VOSESA
VOLUNTEER AND SERVICE ENQUIRY
SOUTHERN AFRICA

FIVE-COUNTRY STUDY ON SERVICE AND VOLUNTEERING IN SOUTHERN AFRICA

SOUTH AFRICA COUNTRY REPORT

DECEMBER 2006

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Acknowledgements

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Acronyms

BBBSSA Big Brother Big Sister South Africa
CASE   Community Agency for Social Enquiry
CBO   Community-based Organisation
CHESP   Community-Higher Education Service Partnership
DoH   Department of Health
DoSD   Department of Social Development
GSI   Global Service Institute
HCBC   Home and Community-based Care
JET   Joint Education Trust
NBI   National Business Initiative
NGO   Non-governmental Organisation
NYSPF   National Youth Service Policy Framework
NYS   National Youth Service
NYSU   National Youth Service Unit
POWA   People Opposing Women Abuse
SASVO   Southern African Student Volunteers
SHBC   Soweto Home Based Care
VSO   Volunteer Service Overseas
UNV   United Nations Volunteers

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Executive Summary

The South African country study on service and volunteering in Southern Africa was part of a wider five-country cross national study into the prevalence and form of national, international and local community-based civic service programmes in Botswana, Malawi, South Africa, Zambia and Zimbabwe. The aim of the study was to document and analyse civic service and volunteering in South Africa.

The study followed a qualitative descriptive research design to gather in-depth, rich information on the nature and form of civic service and volunteerism in South Africa. Interviews with key informants and focus groups with service providers enabled the study to get a broad overview of the field of civic service and volunteering in South Africa. Additional secondary textual analysis was used to enrich the primary data gathered through the interviews. Research activities were framed by several research questions developed from those used in the GSI global assessment of civic service and volunteerism and adapted to fit the South African context.

Key informants, service providers and community organisations involved in service programmes were sampled using a purposive sampling method. Two focus group discussions were held and a total of six interviews were conducted. Data analysis was descriptive and interpretative. The analysis of emerging themes and issues was guided by the research questions. Information obtained from organisations' documentation and secondary data analsysis were used to triangulate issues and provide quantitative information on the nature and extent of civic service programmes' activities. In addition an on-going literature search was conducted, and it is included in this report and serves as a conceptual framework for the analysis that follows. These research activities took place between June 2005 and June 2006.

The main findings of the study indicate that the concept of civic service in South Afirca refers broadly to citizens' action to promote the public good, which extends beyond the family to benefit local communities and the country as a whole. There are variations in the nature of service, which can therefore be seen as part of . Service in South Africa has both formal and informal dimensions and it is facilitated by a continuum government in partnership with civil society and private sector organisations.

Political history and culture have significant influences on civic service and volunteering in South Africa. In particular, volunteering in South Afirca is based on the ideals of community solidarity and the philosophy of *ubuntu*. This facilitates social cohesion and participation which strengthens democracy in the country.

The study demonstrates that in contemporary South Africa, service programmes are growing in range and number, fostered by the policy framework that has been put in place in the new democracy since 1994. These service programmes respond to government's transformation agenda and are therefore relatively young. The programmes are operated by a wide variety of agencies: government departments, civil society organisations responding to unmet community needs, as well as private sector organisations. It is evident that the government is increasing its support for youth service programmes in particular. Policy frameworks and institutional arrangements for national youth service programmes, youth volunteering, community service for health professionals, and community service in higher education institutions and schools are in place. However, the implementation of these programmes varies considerably.

Service and volunteering programmes in South Africa are mostly found in the following sectors: health, social development, education, environment, construction and agriculture sectors. The goals of the service programmes are generally two-fold: rendering service to communities in need and at the same time developing the servers in respect of their understanding of the communities in which they work, their practical skills and their life skills. The involvement from volunteers varies in time but commitment is mostly voluntary and non-compulsory with the exception of community service for health professionals.

The motives for participation in these programmes are mainly altruistic although it is also motivated by self interest such as providing or caring for others in order to be assured of receiving similar care in the future when it might personally be needed. Self interest is particularly pertinent in the case of youth service and volunteering as they hope to inter alia enhance their skills, gain opportunities and get experience. The growth of the service sector is mainly driven by social need, unemployment (particularly among youth) and, government policies that focus on national development. Outside the large organisations (including voluntary organisations such as the Red Cross or Child Welfