (VIOs) – both State and non-State – document the types and volumes of activities performed by volunteers. In some cases, volunteer hours are calculated, although the practice of estimating the monetary value of the labour and skills provided by volunteers is not widespread.¹ Moreover, such cases would only capture organization-based volunteering, which only makes up around 13 per cent of total volunteer work in Africa.² Furthermore, there are no information sharing mechanisms among VIOs, limiting the production of consolidated regional and federal reports on the contributions of volunteers.³

Estimating the value of volunteer work needs comprehensive measurements that do not omit important groups of volunteers, particularly those working informally. This means that administrative data, such as the documentation of VIOs, can only go some way to achieving this objective. In this regard, we need survey and census results to calculate values related to volunteering. This study explores the available surveys in Ethiopia to understand if they can provide the required data on volunteer work.

The Ethiopia Time Use Survey and the Ethiopia Socio-economic Survey

Ethiopia has not yet collected information on volunteer work in existing data sources, such as the country's labour force survey, urban employment unemployment survey and the national census. The Ethiopia Time Use Survey (ETUS)⁴ and the Ethiopia Socio-economic Survey (ESS)⁵ are the only available macro surveys that provide relevant information on volunteering in Ethiopia.

Specifically, we have one round of the consolidated ETUS and three waves of the ESS. These data sources are general surveys that include information on volunteer work. Their strengths and limitations when it comes to providing data are discussed below. The explanation for how and under what conditions we could use some of the information from these sources is also discussed, including how they might be used to estimate national volunteer hours, the full-time equivalent (FTE) volunteer workforce and the economic value of volunteer work using the available data. Finally, recommendations are provided to enhance the effectiveness of new and existing national household surveys and the population census to help provide timely, comprehensive and more accurate data on volunteerism.

The 2013 ETUS was conducted in February 2013 by the Central Statistics Agency (CSA) of Ethiopia, with the support of UN Women and the Ministry of Women, Children and Youth Affairs. The main objective of the survey was to measure and analyse the time spent on paid and unpaid work and non-productive and leisure activities by people 10 years of age and older. In the survey, the average time spent on unpaid work includes volunteer work disaggregated by age and sex in a 24-hour recall period. The survey was designed to show the full extent of the work of women and its value to the national economy, including unpaid domestic work. The ETUS report for 2013 is freely accessible online.⁶

The ETUS and ESS surveys use widely divergent measurement approaches, definitions, population age groups and reference periods in the data collection and analysis, making comparison difficult:

- The ETUS covers all individuals 10 years of age and older, whereas the ESS collects data from all family members age 7 years and older.
- The ESS only collects information on volunteer numbers, while ETUS collects information on both the number of people involved and the amount of time spent volunteering.
- The ESS only asks respondents about any time spent on work performed for other households, free of charge, as an exchange labourer or to assist for nothing in return, meaning it focuses on direct volunteering and excluding association- or organization-based volunteering.
- The ESS data collection questionnaire contains general questions that do not go into any detail on the categories of volunteer work. Moreover, the use of the term “exchange of labour” could lead to respondents reporting work beyond the scope of volunteer work, since “exchange of labour” also covers the exchange of services, which can include providing unpaid help because there is an agreement to receive unpaid help in return (different to volunteer work).
- Both surveys only asked about participation in volunteer activities as part of a wider range of other topics, meaning there are important limitations in the information they make available.⁷

In general, the ETUS questions on voluntary work are more suitable and the questionnaire itself is better suited, since it covers both organization-based and direct volunteering. The questionnaire also includes 18 categories of volunteer work that can help data collectors to better probe and categorize data collected from the respondents.

Both the ETUS and ESS seek to minimize recall issues by shortening the reference period to 24 hours or seven days, respectively. However, neither the ETUS nor the ESS consider seasonal variations in the design of the survey. All fieldwork for the ETUS, for example was completed in a single month (February 2013). This approach limits the accuracy of data, since some volunteer activities have a different frequency and intensity, depending on the type of activity, the demographic characteristics of the volunteer and the time of year. The data collected in the ETUS reflects the post-harvest period in February when the interviews were carried out. During this period, people in rural areas often spend more time on unpaid volunteer work. Similarly, the use of a very short reference period (24 hours) for measuring volunteer work also reduces the chances of capturing less regular volunteering (especially direct volunteering). Taken together this could result in underestimating or overestimating the volunteer rate and may exclude specific activities and groups.

The ETUS uses a 24-hour activity diary, divided into one-hour slots, as the core instrument to record the activities of respondents and each slot has space for maximum of five activities. However, this format is much more limited when it comes to detecting participation in volunteer work than a dedicated volunteer survey module, as recommended in the 2011 ILO manual on the measurement of the volunteer work. Concepts in the time use diary are subject to interpretation by both enumerators and respondents and may not always correspond to official definitions, leading to misreporting. For example, citizens participating in historic events such as national victory day should be categorized as “socializing and communication, community participation and religious practice” but could be wrongly reported as volunteer work by enumerators.

The above discussion shows that data on volunteer work from ESS is less detailed, accurate and reliable compared to the results of the 2013 ETUS. For example, the ESS survey reports national volunteer rates⁸ of 14.8 per cent for males and 9.4 per cent for females for the reference period in 2011–2012. However, this rate falls significantly in the 2013–2014 version, falling to 0.3 per cent for males and 0.2 per cent for females. In contrast, the ETUS reported the volunteering rate⁹ for the reference period in 2013 to be 12.5 per cent for males and 7.8 per cent for females, a significant difference from the 2013–2014 ESS results. The low estimates in the ESS may be partly related to the methodologies and definitions used by this survey.

Using ETUS to measure and report volunteer contributions towards the SDGs

The Growth and Transformational Plan II to be implemented by the Government of Ethiopia between 2015 and 2020 includes a commitment to achieve the 2030 Agenda and the SDGs and volunteering is clearly one of the ways to achieve the universal target of leaving no one behind. While the term volunteer work does not explicitly figure in the plan, the role of “community participation” towards achieving the socio-economic targets of the national plan are clearly described.

Existing household surveys (including the 2013 ETUS) do not provide detailed time use information that would allow typical volunteer activities to be connected to specific SDG indicators to show the contribution volunteer work makes to achieving them. Adjusting the design of future versions of the ETUS and other national household surveys could allow the integration and generation of information on the type and amount of time of volunteering disaggregated by occupation, industry and main economic activities (for example, agriculture, education, health, mining, manufacturing, electricity, construction and transportation). This can be done if ILO recommendations of using dedicated survey modules on volunteer work are systematically applied in national household surveys.^{10,11}

Using ETUS to measure, report and reflect volunteer work in the Ethiopian national account using the satellite module on non-profit institutions

Current treatment of volunteer work in the Ethiopian national accounts

Alignment of national household survey tools with the United Nations System of National Accounts would make it possible to compile household satellite accounts in line with the United Nations Satellite Account on Non-profit and Related Institutions and Volunteer Work.¹²

Organization-based volunteering is on the boundary of the System of National Accounts production and can be counted towards the satellite account of non-profit institutions.¹³ However, it is not reflected in the concepts and methods used in the Ethiopia national accounts statistics. According to the ILO manual on the measurement of volunteer work, most volunteer work – and more specifically, organization-based volunteer work – falls within the System of National Accounts

production boundary of the economy.¹⁴ While activities of volunteers do not constitute a specific industry, their contribution to the economy can be compared with selected key industries to provide a point of reference.

The concepts and methods used in the Ethiopia national accounts statistics for 2014 include an economic activity for “other community, social and personal services”. Specific activities covered under this category include the outputs of the non-profit labour force, including religious congregations and NGOs.¹⁵ As mentioned in the 2008 System of National Accounts, labour in this category includes both volunteer and paid workers. However, the value contributed by volunteers is not included in the 2014 Ethiopian national accounts.

For example, while the gross added value of membership organizations (including religious organizations) is estimated in the country’s national accounts, the monetary value of religious activities has been estimated based on the number and average salary of the priests, deacons and other workers of the church only.¹⁶ This means there is no estimates of the value of the unpaid volunteering activities of the Sunday school (for example, unpaid dancing and coordination work) and church members (for example, unpaid work like fencing).

The added value of the non-profit sector in the national accounts of Ethiopia is determined by estimates obtained from the urban employment and unemployment survey for 2010–2011 and the national labour force survey for 2005.¹⁷ However, these surveys only provide data on paid non-profit employees.¹⁸ Unlike for-profit and government agencies, non-profit institutions, particularly NGOs, often make extensive use of volunteer labour.¹⁹ However, the national accounts do not include any estimate of the value of the organization-based volunteer labour used in NGO work.

Potential of the ETUS to improve the valuation of volunteering in the national accounts

Among the available data sources, the 18 diary data filtering questions in 2013 ETUS conform to the International Classification of Activities for Time-Use Statistics (ICATUS).²⁰ The questionnaire includes both unpaid direct and organization-based volunteering (that is, volunteering for associations and organizations and various forms of community work and informal help to other households). The data in the 2013 ETUS report allows the production of meaningful statistics on the total time spent on volunteering to calculate the value of volunteers to the economy.

Both forms of volunteering fall within the definition of volunteer work but only organization-based volunteer work can be considered as production in the System of National Accounts and counted towards the satellite account of non-profit institutions.²¹ Organization-based volunteer work is conceptually included in the ETUS but the data in 2013 ETUS are not disaggregated by organization-based and direct volunteer work, which makes this separation important for classification and reporting purposes. Accessing time use survey microdata at the desired level of aggregation and recalculating could provide data on organization-based volunteer work that can be converted into financial terms by assigning a wage rate to the estimated FTE volunteer workforce.

Estimating volunteer work in Ethiopia using ETUS

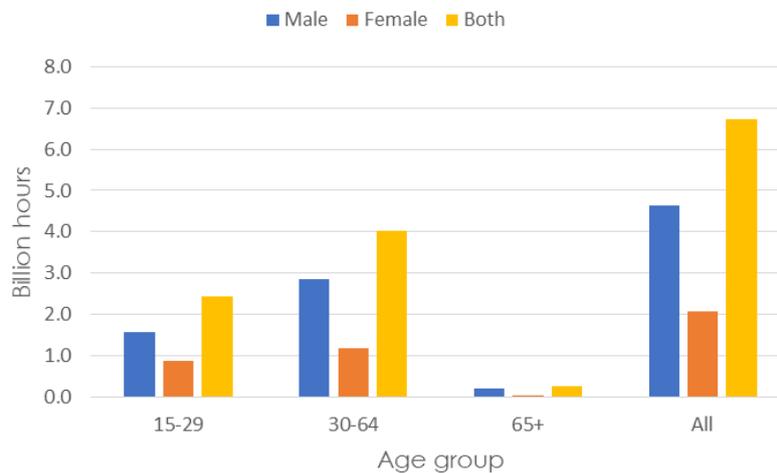
National volunteer hours

Millions of Ethiopians join the voluntary sector as members and perform many different activities in local communities by volunteering their time, energy and talents. However, despite its importance, volunteer work is not systematically researched, measured and integrated in the main economic statistics in Ethiopia.²² Indeed, limitations in exploring and using the available data (for example, time use surveys) are becoming the main bottleneck in reporting the value of volunteer work.

In this project, we have tried to design and test a volunteer measurement model that provides estimates of indicators such as national volunteer hours for Ethiopia. In the absence of other sources of data that provide better estimates, we have relied on the available volunteer work data from the 2013 ETUS. The results in this study provide a starting point for further efforts to develop a volunteer measurement and reporting method for the valuation of volunteer work in Ethiopia and elsewhere in Africa.

The analysis is based on the information from the 2013 ETUS data. The data indicate that about 5.1 million Ethiopians (2 million for females) 15 years of age and older volunteered (direct and organization-based volunteer work), giving a total of 18.4 million hours per day (Figure 1.7). This is equivalent to around 6.7 billion hours (2.1 billion hours for females) of services in 2013. In Ethiopia situation, most of the annual volunteer work (69 per cent) is carried out by men.²³

Figure 1.7 National volunteer hours in Ethiopia for the population 15 years of age and older for 2013 disaggregated by sex (billion hours)



Source: Calculated based on 2013 ETUS weighted results

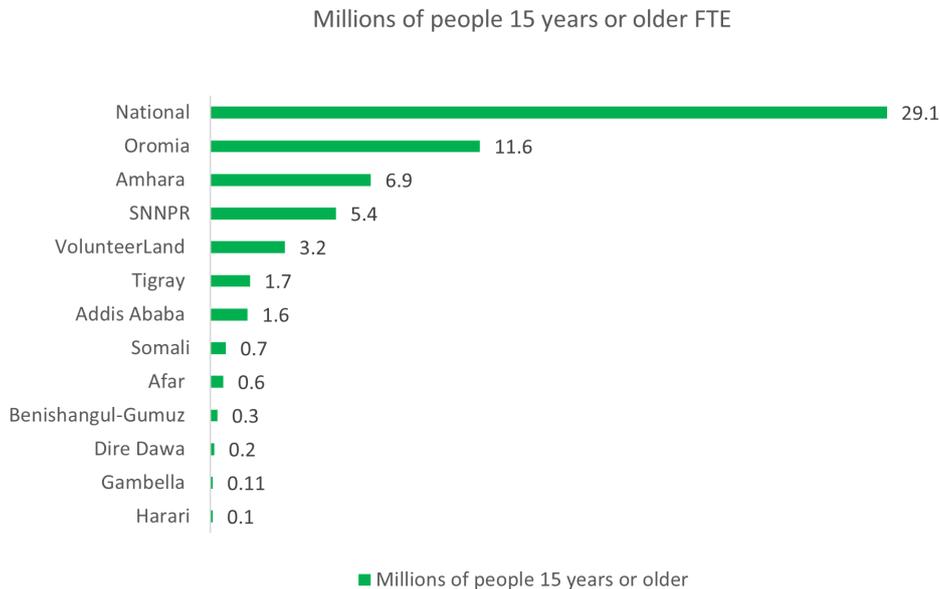
As noted above, we used the ETUS to extrapolate the daily volunteering time and estimate national volunteer hours. However, extrapolation to the entire year for survey results based on a short recall period (average volunteer hours per day multiplied by the estimated number of volunteers per day multiplied by 365 days) may overestimate or underestimate volunteer hours, since data was collected for the survey in February 2013 and the extrapolation does not take into account seasonal variations of volunteering activities. No additional adjustment was made to take into account these limitations of the data from time use surveys.

Aggregate picture of volunteering in Ethiopia

The total annual volunteer hours for a country can be converted into the number of FTE volunteers for the year the volunteers represent. The national annual volunteer hours for the population 15 years of age or older is converted to FTE volunteer workers by dividing it by the number of hours worked per year by someone who is in full-time employment (2,080 hours).²⁴

Based on the 2013 data in Ethiopia, the annual national volunteer effort is estimated to be equivalent to 3.2 million FTE (2.2 million male and 1 million female) workers.²⁵ This is roughly equivalent to the combined total for paid FTE employment (for the population 15 years of age or older) in the Tigray region and the city of Addis Ababa (Figure 1.8).

Figure 1.8 FTE unpaid volunteer national workforce compared to FTE paid employment for the population 15 years of age or older at national, regional state and city administration levels in Ethiopia, 2013



Source: (1) Total employed population (15 years of age or older) at the national, regional and city administration levels in 2013 (Source: Statistical Report on the 2013 National Labour Force Survey); and (2) FTE paid employees and unpaid volunteer workers calculated based on the 2013 ETUS estimation of national annual volunteer hours and the average hours worked by people 15 years of age or older per week, calculated based on the Statistical Report on the 2013 National Labour Force Survey.

This also means that if we gathered the FTE for all Ethiopian volunteers 15 years of age or older together, it would be the fourth largest FTE workforce population over 15 years of age in Ethiopia, behind Oromia, Amhara and the Southern Nations, Nationalities and People's Region (SNNPR) but ahead of Tigray, Addis Ababa, Somali, Affar, Benishangul-Gumuz, Dire Dawa, Gambella and Harari.

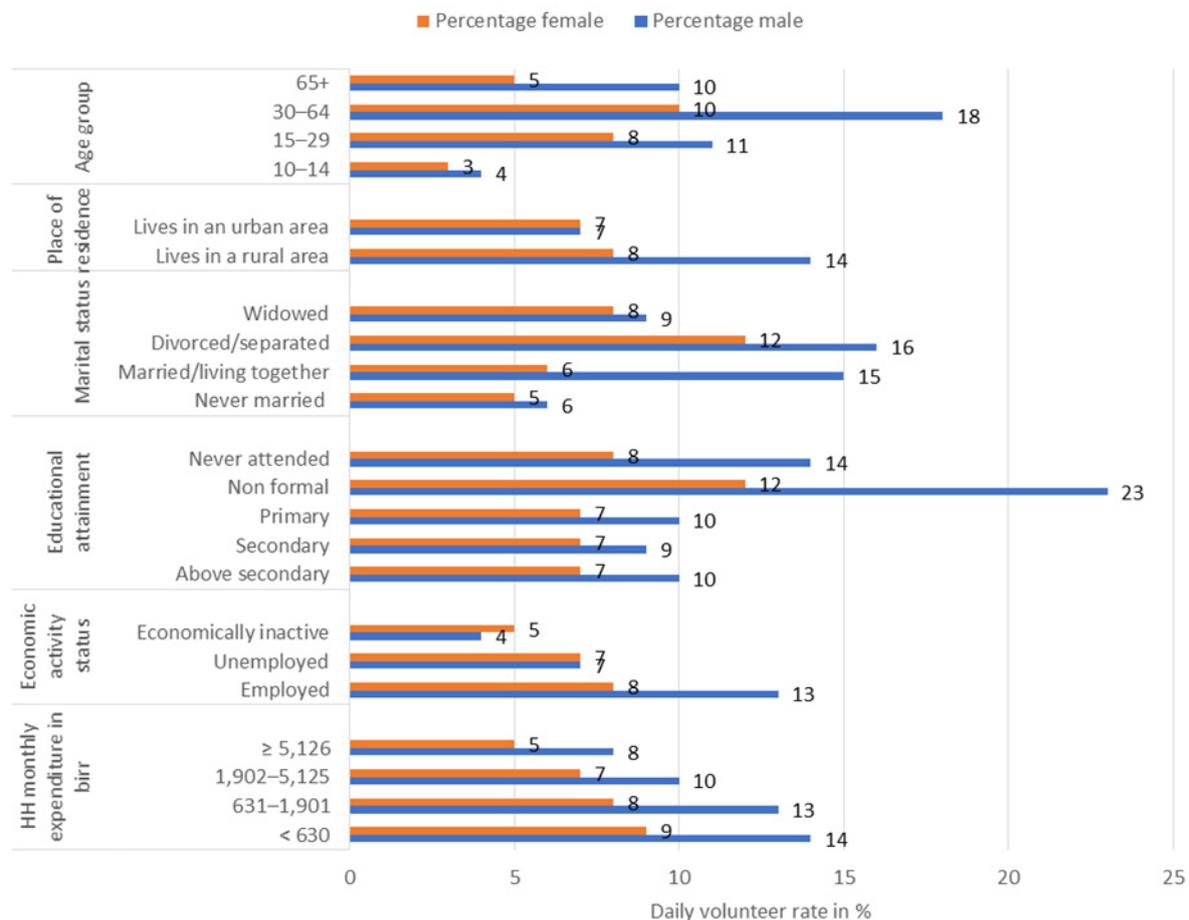
The monetary value of volunteering

In the current study, the value of volunteer activity has been estimated to give the monetary value (in Ethiopian birr) of the time volunteers contribute by assigning a wage to each FTE volunteer worker. According to this study, in 2013 direct and organization-based volunteers in Ethiopia provided around 51.4 billion birr (approximately \$1.5 billion) of services in Ethiopia (39.3 billion birr and 12.1 billion birr for male and female, respectively).²⁶ This valuation reveals the invisible value of volunteer work to the national economy and can provide a useful aid to government for policy decisions to enhance the contribution of volunteer work. VIOs can use this estimate to show policymakers the public, donors and volunteers themselves the enormous value of volunteering and how its contributions increase the budget, activities and services of organizations.

Socio-economic characteristics of volunteers in Ethiopia

Out of all the reviewed available data sources, only ETUS provides volunteer work data that can be used to produce various national level volunteer statistics for Ethiopia. The analysis based on the 2013 ETUS provides a starting point for future research on volunteerism in Ethiopia. The likelihood of the participation of women in volunteer work (for most socio-economic characteristics) tended to be lower than men and women spend less time per day on unpaid volunteer services. On average, 7.9 per cent of women and 12.5 per cent of men 10 years of age and older provide volunteer services in Ethiopia (Figure 1.9).

Figure 1.9 Daily volunteer rate by participants for the population 10 years of age and older by demographic characteristic, 2013



Source: 2013 ETUS, CSA

The data from the 2013 ETUS indicate that higher educational attainment, particularly at the secondary and post-secondary levels, is associated with less participation in informal volunteer work. Participation in unpaid volunteer services also tended to decrease as income increased. In terms of employment, compared to unemployed and economically inactive individuals, the participation of employed men and women in volunteer work was much higher. Similarly, the propensity to volunteer for unpaid volunteer service is higher among older adults (30-64) than among their younger counterparts (15-29), while the participation of senior citizens in volunteer work was much lower than young and old adults (both for female and male). The volunteer rate in rural Ethiopia was higher than in cities. Finally, compared to women and men who were widowed or without a partner, women and men who were divorced or married tended to participate more in unpaid volunteer services.

Limitations, risks, challenges and lessons

As highlighted above, extrapolation of the results of the ETUS survey, which was based on a short recall period, to the entire year may underestimate or overestimate time spent volunteering, since this does not consider seasonal variations of volunteering activities. The first round of time use surveys in Ethiopia took place in 2013 and has not been repeated since. This makes it impossible to provide up-to-date information on the value of volunteer work in the country. Household surveys

and censuses should be performed regularly and periodically to provide meaningful time series data on unpaid work, including volunteering.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

The availability of robust evidence can act as a catalyst for policies and support for volunteering. However, to ensure reliable data that quantifies the contributions of volunteers to the SDGs, Ethiopia must carry out regular estimates of the number of volunteers, the time spent doing this work and the type of tasks performed.

Improving these estimates requires better measurement of volunteer work and regular updates to data collection tools to ensure reliable estimates. It is also necessary to focus on the interpretation and use of findings. This project has highlighted the potential of existing data sources for measuring and providing data on volunteer work.

Given the lack of other sources that provide high-quality volunteer work data, the 2013 ETUS report was used to test a model that measures the aggregate value of volunteers by approximating national volunteer hours and the FTE volunteer workforce. This paper shows that available data sources – specifically the 2013 ETUS – could be used to determine the economic value of direct and organization-based volunteering.

However, the value of volunteering – specifically organization-based volunteer work – is not yet measured and systematically reflected in the Ethiopian national accounts via satellite accounts. Regular discussions with CSA, the Ministry of Finance and Economic Development and other stakeholders can address the existing gaps when it comes to showing the total value of organizational based volunteering service to the wider economy. This could include collaborating with CSA to further improve the methodology for the measurement of volunteer activities to ensure reliable data.

For future volunteer measurement, this paper suggests addressing methodological limitations by including dedicated volunteer survey modules, as recommended by ILO, which provides a model questionnaire for inclusion in household surveys. There is also the option of a stand-alone, dedicated household survey specifically designed to measure volunteer work and it may be possible to measure certain aspects of volunteer work using national population censuses. However, the resource implications and sustainability of different options need to be taken into account by stakeholders.

Notes

- 1** UNV 2017.
- 2** UNV 2018a.
- 3** UNV 2017.
- 4** Survey based on a national representative sample of 52,262 people 10 years of age and older from 20,280 households in rural and urban areas. It provides sex-disaggregated data by different age groups (10–14, 15–29, 30–64 and 65 and over), which can be used to estimate hours spent volunteering, the FTE volunteer workforce and the value of volunteering for the population 15 years of age and older.
- 5** Survey based on a nationally representative sample of 5,469 households in rural and urban areas. Data was collected for household members 7 years of age and older.
- 6** Ethiopia, CSA 2014a.
- 7** UNV 2018a.
- 8** Defined as the proportion of household members seven years of age or older who spent time on apprentice or unpaid work during the seven days preceding the survey.
- 9** Defined as the proportion of household members 10 years of age or older who spent time on volunteer work in the 24 hours preceding the survey.
- 10** ILO 2011.
- 11** Alternatively, the third national population and housing census of Ethiopia was conducted in 2007. Article 103 of the country's Constitution (Ethiopia 1995) states that a national population census shall be conducted every ten years. Ethiopia has postponed the fourth national population and housing census, which should be held every 10 years, largely due to security issues. This could be a good opportunity for the Government to include volunteer activities in the design of the fourth national census by adopting the ILO model question on volunteer work for population and housing censuses.
- 12** United Nations 2018.
- 13** ILO 2011.
- 14** ILO 2011.
- 15** Ethiopia, Ministry of Finance and Economic Development 2014.
- 16** Ethiopia, Ministry of Finance and Economic Development 2014.
- 17** Ethiopia, Ministry of Finance and Economic Development 2014.
- 18** Ethiopia, CSA 2014c.
- 19** United Nations 2018.
- 20** United Nations 2005. ICATUS was produced by the United Nations in 2004 as part of an effort to standardize and enhance international comparisons of time use activities.
- 21** ILO 2011; United Nations 2008.
- 22** UNV 2017.
- 23** The total number of volunteer hours was calculated within the reference period of one day by multiplying the average number of minutes per person–day by 365 days, dividing the value in minutes by 60 to convert to hours and finally multiplying the result by the size of the population 15 years of age or older in Ethiopia to obtain the total number of volunteer hours in Ethiopia per year. The project used the population data from the 2013 ETUS (p. 40) disaggregated by sex (25,910,444 men and 26, 903,460 women categorized by age group [10–14, 15–29, 30–64, 65 and above] to calculate the national volunteer hours or FTE

volunteer workforce. Ethiopia, CSA 2014a. The gross national hours for people who engaged in volunteer activities per year was calculated using the following formula:

$$n = (fx + my) \times 365$$

Where:

n = Gross annual national volunteer hours for the year 2013

f = Average hours per day for female volunteers who engaged in volunteer activities

x = Estimated number of national female volunteers per day at the national level for the reference period (24 hours)

fx = Gross national hours for females involved as actors or participants providing voluntary services per day

m = Average hours per day for male volunteers who engaged in volunteer activities

y = Estimated number of national male volunteers per day at the national level for the reference period (24 hours)

my = Gross national hours for males involved as actors or participants providing voluntary services per day

- 24** 2,080 working hours per year per full-time employee = 40 hours per week per full-time employee x 52 working weeks per year.
- 25** There is a significant discrepancy between our estimate (3.2 million FTE volunteers in 2013) and the 2018 State of the World's Volunteerism Report (organization-based = 40,484; direct = 235,482; both = 275,482 FTE volunteers in 2015) for the number of FTE volunteers in Ethiopia 15 years of age or older. Both analyses used the data from time use surveys to estimate the number of the direct FTE volunteers but the population 15 years of age or older in the report (11.4 million) is much lower than the figure in our analysis (44.4 million). Moreover, figures for organization-based FTE volunteers were estimated based on data from elsewhere (regional averages).
- 26** Estimating the monetary value of the time volunteers contribute involves assigning a wage rate to each FTE volunteer workforce. The basic issue for estimating time spent on voluntary services is whether to use the opportunity cost of the person performing the task or a comparator/replacement cost. The International Labour Organization Manual on the Measurement of Volunteer Work, the United Nations System of National Accounts 2008 and Johns Hopkins University suggest the use of the replacement cost approach. The value of volunteer work was estimated by multiplying the average gross salary with the number of FTE volunteer workers based on the shadow wage for volunteers as the average gross salary for occupational activities. The calculation uses the number of FTE volunteers and the average monthly earnings per FTE volunteer worker, determined using a replacement cost approach, measuring the value of volunteering in terms of the average monthly earnings of all economic sectors for the total paid employees of the country (based on existing survey statistics). This information is readily available in the Ethiopian 2013 labour force survey. The monthly mean wage for all paid employees in the country in 2013 was estimated at 1,471 birr for men and 1,008 birr for women. The average earnings for employees are based on gross remuneration, including bonuses, overtime, allowances and other benefits only obtained from the primary source of employment. Based on the figures of 2.2 million male and 1 million female FTE volunteer workers, this gives a total of 39.3 billion birr per year for male volunteers and 12.0 billion birr for female volunteers, a combined total of 51.4 billion birr per year.

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Part II.

Capturing the intrinsic value of volunteering



Particularities of volunteering in the Global South: the case of Kyrgyzstan

ELVIRA ILIBEZOVA, ASLANBEK KERIMBEKOV, IAN INVEI, AZHAR SADYKOVA

This paper aims to provide readers with new data and analysis on volunteering in Kyrgyzstan to improve our understanding of measuring volunteering in the Global South. It finds that Kyrgyzstan has well-preserved traditional forms of volunteering (*ashar*, *zhurtchuluk* and *agloo/uyushma/sherik*).¹ A new survey for this paper shows that more than 80 per cent of the population participates in volunteer work, although the majority do not identify as “volunteers” when asked. Initially, only 12.8 per cent of the population identified as volunteers but with deeper probing and providing contextual examples, this figure increases to 82.4 per cent. This is important as it has implications for the statistical measurement of volunteer work, which, without careful application, could result in massive under-reporting in volunteer activity in the country. Finally, the paper uses this broadest definition, based on the Kyrgyz context of volunteerism, to estimate the contributions that traditional and local forms of volunteering make to the country’s GDP and to achieving the targets for Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) 11 to make cities inclusive, safe, resilient and sustainable.

Testing global definitions of volunteering in the Kyrgyzstan context

Volunteering is a powerful tool for engaging people in the implementation of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, ensuring environmental sustainability and peace, that there is no poverty, hunger and inequality, and that nobody is left behind.

Volunteering exists in all societies. However, from a research or measurement perspective, the dominant understanding of volunteering has been framed by and rooted in experiences from the Global North. Even volunteering studies in Global South contexts often use Northern-influenced theoretical lenses as their starting point. This skewed focus means some forms of volunteering are privileged over others, with a tendency to overlook the wealth of volunteering practices within “poor” and “marginalized” communities.²

As such, this study is based on the hypothesis that the typology and definitions used by the Global North do not adequately cover traditional forms of volunteering widely present in Kyrgyz society. Expansion of the typology and definitions by including traditional forms of volunteering would make it possible to better account for their contributions to the economy and development.

As building blocks to estimating the contribution of volunteering to GDP and SDG 11 in Kyrgyzstan, this study first aims to clarify public perception, including overlaps, common ground between volunteering and local voluntary customs.

In particular, it looks at knowledge of and participation in *ashar* and other traditional forms of volunteering among the population, how people see these as relating to volunteering as generally understood in Kyrgyzstan, and their contributions to society. It then uses the survey data to examine knowledge and participation in both *ashar* and volunteering in the context of Kyrgyzstan and what this means for how we measure voluntary contributions to the SDGs.

Research methodology and challenges

Firstly, a desk review was undertaken to develop the theoretical and methodological approach to this research. A survey was then carried out with 1,200 respondents based on a nationally representative sample. The survey data, was then complemented by two focus group discussions held with formal volunteers and a further two with informal volunteers. Finally, in-depth interviews were held with key informants, including local government representatives, international volunteer organizations, local activists and experts in the field of cultural studies.

Estimating the annual economic contribution of volunteering to the country's GDP presented challenges, since there is no methodological basis for such an assessment in Kyrgyzstan. As an alternative, the survey asked 1,200 respondents questions about how many days they volunteered in 2019 as a contribution to achieving of SDG 11 and the implementation of other activities. We then calculated the contribution of volunteer labour to GDP as the arithmetic average of the number of days spent by individuals on voluntary, unpaid work for the benefit of the community or society and the average pay for one day of labour in Kyrgyzstan in 2019.

Research findings

Section 1: Participation in volunteering in Kyrgyzstan

Prevalence of different forms of traditional volunteering

Informal volunteering emerged among Kyrgyz people as a response to the extreme lifestyle of nomads. Mutual assistance is key to the survival of individual clans and the nation as a whole. There are three main forms of traditional volunteering: (i) *ashar*; (ii) *zhurtchuluk*; and (iii) *agloo* (also known as *uyushma/sherik*). In the course of the study, we asked each respondent about their experiences of these three types of traditional volunteering.

Our survey found that *ashar* is the most common form of traditional volunteering in Kyrgyzstan with 46.6 per cent of the population reporting having had experience of *ashar* in 2019. It is a form of collective free voluntary assistance that can be classified as helping peers, vulnerable people and contributing to the common good of the community. Common examples of *ashar* include shearing sheep, erecting buildings and houses and building roads. The organizer or coordinator of an *ashar* can be a local leader, a household or an individual and normally offers food to participants.

The second most common form of traditional volunteering in Kyrgyzstan is *zhurtchuluk*. This form of volunteering is based on the tribal ties of the participants and is often practised after accidents or emergencies. Help can be provided through *zhurtchuluk* in the form of money or labour. According to the survey data 16.8 per cent of the population participated in this form of volunteering.

The third most frequently mentioned form of traditional volunteering is *agloo* (also known as *uyushma* or *sherik*). This is a type of collective agricultural assistance, where community members work together for the common good. It can be provided in the form of labour, land, equipment or livestock. In 2019, 16.2 per cent of the population took part in *agloo* volunteering.

	Percentage of participation in any of the three traditional forms of volunteering	Percentage of participation in <i>ashar</i>	Percentage of participation in <i>zhurtchuluk</i>	Percentage of participation in <i>agloo</i>
All population	50.0	46.6	16.8	16.2
Male	53.5	49.4	18.6	15.8
Female	46.9	44.1	15.1	16.5
Rural	48.0	47.2	13.7	16.8
Urban	51.2	45.5	22.0	15.0

Table 2.1 Participation in *ashar*, *zhurtchuluk* and *agloo* in Kyrgyzstan in 2020 (n = 1,200)

Source: Authors

The survey confirms that ordinary life in Kyrgyz society continues to be permeated with volunteer activity, which is perceived as a natural, self-evident, normal action without which, in the words of one focus group participant, “the Kyrgyz would not be Kyrgyz”. The survey found that while all demographics participated in traditional forms of volunteering, *ashar* and *agloo* were slightly more common in rural areas, while *zhurtchuluk* was twice as frequent in urban areas. Overall, more men were found to engage in traditional forms of volunteering than women. This is especially evident with *ashar*, which is associated with men’s physical strength and traditional roles.

Local perceptions around “volunteering”

What happens when we survey perceptions of volunteering in Kyrgyzstan? “Volunteer” is a relatively new term in Kyrgyzstan. The concept was introduced in Central Asia by international organizations from the Global North. However, formal volunteering is also now associated with a number of roles with local organizations. In this context, the term local volunteer organizations means local self-government bodies and local public associations that work closely with local self-government bodies (youth committees, courts of the elderly, public prevention centres, village health committees, committees for the prevention of domestic violence and voluntary people’s guards). Researchers note a rising trend in formal volunteer activities of religious institutions, notably *muftiats*³ (mosques) and *davatchi*⁴ (religious figures).

Urban residents have a higher awareness of volunteering with international organizations, while rural residents associate volunteering with largely local self-government bodies. Awareness is also shaped by gender, with male respondents 2.4 times more likely to know about the volunteering work of the court of the elderly, while women are more familiar with the volunteer work of women’s committees and local self-government bodies.

Even though international volunteer organizations enjoy considerable trust (3.8 points on a five-point scale, with this figure higher among women than among men), the majority of the population (65.8 per cent) do not want to participate in the activities of international organizations due to the workload, a lack of time, the lack of payment or mistrust of international volunteer organizations.

It is interesting to note that international volunteer organizations mainly employ forms of work that are practised in the Global North, while local volunteer organizations use the traditional volunteering types described above. Another aspect is that international volunteer organizations are highly dependent on regular funding while local volunteer organizations engage in volunteer activities without any formal or regular sources of income.

Identification as volunteers

Until now, there have been no nationally representative surveys to estimate the proportion of the population who volunteer in Kyrgyzstan. In the course of our research, we discovered particularities of the perception of volunteering by the local population. To begin with, a relatively low proportion of respondents identified as volunteers. However, further probing through more in-depth questions increased the number of respondents who said they were volunteers (Table 2.2).

Firstly, when answering the question “Have you taken part in the activities/events of volunteer organizations?”, 12.8 per cent of respondents said yes and the rest said no.

Secondly, when answering the question “Do you consider yourself a volunteer?” 19.9 per cent of the respondents answered yes while 70.3 per cent said no and a further 9.8 per cent found it difficult to give an answer.

Thirdly, when respondents were given a definition of the term volunteer and were asked the question “Did you participate in volunteering (in voluntary or socially useful activities/events, without payment) in 2019?”, the number of people who answered yes increased to 30.2 per cent and the number who said no decreased to 66.3 per cent, while those who found it difficult to respond fell to 3.5 per cent.

Finally, to study the contribution of volunteers to SDG 11, we detailed the types of work (helping the vulnerable, eliminating the consequences of natural disasters, improving the environment, preserving cultural monuments and holy places, organizing public leisure, etc.) and tried to measure the engagement of respondents in specific types of work. If the respondent participated as a volunteer in at least one of the listed types of work, then we considered them a volunteer, regardless of whether they identified as such). During the study, 82.4 per cent (989 respondents out of 1,200) were ultimately classified as volunteers, meaning that only 17.6 per cent of the population had no experience of volunteering in the previous 12 months.

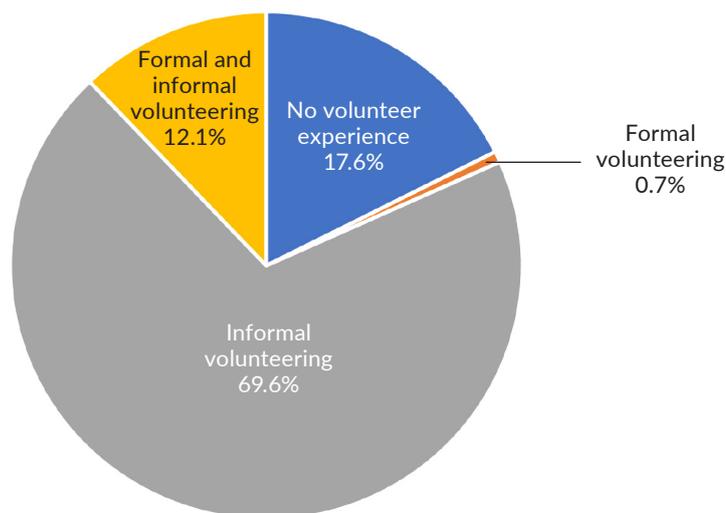
In-depth probing questions about volunteering	Comment	Percentage identifying as volunteers
Have you taken part in the activities/events of volunteer organizations? • Yes • No • Difficulties answering	No definition of volunteering was provided	12.8
Do you consider yourself a volunteer? • Yes • No • Difficulties answering	No definition of volunteering was provided	19.9
Have you participated in volunteering (in voluntary, socially useful activities/events) without pay in 2019? • Yes • No • Difficulties answering	No definition of volunteering was provided	30.2

In-depth probing questions about volunteering	Comment	Percentage identifying as volunteers
<p>In which of the following socially beneficial activities have you participated without pay and voluntarily?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Helping neighbours, colleagues and relatives (celebrations, funerals, household chores, etc.) • Helping vulnerable families (people living in poverty, large families, orphans, disabled people) • Elimination of the consequences of natural disasters (mudflows, landslides, earthquakes, fires, etc.) • Housing construction • Road improvement and road safety • Improving the environment • Preservation of cultural heritage (preservation of monuments, parks, holy places, national traditions, songs, national dress, customs, etc.) • Mobilizing the population and civic engagement • Organization of public leisure (exhibitions, amateur performances, clubs, sports events, etc.) 	<p>No definition of volunteering was provided</p>	<p>82.4</p>

Table 2.2 Participation in *ashar*, *zhurtchuluk* and *agloo* in Kyrgyzstan in 2020 (n = 1,200)

The bulk of the population (about 70 per cent) has experience of participating in informal volunteering, while less than 1 per cent of the country’s citizens participated solely in formal volunteering. A significant part of the population (12.1 per cent) volunteered, both formally and informally.

Figure 2.1 Participation in formal and informal types of volunteering among respondents, N=1,200

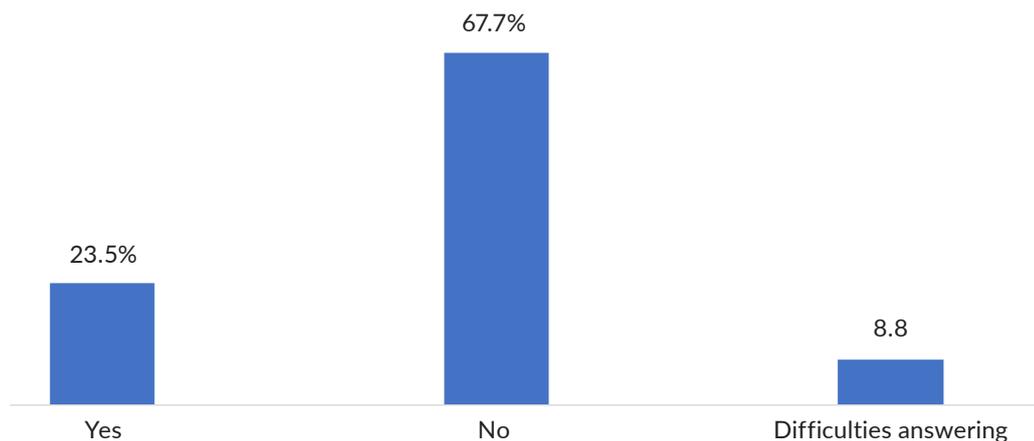


Kyrgyzstanis engage in volunteering without referring to it as such

Deeper probing showed that 82.4 per cent of the population engaged in some form of voluntary work (formal or informal) but 67.7 per cent of those volunteering did not identify as volunteers (Figure 2.2). Further discussions suggested that the variation in figures is explained by the lack of an appropriate legal framework in Kyrgyzstan, which led to a variety of subjective assessments of volunteerism, including variations in the interpretation of concepts such as what volunteer work is, who volunteers are and how long it is necessary to work as a volunteer to be considered a volunteer.

The lack of a legal framework and a misunderstanding of the term “volunteering” means that most people who engage in volunteering do not consider themselves volunteers. Our survey shows that many Kyrgyzstanis fully associate volunteering with international donor interventions, hence the term “volunteer” is not used outside the framework of international projects. According to the individuals surveyed, volunteers are people who provide assistance to the vulnerable, are employed by international projects, and receive incentives and rewards for this work from the international organizations.

Figure 2.2 Responses to the question “Do you consider yourself a volunteer?” from people who have volunteered in the previous 12 months N=989



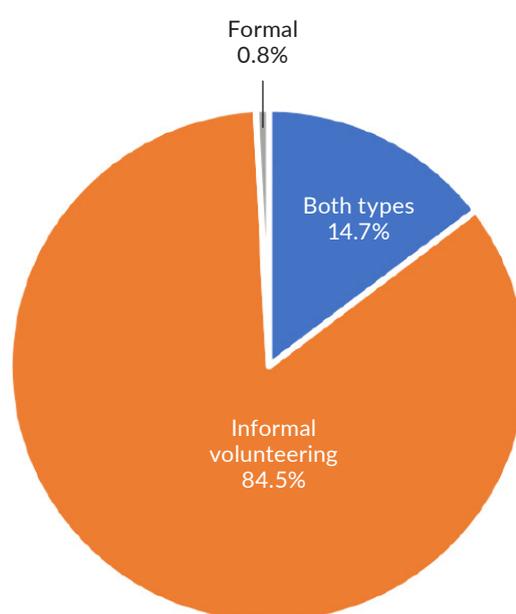
Characteristics of volunteers

If we examine the types of volunteer work undertaken by the group who had performed volunteering activities in the previous 12 months in more detail (Figure 2.3), the majority (84.5 per cent) only had experience of informal volunteering, less than one per cent only had experience of formal volunteering and one in 10 of those who had volunteered (14.7 per cent, or 12.1 per cent of the total population) had participated in both formal volunteer work through organizations and informal volunteering.

Describing the group of volunteers identified through in-depth questions, we can say that 61.6 per cent live in rural areas and 38.4 per cent in urban areas. Both men and women engage in volunteering. However, unlike with traditional forms such as *ashar*, which tend to have higher male participation, in this broader perspective, women volunteer more than their male counterparts. Women are more likely than men to participate in informal volunteering, while men are more likely to participate in formal types and combine formal and informal forms of volunteering. Volunteers are people of all age groups, but the majority (40.7 per cent) are 30–49 years of age, while one in three is 18–29 years of age.

Volunteers live in families with different levels of material wealth: 1.3 per cent of volunteers say that their family does not have “enough money even for food”; 7.6 per cent have “enough money only for food but not enough for utilities”; 27 per cent have “enough money for food but buying clothes causes difficulties”; 33.9 per cent have “enough income for food and clothing, but buying expensive durable goods is a problem”; 20.9 per cent “can easily buy durable goods but buying really expensive items is a problem”; and 2.7 per cent can afford a lot: a car, a summer residence and travel abroad”. About 7 per cent of volunteers refused to identify the material status of their families. The largest share of volunteers are unemployed (33.5 per cent) or work for hire (30 per cent). Slightly fewer are self-employed while 7.4 per cent of volunteers own a business.

Figure 2.3 Engagement of volunteers in different forms of volunteering (N=989)



	Engagement of volunteers in different forms of volunteering n = 989	Percentage involved in informal volunteering n = 836	Percentage involved in formal volunteering n = 8	Percentage involved in both types of volunteering n = 145
All	100.0	84.5	0.8	14.7
Male	48.3	76.4	1.0	22.6
Female	51.7	92.2	0.6	7.2
Rural	61.6	86.9	1.1	12.0
Urban	38.4	80.8	0.3	18.9

Table 2.3 Participation in formal and informal volunteering work among volunteers in Kyrgyzstan, 2020

Source: Authors

Intensity of volunteering

On average, surveyed volunteers devoted 32.6 days to volunteering in 2019 (responses to the question “How many days have you spent in 2019 volunteering?”). Volunteers who were engaged in formal volunteering volunteered 3.3 days more on average than those engaged in informal volunteering. The intensity of volunteering in rural areas is greater than in urban areas – volunteers in rural areas volunteered for an average of 38.7 days while urban residents volunteered 15 days less. On average, women volunteer for 33.5 days, which is 1.9 days more than men. The 30–49 age group volunteer the most (36.4 days). This figure is 9.7 days higher than people over 49 years of age and 9.2 days more than volunteers under 30 years of age. At 42.1 days, people who are unemployed volunteer the most, compared to 28.9 among volunteers employed as hired workers, 23.7 days among entrepreneurs and 32.7 days among the self-employed.

Discussion and implications for future measurement work

Without effective localized survey tools, the first part of this paper shows that volunteer participation in Kyrgyzstan would be estimated at around 12.8 per cent rather than the figure of 82.4 per cent, which takes into account traditional voluntary activities using further probing. Significantly underestimating the scale and scope of volunteering means that the contributions volunteers make to national development are not fully recognized. A more comprehensive base is important for addressing the next questions in this paper, namely the economic contributions of volunteering and the contributions volunteers make to SDG 11.

Section 2: Estimating volunteer contributions to GDP and SDGs

The role of volunteering, especially informal volunteering, is undervalued in Kyrgyzstan. This is shown not only by the absence of a legal framework but through a lack of documentation of the contribution of volunteering to the economic development of the country. As part of this study, we have attempted to estimate the contribution volunteers make in the GDP. The methodology of our calculation needs to be discussed and improved by scientists, the National Statistics Committee and activists from volunteer movements.

Our approach is based on estimating the cost of paying for the volunteer labour. The formula is estimated as follows, where:

$V = (N * v) / 100$, where V is the number of volunteers in the country, N is the resident population 18 years of age or older and v is the number of formal and informal volunteers identified during the study (percentage).

$X = ((D * Z * V) / GDP) * 100$, where D is the average number of days worked by a volunteer, Z is the average daily wage in US dollars and X is the contribution of volunteers to GDP (percentage).

According to 2019 figures from the National Statistics Committee, the average pay for volunteer work is \$233.4, which is equivalent to 17,155 Kyrgyzstani soms per month or \$8.9 a day (based on a six-day working week).⁵ The country’s GDP was approximately \$8 billion (equivalent to approximately 590 billion soms). The resident population over 18 years of age was just over 4 million.

Based on our survey findings, the average number of days spent on volunteering and the proportion of the population that engages in volunteering can be used to estimate the contribution it makes to GDP. At present, GDP does not account for volunteering but according to our calculations,

accounting for the contribution of volunteer labour would increase the country's GDP by 11.9 per cent. Relevant calculations are provided below:

$$V = (4,008,089 * 82.4) / 100 = 3,302,665$$

$$X = (32.6 * 8.9 * 3,302,665) / 8,027,787,755 * 100 = 11.9 \text{ per cent}$$

Despite the intensity of volunteering in the formal sector being higher than in the informal sector, the contribution of informal volunteering to the country's GDP is 4.8 times larger than formal volunteering. Informal volunteer labour accounts for 9.1 per cent of GDP, while formal volunteering accounts for just 1.9 per cent. These figures can be explained by the fact that the number of people who engage in informal volunteering is 5.4 times greater than the number of people who engage in formal volunteering.

The unique contribution of volunteers to achieving the SDGs

The contribution of volunteers to the SDGs in Kyrgyzstan is not currently documented. For this paper, we have tried to estimate the unique contribution of volunteering to SDG 11 (inclusive, safe and resilient cities). We have also found that volunteering makes similar contributions in rural areas.

Our survey showed that one in 10 (11.2 per cent) of adults in Kyrgyzstan urban areas contributed as a volunteer to achieving SDG 11 in 2019. The largest group of volunteers was committed to improving the environment, with 28.3 per cent of urban Kyrgyzstani citizens making contributions in this area.

Most volunteering that contributes to achieving SDG 11 is informal: 70.1 per cent of volunteers who contributed to SDG 11 provided labour through informal volunteering, while only 29.9 per cent engaged through events and activities organized by volunteer organizations.

SDG 11 Targets	Rural	All volunteering	Urban formal volunteering	Urban informal volunteering
11.1. Access to safe and affordable housing	15.9%	11.0%	32.7%	67.3%
11.2. Affordable and sustainable transport systems	3.3%	4.5%	40.0%	60.0%
11.3. Inclusive and sustainable urbanization 11.6. Reducing the adverse environmental impact of cities 11.7. Providing access to safe and inclusive green and public spaces	17.2%	28.3%	27.8%	72.2%
11.4. Safeguarding the world's cultural and natural heritage	6.1%	7.6%	20.6%	79.4%
11.5. Reducing the damage from natural disasters	8.1%	4.7%	28.6%	71.4%
Arithmetic mean	10.1%	11.2%	29.9%	70.1%

Table 2.4 Volunteer participation of the population in the implementation of SDG 11 targets

Source: Authors

Ashar as the main form of informal volunteering towards SDG 11

Ashar is the main form of informal volunteering for achieving SDG 11: 62.8 per cent of informal volunteers participated via *ashar*. However, *agloo* and *zhurtchuluk* also contributed towards SDG 11 (31.7 per cent and 41.2 per cent, respectively). Other traditional forms of volunteering were also used to contribute to SDG 11: 5.1 per cent of Kyrgyzstanis took part in other, non-traditional forms of engagement, although an in-depth review of other forms of volunteering is beyond the scope of this study.

Ashar, *agloo/uyushma/sherik* and *zhurtchuluk* are the most frequent forms of contributing to SDG target 11.4 of safeguarding the world's cultural and natural heritage. Note that the following activities are carried out through *ashar* in urban areas: helping citizens during the COVID-19 pandemic, protecting large public facilities (malls, cultural monuments, cultural leisure facilities) and as well as patrolling the streets during riots and civil unrest. *Ashar* can be used for activities such as planting green spaces in urban areas, cleaning up heavily contaminated areas, cleaning canals, etc.

SDG 11 Targets	Traditional forms			
	<i>Ashar</i>	<i>Agloo/uyushma/sherik</i>	<i>Zhurtchuluk</i>	Other
11.1. Access to safe and affordable housing	73.5%	30.6%	49.0%	6.1%
11.2. Affordable and sustainable transport systems	45.0%	20.0%	20.0%	
11.3. Inclusive and sustainable urbanization 11.6. Reducing the adverse environmental impact of cities 11.7. Providing access to safe and inclusive green and public spaces	61.9%	31.0%	38.9%	3.2%
11.4. Safeguarding the world's cultural and natural heritage	76.5%	52.9%	64.7%	5.9%
11.5. Reducing the damage from natural disasters	57.1%	23.8%	33.3%	
Arithmetic mean	62.8%	31.7%	41.2%	5.1%

Table 2.5 Traditional forms of volunteering for implementing SDG 11

Source: Authors

CONCLUSIONS

Kyrgyzstan has no formal volunteering policy or legal framework. This is at least partly to blame for the lack of knowledge and awareness of volunteering. It also means the contribution of volunteers is not accounted for in the country's GDP or SDG framework.

Volunteering has a large footprint in Kyrgyzstan but is challenging to measure. While 82.4 per cent of Kyrgyzstanis have volunteered in the last 12 months, 67.7 per cent do not identify as volunteers when asked without further explanation and probing. This can be explained by the local associations with the concepts and terms used. Three traditional forms of volunteering prevail in Kyrgyzstan: in 2019, 46.6 per cent of the population participated in *ashar*; 16.8 per cent in *zhurtchuluk*; and 16.2 per cent in *agloo/uyushma/sherik*. Fifty per cent of the population has experience of at least one form of these types of volunteering.

Overall, the contribution of volunteers to GDP is estimated to be 11.9 per cent of GDP in 2019 and one in 10 Kyrgyzstanis has contributed to SDG 11 through volunteering. *Ashar* and other forms of traditional volunteering will continue to be present over the coming decade, since clan thinking and values are deeply embedded in the consciousness of Kyrgyzstani society, which has been greatly influenced by the harsh nomadic lifestyle of the past.

RECOMMENDATIONS

- Methodologies for accounting for the contributions of traditional forms of volunteering should be the subject of further discussion, including local testing of global surveys such as the ILO modules on measuring volunteer work.
- Formal volunteer programmes should integrate traditional Kyrgyz volunteering into projects to better focus volunteering on the more pressing needs of communities. Volunteers will be more motivated when solving local development challenges.
- Community needs assessment should be undertaken by people who participate in or coordinate informal volunteering, such as community leaders, representatives of local authorities (*aiyl okmotu*) and youth and women's committees.
- Kyrgyzstan needs a state policy on volunteering that includes support for formal and informal volunteering and engages local volunteers and cultural experts in its development and implementation.

Notes

- 1** *Ashar* is widely understood as communal mutual help during major events such as building houses, roads and bridges, making carpets, shearing sheep, etc. *Zhurtchuuk* is mutual help practiced mostly in cases of emergencies or accidents, provided in the form of money or labour. The terms *agloo*, *uyushma* and *sherik* refer to collective mutual help used in the process of farming. The aid can be provided in the form of labour, land, tools, equipment, livestock, fertilizer and other forms. More detailed explanations of these terms are provided later in the text.
- 2** International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies 2015, Plan of Action 2020.
- 3** Self-governing centralized religious organization that unites on a voluntary basis smaller religious entities or individuals residing in a certain territory.
- 4** Islamic missionaries.
- 5** Kyrgyzstan, National Statistical Committee of the Kyrgyz Republic 2019.

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Volunteer contributions to building more peaceful, inclusive, just and accountable societies

CECILIA MILESI AND ERIKA LÓPEZ FRANCO

This paper presents an adaptive framework for recognizing volunteer contributions to SDG 16 on Peace, Justice and Strong Institutions. It aims to support governments and organizations in empowering volunteers, activists and communities by putting them at the centre of co-creating, implementing, identifying and learning from transformative volunteering initiatives to sustain peace, addressing the root causes of violence and conflict.

The paper argues that volunteerism and activism are central to creating peaceful, inclusive, just and accountable societies. As a foundation for the adaptive framework, we first describe the key challenges faced by the voluntary sector in measuring volunteer contributions to peace and development, presenting initial evidence from several existing volunteerism initiatives. The paper presents the adaptive framework for measuring volunteer contributions, including brief guidance.

The adaptive framework was designed considering theory and practice relevant to peace studies and current debates around the 2030 Agenda and the United Nations Sustaining Peace agenda. It recognizes everyday expressions of volunteerism through local perspectives and languages, using participatory action research as the underlying methodological approach and connecting it to the dimensions of Johan Galtung's concept of positive peace and the SDG 16+ targets.¹ The paper emphasizes the importance of recognizing what is referred to as "informal volunteering" – voluntary action that happens outside of formally recognized institutions and funded programmes – as an expression of active citizenship. We invite readers to consider using this adaptive framework to look at all types of (unpaid) civic engagement for the public good undertaken by people of all ages and identities.

As a whole, the adaptive framework aims to provide a flexible tool to promote inclusivity, respect for diversity and participation, all of which are important principles in the 2030 Agenda vision of leaving no one behind.

Volunteering and SDG 16+

The international consensus from which the 2030 Agenda emerged marks a turning point in the global development policy framework. The Agenda states that sustainable development is not possible without peace and that peace is not possible without sustainable development, that is that peace and development are interrelated priorities.

Situating the contributions of volunteers at this nexus is critical both to better understand their impact and to strengthen initiatives to support the significant contributions they make to peace and development. While a slow process to recognize the contribution of volunteering to peace and development is already under way, it remains fractured, limited and incomplete.

Gradual recognition of the importance of volunteering in sustaining peace

Volunteering efforts towards sustainable peace at the local and global levels remain under-recognized and invisible. Yet recent United Nations initiatives reflect increasingly stronger recognition, for example:

- The **United Nations Secretary-General Report *Integrating volunteering in the next decade acknowledges the contributions of volunteerism to security and peace, environment, gender and social inclusion***. It also urges governments, United Nations agencies and volunteers to deepen the integration of volunteering into peace and development policies and programmes, outlining a plan of action to achieve this.²
- The **United Nations General Assembly resolution *Integrating volunteering into peace and development*** acknowledges the importance of integrating volunteering into peacebuilding and conflict-prevention activities, encouraging actors to allocate resources and make institutional and regulatory arrangements for these to be sustained and expanded.³
- Volunteer groups have recently been included as key stakeholders in the High-Level Political Forum (HLPF) to oversee progress on the implementation of the 2030 Agenda,⁴ with recognized capacity to contribute to the annual SDG progress reviews.⁵

This slow but steady recognition of the role volunteers play and can play in building peace is important, since it has the potential to empower volunteers, activists and their organizations. All these actors provide critical support to recovery and reconstruction efforts, creatively mediate local tensions and rebuild values of solidarity and trust. A significant opportunity has arrived **to showcase their contribution to sustaining peace** by identifying and celebrating their contributions to peace and development.

While this gradual recognition continues to emerge on paper and in multilateral discourse, in practice neither Member States nor the HLPF have taken specific steps to recognize the role played by volunteers and activists when it comes to achieving the SDGs, as shown by the omission of volunteers in the indicators proposed for measuring the SDGs.⁶

There is also a lack of evidence on how volunteers contribute to achieving SDG 16+ to promote peaceful and inclusive societies for sustainable development, provide access to justice for all and build effective, accountable and inclusive institutions at all levels. The limited available evidence remains confined to specific thematic areas and is not clearly connected to the SDG 16+ targets due to a range of challenges in our current models and approaches for capturing and celebrating the contributions of volunteering to these vital issues of our time.

Current challenges in modelling the contributions of volunteerism to SDG 16+

There are at least four interrelated challenges that highlight the limitations of existing models and approaches when it comes to measuring the contributions volunteers make to SDG 16+.

Biases around counting volunteers contributing to peace initiatives

Both international and national organizations face multiple challenges when it comes to counting and identifying community volunteers involved in peace initiatives. Despite their pivotal roles in reconstruction efforts, community volunteers are rarely meaningfully included in programming, research and evaluation, and they have limited protection when taking risks in insecure settings. This lack of inclusion stems from a narrow conceptualization of volunteering as “service delivery”, which occludes and ignores the range of roles volunteers play in peace and reconstruction.⁷

Siloed approaches to measuring contributions of volunteerism to peace

The dominant discourse focuses on showing how volunteers contribute to good governance and institutional strengthening as enablers of peace. However, there is a growing body of evidence of how volunteers contribute to promoting cultural understanding, intercultural dialogue and other “intangible” personal and collective skills central to building durable peace. Connections are seldom made between these disparate dimensions of volunteers’ contributions they are rarely examined from a holistic perspective that reflects the complexities of the contributions volunteers make to conflict prevention and peacebuilding.

Narrow focus on measurable good governance categories to the exclusion of “intangible” factors

Prior to the 2030 Agenda, a significant strand of research focused on understanding the contributions of volunteering to the concept of good governance. In 2014, for example, an in-depth study gathered evidence on how international volunteers strengthened public and private governance structures. The formal contributions of volunteers were assessed based on the World Bank governance surveys database, which covers numerous categories: rule of law and regulatory frameworks; corruption, collusion and nepotism; voice and accountability; transparency and public awareness; political stability, peace and security; participation; effectiveness and responsiveness; capacity-building; and activism.⁸ Following a similar logic, the UNV 2015 State of the World’s Volunteerism report found that volunteerism contributes to enhancing the voice and participation, accountability and responsiveness of a range of governance actors and institutions at all levels and across all regions.⁹

Research on volunteering and governance has understandably focused on elements that can be measured by concrete statistics and numerical indicators, such as accountability or access to justice. As such, they miss the many contributions of volunteer work towards building cultural understanding by addressing personal, interpersonal and community issues that fuel violence. For example, key results of a mixed-method study by the global network of the Coordinating Committee for International Voluntary Service (CCIVS)¹⁰ show that volunteering exchanges promote the enhancement of “power within”, “power to” and “power with”, all of which are essential for achieving sustainable peace and development.¹¹

Other research highlights how volunteers can build relationships of trust, brokering conversations with multiple actors and creating opportunities to access information and institutional spaces for monitoring and advocacy.¹² In some contexts, the relational way in which volunteers work makes them better able to interact with the groups that are hardest to reach, contributing to the SDG principle of leaving no one behind.¹³ Studies have also identified how international volunteering can help change informal norms and attitudes that determine how people perceive and engage governing institutions.¹⁴

Yet when assessing the SDG 16+ indicators, hardly any reflect these intangible elements that make up the dimensions of cultural understanding.

Prevalence of top-down and technocratic approaches to measuring volunteer contributions to peace and development

The 2030 Agenda has seen calls for evidence on the implementation of the SDGs to go beyond quantitative targets by also measuring qualitative dimensions related to inclusion, equity, quality and participation.¹⁵ In practice neither Member States nor the HLPF have set out specific measures to do

this. Controversially, volunteers are not mentioned in the indicators for measuring the SDGs, which renders volunteerism invisible.¹⁶ Furthermore, volunteerism is seen as a measure of participation and a resource for gathering enhanced, disaggregated data to track progress and ensure that no one is left behind.¹⁷

Such a perspective is problematic. Firstly, because the existence of volunteerism should not be considered just a measure: the intrinsic value of volunteerism comes from its status as a process for generating change and sustaining peace. Secondly, there is a risk that volunteers – especially “informal” ones – are seen by the development sector as data collectors, rather than as actors capable of identifying the root causes of issues and co-creating measures to address them.

Similarly, that fact that informal volunteerism remains hard to quantify in terms of its economic value and is conceptually ambiguous means it remains largely absent from national and international statistical systems.¹⁸ This means its contribution only becomes visible and enters decision-making spaces once it becomes part of large-scale research and impact evaluations often led by institutions in the Global North.¹⁹ This reflects the complex and even unfair politics of evidence generation around volunteerism and the SDGs, as well as the lack of recognition of different kinds of knowledge and the failure to co-create evidence with volunteers.

Towards an adaptive framework for valuing volunteer contributions to SDG 16+

In response to the challenges in the prevailing approach to capturing the contributions of volunteering to peace, development and security, we propose to Member States and diverse organizations a new framework capable of valuing and identifying volunteer contributions to sustaining peace. The adaptive framework provides a way to generate evidence on volunteers’ contributions to SDG 16+ that empowers volunteers and activists. It is a flexible tool that helps to generate learning from volunteer-led initiatives for sustaining peace across various national and regional contexts. This section presents a synthesized version of the adaptive framework, including brief guidance for using it.

A holistic understanding of peace and an inclusive definition of volunteerism

This paper is based on the premise that volunteerism and activism are central to creating peaceful, inclusive, just and accountable societies and that it is necessary to move away from rigid definitions of volunteerism. We agree with Naidoo’s argument for the **convergence of volunteerism and social activism**, recognizing that while not all activists are volunteers, many are; just as many volunteers are activists.²⁰ As such, we also consider social activism as being fostered by volunteers. We invite readers to consider using this adaptive framework to focus on all types of (unpaid) civic engagement and think more broadly about the voluntary activities carried out on a daily basis by people of all ages and identities. Everyone must be included in the design, implementation, evaluation and learning process.

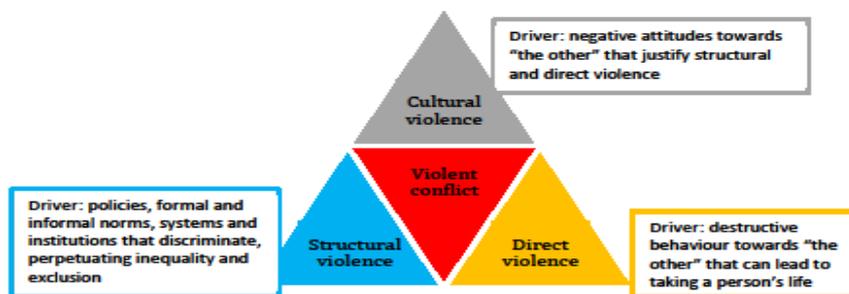
Holistic and transformative understanding of peace

While peace can be understood negatively as the containment of violence and criminal behaviour, which puts the focus on ensuring the security of social life (for example, policing and militarization), it can also be understood positively as the transformation of the root causes of violent conflict and insecurity to create sustainable conditions for peaceful societies. This latter approach endorses a more holistic perspective focused on tackling the drivers of tensions, insecurity and violence by addressing issues such as exclusion, injustice, discrimination, poverty and inequality.²¹

In this paper we focus on positive peace. We maintain that when the United Nations Member States declared the **SDGs to be indivisible**, they in fact endorsed this concept. In other words, only if and when the world can overcome the complex global challenges that span all of the goals will we achieve sustainable peace and development for all.²²

In looking at how volunteering can contribute to peace, we can consider Galtung's ABC triangle of the root causes of conflict, which distinguishes three interrelated types of violence with key interacting drivers that lead to violent conflict (Figure 2.4).²³

Figure 2.4 Types of violence and corresponding drivers that lead violent conflict



Source: Authors, based on Galtung 1969; Galtung 1990

Positive peace is created by facilitating processes of change that aim to transform these types of violence, tackling the drivers behind them. For peace to be sustainable over time, work must be done across all types of violence, moving from structural violence to structural justice, from cultural violence to cultural understanding and from direct violence to no conflict.

The adaptive framework invites volunteering initiatives to plan, implement, evaluate and learn about their impacts based on a structure that links, identifies and reflects on a holistic understanding of peace. The structure of the adaptive framework comprises six interlinked elements:

- types of violence;
- drivers of that violence;
- dimensions of change that will lead to positive peace;
- issues potentially addressed by volunteering initiatives;
- the SDG 16+ targets; and
- corresponding SDG 16+ indicators.

Connecting the dimensions of change of positive peace with SDG 16+

The **adaptive framework integrates all the targets and indicators for the extended SDG 16+**, as opposed to just those for SDG 16, reflecting a more comprehensive understanding of the peace and development nexus (Box 2.1). This provides a framework for working not only with a more inclusive understanding of rights but also with a fair understanding of responsibilities, paving the way to working with a truly global, multi-stakeholder and multi-sectoral approach to sustaining peace.²⁴

Box 2.1 SDG 16+ targets

SDG 16+ integrates targets from other SDGs:

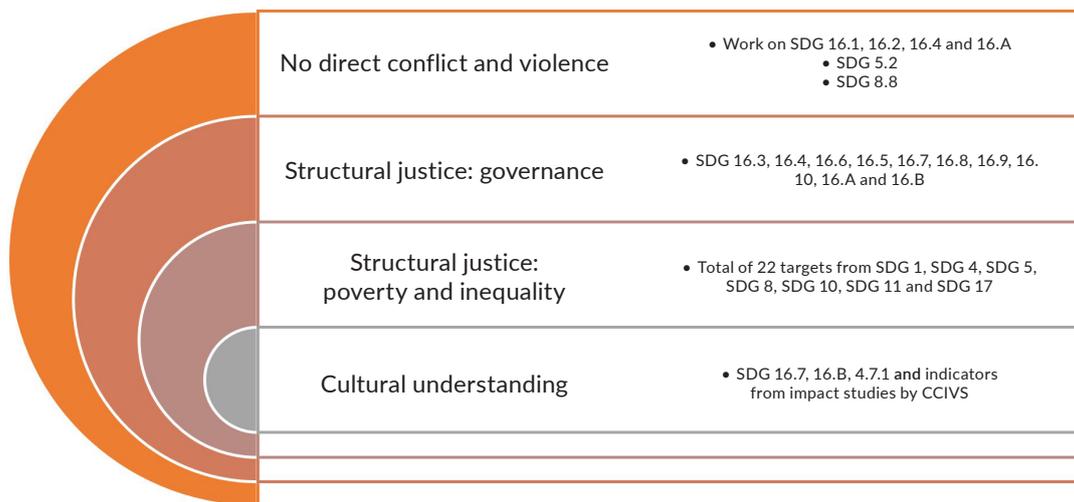
- SDG 16: Peace, justice and strong Institutions
- SDG 1: No poverty
- SDG 4: Quality education
- SDG 5: Gender equality
- SDG 8: Decent work and economic growth
- SDG 10: Reduced inequalities
- SDG 11: Sustainable cities and communities
- SDG 17: Partnerships for the goals

Source: Pathfinders for Peaceful, Just and Inclusive Societies.

The structure of the framework associates the SDG 16+ targets and indicators with the three dimensions of change for positive peace, while presenting issues that volunteering initiatives are likely to be addressing as part of building just, accountable, and peaceful communities. As mentioned above, both SDG 16 and SDG 16+ do not include substantive indicators related to cultural understanding. To address this shortcoming, for this dimension of change we have used indicators from the CCVIS impact studies (Figure 2.5).

The full adaptive framework can be found in annex I of the full version of this document (Milesi and Lopez Franco 2020) available at: <https://bit.ly/36vPI4E>

Figure 2.5 Connecting the positive peace dimensions of change to SDG 16+



Source: Authors

Examples of volunteering initiatives within the holistic peace framework

Below we give some examples of transformative and innovative initiatives that are currently supporting more peaceful, just, inclusive and accountable societies.²⁵ An initial mapping of various volunteering initiatives to the structure of the adaptive framework is available in the **matrix in annex II**

of the full version of this paper.²⁶ This matrix aims to support volunteering initiatives to fully show how they help promote a holistic understanding of peace.

CCIVS members across the world and the research they conducted clearly identify how volunteering enhances the personal, interpersonal and relational aspects that enable understanding and cooperation between multiple “others” (Box 2.2).

Box 2.2 Example 1 – International work camps (South–South, South–North, North–South)²⁷

CCIVS, together with its 181 members working across the world, conducted comparative before and after surveys to measure how volunteering experiences promote a positive transformation of preconceptions and negative ideas about other cultures and social groups, while enhancing skills that help improve personal, interpersonal and community dimensions. The study measured indicators on three levels:

- **Personal** – self-awareness, confidence, autonomy, motivation.
- **Interpersonal skills** – communication, problem-solving, teamwork, adaptation and conflict management.
- **Community** – intercultural awareness, social inclusion and integration, and active participation.

These indicators are included in the adaptive framework. The matrix initially also assess how the projects of CCIVS members also contribute to several SDG 16+ targets.²⁸

Source: Authors based on correspondence with CCIVS

Academics and practitioners continue to search for methods to document the many ways volunteers and activists can make a difference by improving service provision, increasing participation in decision-making at multiple levels and ensuring accountability (Box 2.3).²⁹

Box 2.3 Example 2 – Integrating social accountability into volunteerism programming

Voluntary Services Overseas (VSO) has included social accountability as a core part of all volunteering programmes, alongside gender, inclusion and resilience.³⁰ This is central to achieving sustained change across the various dimensions of its Volunteer for Development strategy: individual, family/community, policy and structural. For example, in Kenya, youth task forces have used social accountability tools and activism to hold those responsible for poor service provision accountable. The actions of volunteers have gone further by unveiling corruption and inspiring other young people to join their efforts. VSO staff and national and international volunteers have helped build youth capacity in areas such as power analysis, campaigning, using tools in context-appropriate and inclusive ways, risk analysis and mitigation.

This way of working is strengthening young people’s capacities to move from a context of structural violence against youth to one of structural justice.

Source: Authors’ experience supporting VSO learning processes

Moving away from “assistencialist” and charitable approaches, volunteers in social movements, ranging from the grassroots to global levels, have demanded an end to structural discrimination and poverty with an approach based on tackling multiple inequalities. There is increasing interest in these contributions.³¹ Moreover, the ways in which some volunteering initiatives are building structural justice address the personal, social and economic factors that keep people marginalized (Box 2.4).

Box 2.4 Example 3 – Global volunteer corps fighting extreme poverty alongside people living in poverty

The International Movement All Together in Dignity (ATD Fourth World)³² prioritizes working alongside the poorest people in both the Global North and the Global South. It brings together members of an international volunteer corps, activists with first-hand experience of poverty and multiple allies to develop initiatives that promote advocacy and skills for professional development.

The movement's approach to structural change starts at the individual level but connects to multiple spheres of action to deliver structural change. Through "people's university" sessions, street libraries and its participatory research approach, Merging of Knowledge, volunteers support the progressive growth of people's sense of self-worth and dignity and their capacity to join others to drive change. Volunteers also promote alternative work experiences that develop strong ties and solidarity, in addition to generating income for those in extreme poverty.

Source: Authors based on ATD Fourth World 2019

Given the limitations of this paper, we can only highlight some of the achievements of volunteers and activists in ending direct violence, particularly through campaigning (Box 2.5).

Box 2.5 Example 4 – Volunteerism and the global campaign to abolish the death penalty

For 40 years, Amnesty has been campaigning to abolish the death penalty around the world, monitoring data, publishing reports, strengthening national and international standards against its use, and applying pressure in cases of imminent execution. Amnesty's work on this issue is supported by its incredible activists, who have campaigned against the death penalty in their own countries. For example, Souleymane Sow, has been volunteering with Amnesty International since he was a student in France. When he returned to his country of origin, Guinea, he set up a local group of volunteers to promote the importance of human rights, educating people on these issues and abolishing the death penalty. With the help of other NGOs, the group finally achieved its goal in 2019.

When Amnesty started its work in 1977, only 16 countries had fully abolished the death penalty. Today, that number has risen to 106 – more than half the world's countries.

Source: Authors' summary based on <https://www.amnesty.org/en/what-we-do/death-penalty/>

We would like to invite volunteers and organizations to reflect on how their long-term impact may be associated with preventing and ending direct violence. This depends very much on the dynamics and objectives of each initiative.

A principled approach to promote voice, bottom-up participation and inclusivity

Having introduced the adaptive framework structure and some examples of volunteerism initiatives aligned with it, let us now consider the other two important elements of the adaptive framework: the **adaptive framework guiding principles** to inspire transformative practice and an **adaptive approach** to planning, gathering evidence and learning, considering key guiding questions that are also linked to SDG 16+.

The adaptive framework is aligned with the vision and principles of participatory action research (particularly the Latin American school), a democratic and participative approach to learning and evidence that involves co-creating knowledge with – rather than about – people (Box 2.6).³³ Participatory action research emphasizes that the politics of evidence generation are linked to liberation from oppression, as people identify the structural issues that have kept them marginalized and, by doing so, they become conscious of their own power to change them.³⁴

Box 2.6 Principles of participatory action research

Epistemological

- Participants are central to decision-making in social change and research processes. They are subjects, not just objects, of research. Everyone's viewpoints count but the views of those most affected by the problem are at the centre due to their deeper understanding.

Political

- The purpose of the research is to transform reality in a way that benefits the citizens who are most affected by a problem.
- Ownership of the process strengthens civic engagement and democracy.

Methodological

- Based on methods that allow meaningful participation, based on the understanding and questioning of power structures.

Source: Authors based on information from Sirvent and Regal 2012

The adaptive framework also endorses the principles of the 2030 Agenda and the United Nations Sustaining Peace resolutions:

- National and local ownership – importance of “proximity”, participation and the demand-driven nature of programming.
- Inclusivity and leaving no one behind – all segments of society must be listened to, including women and girls, youth, indigenous peoples and multiple marginalized groups.
- Peace and development are a process as well as goal – peace is preventing the outbreak, escalation, continuation and recurrence of conflict.

Volunteering initiatives that use a principled approach can trigger inclusive, democratic and highly political processes of change, as opposed to those only seeking efficiency and better performance. A principled approach to designing and learning from volunteering initiatives also ensure conflict sensitivity, which is essential for conflict prevention and sound crisis management.³⁵ Conflict sensitivity entails the constant assessment of the unique contextual power and politics dynamics that explain violent conflict to avoid reinforcing unfair dynamics or grievances that drive that conflict. It also means giving careful consideration to structural and historical asymmetries that need to be addressed to resolve ingrained grievances that drive violent conflict. This allows volunteering initiatives to be alert to conflict and peace dynamics based on the realities of those most affected on the ground, in contrast to a top-down approach.³⁶

The adaptive framework invites volunteering initiatives to facilitate three stages (planning, implementation, and reflection and learning) to support locally owned joint analysis as part of a conflict-sensitive approach (Figure 2.6).

Figure 2.6 The participatory action research cycle and stages for implementing the adaptive framework



Source: Authors' adaptation of the participatory action research diagram

An important aspect of the action research cycle advocated by the framework is that its adaptiveness can facilitate storytelling, empathetic listening and collective analysis and action, making “victims” the authors of new stories of change.³⁷ It thus promotes the invisible but vital act of nurturing “a new political we”.³⁸

A principled and adaptive approach also facilitates another crucial aspect in conflict and crisis contexts: as people share stories and perspectives, it can support healing and the restoration of trust, fostering social cohesion by embracing a common history of pain, suffering and fear. The adaptive framework proposes the co-creation of knowledge and evidence as an inclusive, political and transformative process that can itself provide an opportunity for volunteers to take steps towards peace.

Using the framework to capture contributions of volunteerism to sustainable peace

This *how-to* is about supporting a dynamic process for reflecting and documenting perspectives on several key guiding questions. Volunteering initiatives can use these questions to prompt collective, empowering analysis with the aim of fully understanding if and how volunteers and activists are creating more peaceful, just and accountable societies. The guiding questions are linked to the adaptive framework, including the SDG 16+ targets.

Stage 1: Observe – Multi-stakeholder assessment of the root causes of conflict

This first stage involves facilitating multi-stakeholder spaces to discuss, identify and understand the complex and interrelated root causes of tensions, instability and structural and direct violence, while assessing what different groups and powerholders are – or are not – doing to sustain peace. In this stage we propose reflecting on **two types of guiding questions**: process guiding questions and issue questions.

Process guiding questions

These guiding questions help to determine if volunteering initiatives really are inclusive and accountable. They ensure that the internal working standards of volunteer initiatives promote peace. This is particularly important because peace is both a journey and a destination. They are built on the understanding that some of the SDG 16+ targets could also work well as **process indicators**.^{39,40}

SDG 16+ Target	Key actors	Guiding questions
SDG 16.7 Ensure responsive, inclusive, participatory and representative decision-making at all levels	Partnerships⁴¹ (including governments)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Are volunteering initiatives' partners responding to citizens' rights and demands? • Are volunteering initiatives' partners involved in violent conflict or endorsing violence directly or indirectly?
	Volunteers (including community volunteers)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Are all volunteers involved in mapping out conflict dynamics? • Are volunteering initiatives responsive when volunteers witness or suffer abuse or other types of violence?
	Citizens	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Are volunteering initiatives proactively listening to citizens in order to establish priorities with them?
SDG 16.8 Broaden the participation of developing countries in the institutions of global governance	Global South partners	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Do Global South volunteering initiatives have space and resources to shape the volunteerism agenda?
	Global South volunteers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Are Global South volunteers actively participating in volunteering endeavours?
SDG 5.1 End all forms of discrimination against women and girls	Women and girls	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Are women and girls actively involved in voicing their challenges and ideas when volunteering initiatives are designed, implemented and adapted?
SDG 10.2 Empower and promote the social, economic and political inclusion of all	People of every age, sex, disability, race, ethnicity, origin, religion or economic or other status	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Are volunteering initiatives proactively listening to citizens of every age, gender, ability, race, ethnicity, origin, religion and economic status to understand local challenges and jointly establish priorities?

Table 2.6 Process guiding questions

The full version of this paper presents other key insights for reflection that are helpful for undertaking this exercise.⁴²

Issue questions

The drivers of violent conflict will vary depending on the context. If voluntary organizations use the transformative approach proposed in this paper, it will be important to examine the range of issues playing a part at the levels of cultural, structural and direct violence. To support volunteering initiatives at Stage 1, the adaptive framework identifies a list of issues or problems that can be associated with the SDG 16+ targets and indicators (Table 2.7). This list is not exhaustive and provides a starting point that could be helpful when assessing local challenges. For example, we recognize that many other problems currently sparking conflict do not form part of the SDG 16+ framework, including climate change. We therefore invite organizations to go beyond the SDG 16+ targets and undertake an honest, in-depth reflection to unveil how challenges related to multiple SDGs are generating violence.

Key issues	Guiding questions
Cultural violence	
Lack of knowledge, appreciation and respect for other cultures and social groups; lack of conflict-management skills; individualism and selfishness	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Are there challenges at the cultural level that lead to violence? How do they reinforce each other? • Is the volunteering initiative going to try to tackle these issues?
Structural violence – governance issues	
Corruption; lack of transparency; lack of opportunities to participate in policymaking	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Are there issues linked to oppressive governance structures that are causing violence? Is the volunteering initiative going to focus on one or more of these issues?
Structural violence – socioeconomic issues	
Lack of public spending on social policies; no access to education; poverty; workers' rights not respected; unemployment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Are there issues linked to oppressive socioeconomic structures that are causing tensions and violence? Is the volunteering initiative going to focus on one or more of these issues?
Direct violence	
Sexual violence; murders; harassment; human trafficking; terrorism	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Are there current expressions of direct violence that are escalating and need an urgent response to prevent a wider outbreak of violence? Is the volunteering initiative going to be able to work at this level?
Interrelated issues and actors	
Dynamic factors and relations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • How are various issues, actors and policy processes negatively or positively reinforcing conflict dynamics? • How are volunteers perceived and how could their identities/roles generate tension or promote constructive engagement?

Table 2.7 Identified issues and guiding questions for applying the adaptive framework

Stage 2: Plan and act – Collective agreement on the options for promoting peace and justice

This stage is about enabling locally grounded, collective agreements on options and alternatives for action, while taking the drivers of conflict into account. This means deciding how voluntary efforts will be galvanized to tackle one or several drivers of conflict in order to create lasting peace.

At this point, based on the mapping of the root causes of violent conflict and insecurity (see the issues above) facilitators of volunteerism initiatives will aim to prioritize a set of strategic objectives to focus on. This prioritization will depend on multiple factors, including citizens' demands but also organizational capabilities, resources and opportunities for entry points to help sustain peace.

The programmatic focus of voluntary initiatives promoting the achievement of SDG 16+ could vary significantly.⁴³ For example, initiatives can focus on peace education, support for women and people with disabilities. Any of these issues could promote conflict prevention if this is set as an outcome in line with each context. The idea is to use the framework to develop a theory of change and action, mapping out the outcomes each volunteerism initiative is or will be working towards.

Stage 3: Reflect – Iterative reflection on whether (and how) change is happening

This stage involves facilitating the collective identification of emerging positive change, as well as failures and setbacks, in order to adapt to context dynamics. It aims to help voluntary activities contribute to positive peace and to support mutual learning and accountability.

The process guiding questions presented in stage one are also relevant for stage three. Similarly, it is vital to put the right structures and incentives in place to allow for open reflection, constructive criticism and the flexibility to change direction if necessary. Otherwise, there is a risk that opening spaces for joint learning will just become token gestures.

Learning guiding questions

Table 2.8 summarizes the broad questions that are relevant for learning and reflection with various stakeholders.

SDG 16+ targets	Guiding questions ⁴⁴
<p>SDG 16.7 SDG 16.8 SDG 5.1 SDG 10.2</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Are voluntary initiatives learning from practice by listening to stories of different participants and community members? • Are voluntary initiatives enabling empowering storytelling spaces to reflect collectively? • Are voluntary organizations supporting participatory data collection (both quantitative and qualitative)? • Are voluntary initiatives sharing results and findings with the general public and policymakers to ensure mutual accountability?

Table 2.8 Learning guiding questions

This three-stage process invites all actors engaged in voluntary initiatives to critically assess if and how they promote a culture of peace and inclusive development by responding to citizens' demands, **ensuring demand-driven programming**. In doing so, these initiatives will be working towards the 2030 Agenda vision – including the principles of leaving no one behind – throughout the design, implementation and learning and evaluation of volunteering initiatives.

Celebrate!

Our experiences supporting volunteering and activist initiatives worldwide have confirmed that for volunteering and volunteer opportunities to inspire or sustain active citizenship, people must be able to see that volunteering has an impact.⁴⁵ Volunteering can be a transformational life experience, especially for young people. It can allow them to develop their career and personal life with the common good no longer perceived as an externality to be managed by others. Valuing volunteers' achievements, and learning from their setbacks is thus also an opportunity for celebration in order to nurture active citizens who are aware of how their actions and decisions have an impact in the world. Our adaptive framework invites volunteering organizations to celebrate and reinforce the vision of a more dignified citizenship.

CONCLUSION AND NEXT STEPS

This paper has presented a condensed version of an original adaptive framework to identify, value and celebrate the contribution of volunteerism to achieving more peaceful, just and accountable societies. However, this adaptive framework has not been piloted or tested in an in-depth consultative way involving different volunteers, activists and voluntary organizations. As such, it is merely the first step in a process that will hopefully involve dialogue with movements, governmental, non-governmental and multilateral organizations, and United Nations agencies that are willing to explore how best to apply a principled participatory approach to research, with the aim of thoroughly and systematically evaluating the contribution volunteers make to peace and development. The time is right to recognize volunteerism and activism as powerful enablers of the 2030 Agenda and SDG 16+. Our team expects to begin a process of dialogue and connect with all those who, like us, believe that volunteerism is much more than performing technical tasks and donating time.

Notes

- 1** Positive peace refers to the transformation of the root causes of violent conflict and insecurity to create sustainable conditions for peaceful societies. This approach endorses a more holistic perspective focused on tackling the drivers of tensions, insecurity and violence by addressing issues such as exclusion, injustice, discrimination, poverty and inequality (Galtung 1969). Similarly, SDG 16+ looks beyond the formal targets of SDG 16 to incorporate targets from other goals that contribute to peace, justice and inclusion (United Nations 2019).
- 2** UNGA 2015a.
- 3** UNGA 2015b.
- 4** UNGA 2013. Stakeholders mentioned: (i) private philanthropic organizations/foundations; (ii) education and academic entities; (iii) people with disabilities; (iv) volunteer groups.
- 5** Haddock and Devereux 2015.
- 6** Haddock and Devereux 2015.
- 7** Lough, Allum, Devereux and Tiessen, 2018.
- 8** Lough and Matthew 2014.
- 9** UNV 2015.
- 10** CCIVS 2019.
- 11** VeneKlasen and Miller (2002) outline several ways of looking at power as a positive rather than a negative force: *Power within* – a sense of confidence, dignity and self-esteem that comes from gaining awareness of your situation and the possibility of doing something about it; *Power to* – is about being able to act. It begins with awareness and can grow into taking action, developing skills and capacities, and realizing that you can effect change; *Power with* – describes collective action; including both the psychological and political power that comes from being united. These positive expressions of power can be recognized and supported significantly by grassroots movements and activism.
- 12** Burns and others 2015.
- 13** Burns and Howard 2015.
- 14** Lough and Matthew 2014.
- 15** Howard, Lopez Franco and Wheeler 2017b.
- 16** Haddock and Devereux 2015.
- 17** UNGA 2015a.
- 18** Haddock, Sokolowski and Salamon 2018.
- 19** Burns and others 2015, Thiessen, Lough and Grantham 2018; UNV 2018.
- 20** Naidoo in UNV 2015.
- 21** Galtung 1969.
- 22** This shift in the way peace is conceptualized has translated into certain changes in United Nations peacebuilding support. For example, between 2015 and 2018, the United Nations Peacebuilding Fund spent 83 per cent of its total budget on the SDGs. This investment went beyond SDG 16 and covered different aspects of peaceful, just and inclusive societies that are included across several SDGs, showing that this investment is complementary and furthers other development efforts (United Nations 2019, United Nations 2019b).
- 23** Galtung 1969.
- 24** For a more in-depth understanding of this idea, see Milesi 2019.

- 25** The examples in this section have been carefully chosen. We have been professionally engaged with the programmes or the organisations in different capacities as researchers, evaluators, consultants, expert advisors and allies. This has allowed us to recognize these efforts, although not without acknowledging that no volunteering initiative is flawless.
- 26** Milesi and Lopez Franco 2020.
- 27** CCIVS and many of its member organizations have international solidarity funds and mechanisms to balance the flows of volunteers, support the reciprocity of exchanges and promote voluntary South–South and South–North exchanges.
- 28** Milesi and Lopez Franco 2020.
- 29** Soomro and Shukui 2016, Musso, Young and Thom 2019, Ethicore and World Vision UK (no date), Milesi, Howard and Lopez Franco 2020.
- 30** For more about VSO’s core approaches to Volunteering for Development programme, see VSO (no date).
- 31** Tiesse, Lough and Grantham 2018, Tiessen and Delaney 2018.
- 32** Van Breen, Tardieu and Letellier 2020.
- 33** Bradbury 2015, Freire 1970, Fals Borda 1979.
- 34** Apgarand others 2016.
- 35** See Wheeler (2012) for sensitivity to conflict dynamics when conducting participatory action research in highly unstable spaces and also Conflict Sensitivity (no date) for information and resources for conflict sensitive programming.
- 36** Ropers, Giessman and Körppen 2011.
- 37** Anjarwati 2014, Wheeler, Shahrokh and Derakhshani 2018.
- 38** Arendt 1998.
- 39** Process indicators describe the important processes that contribute to achieving outcomes.
- 40** We recognize that partners, volunteers and citizens are not the only three main actors typically involved in volunteering initiatives. However, we have simplified this for the purposes of this paper.
- 41** Recent papers have raised the centrality of partnerships in volunteerism outcomes (Devereux and Learmonth 2017, Peace Direct 2019).
- 42** Milesi and Lopez Franco 2020.
- 43** Milesi and Lopez Franco 2020.
- 44** It is important to assess the experience of voluntary initiatives in documenting stories of change and think about how to involve academic institutions and professionals. Participatory learning exercises are not only about qualitative methods, they can be used to ensure quantitative data is collected too. The challenge is how, not what. (Oosterhoff and others 2019).
- 45** Burns and others 2015.

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Measuring and monetizing the benefits of volunteering to sustainable development in the United Kingdom and beyond

IULIAN GRAMATKI AND WILL WATT

In 2014, Andy Haldane, who is currently Chief Economist of the Bank of England, estimated that, if measured to its fullest extent (including well-being benefits), the contribution of volunteering in the United Kingdom could be somewhere between £50 billion and £200 billion per year. This is between 2.5 and 10 per cent of the country's GDP.¹ Haldane called volunteering a "hidden jewel" in the British economy.

Volunteering is clearly one of the most positive activities in terms of contributing to happier and healthier communities. It operates on multiple levels: from the benefits to the health, skills development, confidence, well-being and social connections of individual volunteers to the services they provide in the community (sports clubs, charities, crisis centres, food banks, citizens advice). Volunteering has a pivotal role to play if the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) are to be achieved. The COVID-19 crisis has shown how volunteers are vital to community health and well-being all across the globe.

This chapter details what makes this type of social, well-being and economic analysis of volunteering possible, drawing on our work under the State of Life project.² The objective is to share this knowledge as part of a shared global community of practice on volunteering. The chapter is structured in three sections, each centred around a question:

- Is there evidence in the United Kingdom data that volunteering is beneficial to sustainable development and the SDGs in particular?
- How can we establish the full social and economic value of volunteering in monetary terms, using the latest welfare economics and social value methodologies?
- Discussion: Can this open data approach be successfully replicated in other contexts?

Is volunteering beneficial to sustainable development?

The first step is to present the evidence that volunteering is beneficial to a number of SDGs:

- SDG 3 (Good health and well-being) – a key finding in the work done by State of Life is that volunteering in the United Kingdom has an unambiguous benefit to the health and well-being of volunteers.
- SDG 5 (Gender equality) and SDG 10 (Reduced inequalities) – we examine the extent to which this benefit varies with age, gender and income.
- SDG 11 (Sustainable cities and communities) – Other socially desirable outcomes, such as trust and community cohesion, are also positively affected by volunteering.
- SDG 16 (Peace, justice and strong institutions) and SDG 17 (Partnerships for the goals) – We show that regular church attendance and membership of a sports group or organization is positively associated with both volunteering and well-being. These are examples of institutions that can work in partnership with volunteers to achieve higher well-being in society.

Work to date in the United Kingdom

Since 2014, State of Life (working as Jump Projects) has undertaken pioneering, innovative, scientific, data-led analysis of the nationally representative population surveys covering the whole of the United Kingdom. All of this data and modelling is directly relevant to the Challenge Fund brief on the social and economic value of volunteering and how this helps achieve the SDGs. Achievements to date include:

- In 2014, the State of Life team were responsible for the report *Hidden Diamonds*,³ which explored the social, well-being and economic benefits from volunteering in sport.
- In 2016, the GIVERS⁴ report further investigated whether these findings held true for other types of volunteering and developed a behavioural model to understand the motivations, barriers and benefits to volunteering.
- In 2018 and 2019, State of Life continued this pioneering work with research on the important distributional impact of volunteering and how volunteering is relevant to diversity of ethnicity and income in the United Kingdom. The results of this work were published in two reports: *The ABC of BAME* and *A Bit Rich*.⁵
- Finally, in 2019 we published *Happy Days*,⁶ detailing advanced analysis by State of Life to establish the most robust quasi-causal estimates to date of the impact that volunteering has on individual well-being and self-perceived health.

The work to date has focused on the United Kingdom Government's well-being and civil society policy agenda and the need for greater well-being (mental health), resilience, trust and social cohesion in our communities. These United Kingdom policies directly align with a significant number of the SDGs.

Sources of data on volunteering in the United Kingdom

The United Kingdom has world leading open-access data sets that measure well-being alongside activities like volunteering. The studies above are based on data up to 2016–2017, which includes:⁷

- the Taking Part survey on participation in arts, culture and sport, which covers approximately 165,000 respondents and 40,000 volunteers;⁸

- the Community Life survey, which covers both formal and informal volunteering, alongside more details on the volunteering experience, covering a total of 43,000 total respondents with 29,500 volunteers;⁹ and
- the more general Understanding Society panel survey, which replaced the British Household Panel Survey (BHPS) in 2009 and covers 131,000 respondents with 25,188 volunteers.¹⁰

Estimation methodology

Our analysis uses two quantitative techniques to provide evidence of the positive contribution of volunteering to the SDGs. The first technique is ordinary least squares (OLS) regression analysis. This is the simplest form of regression analysis that reveals the correlation between volunteering and well-being while controlling for (removing from the results) other factors in life that may improve health and well-being, such as earnings, marriage, religion, education and gender. The second technique is fixed effect (FE) and first difference (FD) regression analysis. These are more advanced types of regression analysis which can be applied using panel data. They involve transformations to cancel out a person's individual characteristics, even if they cannot be observed, exploiting the fact that we observe the same person at different points in time. This further isolates the impact of volunteering on well-being and other variables like trust and a sense of belonging.

More details on the econometric model used, including a list of outcome and control variables, an overview of the derivation of the model estimates and the assumptions required for the validity of the model, can be consulted in the *Happy Days* report and in the academic paper derived from this research.¹¹

Results

SDG 3 – Good health and well-being

Does volunteering in the United Kingdom contribute to increased personal well-being and health?

Yes, it does. This question was the central topic of the *Happy Days* report, which provides the most robust quasi-causal estimates to date of the impact that volunteering has on individual life satisfaction and self-perceived health. This is achieved using panel data estimation techniques (fixed effects and first differences regressions) on a large panel data set featuring 10 waves of the Understanding Society survey, the main United Kingdom longitudinal household study, and its predecessor the BHPS, which it superseded in 2009.

The improvement in methodology is due to the fact that the model based on panel data allows more effective corrections to remove biasing factors. Biasing factors are responsible for a positive correlation between well-being and volunteering but are not causal. For example, people who are likely to volunteer come from a social subgroup that are happier to begin with (they could be more affluent, more social, lead a more active lifestyle and more likely to be students or retired) but while these factors are all associated with increased life satisfaction they are not necessarily a consequence of volunteering.

The paper finds that having volunteered in the last 12 months is associated with an increase in life satisfaction of 0.034 on a 1–7 scale in the first differences model. This corresponds to 0.057 on the 0–10 scale endorsed by the Office of National Statistics, using a linear transformation. The fixed effects model yields a slightly higher coefficient of 0.041 on a 1–7 scale (0.068 from 0–10). This effect is roughly comparable to living in a less deprived neighbourhood and also roughly equal in size to one-sixth of the increase in life satisfaction associated with full-time employment compared to being unemployed.

The *Happy Days* report shows that alongside life satisfaction, robust quasi-causal positive associations were also found between volunteering and self-reported general health, mental health, as measured using the General Health Questionnaire (GHQ) index,¹² and happiness (a more momentary/experiential well-being measure than life satisfaction). There is also a positive association with the other measure endorsed by the Office of National Statistics measure (feeling that things in life are worthwhile) but the lack of good quality panel data means that it is only the result of a cross-sectional regression (Table 2.9–Table 2.11).

Data set / Well-being variable	Understanding Society	Taking Part	Community Life
Life satisfaction (0–10*)	0.057*** (0.095 ⁺)	0.080***	-0.011
Happiness (0–10)		0.075***	0.012
Anxiety (0–10)		0.135***	0.140***
Worthwhile life (0–10)		0.204***	0.117***
General health (1–5)	0.110***	0.080***	0.067***
Mental health problems – GHQ index 0 (best) to 36 (worst)	-0.316***		

Table 2.9 Volunteering and well-being: OLS regression coefficients

Notes: Coefficients from OLS regression of life satisfaction on the variable indicating volunteering of the type described in the row/column headers. **In this table and all subsequent regression output tables** all models include control variables for a wide range of determinants of well-being as set out in Fujiwara and Campbell (2011). Asterisks indicate statistical significance levels: *** < 1 per cent; ** < 5 per cent; * < 10 per cent significance. Heteroscedasticity-robust standard errors used.

* Understanding Society life satisfaction is on a 1–7 scale (a linear mapping to a 0–10 scale is provided in parentheses).

Data set / Well-being variable	Pooled OLS	Fixed effects	First differences
Life satisfaction (1–7)	0.057***	0.041***	0.034***
General health (1–5)	0.110***	0.039***	0.029**
Mental health problems – GHQ index 0 (best) to 36 (worst)	-0.316***	-0.306***	-0.220***

Table 2.10 Volunteering and well-being in Understanding Society + BHPS: OLS and panel data regression

Data set / Well-being variable	Pooled OLS	Fixed effects	First differences
Happiness (0–10)	0.075***	0.077***	0.125***
General health (1–5)	0.080***	0.081***	0.121***

Table 2.11 Volunteering and well-being in Taking Part: OLS and panel data regression

The optimum “dose” of volunteering: how often, how long and what type?

The *Happy Days* report also uses the information on volunteering available in the nationally representative surveys to investigate whether certain kinds or frequencies of volunteering are better than others. It finds that formal volunteering and more frequent volunteering both improve well-being in the United Kingdom.

The Community Life survey collects data on both formal volunteering (as part of a group or organization) and informal volunteering (providing individual help to others who are not relatives without being engaged with an organized group of volunteers). These findings show that a positive and statistical increase in life satisfaction is only associated with formal volunteering, although other outcomes, such as the sense of a worthwhile life and self-reported general health, are positively associated with any kind of volunteering in the Community Life data. This conclusion is supported by the regression coefficients in Table 2.12, which also shows that the positive association is higher for more frequent volunteering (once a month).

Type of volunteering		In the last 12 months		At least once a month
Any type of volunteering	⋮	-0.011	⋮	0.028
Formal volunteering	⋮	0.063***	⋮	0.120***
Informal volunteering	⋮	-0.025	⋮	-0.004
Employer-sponsored volunteering	⋮	0.060	⋮	0.102

Table 2.12 Life satisfaction and different types of volunteering in Community Life

The Understanding Society data collects more information on the frequency of volunteering. Table 2.13 shows that more frequent volunteering is associated with higher increases in life satisfaction, as well as (self-reported) physical and mental health. Volunteering at least once a week has the highest positive correlations, whereas low-frequency volunteering (once a year or less) is not associated with any significant improvements, except for general health (Table 2.13). Note that the use of Understanding Society data means that the results below are provided by robust panel data models.

Volunteering frequency / Well-being variable		Life satisfaction (1-7)		General health (1-5)		Mental health (GHQ index) 0 (best) to 36 (worst)
At least once a week	⋮	0.095***	⋮	0.126***	⋮	-0.498***
At least once a month	⋮	0.078***	⋮	0.129***	⋮	-0.411***
Several times a year	⋮	0.038***	⋮	0.098***	⋮	-0.071
Once a year or less	⋮	-0.042***	⋮	0.057***	⋮	-0.061
Never/almost never	⋮			reference group		

Table 2.13 Volunteering frequency and well-being in Understanding Society + BHPS (fixed effects)

Finally, the Taking Part data reveals that volunteering in arts and culture has an insignificant association with life satisfaction but volunteering in sports is positively and statistically significantly associated with well-being (Table 2.14).

Type of volunteering	Coefficient
Any type of volunteering	0.080***
Volunteering in arts/culture	0.017
Volunteering in sport	0.068**

Table 2.14 Life satisfaction and volunteering in different sectors in Taking Part (OLS)

SDG 11 – Sustainable cities and communities

What other well-being-related outcomes are positively impacted by volunteering?

This section goes beyond the analysis in *Happy Days* to consider further indicators of individual development and social/community development. Table 2.15, based on Understanding Society data, shows how volunteering in the last 12 months correlates with indicators of confidence, resilience, social mixing (diversity), social capital, trust and community cohesion. Volunteering is positively and significantly associated with mixing with people from diverse backgrounds, trust and neighbourhood cohesion, as well as social capital (number and quality of friendships). However, there is no significant association between volunteering and confidence or resilience indicators in the Understanding Society survey data.

Outcome variable and answer scale	Coefficient of volunteering
I can usually solve my own problems – 1 (strongly disagree) to 4 (strongly agree)	0.005
Losing confidence in oneself – 1 (not at all) to 4 (much more than usual)	0.009
Respondent has best friends of different ethnicities – 0 (no) / 1 (yes)	0.031***
Proportion of friends with similar age – 1 (all) to 4 (less than half)	0.091***
Proportion of friends with same race – 1 (all) to 4 (less than half)	0.093***
Proportion of friends with similar level of education – 1 (all) to 4 (less than half)	0.096***
Proportion of friends who have a similar job – 1 (all) to 4 (less than half)	0.097***
Proportion of friends with similar income – 1 (all) to 4 (less than half)	0.110***
Proportion of friends living in local area – 1 (all) to 5 (none)	-0.005
Proportion of friends who are also family members – 1 (all) to 5 (none)	0.070***
Respondent has friends – 0 (no) / 1 (yes)	0.014***
I can rely upon my friends – 1 (not at all) to 4 (a lot)	0.047***

Outcome variable and answer scale	Coefficient of volunteering
Number of close friends of respondent	0.887***
I trust people in this neighbourhood – 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree)	0.036***
I talk regularly to neighbours – 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree)	0.108***
I feel like I belong to this neighbourhood – 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree)	0.077***
The friendships in my neighbourhood mean a lot to me – 1 (str. disag.) to 5 (str. agree)	0.112***

Table 2.15 Volunteering and other outcomes in the Understanding Society survey (OLS)

All this means that volunteering helps build stronger communities by improving “social cohesion”, that is the sense that you belong to your community and trust other people. The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) countries have a standardized measure of “generalized trust”, which is also found to be positively correlated with volunteering.¹³

In all of the evidence produced by the State of Life team to date, volunteering is shown to have a positive impact on trust in all demographics, particularly those who start with a trust deficit (lower socio-economic groups in the United Kingdom). Mixing with people from different backgrounds is important and the *A Bit Rich* study found that volunteering plays a positive role when it comes to trust and social diversity/mixing:¹⁴

- volunteers are around two-thirds more likely to say they trust people living in the neighbourhood, compared to non-volunteers; and
- 44 per cent of all volunteers reported having mixed with people from different ethnic backgrounds or religions in the past 12 months, compared to only 31 per cent of the general population.

SDG 10 (Reduced inequalities) and SDG 5 (Gender equality)

Are volunteers significantly more likely to come from a particular demographic subgroup?

This is perhaps the easiest question to answer, as it requires the least sophisticated modelling. It is limited to presenting standard descriptive statistics, specifically the means and proportions of the various demographic variables available in the national household surveys, split between volunteers and non-volunteers. Table 2.16 shows the statistics from the data set with the highest sample (Understanding Society + BHPS panel) containing 10 waves of data on volunteering.

Variable	Full sample	Volunteered in the last 12 months	Did not volunteer in the last 12 months
Sample size	224,238	43,658	180,580
Life satisfaction (1-7)	5.20	5.35	5.16
General health (1-5)	3.57	3.74	3.53
Mental health problems – GHQ index 0 (best) to 36 (worst)	11.13	10.69	11.24

Variable	Full sample	Volunteered in the last 12 months	Did not volunteer in the last 12 months
Household income (monthly) in GBP	3,225	3,577	3,140
Age	46.94	47.42	46.82
Female	55.2%	57.4%	54.7%
Married	52.4%	56.6%	51.4%
No children	72.1%	73.5%	71.7%
Higher education degree	25.4%	37.2%	22.6%
Employed (full- or part-time)	48.2%	44.8%	49.0%
Urban area	75.1%	70.2%	76.2%
Religious	56.8%	64.8%	54.7%
White	89.4%	90.9%	88.9%

Table 2.16 Well-being and socioeconomic characteristics of volunteers and non-volunteers, in the Understanding Society + BHPS panel data set

Notes: The statistics calculated above exclude respondents for whom the variable of interest is unknown.

There are several patterns that can be distinguished from these results. Volunteers in the United Kingdom are more likely to have a higher education degree (37 per cent compared to 23 per cent), be religious (65 per cent compared to 55 per cent), come from rural areas (30 per cent compared to 24 per cent) and slightly more likely to be female and married than non-volunteers. Their mean household income is also almost 15 per cent higher.

Extensive well-being regression analysis conducted by State of Life as part of its previous work has revealed that nearly all these factors are associated with higher levels of life satisfaction (Table 2.16). The question is whether the higher levels of well-being observed among volunteers are simply because they are initially from happier or wealthier groups in society or whether this higher well-being has actually been triggered by their experience as volunteers.

This is precisely why the *Happy Days* report uses not only multivariate regression analysis but also panel data estimation techniques. This allows it to isolate to the best extent possible the relationship between well-being and volunteering from the well-being changes associated with higher income, higher education, living in a rural area and numerous other demographic factors, as well as unobservable individual characteristics, such as personality or motivation. The results of the regression remain positive for the link between volunteering and well-being, as presented in our analysis of well-being and SDG 3 above.

Who benefits the most from volunteering?

The *Happy Days* study also looks at how the association between volunteering and health and well-being differs across the population by age, gender and income (Table 2.17). The analysis uses robust panel data regression models with interaction terms between volunteering and the demographic variable of interest in the BHPS and Understanding Society (USoc).

Demographic category / data set	USoc + BHPS (fixed effects)	USoc + BHPS (first differences)
Total	0.041***	0.034***
Female	0.043***	0.050**
Male	0.039***	0.020
16–34 years of age	0.037**	0.051*
35–54 years of age	0.006	0.004
55–74 years of age	0.095***	0.060**
75 years of age or older	0.058*	0.099
Low monthly income (less than £1,500)	0.064***	0.073**
Lower middle monthly income (£1,500–£3,000)	0.039***	0.021
Upper middle monthly income (£3,000–£5,000)	0.025*	0.019
High monthly income (over £5,000)	0.043**	0.051*

Table 2.17 Volunteering and well-being by age, gender and income

Notes: The reference category comprises all non-volunteers in the sample.

In the first differences model, there is evidence that volunteering has a stronger impact for women than men in the United Kingdom. This means it is potentially a useful instrument for fighting gender inequality under SDG 5. The report also highlights higher well-being increases associated with volunteering at the extremes of income distribution, particularly for the lowest income category, which suggests that volunteering can be promoted as part of a policy intervention aimed at improving the quality of life of vulnerable groups in society. Regarding age, the most positive correlations are for 55 years and above, whereas there is no statistically significant relationship for middle-aged respondents (35–54 years).

SDG 16 (Peace, justice and strong institutions) and SDG 17 (Partnerships for the goals)

What are some of the key drivers of volunteering? How can we maximize these and their impact?

This research question adopts a similar approach, using multivariate regression analysis. The key change is that volunteering is no longer an explanatory variable but is the outcome variable of the regression, which the model tries to explain as a linear function of the various available demographic variables.

This type of analysis was included in the 2016 GIVERS report,¹⁵ as well as in other works by State of Life. The main conclusions based on Understanding Society and BHPS data are summarized below (except for the relationship between volunteering and religious variables, which is discussed in the next subsection). Note that the volunteering variable in Understanding Society and BHPS corresponds to formal volunteering.

- Higher income is associated with more volunteering, albeit with a mild intensity (about a 1 percentage point increase in volunteering associated with the doubling of household income).
- There is an inverse U-shaped relationship between volunteering and age, with a peak at around 55 years. Older people are more motivated by seeing the impact of their work.

- Males are 1.9 percentage points less likely to volunteer than females (all other things equal) and men are more likely to volunteer in sport (60 per cent male) whereas women are more likely to volunteer outside of sport (60 per cent female).
- Single people are most likely to volunteer (about 1.7 percentage points more than married respondents, 5.4 percentage points more than cohabiting unmarried couples, 3 percentage points more than people who are widowed and 1.9 percentage points more than people who are divorced).
- Education is very strongly correlated with volunteering: people with higher education degrees are 20 percentage points more likely to volunteer than those without a degree, while respondents with A levels or GCSEs¹⁶ are over 9 percentage points more likely to volunteer.
- Being employed is negatively associated with volunteering (-6.5 percentage points compared to people who are unemployed). Other groups with low likelihoods of volunteering are people on maternity leave (-14.4 percentage points) and people with long-term illnesses or disabilities (-2.8 percentage points compared to people who are unemployed). Some categories with higher propensities to volunteer are students (10.8 percentage points), people who are involved in another activity (10.8 percentage points), unpaid workers in family businesses (4.2 percentage points) and people who are retired (1.9 percentage points).
- Unsurprisingly, young people are more motivated to volunteer to develop new skills and advance their careers. This also holds for lower socio-economic groups.
- Health is an important factor for volunteering: people with very good or excellent health are more than 8 percentage points more likely to volunteer than people with poor health. People with good health are 6 percentage points more likely to volunteer and respondents with fair health are 4 percentage points more likely to volunteer.
- Having three or more children is associated with an increase of 2 percentage in the likelihood of volunteering compared to not having children.
- Rental accommodation or having a mortgage is correlated with lower propensities to volunteer (-3.7 percentage points and -2.4 percentage points, respectively, compared to people who own their home outright).
- People identifying as Asian, Black and Other ethnicities are less likely to volunteer than people identifying as White British (-7.8, -3.7 and -2.6 percentage points, respectively). If these groups volunteer, they are twice as likely to be motivated by religion.
- Membership of a sports group, club or organization is associated with an increase of 4.3 percentage points in the likelihood of volunteering.

The evidence from the 2019 work on diversity of income and ethnicity in volunteering also shows that the well-being and health benefits of volunteering are considerably higher for marginalized groups.¹⁷ However, the United Kingdom data shows that lower socioeconomic groups are less likely to be involved in formal volunteering groups (including sport), meaning they are missing out on the very type of volunteering that is associated with greater health and well-being benefits. This may be due to the need to help and support friends and neighbours in their communities with the everyday challenges of life, rather than volunteering for broader political and societal issues. This work also highlights the different motivations for volunteering, with lower socio-economic groups citing a motivation to use volunteering as a way to learn new skills and progress their career ambitions.

What is the impact of religious belief and attending religious services on volunteering?

Based on the approach presented above using the United Kingdom open data, religious faith is associated with an increase in the likelihood of volunteering of up to 6.7 percentage points. However, the association with attending religious services is even higher, increasing further with the frequency

of attendance. Compared to people who have never or almost never attended religious services, volunteering rates are 8.7 percentage points higher among people who attend at least once a year, 13 percentage points higher for people who attend at least once a month, and 23 percentage points higher for people who attend at least once a week. People who only attend for weddings and funerals did not display a positive association with volunteering.

This evidence suggests that higher rates of volunteering for people of faith are mainly driven by regular attendance of religious services, especially since the coefficient of religious belief is insignificant in models that also include church attendance in the equation. Our hypothesis on the causal chain would be that regular religious attendance indicates a strength of faith that means people are likely to get involved in the life and problems of the parish community and participate in the activities organized by religious institutions, which overwhelmingly rely on volunteer work.

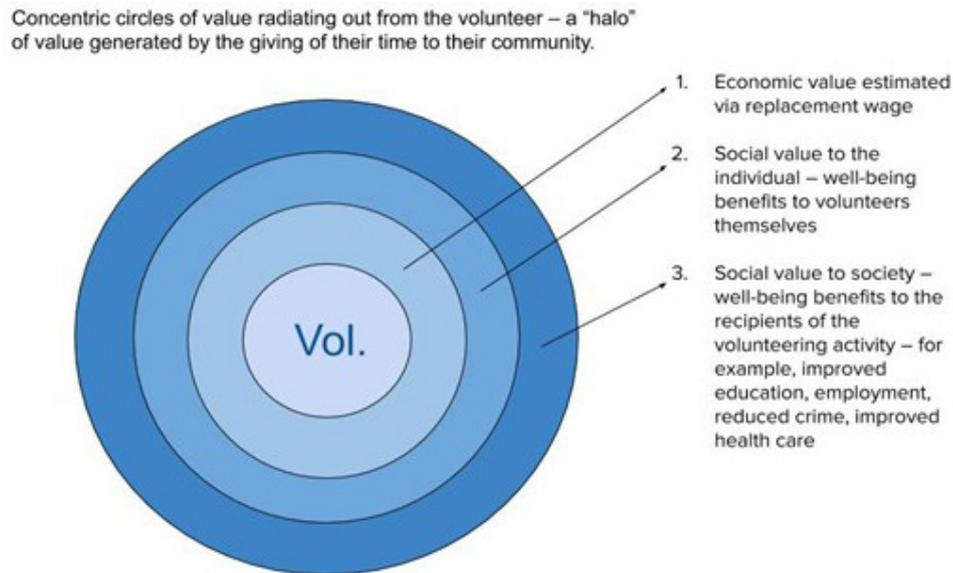
The ongoing work of State of Life evaluating the economic and social value of churches contains further information about the scale of volunteering in churches across the United Kingdom. According to a survey by the National Churches Trust in 2020, the number of volunteer hours contributed per church is 214 per month in 2020, an increase from 114 in 2010. Volunteering and social action in churches has experienced a significant uptrend in the last decade, given the backdrop of the austerity measures enforced after the recession in 2008. Church volunteers are often providing important social goods and community care through food banks for the poor, mental health services, drug and alcohol support centres, as well as activities for young people and childcare.

While the church plays an increasingly secular role in the United Kingdom in meeting community needs in the areas of health and poverty reduction, we are aware that these roles are likely to be context specific.

Modelling the economic and social value of volunteering

Given the undisputable benefits of volunteering to individual and social welfare, as shown in this paper, it is only natural that this information should be taken into account by national governments across the world to influence their decision-making process in order to promote volunteering. This can be best achieved by adopting a methodology that can incorporate the benefits of volunteering into government policy appraisals and evaluation. The most popular policy appraisal method is cost-benefit analysis. Incorporating the benefits of volunteering, which are non-financial in nature, into cost-benefit analysis is far from straightforward. However, in this section, we propose a model for achieving this objective by estimating a comprehensive monetary equivalent value of volunteering. This means it can also be conveniently incorporated into other quantitative appraisal and evaluation techniques, such as cost-effectiveness analysis or social return on investment.

The model is based on a number of layers or concentric circles of value, each of which represents a different aspect of the benefits of volunteering. This depicts a “halo” of value that stretches out from the volunteer (Figure 2.7), providing a step-by-step approach to assessing the value of volunteering.¹⁸

Figure 2.7 Halo model of volunteering

We provide more details on the method and meaning of each circle below.

1. Economic value via wage replacement

This circle is the closest to traditional economic measurements and has the longest history of inclusion in economic appraisals and evaluations of volunteering policy. The benefits of volunteering are monetized by estimating the amount of money that would need to be paid for the work provided by the volunteers if they were replaced by paid staff (hence the name “wage replacement”). The fact that this work is provided for free represents a saving for the organizer of the programme, be it an NGO, a private institution or a public institution (in which case the figure represents savings to the public budget).

Wage replacement value is normally also the most straightforward to estimate because it only requires two input factors. The first is the number of volunteer hours provided as part of the programme, records of which are normally kept by the organizing institution. The second is an estimate of the wage rate that would have been paid for the work had it not been provided by volunteers. A lower bound estimate would be to apply the regional or national minimum wage in the region, state or country where the activity takes place, although a more accurate estimate would use a wage rate that takes into account the skill level of the volunteers and the type of work they do, since many volunteers perform skilled work.

2. Social value to the individual – benefits to the volunteers themselves

A more comprehensive assessment of the policy moves beyond purely financial values and also considers other outcomes that are not measured in financial terms but are clearly desirable for individuals and society, such as happiness, good physical and mental health, motivation, confidence and good social relationships. All these outcomes are the determinants of increased well-being. Theories grounded in classical utilitarianism argue that this is the only benefit with inherent value and which people strive to achieve. Financial outcomes, in contrast, are merely instruments to achieve greater well-being. We pursue a middle ground between this new school of thought and the more traditional cost–benefit analysis, considering both economic value (using the wage replacement method described above) and the value of increased well-being.

A multidimensional evaluation approach would acknowledge all of the outcomes mentioned in the previous paragraph to determine the broader benefits of volunteering. However, cost-benefit analysis is kept manageable if all well-being improvements are accounted for and monetized using a single measure, that of life satisfaction.

There are several approaches to estimating the monetary value of increased life satisfaction, some of the most prominent of which are:

- A study by Frijters and Krekel¹⁹ has sought to measure the well-being adjusted life year (WELLBY) using social costs of production, that is the costs incurred by the National Health Service to produce one quality adjusted life year (QALY), defined as an extra year of life spent in perfect health. This figure was estimated at £15,000 by Claxton and others.²⁰ Similarly, studies have calculated that 1 QALY is equivalent to 6 WELLBY.²¹ As such, this method assigns a linearly scalable value of £2,500 per person per year to an increase of one in life satisfaction on a scale of 0–10.
- Another estimate of the value of a QALY, which is widely used by the United Kingdom Government, comes from a study by the Department for Transport on individual willingness to pay for preventing road accidents.²² In this case the value of one QALY was found to be £60,000. Applying the QALY-WELLBY equivalence above yields a monetary estimate of £10,000 per WELLBY. The individual willingness to pay is understandably higher than the government cost of production.
- The Fujiwara three-stage valuation approach²³ estimates the equivalent amount of income a person would require to give them the same increase in life satisfaction.²⁴ This is done via a robust quasi-causal estimate of income on well-being estimated in a separate previous study using lottery wins as an instrumental variable.

The Fujiwara (2013) approach is used in the *Happy Days* report to calculate that the well-being value of volunteering is £911 per person per year, based on the first differences regression coefficient (the figure increases to £1,095 using the fixed effects coefficient). This method was also acknowledged in the main government guidance to policy appraisal and evaluation.²⁵ The Frijters and Krekel method based on the social costs of production provides more conservative values of £142 (first differences) and £171 (fixed effects) per person per year, while using the values based on road accidents gives figures of £568 (first differences) or £684 (fixed effects). The latter has the significant advantage of being benchmarked to a widely accepted and credible measure of the QALY, whose unit cost is approved by the United Kingdom Treasury and widely used in public policy appraisal and evaluation.

Having determined this value, it must then be multiplied by the number of volunteers involved and the duration of the volunteering programme to calculate the total well-being value of the programme to the individuals who volunteer.

It should be noted that the well-being benefits to the individual who volunteers are very likely to also have spillover effects on their family and friends, who may also become slightly happier from the fact that their family member or friend is now better off. We currently do not have data that captures this phenomenon but it is feasible to design studies in the future that are able to estimate this effect.

3. Social value (well-being benefits) to the recipients of volunteering activities

Here we consider the other side of volunteering: while the second circle considered the people who give unpaid help, this circle looks at those who receive it. The benefits to the recipients of volunteering will be programme-specific. A programme to encourage children to enrol and stay in school will improve education and reduce crime, while a career services workshop for people not in employment will improve employment, motivation and job-seeking skills. Similarly, a midwife programme will prevent deaths at birth and improve the health of newborn children and their mothers.

All these outcomes will improve the well-being of the people who attend the respective programmes. There are several ways to measure this improvement. One is to directly ask the people benefiting from the programme about their levels of well-being. Another is to monitor their improvement in intermediate outcomes (for example, the number of people finding a job, the number of school dropouts prevented, the number of deaths at birth prevented) and then apply the improvements in well-being associated with these outcomes that have been calculated in other studies. Asking about well-being directly facilitates calculations and requires fewer assumptions. However, depending on the nature of the programme, the indirect method may sometimes prove more feasible.

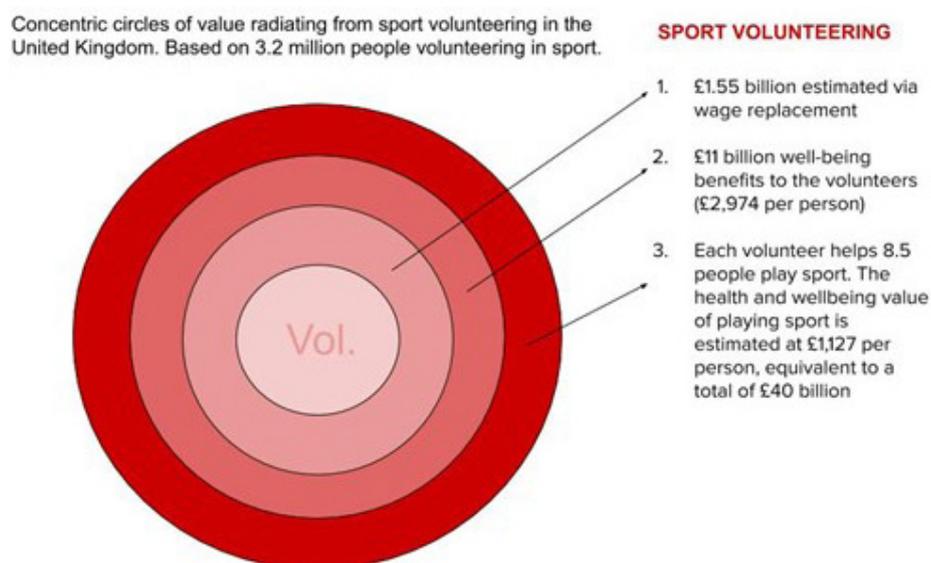
It is important to note that all the more robust methods involve bespoke data collection to prove that the programme was effective. The outcomes of programme beneficiaries must be compared to an adequate counterfactual, for example by including in the data a control group consisting of people with the same characteristics or background as those targeted by the programme. Where appropriate, data should be collected both before and after the intervention. For programmes with longer-term impacts, such as those targeting education or employment, it is better to collect data again in the future to determine the duration of the positive changes. Care should be taken with evaluations that assign social values to programmes without adequately addressing causality.

Once the well-being benefit to the programme beneficiaries has been measured along the lines described above, it can be converted into a monetary value for cost-benefit analysis in the same way as for the well-being benefit to volunteers described in circle two.

Example of the halo model in action: the economic value of sports volunteering

This work is a legacy of the London 2012 Olympic Games and the volunteering charity Join In, which was set up to capitalize on the event. The report presented in 2014 by Lord Gus O'Donnell estimates that sport volunteering is worth £50 billion.²⁶ It matches both the methodology and final figures presented Andy Haldane, who is currently Chief Economist at the Bank of England (Figure 2.8).²⁷ Sport is the largest sector of volunteering in the United Kingdom and makes up approximately 15–25 per cent of all volunteering in the country.

Figure 2.8 Halo effect model and sport volunteering



Discussion: Towards a global framework for measuring and valuing volunteering

To quantify the economic and social value of volunteering, information on the number of volunteers, frequency of volunteering and number of hours volunteered is required at different points in the analysis, in addition to the type of help and service volunteers provide.

As shown throughout this paper, the United Kingdom has large nationally representative surveys that track volunteering (frequency, duration, longevity), health and well-being, together with other variables, such as trust in others, a sense of belonging and social mixing (mixing with people of different backgrounds). In building these data sets and working with and learning from other nations, the United Kingdom has evolved a set of workable definitions of volunteering that aligns with the guidance from the ILO resolution in 2013 and the critical review in terms of measuring the different types and frequency of volunteering in 2019. The 2019 review discussed the merits of broad methods of collecting data and the more targeted, detailed approaches used by countries like the United Kingdom. It also recognizes that the language used is neither homogeneous nor stable (for example, the ILO term “direct” volunteering is referred to as “informal” volunteering in the United Kingdom).

In the United Kingdom, the Community Life survey has the highest level of detail on volunteering and incorporates the distinction between formal and informal volunteering. We recommend a standard template for questions to measure volunteering globally, based on the Community Life questions (Table 2.18). However, we understand that UNV and other members of the Community of Practice can contribute first-hand experience of life and culture in the Global South to help test and refine these questions.

Volunteering identifier

- In the last 12 months, that is, since [DATE ONE YEAR AGO], have you given unpaid help to any groups, clubs or organizations in any way? (formal volunteering)
- In the last 12 months, that is, since [DATE ONE YEAR AGO], have you given any unpaid help for someone who was not a relative? (informal volunteering)
- Answer options: 1. No; 2. Yes.

Volunteering frequency

- And over the last 12 months, how often have you done something to help [this/these] group(s), club(s) or organization(s)?
- And over the last 12 months, how often have you given unpaid help to someone who is not a relative?
- Answer options: 1. At least once a week; 2. Less than once a week but at least once a month; 3. Less often?

Volunteering duration

- Now, just thinking about the last four weeks. Approximately how many hours have you spent helping this/these group(s), club(s) or organization(s) in the last four weeks?
- Approximately how many hours have you spent helping someone who is not a relative in the last four weeks?
- Answer options: free form number.

Volunteering longevity

- How many years have you been helping out as part of a group, club or organization?
- How many years have you been helping someone who is not a relative?
- Answer options: free form number.

Table 2.18 Standard set of questions to measure volunteering globally

In addition to these recommended questions, it is also possible to include a set of questions on the motivations and barriers to volunteering (for example, those featured in the United Kingdom Community Life data set). The questions cover why people volunteer and why they do not, as well as how this varies for demographics of age, gender and race. Information on why people volunteer and how we can recruit, manage and reward volunteers effectively is just as important as information on who volunteers and how much, since it helps to build, develop and grow the massive human resource of volunteering.

Measuring well-being alongside volunteering

In 2010 the United Kingdom Office of National Statistics launched its standard four well-being questions, following detailed consultations with global experts in well-being and statistics. The questions were first introduced in the Annual Population Survey, followed by numerous other nationally representative surveys.²⁸ People are asked to respond to the questions on a scale from 0 to 10, where 0 means not at all and 10 means completely. The questions cover four areas:

1. Life satisfaction – Overall, how satisfied are you with your life nowadays?
2. Worthwhile – Overall, to what extent do you feel the things you do in your life are worthwhile?
3. Happiness – Overall, how happy did you feel yesterday?
4. Anxiety – Overall, how anxious did you feel yesterday?

The answers to these questions (particularly question 1) provide the inputs needed to estimate a monetary equivalent of the positive effects of volunteering on society.

The State of Life template for measuring volunteering

The State of Life team in the United Kingdom have developed a simple open data model and survey tool that asks the same data set questions to volunteers in particular organizations or sectors to understand how they differ from the national average for volunteers.

In the State of Life Volunteer Impact Survey, the questions on volunteering and well-being described above are complemented by standard demographic questions that help isolate the positive impact of volunteering on well-being from other factors.

After information on volunteering, well-being and demographics has been captured using this survey, a monetary value for the social impact of volunteering can be estimated using the methodology presented earlier in this chapter (the halo effect model). This monetary value can then provide crucial information for well-informed policy analysis and evaluation in the field of volunteering.

State of Life has worked to democratize access to these United Kingdom open data sets on volunteering, well-being and other aspects of social value. There is potential, in collaboration with the UNV Community of Practice, to build on and develop these insights into global frameworks and open data assets that are applicable worldwide.

CONCLUSIONS

There is extensive evidence in the studies mentioned above of the contribution of volunteering to several key SDGs. The positive relationship between volunteering and life satisfaction, physical health and mental health using a robust quasi-causal estimation provides solid evidence in favour of the contribution of volunteering to SDG 3 (Good health and well-being).

Stronger increases in well-being for volunteers who are female or classed as low-income highlight the potential of volunteering to reduce socio-economic inequalities and contribute to gender equality, helping achieve SDGs 5 (Gender equality) and 10 (Reduced inequality).

The positive association between volunteering and community cohesion (a feeling of belonging to a neighbourhood), trust in people (including trust in neighbours), and social capital (number of close friends, being able to rely on friends) implies that volunteering is also a suitable instrument for achieving SDG 11 (Sustainable cities and communities).

Finally, the fact that formal volunteering (volunteering as part of a group) is associated with greater benefits, as well as the strong positive links between volunteering and church attendance or sport club membership, highlight how different groups and organizations can work together to magnify the well-being improvements volunteering can bring to individuals and society, contributing to SDGs 16 (Peace, justice and strong institutions) and 17 (Partnerships for the goals).

This approach has worked well in the United Kingdom and is promising in terms of portability to countries in the Global South. The halo effect model can be used to design survey instruments for data collection to measure and quantify the social and economic value of volunteering in any country in the world. Furthermore, the use of a standardized set of questions (such as the State of Life Volunteer Impact Survey) allows for straightforward and quality cross-country comparisons of the scale and benefits of volunteering alongside an understanding of the motivations and barriers in different countries and cultures.

We hope that these conclusions provide good evidence of the vitality, potential and importance of volunteering globally. While the United Kingdom is quite advanced in terms of its volunteering data, we hope the conclusions of this study will stimulate efforts to collect more data on volunteering and well-being in other countries across the world.

Notes

- 1** Haldane 2014.
- 2** www.stateoflife.org.
- 3** Join In 2014.
- 4** Fujiwara, Lawton and Watt 2018.
- 5** Lawton and Watt 2018a, Lawton and Watt 2018b.
- 6** Gramatki, Lawton and Watt 2019a.
- 7** Available at discover.ukdataservice.ac.uk (registration and accreditation with the United Kingdom Data Service is required).
- 8** United Kingdom Government 2016.
- 9** United Kingdom, Department for Digital, Culture, Media and Sport 2018.
- 10** ISER 2012.
- 11** Gramatki, Lawton and Watt 2019a, Gramatki, Lawton and Watt 2019b.
- 12** This is an inverted index with zero being the best possible mental health state.
- 13** Measured via the question “Generally speaking, would you say that most people can be trusted, or that you can’t be too careful in dealing with people?”. OECD 2018.
- 14** Lawton and Watt 2018a.
- 15** Fujiwara, Lawton and Watt 2018.
- 16** In the United Kingdom except Scotland, General Certificates of Secondary Education (known as GCSEs) are academic subject-based qualifications taken usually by 16-year olds. Advanced level qualifications (known as A levels) are subject-based qualifications usually studied over 2 years from ages 16-18 that can lead to university, further study, training, or work.
- 17** Lawton and Watt 2018a, Lawton and Watt 2018b.
- 18** Partners for Sacred Places 2016.
- 19** Frijters and Krekel 2020.
- 20** Claxton and others 2015.
- 21** Peasgood and others 2018.
- 22** Chilton and others 1998.
- 23** Fujiwara 2013.
- 24** Fujiwara 2013.
- 25** United Kingdom, HM Treasury 2018.
- 26** Join In 2014.
- 27** Haldane 2014.
- 28** For the full list, see United Kingdom, Office for National Statistics 2018.

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Part III. Measuring the support of volunteering for service delivery



Assessment of the contribution of volunteerism to the socio-economic development of Togo

ABDEL-GANIOU AGOUDA, TCHILABALO BOZOBENDOU TELOU AND KOSSI MESSAN AKODA

Since 2017, the National Agency for Volunteerism in Togo (ANVT) has been experimenting with a data-collection system, backed by a computer application, to assess the contribution of Togolese volunteers to national development objectives on health. These data, in concert with national health actors, has enabled ANVT to produce information on the achievements of volunteers. The evaluation of this pilot initiative in December 2018 concluded it should be extended to three other development sectors (education, environment and agriculture) while taking up the quantification of the contribution of national volunteers to the achievement of development goals and SDGs as its main challenge.

This paper uses data from the system to look at the contribution of volunteers to the health and education sectors in Togo. There are three main findings:

- 1.** In the education sector, the deployment of 368 volunteer teachers at lower secondary level and 721 volunteer teachers at upper secondary level in the 2018–2019 school year helped to reduce the pupil–teacher ratio from 47 to 37 (10 points) and from 33 to 28 (5 points), respectively. The work of these volunteers helped 1,470 pupils pass the lower secondary national diploma (*Brevet d'Etude du Premier Cycle* – BEPC) (2.4 per cent of the national total) and 2,223 pupils pass the upper secondary *Baccalaureate* (BAC II) (12.07 per cent of the national total).
- 2.** In the health sector, the study showed that 110 volunteer nurses and 87 midwives deployed in 2018 and 106 volunteer nurses and 101 midwives deployed in 2019 contributed to measures to fight malaria, HIV and improve maternal and child health during these years.
- 3.** In terms of resource efficiency, the deployment of 1,393 volunteers in the education and health sectors allowed the State to save 927.5 million CFA francs (approximately \$1.6 million) in one year. The positive cost–benefit ratio of this deployment of national volunteers in these two sectors benefits the government.

Unfortunately, the COVID-19 pandemic and lockdown measures have prevented the team from examining the impact on specific SDG targets (for example comparing health results for areas with volunteering and those without volunteering) or from looking in more depth at the specific value of the human capital provided beyond financial costs. These are areas that warrant further investigation in future work, combining the data-collection system with other sources.

Problem and research framework

In Togo, as in many countries, volunteerism is the most deeply rooted form of social engagement in all communities. Traditions have always preferred collective or individual acts based on personal commitment for the benefit of the population. Togo has a long tradition of volunteerism, the most widespread form of which is widely supported and driven by community-based organizations, civil society organizations and collectives of national and international volunteer hosting associations. Identifying the role of volunteerism in strengthening civic engagement and improving the employability of young people has allowed the Togolese Government to promote development through the establishment of ANVT in 2014.

Despite the recognition of volunteerism as a lever for achieving development goals, it is hard to assess its real contribution to improving the living conditions of communities and to measure its impact at the local, national and global levels. As a result, volunteer-involving organizations, national statistical institutes and policymakers have limited data that can capture the socio-economic impact of volunteerism and allow them to make decisions to promote it.

This study aims to identify indicators relevant to the work of volunteers in the education and health sectors. It also reports on their contribution to achieving the national objectives in these sectors.

The central question answered by the study – what is the contribution of volunteers to the achievement of development goals in the education and health sectors in Togo? – is addressed by means of a series of sector-specific questions:

- Education sector – what is the role of volunteers in improving the pupil–teacher ratio and the pass rate for the national secondary school leaving examinations?
- Health sector – What are the achievements of volunteers?
- Both sectors – How does the deployment of national volunteers in the education and health sectors benefit the Government of Togo in economic terms based on the cost–benefit ratio?

Methodological approach

This study is based on primary data on volunteers obtained from ANVT data-collection systems and administrative data for the period 2018–2019. The study includes 1,393 national volunteers deployed within local hosting organizations and communities. The methodology is based on operational approaches and techniques adapted to the context of the study to quantify the contribution of volunteers. The research and data-collection process has involved several actors at different levels:

- **Volunteers** – deployed in priority sectors such as education and health.
- **Hosting organizations** – constitute the legal and professional framework for the intervention of volunteers and involved in the collection and validation of primary data before transmission to ANVT.
- **Technical services in the health and education sectors** – a process involving the heads of the ministerial departments in charge of health and education allowed validation of the entire system of data collection from volunteers, ensuring support at the highest level. In particular, these services were requested for the collection of administrative data.

Primary data-collection techniques

The collection and centralization of data was done inclusively. The data used comes from monthly forms completed by each volunteer and authenticated by the host organization. The forms are then checked and entered into the software designed for this purpose.

The data processing took place in two phases. The first involved the harmonization of variables in the databases for the education and health sectors collected by the regional volunteer centres. The second entailed the creation of disaggregation variables and analysis variables in all the databases.

The analysis of data from the education sector involved cross-referencing data collected by ANVT from volunteers assigned to the education sector (secondary education) with the administrative data of the national education sector for the 2018–2019 school year. The achievements of the volunteers are related to the indicators of the Togo Education Scoreboard to determine national volunteer contributions to the results obtained at the national level. For the health sector, ANVT analysed data collected from volunteers deployed in local hospitals in 2018 and 2019. Our analysis was focused on the evolution of the number of volunteers and their participation in the health care of the population throughout the country.

Difficulties and constraints in conducting the study and solutions

We did not encounter any major difficulties in conducting our study, apart from those related to access to administrative data in the health sector, which could have been used to look at specific SDG targets. The COVID-19 health crisis meant that technical services of the Ministry of Health were unable to provide the requested data for the research team. This meant the research team only used the primary data collected by ANVT.

Contribution of volunteerism to the strengthening of the school system in Togo

A total of 1,089 volunteers have been mobilized and deployed by ANVT in secondary education throughout the national territory during the 2018–2019 school year. At the national level, there are 1,003 male volunteers compared to 86 female (Table 3.1). The proportion of female volunteers in secondary education is low (7.9 per cent of the total number of volunteer teachers).

Region	Sex of volunteer		Total
	Male	Female	
Maritime	72	2	74
Plateaux	193	13	206
Centrale	226	17	243
Kara	232	22	254
Savanes	93	5	98
Grand Lomé	187	27	214
TOTAL	1,003	86	1,089

Table 3.1 Distribution of national volunteers by region and gender

Source: Data collected by ANVT (school year 2018–2019)

The distribution of national volunteers by secondary school cycle shows that 721 out of 1,089 (66.2 per cent) are in cycle two (high school) and 368 or 33.8 per cent are in cycle one (middle school).

More than three in 10 volunteers (36.2 per cent) work in two schools and about three in 10 (27.4 per cent) work in three schools.

Data from administrative statistics for the school year 2018–2019 show there are 581,323 pupils enrolled in lower secondary and 164,793 in Secondary. There are 15,818 and 5,973 teachers working in lower secondary and upper secondary, respectively. Of these, 3,317 are volunteers in lower secondary and 947 in upper secondary (Table 3.2). The number of volunteer teachers includes both ANVT volunteers (1,089) and community volunteers.

Region	Number of pupils		Total number of teachers		Number of volunteers	
	Lower secondary	Upper secondary	Lower secondary	Upper secondary	Lower secondary	Upper secondary
Maritime	112,551	28,522	3,175	999	693	150
Plateaux	116,686	31,732	2,971	1,068	933	200
Central	59,912	16,215	1,744	718	459	132
Kara	64,841	22,750	1,824	848	594	162
Savanes	70,199	16,224	1,640	479	625	106
Grand Lomé	157,134	49,350	4,464	1,861	13	197
TOTAL	581,323	164,793	15,818	5,973	3,317	947

Table 3.2 Distribution of secondary pupils and teachers by region

Source: Togo Education Scoreboard: Indicators for 2018–2019

Contribution of volunteering to improve the pupil–teacher ratio

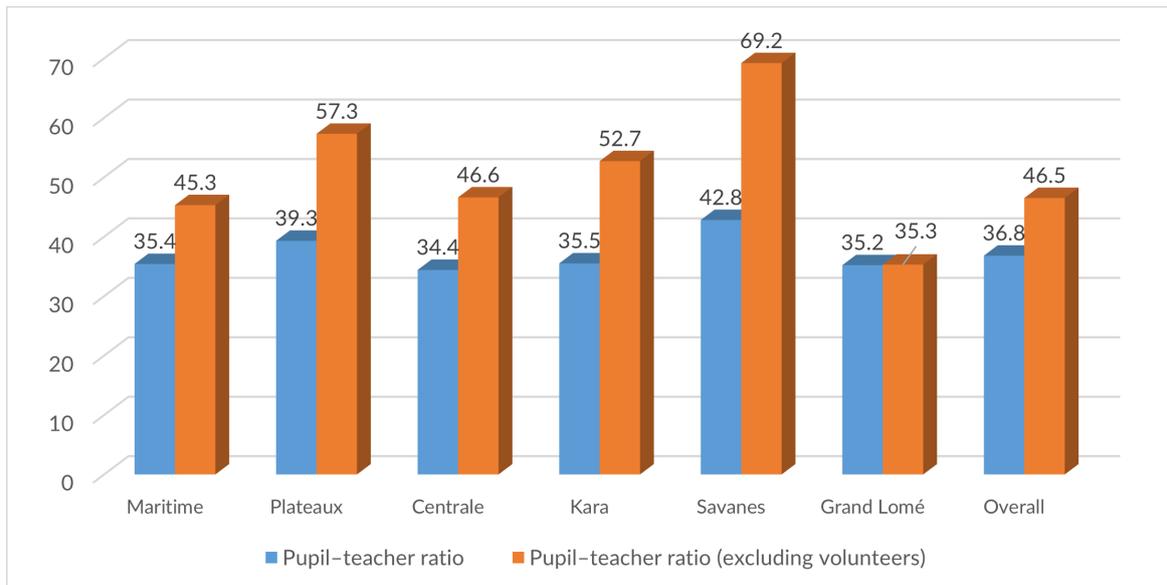
The pupil–teacher ratio is the average number of pupils per teacher in a school division in a given year. The higher the ratio, the less the pupil benefits from adequate supervision.

The pupil–teacher ratio is obtained by dividing the total number of pupils enrolled in a secondary education cycle by the number of teachers working in that cycle.

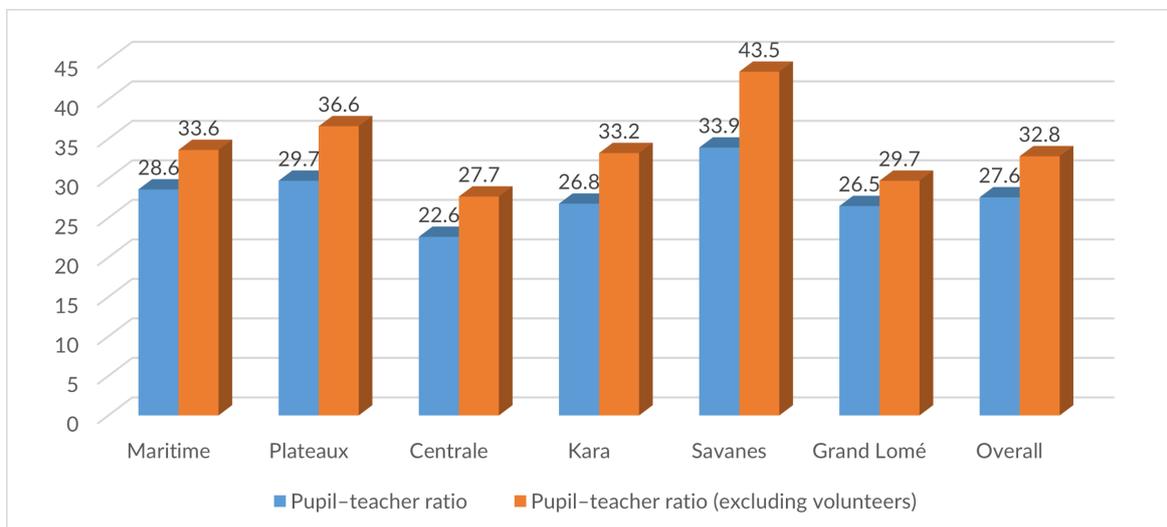
The more pupils per teacher, the less chance a pupil has of receiving the teacher’s attention. It is generally believed that low pupil–teacher ratios result in smaller class sizes, allowing the teacher to focus more attention on each pupil and thus contributing to improved pupil achievement.

The hypothesis is that the deployment of national volunteers in secondary education brings the ratio closer to the national minimum standard of 30 pupils per teacher.

In Togo during the 2018–2019 school year, teachers in lower secondary were responsible for an average of 37 pupils (Figure 3.1). This ratio would have been 47 pupils per teacher if volunteer teachers were excluded. This 10-point reduction has helped bring the ratio closer to the national minimum standard (maximum 30 pupils per teacher).¹ The national pupil–teacher ratio for upper secondary school for the same school year (2018–2019) was 28 and would have been 33 without volunteers (an improvement of 5 points).

Figure 3.1 Ratio of pupils per teacher for lower secondary

Source: Authors

Figure 3.2 Ratio of pupils per teacher for upper secondary

Source: Authors

The improvement in the ratio from 47 to 37 (10 points) in lower secondary and from 33 to 28 (5 points) in upper secondary from the intervention of the volunteers confirms the hypothesis. This allows us to conclude that the more volunteers are deployed in the education system, the closer the pupil-teacher ratio will be to the national standard.

It should be noted that there are two main limitations. The first relates to the calculation of the indicator and the second to the failure to take into account gender analysis. The indicator does not take into account factors that may affect the quality of teaching or learning, such as differences

in teacher qualifications, teacher education, professional experience, status, teaching methods and materials, and classroom working conditions. Similarly, the results were not disaggregated to determine the number of male and female pupils per teacher, nor to reflect differences in the gender ratio of teachers to volunteers (with most volunteers being male). These are aspects that should be strengthened in any further analysis.

Contribution of volunteering to the pass rate in secondary school leaving examinations

The teacher's contribution to the success of pupils is given by dividing the number of pupils who passed by the number of teachers. The coefficient obtained is related to the number of volunteer teachers. This ratio is calculated by region and at the national level. The hypothesis is that the involvement of national volunteers in teaching at secondary level contributes to improving the pass rate of pupils in the national final exams for the 2018–2019 school year.

During the 2018–2019 school year, 61,649 pupils in fourth form of lower secondary passed their end-of-year exam, the BEPC, a figure which included 25,413 girls (41.2 per cent). Given these results, the volunteers at lower secondary level contributed to the success of 12,996 pupils (21.1 per cent of the total number of pupils who passed). The 368 volunteers deployed by ANVT contributed to 1,470 pupils passing the BEPC, or 2.4 per cent of the total number of pupils admitted (Table 3.2).

Region	Pupils who passed the BEPC			Teachers	Volun- teers	Contribution of all volunteers to pupil success	Number of NVEs	Contribution of NVEs to Pupil Success
	Male	Female	Total					
Maritime	6,316	3,991	10,307	3,175	693	2,250	23	75
Plateaux	6,582	3,519	10,101	2,971	933	3,172	77	262
Centrale	3,839	2,301	6,140	1,744	459	1,616	76	268
Kara	5,479	3,458	8,937	1,824	594	2,910	84	412
Savanes	4,292	2,364	6,656	1,640	625	2,537	56	227
Grand Lomé	9,728	9,780	19,508	4,464	13	511	52	227
TOTAL	36,236	25,413	61,649	15,818	3,317	12,996	368	1,470

Table 3.2 Distribution of pupils passing the BEPC by region

Source: Togo Education Scoreboard indicators for 2018–2019

Note: National Volunteers for Education

For the upper secondary exam (BAC II), there were 18,416 pupils who passed in the country as a whole, including 5,478 girls (29.8 per cent of the total number of admissions). ANVT volunteers contributed to the success of 2,223 pupils (12.07 per cent according to the national total) (Table 3.3). Volunteers were involved in the success of 2,920 pupils at the BAC II level (15.6 per cent of the national total).

Region	Passing the BAC II exam			Teachers	Volun- teers	Contribution of all volunteers to pupil success	Number of NVEs	Contribution of NVEs to Pupil Success
	Male	Female	Total					
Maritime	2,417	966	3,383	999	150	508	51	173
Plateaux	2,839	958	3,797	1,068	200	711	129	459
Centrale	1,522	543	2,065	718	132	380	167	480
Kara	1,942	774	2,716	848	162	519	170	544
Savanes	1,219	366	1,585	479	106	351	42	139
Grand Lomé	2,999	1,871	4,870	1,861	197	516	162	424
TOTAL	12,938	5,478	18,416	5,973	947	2,920	721	2,223

Table 3.3 Distribution of pupils passing the BAC II exam by region

Source: Togo Education Scoreboard: Indicators for 2018–2019

Note: National Volunteers for Education

Overall, the 368 volunteers mobilized by ANVT contributed to the success of 1,470 pupils in the BEPC (2.4 per cent of the national total) and 2,223 pupils in the BAC II (12.07 per cent of the national total). This confirms the initial hypothesis that the involvement of national volunteers in teaching at secondary level contributes to improving the pass rate of pupils in the national final exams for the school year 2018–2019.

The provision of volunteer teachers can increase the pass rate in secondary school leaving examinations (BEPC and BAC II) if these teachers are trained in teaching methods, in addition to their specialties. It should also be noted that ANVT volunteer teachers are trained in general pedagogy and teaching methodology before being deployed.

This indicator is often calculated according to the number of teachers involved in examination classes. As this information was not available in the data received from the Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education, the indicator was calculated based on the assumption that all teachers are involved in pupil achievement, regardless of the class in which they work at the level of education in question.

Contribution of volunteering to strengthening the health system

ANVT mobilizes various health professionals as volunteers for the benefit of health structures. This study focuses on the achievements of volunteers serving as nurses and midwives. At the national level, the total number of nursing volunteers mobilized by ANVT remained relatively stable over the period covered by the study, rising from 110 volunteers in 2018 to 106 in 2019 (Table 3.4).

Region	2018			2019		
	Staff	Percentage		Staff	Percentage	
Grand Lomé	39	35%		38	36%	
Maritime	11	10%		4	4%	
Plateaux	17	15%		26	25%	
Centrale	15	14%		11	10%	
Kara	16	15%		15	14%	
Savanes	12	11%		12	11%	
TOTAL	110	100%		106	100%	

Table 3.4 Evolution of the number of volunteer nurses by region between 2018 and 2019

Source: Data collected by ANVT (2018–2019)

The number of patients seen by all the nursing volunteers mobilized at the national level was 91,665 in 2018 and 56,181 in 2019, equivalent to an average of 833 and 530 patients consulted per volunteer respectively (Table 3.5).

Region	2018			2019		
	Staff	Average	Percentage	Staff	Average	Percentage
Maritime	9,585	871	10%	405	101	1%
Plateaux	18,645	1,097	20%	21,586	830	38%
Centrale	15,363	1,024	17%	8,940	813	16%
Kara	12,366	773	13%	6,244	416	11%
Savanes	2,793	233	3%	2,189	182	4%
Grand Lomé	32,913	844	36%	16,817	443	30%
TOTAL	91,665	833	100%	56,181	530	100%

Table 3.5 Distribution of the number of patients seen by volunteer nurses by region in 2018 and 2019

Source: Data collected by ANVT (2018–2019)

The reporting of the volunteer tracking system at the national level shows that 101 volunteer midwives were placed in health centres by ANVT in 2019. This is an increase of 16 per cent compared to 87 volunteers for 2018.

To measure the contribution of volunteers in the response to malaria, ANVT collected data on the achievements of its volunteers on the number of malaria cases treated, the number of awareness-raising interventions and participation in campaigns for the distribution of impregnated mosquito nets.

The same approach was adopted for the indicators on controlling HIV and improving maternal health. It is assumed that volunteers were involved in the response to malaria, controlling HIV and improving maternal health. However, without access to health-sector administrative data, it was not possible to cross-analyse the contribution of volunteers to national outcomes for the health sector.

Nursing volunteers, actors in the fight against communicable diseases

In 2019, volunteer nurses deployed throughout the country treated 27,918 cases of malaria, a 40 per cent decrease in cases compared to 2018. During these two years, the majority of malaria cases that received treatment (71 per cent in 2018 and 89 per cent in 2019) were recorded in the Plateaux region (22 per cent in 2018 and 41 per cent in 2019), the Centrale region (20 per cent on average over the two years) and Grand Lomé (28 per cent over the same period) (Table 3.7). The various cases of malaria treated by the volunteers are part of the strategic plan to combat malaria for 2017–2022, which includes rapid diagnostic testing as a treatment protocol, alongside artesunate and artemether injections, which have been free of charge since May 2019.

Region	2018			2019		
	Staff	Average	Percentage	Staff	Average	Percentage
Maritime	4,735	430	10%	190	48	1
Plateaux	10,361	609	22%	11,367	437	41
Centrale	9,512	634	21%	5,486	499	20
Kara	7,042	440	15%	2,112	141	8
Savanes	1,496	125	3%	892	74	3
Grand Lomé	13,032	334	28%	7,871	207	28
TOTAL	46,178	420	100%	27,918	263	100

Table 3.6 Distribution of the number of patients treated for malaria by region in 2018 and 2019

Source: Data collected by ANVT (2018–2019)

To prevent malaria, volunteers regularly organize awareness-raising meetings for the population and campaigns for the free distribution of impregnated mosquito nets. There were a total of 4,215 meetings for malaria reaching 38,112 people over the period 2018–2019.

The response to HIV

In 2019, 3,307 people were tested for HIV by ANVT nursing volunteers (table 22), 22 per cent lower than the corresponding figure of 4,233 for 2018. In 2019, more than half of the people who tested positive for HIV (56 per cent) were registered in the Plateaux region, with the other half mainly distributed between Greater Lomé (20 per cent) and the Centrale region (15 per cent). In contrast, in 2018, the highest figure was for Greater Lomé (28 per cent) (Table 3.8). According to the national strategy for the fight against the disease, HIV testing is one of the main measures to prevent the spread of this pandemic.

Region	2018			2019		
	Staff	Average	Percentage	Staff	Average	Percentage
Maritime	863	78	20%	77	19	2%
Plateaux	946	56	22%	1,837	71	56%
Centrale	508	34	12%	121	11	4%
Kara	718	45	17%	496	33	15%
Savanes	29	2	1%	113	9	3%
Grand Lomé	1,169	30	28%	663	17	20%
TOTAL	4,233	38	100%	3,307	31	100%

Table 3.7 Distribution of the number of people tested for HIV by region in 2018 and 2019

Source: Data collected by ANVT (2018–2019)

Volunteer midwives and improving maternal health

Volunteer midwives carried out 42,811 prenatal consultations and delivered 14,103 births over the period 2018–2019. Each midwife provided care to an average of 227 pregnant women and delivered 75 births.

Awareness and adoption of family planning methods

Over the period 2018–2019, 24,410 women across the country benefited from counselling or awareness-raising on family planning through volunteer midwives (Table 3.8). Of these, 11,622 (48 per cent) accepted and adopted a method of family planning.

Region	2018			2019		
	Staff	Average	Percentage	Staff	Average	Percentage
Maritime	2,343	146	14%	1,014	113	13%
Plateaux	3,840	240	23%	2,357	94	29%
Centrale	1,860	207	11%	1,165	146	15%
Kara	3,295	253	20%	996	77	12%
Savanes	296	74	2%	541	60	7%
Grand Lomé	4,785	165	29%	1,918	52	24%
TOTAL	16,419	189	100%	7,991	79	100%

Table 3.8 Distribution of the number of women reached by awareness-raising on family planning by volunteer midwives by region during 2018 and 2019

Source: Data collected by ANVT (2018–2019)

Raising awareness on the prevention of mother-to-child transmission of HIV

Since 2001, prevention of mother-to-child transmission has been a priority intervention in Togo and forms part of the national health development plan and national plans to control HIV. Volunteer midwives have worked on raising awareness of prevention under this framework. Results indicate that volunteer midwives reached 25,379 women over the period 2018–2019 (Table 3.9).

Region	2018			2019		
	Staff	Average	Percentage	Staff	Average	Percentage
Maritime	2,267	142	13%	980	109	12%
Plateaux	3,779	236	22%	2,011	80	25%
Centrale	1,215	135	7%	1,039	130	13%
Kara	3,377	260	20%	723	56	9%
Savanes	769	192	4%	784	87	10%
Grand Lomé	5,892	203	34%	2,543	69	31%
TOTAL	17,299	199	100%	8,080	80	100%

Table 3.9 Distribution of the number of women covered by prevention of mother-to-child transmission awareness-raising by volunteer midwives by region in 2018 and 2019

Source: Data collected by ANVT (2018–2019)

Taken as a whole, these results show the involvement of national volunteers in the response to malaria, the control of HIV and the improvement of maternal and child health.

The financial contribution of volunteerism to strengthening education and health

To evaluate the financial contribution to the strengthening of the education and health systems over the course of a year, for each of these sectors we compared the cost of volunteers to ANVT the cost if these members of staff had been recruited in the civil service. The difference between the two amounts allows us to know whether this choice represents an economic loss or gain for the State.

The initial assumption is that there are cost savings to the State from the benefits of deploying national volunteers in the education and health sectors. In education, the 1,089 volunteers mobilized cost ANVT approximately 1.3 billion CFA francs (\$2.3 million) for the 2018–2019 school year (Table 3.10). If the latter were employed as civil servants, the cost to the State would be approximately 2 billion CFA francs (\$3.6 million). This means use of volunteers in the secondary education system saves the State 700 million CFA francs (\$1.3 million).²

Region	Number of volunteers	Annual cost of volunteers ³	Annual cost as civil servant	Saving for the State
Maritime	74	85,869,600	129,679,080	43,809,480
Plateaux	206	239,042,400	366,453,313	127,410,913
Centrale	243	281,977,200	442,892,239	160,915,039
Kara	254	294,741,600	477,363,140	182,621,540
Savanes	98	113,719,200	180,697,865	66,978,665
Grand Lomé	214	248,325,600	398,623,510	150,297,910
TOTAL	1,089	1,263,675,600	1,995,709,148	732,033,548

Table 3.10 Cost of volunteers working in education by region

Source: Data collected by ANVT (school year 2018–2019)

Similarly, in the health system, the State saved 195 million CFA francs (\$350,000) in 2019 as a result of the commitment of 304 volunteers (Table 3.11).

Region	Number of volunteers	Annual cost of volunteers	Annual cost as civil servant	Saving for the State
Maritime	21	23,018,400	36,447,656	13,429,256
Plateaux	69	74,667,600	115,048,450	40,380,850
Centrale	26	29,900,400	47,197,500	17,297,100
Kara	40	45,336,000	71,163,172	25,827,172
Savanes	29	33,111,600	52,122,858	19,011,258
Grand Lomé	119	136,197,600	215,651,385	79,453,785
TOTAL	304	342,231,600	537,631,022	195,399,422

Table 3.11 Cost of volunteers working in the health sector by region

Source: Data collected by ANVT, 2019

The deployment of 1,393 national volunteers in the education and health sectors has allowed the Government to save 927 million CFA francs (\$1.7 million) in a single year, confirming our hypothesis. This allows us to conclude that, in terms of internal efficiency, the Government decision to use volunteers in the different socio-economic sectors has an acceptable cost–benefit ratio in terms of the contribution towards achieving national objectives. However, it is also important that volunteering does not replace employment opportunities for young people, due to economic reasons.

Beyond these financial and economic considerations, volunteers strengthen their employability by building their professional capacities and skills through their involvement in education and public

health. Moreover, they are often recruited by the structures in which they are engaged. Overall, the rate of professional integration of volunteers within their host structure exceeds 40 per cent.

Discussion

Difficulties obtaining data during the COVID-19 pandemic meant the achievements of the volunteers in the health sector were not triangulated with those of the administrative or health districts, as was the case for the education sector. The cross-analysis of these data would have made it possible to link the achievements of the volunteers with the progress indicators of the five axes of the National Health Development Plan 2017–2022:

- accelerating the reduction of maternal, neonatal and infant and child mortality, and strengthening family planning and adolescent health;
- strengthening the fight against communicable diseases;
- improving health security and the response to epidemics and other public health emergencies;
- strengthening the fight against non-communicable diseases and health promotion; and
- strengthening the health system towards universal health coverage, including community health.

In specific terms, cross-analysis would have allowed us to:

- Determine the proportion of volunteers involved in achieving these sectoral objectives by considering the 27,918 cases of malaria treated by volunteers as part of the national indicator for malaria mortality in children under five years of age over the period 2018–2019.
- Explain the correlation between the geographical distribution of volunteers by health profiles and the increase in geographic accessibility rates, in terms of meeting the demand for health personnel at the primary-care level and the density of health personnel (ratio per 10,000 inhabitants).
- Extend the analyses to other health volunteer profiles to determine the representativeness of volunteers in the health workforce in the private sector and in civil society organizations.
- Cross-analysis would also have allowed health authorities to determine the real contribution of volunteers to their objectives, especially since the Ministry of Health does not disaggregate outcome indicators by the status of health professionals.

By comparing the data collected and the administrative data of secondary education and by analysing the data collected in the field of health, ANVT has evaluated the contribution of its volunteers to the strengthening of these two sectors based on the following indicators:

- **Education** – (i) the pupil–teacher ratio and (ii) the pass rate for lower and upper secondary examinations.
- **Health** – (i) the contribution of volunteers in the fight against communicable diseases (malaria and HIV) and (ii) the contribution of volunteers to improving maternal health.
- **Both sectors (health and education)** – the financial cost–benefit ratio of using volunteers in each of these sectors.

Given the promising results obtained and the limitations of the present study, ANVT plans to seek further funding to evaluate the contribution of volunteers to the education and health sectors in greater depth.

Notes

- 1** Togo, Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education 2019.
- 2** The calculation of the cost of officials does not take into account other benefits such as promotion bonuses, seniority bonuses, insurance, etc. This suggests that the real financial benefit for the Government from using volunteers would be greater than the result given by the study. Similarly, it does not consider the benefits to volunteers from the experience, which would be another important reason for using volunteers instead of civil servants.
- 3** The monthly cost of an ANVT volunteer is 96,700 CFA francs (approximately \$175), which includes the monthly allowance, social security and health insurance charges, follow-up and accompaniment costs.

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A logic model for measuring the impact of community health volunteers in the implementation of SDG 3 in Kenya: Ensuring healthy lives and promoting well-being for all at all ages

TUESDAY GICHUKI AND JUDY GACHATHI

In 2016, the Government of Kenya commissioned the authors of this paper, through Usitawi Consultants Africa Ltd., to undertake the first ever study to quantify the contribution of volunteer work to the economy of Kenya to encourage the country's Bureau of Statistics to include the measurement of volunteer work in national surveys and the system of national accounts. This paper seeks to provide a framework for moving beyond the quantification of volunteer work in order to measure its impact. The authors propose a logic model for credible, replicable and scalable methodologies that can be used to measure the impact of the work of community health volunteers (CHVs) to improve health outcomes at the population level, in line with Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) 3 on ensuring healthy lives and promoting well-being for all at all ages.

CHVs are lay community members who serve as a liaison between the community and the health care, government and social services systems. They mainly work in underprivileged, marginalized communities, where resources are limited or there is a lack of access to quality health care. CHVs provide advocacy, education and support to civilians to help them improve their lifestyle and connect them with appropriate health care options. They also collect data and discuss health concerns with specific populations and often live in the communities they serve.

In Kenya, the services provided by CHVs relate to seven of the nine targets of SDG 3:¹

- target 3.1 on reducing maternal mortality;
- target 3.2 on ending preventable deaths of newborn children and children under five years of age;
- target 3.3 on ending the epidemics of HIV, tuberculosis, malaria and neglected tropical diseases, and combating hepatitis, water-borne diseases and other communicable diseases;
- target 3.4 on reducing premature mortality from non-communicable diseases through prevention and treatment and promoting mental health and well-being;
- target 3.5 on strengthening the prevention and treatment of substance abuse;
- target 3.6 on reducing the number of deaths and injuries from road traffic accidents; and
- target 3.7 on ensuring universal access to sexual and reproductive health care services, and the integration of reproductive health into national strategies and programmes.

Methodology

This paper was prepared based on a review of articles, reports and global data-collection tools to identify key areas of measurement for monitoring the performance and impact of CHVs. A limited number of key informant interviews were conducted online with stakeholders, community health implementers, advocates and Ministry of Health representatives.

However, due to the prevailing COVID-19 challenges, we were not able to contact a number of critical stakeholders to conduct consultations to build consensus on priority indicators and identify the importance and value of specific measurement domains, subdomains and indicators. We anticipate that it will be possible to use the proposed logic model in a pilot survey to measure the impact of CHV interventions in Nairobi County and to make adjustments to the model on the basis of the findings.

Defining volunteerism in Kenya

African traditions and cultural beliefs have always encouraged collective responsibility, solidarity and reciprocity. African societies have relied on kinship and mutual aid to meet society's basic needs. They have also been fundamental to the social cohesion of pre-colonial societies.²

The current definition of volunteer work is found in paragraphs 37 and 38 of the resolution concerning statistics of work, employment and labour underutilization, adopted by the Nineteenth International Conference of Labour Statisticians.³ The resolution defines volunteers as anyone of working age who performs any unpaid activity to produce goods or services for others, without compulsion. The activity should be for a period of at least one hour. The term "unpaid" means that the person was not remunerated in cash or in kind for the work done. The resolution allows the volunteer worker to receive a support or stipend in cash, which should be below one-third of local market wages. This support includes out-of-pocket expenses, living expenses incurred for the activity, meals, transportation or symbolic gifts.

The national volunteerism policy of Kenya defines volunteerism as "the offering of an individual's or group's time, skills or resources to provide services by free choice for the benefit of other individuals, communities or nations, without the expectation of financial gain other than reimbursement of reasonable expenses".⁴ The definition does not place any limits on the beneficiaries, which can include members of the volunteer's family.

Similar to the international definition, the Kenya policy distinguishes between the reimbursement of costs such as meals, transport and out-of-pocket expenses, and actual remuneration. The policy recognizes youth, retired persons, working professionals, citizens living abroad, organized groups, corporate companies, children in institutional settings and government volunteer initiatives.⁵

The Kenyan policy includes four categories of volunteering: mutual aid, service, campaigning and participation.⁶ However, it does not include volunteering as leisure,⁷ which is included in the updated UNV categories of volunteerism to cover volunteer work done to express personal interests and better recognize the benefit of volunteering to volunteers themselves.

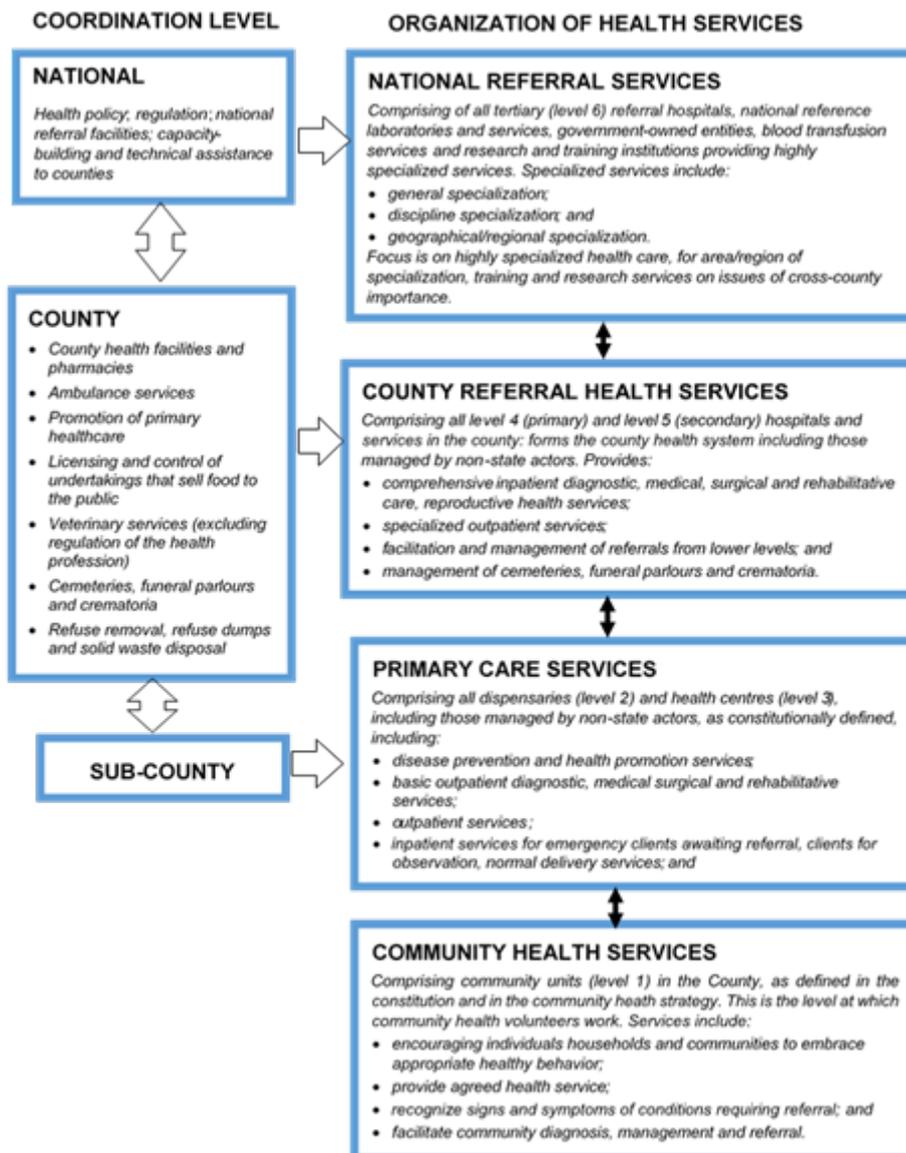
State of volunteerism in Kenya

The Kenya Vision 2030, the Second Medium-Term Plan and the Government's socio-economic development agenda all regard volunteerism as a critical national asset to allow the country to achieve its socio-economic goals, including the Millennium Development Goals and their successor, the 2030 Agenda and the SDGs.

Volunteerism is practised both informally and formally in Kenya. Practitioners obtain benefits in the form of new skills, knowledge, motivation and building their networks. Examples of groups that volunteer include young people and women, retired professionals, active professionals and people with disabilities. In Kenya, the volunteerism sector continues to grow with emerging trends and includes Government-initiated volunteer programmes.⁸

Research by the authors of this paper in 2017, on behalf of the Government of Kenya, found that 51 per cent of Kenyans volunteered in 2016. Age, education level or marital status did not appear to be a constraint in ability to volunteer. Slightly more men (55.4 per cent) than women (44.6 per cent) volunteered during the reference period. The economic contribution of volunteer work to the economy was approximately 4 per cent of GDP.⁹

Figure 3.3 Organization of the health delivery system



Source: Kenya, Ministry of Health 2014

Health in Kenya

The Government of Kenya has identified 100 per cent universal health coverage as one of its four priority goals for the period 2018–2022. This includes increasing the population covered by health insurance from 36 per cent in 2017 to 100 per cent by 2022, reducing out-of-pocket household expenditure from 26 per cent in 2017 to 10 per cent by 2022, increasing the population with access to a defined essential health services package and strengthening coordination among health-sector stakeholders for achieving universal health coverage.¹⁰

Government of Kenya policy projections

The Kenya Health Act (2017) establishes a unified health system to coordinate the national government and county government health systems and regulate health care services, service providers, products and technology.¹¹

The Kenyan health policy for 2014–2030 aims to significantly improve the population's health through a reduction of at least 48 per cent in deaths from communicable diseases and by reducing deaths from non-communicable conditions and injuries, while also paying attention to emerging conditions (Table 3.12).

	2010		2030 targets	
	Absolute no. of deaths	Deaths per 1,000 people	Absolute no. of deaths	Deaths per 1,000 people
TOTAL	420,000	10.6	290,000	5.4
Communicable conditions	270,000	6.8	140,000	2.6
Non-communicable conditions	110,000	2.8	110,000	2.0
Violence/injuries	40,000	1.0	40,000	0.7
Population estimates	38,500,000		54,150,000	

Table 3.12 Absolute and relative mortality targets for Kenya, 2010–2030

Source: Kenya, Ministry of Health 2014

Health-sector financial allocations and expenditure

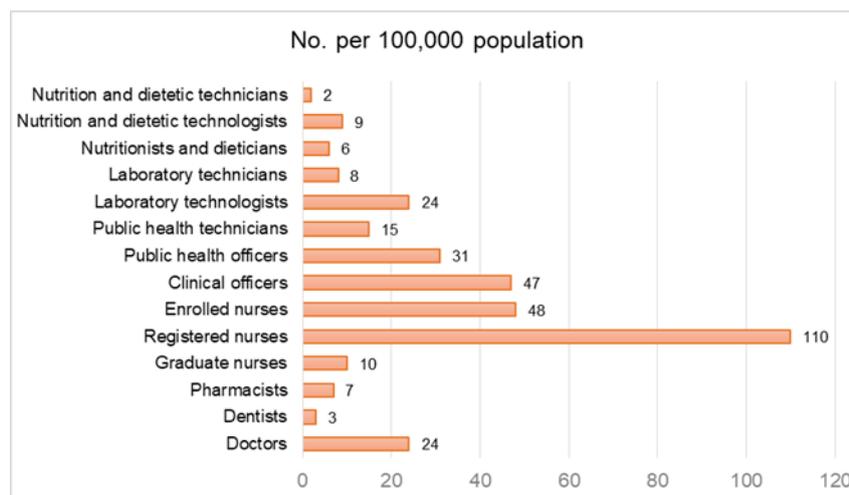
The 2010 national health accounts show resources are being used more efficiently, with more services delivered using the same allocation, although resources allocated to management functions outweighed those use for service delivery. The improvements are concentrated on 2009 and 2010. The establishment of health as a basic right in the country's constitution mean budgets will likely increase to meet this obligation.¹²

Human resources

Figure 3.4 shows a general increase in the number of health care professionals over the years, peaking at an average of 24 doctors and 168 nurses for every 100,000 people in 2018. The Kenyan

community health strategy includes CHVs (members of the community, nominated from within) who are tasked with improving the community's health and well-being and linking individuals to primary health care services.¹³ CHVs conduct monthly household visits within a defined catchment area. This is defined as 20 households in rural areas and 100 households in urban areas. The average household in Kenya has 3.9 members, meaning the country needs 1,282 CHVs per 100,000 population in rural areas, compared to a figure of 356 for cities.¹⁴

Figure 3.4 Registered health professionals in Kenya (2018)



Source: Kenya, National Bureau of Statistics 2019a.

In routine visits to households, CHVs gather basic health information and identify problems that may require the involvement of the formal health sector. The national manual for CHVs outlines 14 additional responsibilities, which form part of the routine work of CHVs, alongside other behaviour change initiatives supported by the Ministry of Health.¹⁵

Before CHVs are deployed, the Ministry of Health puts them through basic training lasting 10 days. This training is usually supplemented by activity-specific technical training, which is provided by local governments or NGOs based on guidelines from the Ministry. CHVs also receive training, coaching and supervision from community health extension workers (salaried front-line health care workers).¹⁶

A conceptual framework for measuring impact

Assessing the effectiveness and impact of health programmes on the health of populations in general is a challenging task. It is difficult to attribute any improvements to one or more health programme activities. Many contextual factors contribute to the health of populations, including factors unrelated to health programmes, such as standard of living and level of education.

Another difficulty is that different evaluation actors and stakeholders may view impact quite differently. It may be viewed in the light of effects intended by policymakers and programme planners or as experienced by intended beneficiaries and other stakeholders. It may also be determined by a review of an immediate experience or a longer-lasting change in circumstances or capacities at the level of individuals, communities or institutions.

In this paper, impact is measured in terms of the long-term positive changes for policymakers, individuals, communities and society as a whole resulting from activities or services provided by

CHVs and the health delivery system as a whole. The paper seeks to build a model for measurement that is able to respond to the following questions:

- What are the main health issues addressed by CHVs and who do they affect?
- Do interventions by CHVs make a difference to the short- and medium-term health changes (outcomes) and long-term results (impacts)?
- To what extent can a specific impact be attributed to the activities of CHVs? Would the outcomes be different without CHV interventions?
- Does the programme affect different people in different ways (by gender, wealth, class, ethnicity or religion)?
- Are the interventions scalable and replicable elsewhere?

There is currently no universal, standardized system to empirically measure the impact of CHV programmes and measurement is limited since there is no accepted and pragmatic set of indicators that are theoretically grounded and have been validated.¹⁷ The integrated Community Case Management (iCCM) framework seeks to guide measurement and metrics but has few metrics measured at the community level.¹⁸

The framework proposed in this paper has been developed based on a review of community health literature, which was partly identified by using online databases.¹⁹ The frameworks reviewed include the CHV Assessment and Improvement Matrix (AIM),²⁰ the CHV logic model proposed by Naimoli and others,²¹ the USAID Community Health Framework²² and the Primary Health Care Performance Initiative conceptual framework.²³ The literature and existing frameworks were used to determine the subdomains of the CHV impact measurement framework, which were then refined using key informants with expert knowledge of the CHV landscape in Kenya.

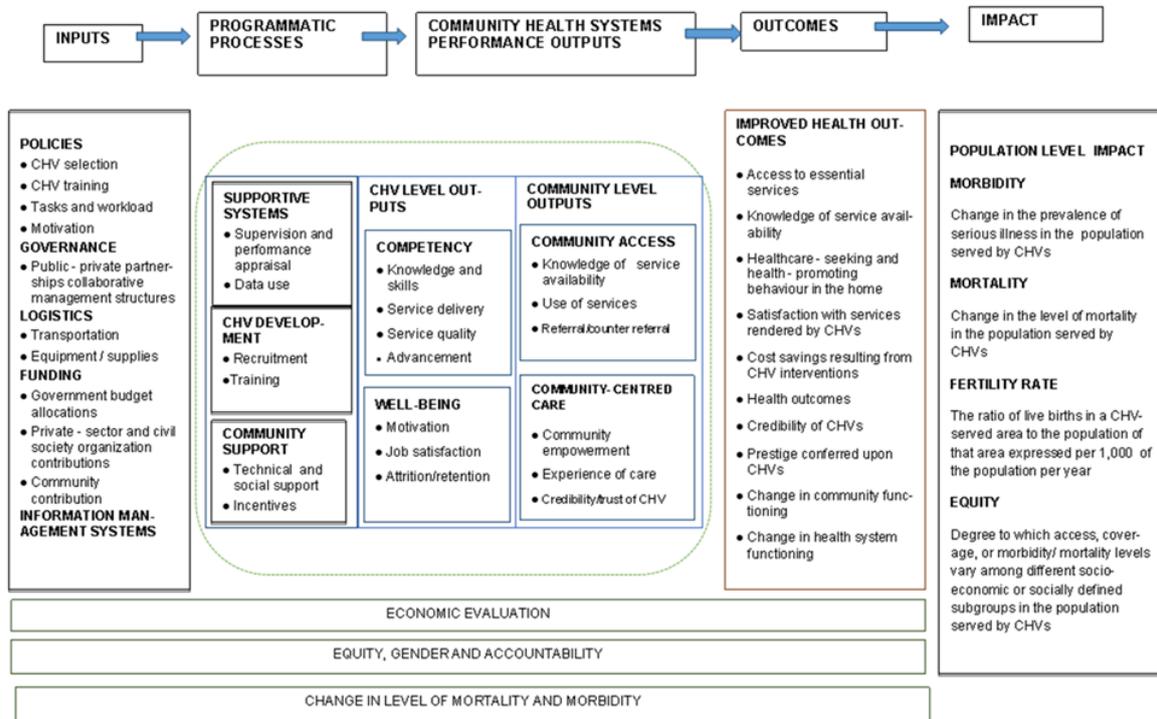
Concept development

The proposed measurement framework involves the following critical considerations:

- Programme and system-level processes and activities, including the role played by governance, policy, internal and external investments, as well as other supporting mechanisms that cover the broader community health system influencing CHV programme performance.
- CHV programmes implemented by civil society organizations and the private sector, with different CHV roles, responsibilities and timelines. A private–public partnership should coordinate the various actors using existing standardized metrics (iCCM, HIV, TB, family planning, maternal health) to measure the impacts of services on a specific outcome area.
- Bearing in mind that many factors determine the success of CHV programmes, the proposed framework focuses on critical aspects for measuring CHV impact. The paper does not include multidimensional and critical concepts like community empowerment and job satisfaction.
- Programme effectiveness depends on the balance between short-term demand for data that informs programme activities and the long-term data for understanding programme goals.

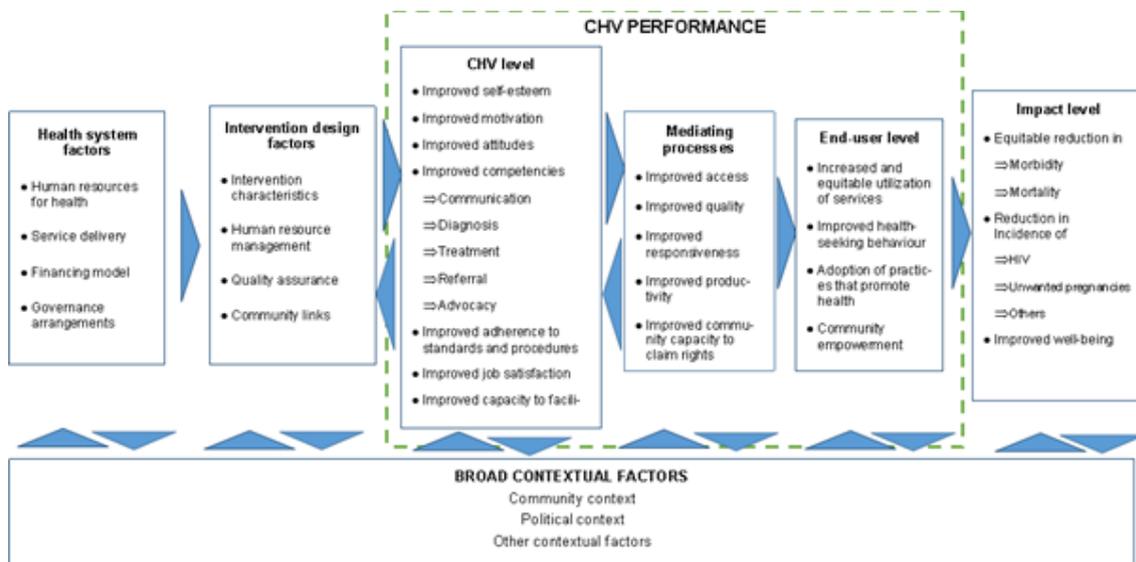
The impact measurement framework and indicators are a critical first step in identifying relevant and contextually appropriate indicators to monitor the performance and impact of CHV programmes (Figure 3.5). Adoption of the proposed indicators can guide the development of a robust monitoring system for CHV programmes, improve daily performance and, in the long run, impact health outcomes. However, the practical challenges facing systems and resources to capture and use data at community level are greater than those at the facility level.

Figure 3.5 CHVs impact measurement framework



Source: Authors based on Agarwal and others 2019

Figure 3.6 Logic model for measuring the impact of CHVs on health delivery



Source: Authors based on Kok and others 2015

Measuring the impact of CHVs

To measure the impact of CHVs, it is necessary to show that a change in health outcomes is caused by the volunteer programme intervention and not by other health care interventions or factors. Monitoring and process evaluations are essential prerequisites for evaluating impact (Table 3.13). Monitoring

measures the outputs produced by an intervention, whereas process evaluation assesses whether all the steps of the programme are properly executed and whether there are bottlenecks or impediments to successful implementation. Monitoring and process evaluation should be initiated from the start of the programme and continued throughout to enable changes if problems in implementation arise.

Evaluation design	Methodology	Advantages/disadvantages
Experimental designs	Beneficiary and control groups are randomly selected from a well-defined population. When designed with a large enough sample size and controlled to prevent or limit influence from outside factors, any observed difference in the outcomes between the beneficiary and control groups can be safely attributed to the intervention and not to underlying differences between the two groups.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The main benefit of this technique is the comparative simplicity of constructing the counterfactual and interpreting the results. • Challenges include ethical concerns (denying benefits or services to otherwise eligible individuals), difficulty in offering the intervention to only certain groups, a high cost and time requirement and an inapplicability to pilots and other programme models.
Quasi-experimental designs	Control groups are not randomly chosen, but selected so that they closely resemble the beneficiary group. In this case, beneficiaries are compared to the control group using complex statistical methods to account for the differences between the groups and correct for the selection bias that may arise from non-random allocation of benefits.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The main benefit is being able to draw on existing data sources, which is often quicker and cheaper to implement than randomized designs. Can also be performed after a programme has been implemented, provided sufficient data exists. • A major challenge is selection bias, arising from non-random assignment. It possible that some of the characteristics determining assignment to beneficiary or control groups might also influence final outcomes. • May not indicate what would have happened to the beneficiaries if they had not received the intervention, or account for unrelated non-intervention changes. The reliability of results depends on a set of assumptions and fairly complex statistical methods.
Non-experimental designs	Beneficiaries are compared with the control group using statistical methods to account for the differences between the groups. Some non-experimental evaluation methods do not establish control/comparison groups but use other sophisticated techniques to attempt to demonstrate causality.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The main benefit comes from taking into account the complexity of the programme and the context within which it operates. • A more flexible and low-cost technique that can be applied in situations where experimental or quasi-experimental techniques are not appropriate or possible. • The information provided is complex and difficult to analyse differentially and to generalize. • There is also some debate about the validity of these evaluations, since they may not rigorously establish causality or explicitly determine the standard against which impact is to be defined and measured.

Table 3.13 Evaluation methodologies and techniques

Source: Authors based on Stern 2015

Establishing causality in measuring impact

When measuring the impact of an intervention, it is necessary to show that the observed change is due to the intervention, and not to other factors. This usually requires an explicit counterfactual; an estimate of what would have happened to the beneficiaries if the intervention had not taken place. Since it is not possible to observe the same individual over time both as a beneficiary and a non-beneficiary of the intervention, it is necessary to identify a representative comparison or control group. This is a group of individuals or families similar to the beneficiary group in every respect, except that they were not part of the intervention. This helps us to establish whether the observed change is solely due to the intervention outcomes. It is also necessary to assess contribution of interventions done by paid health workers and non-state actors within the population under evaluation.

Choosing the right methods

There is no one way to evaluate impact. Instead, it is important to ensure methods are rigorous and appropriate. Each impact evaluation must take into account the unique characteristics and environment of the programme in question. The impact evaluation should demonstrate causality, that is credibly show that the intervention was responsible for the observed outcome in an empirically verifiable and objective way. Causal contribution assesses whether or not the programme is one of many causes of the observed change and develops testable hypotheses and predictions, with a credible narrative of how an intervention affects its intended results. This outcome must be defined relative to an explicit counterfactual, to which programme outcomes can be compared.

In our view, the most robust methodology to establish the counterfactual to facilitate measuring the impact of community health volunteers involves using an experimental approach, randomly selecting individuals who are covered by CHVs (beneficiary group) and others who are not (control group). A mixed methods approach, combining qualitative and quantitative methods, can provide comprehensive results, combining well contextualized studies with quantitative rigour. Using a mix of quantitative and qualitative data sources (for example, administrative and self-reported data), data types (quantitative and qualitative), sampling methods (random and purposeful), measurement instruments (for example, questionnaires and interview) and analysis methods (for example, statistics and interpretation) to complement and balance each other strengthens the quality of evidence and can provide a confirmation of results obtained independently using each method.²⁴

Determining the sample size

Ideally, and particularly for national level evaluations, power calculations should be performed to determine the appropriate sample size to determine statistically significant intervention effects. If the sample size is too small then the study is underpowered and there is a risk it will fail to find a significant impact, even if it exists. In contrast, if the sample is too large, the study budget will be higher than necessary. Power calculations should be independently carried out by an expert.

In this model, we propose that evaluators use the Cochran formula to calculate sample size. This formula is easy to use for organizations and people with minimal statistical expertise to enable scalability and replicability. The formula makes it possible to compute the best sample size based on the desired precision, confidence level and estimate of the proportion of the attribute in the population. While this approach is particularly suitable for large populations, the formula also provides a “correction” that allows the number to be reduced for small populations. If the population is unknown, we can calculate the sample size based on the minimum sample required for the standard normal

deviation at a 95 per cent confidence level (1.96), the estimated proportion of an attribute that is present in the population (50 per cent = 0.5) and the confidence interval (0.05 = ± 5).

Data collection

Evaluators need to collect primary data for impact measurement over two different time horizons (baseline and end-term), using structured questionnaires embedded into the cross-sectional survey and budgetary reviews. Qualitative data can be collected through focus groups and key informant interviews with women, young people, household decision makers, CHVs and community health extension workers, care providers at the facility and community levels and county-level health decision makers. Secondary data is mainly be collected through a literature review, including CHV supervisory records and the most recent demographic and health surveys.

Gender roles and norms in volunteer work and implications for design

Social and cultural norms influence how women access CHV services and CHV programme performance. A study in Swaziland has shown how limitations on women's agency and decision-making act as a barrier to access to CHV interventions in HIV prevention and care.²⁵ This model has the potential to provide insights into how gender may influence volunteer work.

Similarly, in Malawi, a CHV intervention for the prevention of the mother-to-child transmission of HIV found that women without the involvement of a partner were most likely to complete treatment. Women with undisclosed partners were least likely to complete treatment.²⁶ In Afghanistan, a study found female CHVs were preferred for reproductive health services, since cultural norms do not allow men and women to interact freely outside the family.²⁷

In Ghana, research found male-only community-based surveillance volunteers for maternal and neonatal health could limit the scope of the intervention, since families would not allow the male volunteers to physically assist with placing babies in the skin-to-skin position or with breastfeeding attachment.²⁸ Similarly, in Guinea, a family planning programme recruited female and male community-based distributors for each village, since social norms only allowed female distributors to approach women, leaving their male counterparts to engage with men.²⁹

A study in Western Kenya, found that male CHVs had a more difficult time providing voluntary services as it conflicted with their ability to fulfil their expected household financial responsibilities. Consequently, they dropped out of volunteer programmes to search for income generating endeavours. However, women CHVs were ready to work without expectation of realistic wages. The willingness of women CHVs to assume this role without a realistic payment was attributed to women being expected to naturally assume family responsibility and community health care as an extension of their maternal role, contributing to the perspective of the uneven and gendered geographies of volunteerism.³⁰

The study also found that male CHVs lacked the natural instincts for tender care and tolerance that a sick person requires, compared to their female counterparts, for whom this was seen as coming "naturally". Although money was less important in women's decisions to become a CHV, the lack of a realistic wage and occasionally also support from their spouses played a role in women dropping out of volunteer programmes.³¹

There is evidence that both men and women CHVs felt certain issues should only be discussed with either men or women.³² Many male CHVs were uncomfortable with directly addressing pregnancy, since they found it culturally inappropriate. Women CHVs found it hard to openly discuss sexual and reproductive health issues with men. They also found it hard to visit male households,

especially those of unmarried men, due to concerns related to safety and their reputation. Similarly, young men reported facing difficulties conducting household visits as they were often suspected of having ulterior (possibly criminal) motives.³³

The above limitations reflect a gendered view of the data collected, which has the potential to affect its quality, accuracy, completeness, reliability and confidentiality. Gendered norms also limit the ability to openly discuss important health issues and fully assess the health status of clients. This may be overcome through raising awareness among beneficiary communities and the recruitment of more men and women as CHVs.

Logic model for measuring the impact of CHVs

Funnell and Rogers define a logic model (also referred to as a programme theory) as “an explicit theory or model of how an intervention, such as a project, a programme, a strategy, an initiative, or a policy contributes to a chain of intermediate results and finally to the intended or observed outcomes”.³⁴ Logic models map intended relationships and causal connections between what a programme plans to do and what it hopes to achieve. Models often include contextual factors that can positively or negatively influence the implementation and results of programmes.³⁵

The Logic Model proposed in this paper (Figure 3.6), is derived from the CHV performance and impact framework (Figure 3.5) and represents our approach to measuring the impact of CHV programming. It reflects the need for sector and community actors to contribute in their different ways to high-quality, sustainable CHV programming to ensure performance and impact at scale. Impact Measurement can aid planning decisions on funding the health sector at community level. It may also help to highlight that community systems play a significant role in determining the performance of CHVs. The model may also contribute to a common understanding and facilitate communication among all stakeholders to foster a shared understanding of what is needed to improve and sustain CHV performance.³⁶

Measuring the performance of CHVs

A number of factors contribute to the performance and impact of CHV interventions. These include supportive supervisory systems, the capabilities of CHVs, the level of community support, the competencies of CHVs and well-being, as well as community awareness of and access to services provided by CHVs. Data for some of the factors is easily available, while others are difficult to obtain directly. For example, training may capture pre- and post-test knowledge scores but assessments of the extent to which CHVs effectively apply their newly acquired skills are less frequent.³⁷ It is also hard to routinely monitor the measurement of financial and non-financial incentives for CHVs, except where they receive a predetermined stipend, which is captured in monthly reports. Non-financial incentives are harder to measure, since they come in many forms, including education and promotion opportunities and social recognition by communities.³⁸

Measuring community awareness of the presence and availability of CHV services is critical to responding to community needs and priorities and requires population-based studies.³⁹ The quality of services should be measured both from the technical or clinical perspectives and the client perspective. When it comes to measuring timely and appropriate referral from the community to health care facilities, there is the challenge of identifying the number of people eligible for referral in line with protocols. This can be measured as a percentage or using the number of clients seen by the CHV, disaggregated by reason for referral. This data can be used for comparisons across settings or over time.⁴⁰

Measuring the economic impact

Economic evaluation involves comparing the costs and consequences of alternative courses of action to assist policy decisions. It can play a pivotal role in setting priorities and informing health care decision makers, providing evidence for resource allocation.⁴¹ The World Health Organization stresses the importance of cost-effective measures in achieving the SDGs.

Cost-effectiveness analysis considers the results of different courses of action based on a single outcome. The analysis is normally calculated in “natural” units (for example, life years gained, deaths avoided, heart attacks avoided or cases detected). It then compares the cost per unit and effectiveness for other interventions. Decision makers can use this tool to assess and potentially improve the performance of their health systems. The main drawback to this method is that data on indirect costs, such as some administrative costs and the cost of equipment, is usually not readily available. Moreover, the method does not facilitate comparisons across different diseases when different outcomes are used. However, it is easy to understand and more readily suited to decision-making as it provides empirical results that allow decision makers to compare the costs and consequences associated with alternative programmes.

In this paper we propose a mixed-design approach using both cost-effectiveness analysis and qualitative thematic analysis. We calculate the incremental cost-effectiveness ratio from the perspectives of the health care system and society while taking into account specific model inputs from CHV programmes in different countries (costs and outcomes).

The cost-effectiveness analysis takes into account both costs to the health care system and the cost to families of beneficiaries. We calculate costs using the standardized ingredient approach,⁴² which involves gathering sufficient information about the quantities and unit cost of physical inputs needed in the intervention and control groups.

- **Costs to the health care system** – The cost to the health system comprises the cost of the CHV interventions, including technology, infrastructure, equipment, community engagement sessions, training and the time of health care providers at the community and health facility levels. Additional costs include the cost of follow-up household visits for each of the selected sites, the cost of additional time for CHVs and their transport costs when accompanying any identified beneficiary to a referral health facility, and health system costs such as managing triage for obstetric emergencies, inpatient and outpatient services for obstetric emergencies and diagnostic tests and drugs.
- **Cost to families** – All relevant out-of-pocket expenses for ambulance transport, hospitalization (fees for doctors, beds and nursing services), drugs and diagnostic work related to care from the referral health facility. This may also include out-of-pocket expenses for informal care (care sought from traditional healers), as well as the cost of lost productivity resulting from the morbidity or mortality of patients with or without paid jobs and any lost wages of their caregivers.
- **Cost to society** – The total cost to society (combining the costs to the health care system and costs to the family) is calculated by adding together the costs for all categories.
- **Health resource and data-collection costs** – Information on resources used and unit costs is collected from primary and secondary data sources in the beneficiary and control groups. Both the beneficiary and control groups complete structured health resource use questionnaires.

To assess the cost-effectiveness of the CHV intervention, the costs and outcomes associated with each arm of the CHV intervention are compared to generate an incremental cost-effectiveness ratio. The ratio gives the difference in costs between the beneficiary and control groups, divided by the difference in the number of interventions completed by the two groups. It represents the additional cost per intervention for the beneficiary group compared to the control group. The costs

and intervention outcomes are then evaluated over two different time horizons (baseline and end-term) to present an incremental cost-effectiveness ratio that includes research and development costs and another separate ratio that does not include these costs, since including research and development costs can be useful to organizations that may seek to develop a similar programme but for a different population.

Measuring impact on health outcomes

The term “health” does not only refer to being free from disease: health can also be thought of as a resource that permits people to achieve their goals, meet their needs and live in their surroundings, ensuring they have a long, productive and fruitful life.⁴³ Health impact is the change in the state of illness, wellness and survival for both the individual and the community. The indicators used to measure the health impact in the areas covered by interventions by CHVs (for both beneficiary and control groups) include:

- percentage change in the rate of maternal mortality;
- percentage change in the rate of preventable deaths of newborn children and children under five years of age;
- percentage change in the prevalence of HIV, tuberculosis, malaria and neglected tropical diseases, hepatitis, water-borne and other communicable diseases;
- percentage change in the rate of premature mortality from non-communicable diseases;
- percentage change in rate of substance abuse (narcotics and alcohol abuse);
- percentage change in the number of deaths and injuries from road traffic accidents; and
- percentage change in universal access to sexual and reproductive health care services, including for family planning, information and education services.

Measuring impact on neonatal, infant, child and maternal mortality

CHVs undertake case management of childhood illnesses and are involved in preventive interventions, such as immunization, promotion of healthy behaviour, mobilization of communities and health education. They also identify pregnant women and screen for health conditions that may require a referral to health facilities. This means they affect indicators for neonatal, infant, under-five and maternal mortality.

As Mathers and Boerma note, “in the absence of complete and accurate prospective systems of data collection, the main methods of collection of child death information are based on questions in surveys and censuses about recent deaths in the household, or on complete and summary birth histories”.⁴⁴ This data is supplemented with the most recent data from demographic and health surveys.

There is no consensus on how to measure maternal mortality in the absence of the comprehensive registration of deaths and accurate records on causes. In line with the approach proposed by Hill and others, we propose comparing estimates of deaths related to pregnancy and maternal mortality from the approaches of three different household surveys: a module that gathers data on the deaths of respondents’ sisters; gathering data on information about recent household deaths with a time-of-death definition of maternal deaths; and a verbal autopsy to identify maternal deaths.⁴⁵

The change in mortality rates for both the beneficiary and control groups is then evaluated over two different time horizons (baseline and end-term). The difference between the mortality rates in the beneficiary group and the control group measures the impact of CHV interventions.

Measuring impact on individual behaviour change

CHVs provide advocacy, education and support to promote health by helping individuals and communities adopt healthy behaviours. Human behaviour is hard to predict and the only way to know if people are practising the new behaviours is to measure them. Measuring the impact of CHVs in behaviour change can be done using a mix of qualitative and quantitative methods. The focus should be on collecting data for the indicators included in the CHV programme logical framework.

The indicators to be considered include the quality of activity implementation (preferably by using observation-based checklists), the extent to which the beneficiary and control groups behave in the desired way and the most important preconditions for practising and sustaining the promoted behaviours.

Impact is measured by comparing the percentage of beneficiary group members and control group members who practice the promoted behaviours with baseline and end-term evaluations.

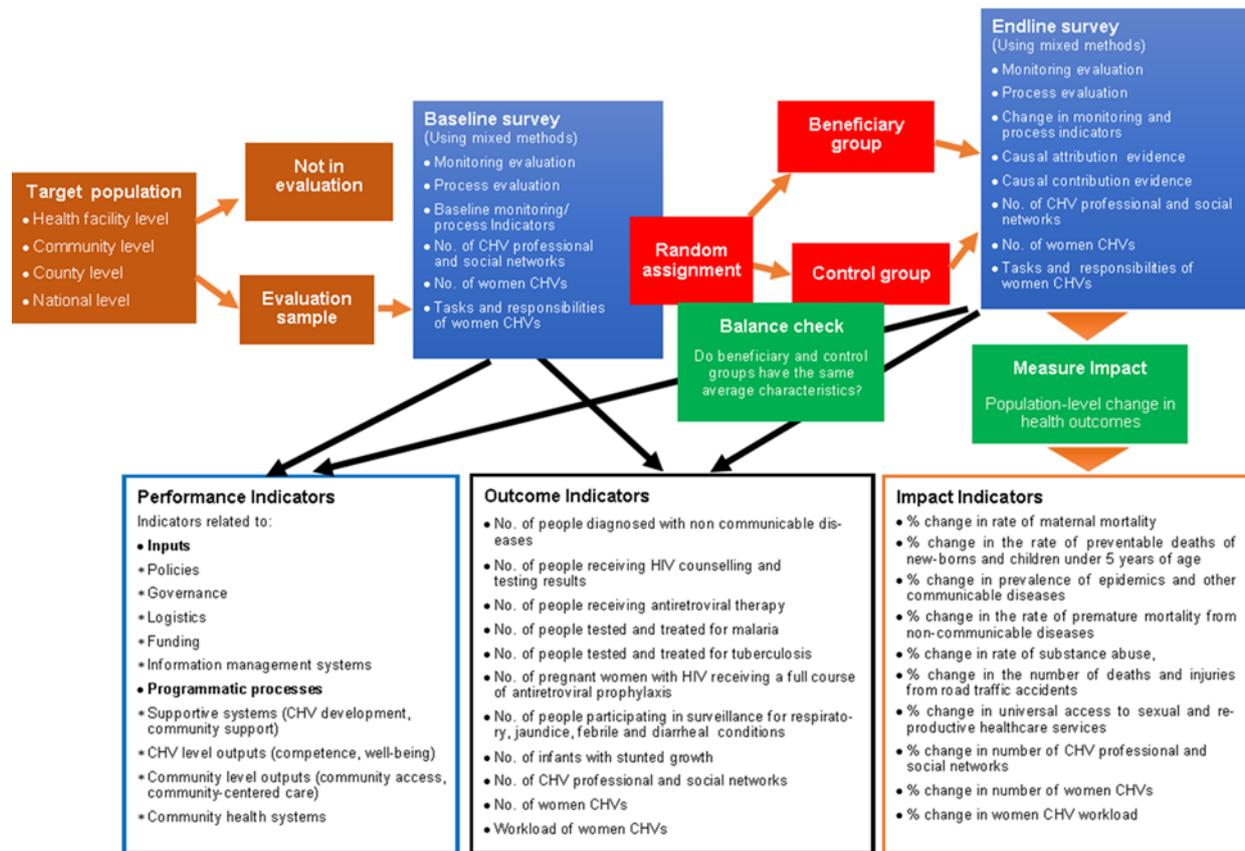
Measuring the impact of the volunteer experience on CHVs

Volunteering has a positive impact on both the beneficiaries and the volunteers themselves. Improved self-esteem, well-being and social engagement for both the recipient and volunteer are widely cited.⁴⁶ Volunteering provides roles and relationships that lead to improved social integration, life skills and social engagement, as well as helping people develop skills, connections and networks, avoid boredom, stay fit and healthy, make new friendships, and develop a more positive sense of self-worth, and an improved sense of community.⁴⁷ Other benefits include progression into paid roles or professional qualifications that stem from volunteering, particularly when training is offered as part of the volunteering package.⁴⁸

The following are indicative factors to be measured in both baseline and end-term surveys:

- percentage change in the professional and social networks of CHVs;
- percentage change in the number of CHVs who transition into paid employment;
- percentage change in the number of CHVs who have developed professional skills and are confident in their abilities to deliver basic health care services;
- percentage change in the number of CHVs who express satisfaction with the support and recognition they receive from the community;
- percentage change in the number of CHVs who express satisfaction with the support and recognition they receive from health facility staff;
- percentage change in the number of women who volunteer on CHV programmes; and
- percentage change in the workload of women CHVs.

The impact is the difference over the two different time horizons (baseline and end-term) for the above and other indicators.

Figure 3.7 Process for measuring the impact of CHVs

Source: Authors

CONCLUSION

There is currently no rigorous evidence base for developing a clear course of action and identifying resources needed to improve CHV performance and impact. The model suggests that a combination of functioning health systems and sustainable community support may greatly improve CHV performance and impact at scale. The model examines the challenges to enhancement of CHV performance and impact at various levels and proposes an integrated approach that takes into account both the formal health systems and sustainable community support to enhance impact. It highlights the strengths and limitations of the current targeted programming, based on the current state of knowledge of CHV performance and impact. It also offers a framework to stimulate learning on best practices in CHV impact. More attention should be paid to answering the question of how best to enhance CHV performance and impact at scale and to guide stakeholder investment decisions to support sustainable health service delivery systems at the community level.

CHALLENGES

A generic model like this one may not fully reflect all the complex factors that influence CHV performance and impact. This model reflects the reality at a single point in time, and may not provide accurate determination of how the performance of CHVs may differ from that of paid staff in the same sector or programme. The model may also need to be modified to adapt to the relevant local conditions where it is being applied. The resources and activities required to sustain a fully

functioning programme are not uniform in type, mix, intensity and sequence across geographical and geopolitical areas.

Furthermore, gender and cultural norms appear to play a significant role in the performance of CHVs and this factor could be better integrated into future iterations of this model. For example, male CHVs mentioned that pregnancy was an uncomfortable and culturally inappropriate topic for them to address directly, while female CHVs found it difficult to openly discuss sexual and reproductive health issues with men. It should also be noted that female CHVs still have to shoulder their responsibilities for family and community health care. It is therefore important to encourage both men and women to volunteer in sufficient numbers to overcome the identified gender-sensitive challenges. It is also important to take into consideration the overall workload of women when assigning duties and responsibilities.

LIMITATIONS

The model is not an adequate programme planning tool and needs to be supplemented by a logical framework which integrates indicators and targets and the means for measuring progress.⁴⁹ The logical framework is an indispensable complementary management tool for planning, monitoring and evaluation of CHV programmes. It is also worth noting that the logic model is primarily descriptive, not explanatory. It does not explain the underlying assumptions in the causal results chain. The “theory of change” approach may be better suited to providing a thorough analysis of “why” programme activities are expected to produce intended results and creates a more in-depth understanding of “how” change can occur.⁵⁰

Notes

- 1** Gichuki, Gachathi and Njiru 2017.
- 2** Patel and Wilson 2004.
- 3** ILO 2013.
- 4** Kenya, Government of 2015.
- 5** Kenya, Government of 2015.
- 6** Kenya, Government of 2015.
- 7** Plan of Action 2020.
- 8** Kenya, Government of 2015.
- 9** Gichuki, Gachathi and Njiru 2017.
- 10** World Health Organization 2018.
- 11** Kenya, Government of 2017.
- 12** Kenya, Ministry of Health 2014.
- 13** Kenya, Ministry of Health 2016.
- 14** Kenya, National Bureau of Statistics 2019a.
- 15** Kenya, National Bureau of Statistics 2019b.
- 16** Government of Kenya 2013.
- 17** Government of Kenya 2006, Kok and others 2015.
- 18** Perry, Zulliger and Rogers 2014.
- 19** Agarwal and others 2019.
- 20** USAID 2013.
- 21** Crigler and others 2011.
- 22** Naimoli and others 2014.
- 23** USAID and Dalberg Global Development Advisors 2015.
- 24** Veillard and others 2017.
- 25** Root R and van Wyngaard 2011.
- 26** Kim and others 2012.
- 27** Viswanathan and others 2012.
- 28** Hill and others 2008.
- 29** Diakite and Keita 2009.
- 30** Jenkins 2009.
- 31** Olang'o, Nyamongo and Aagaard-Hansen 2010.
- 32** Aseyo and others 2018.
- 33** Aseyo and others 2018.
- 34** Funnell and Rogers 2011.
- 35** Newcomer, Hatry and Wholey 2010.
- 36** Millar, Simeone and John 2001.
- 37** Davis and others 2019.
- 38** Scott and others 2018.
- 39** Schaaf and others 2018.
- 40** University of North Carolina 2013.
- 41** Mitton and Donaldson 2004.
- 42** Evans and others 2005.
- 43** Herrman, Saxena and Moodie 2005.

- 44** Mathers and Boerma 2010.
- 45** Hill and others 2006.
- 46** Mundle, Naylor and Buck 2012.
- 47** Cummings 1997, Mackinnon and Amott N. 2008.
- 48** James 2011.
- 49** Cummings 1997.
- 50** James 2011.

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PLAN OF ACTION TO INTEGRATE VOLUNTEERING INTO THE 2030 AGENDA

The Plan of Action to Integrate Volunteering into the 2030 Agenda is a framework under the auspices of the United Nations through which Governments, United Nations entities, volunteer-involving organizations, private sector, civil society including academia and other stakeholders come together to integrate volunteerism into the planning and implementation of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development and the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) by:

- a) strengthening people's ownership of the development agenda;
- b) integrating volunteerism into national and global implementation strategies; and
- c) measuring volunteerism.

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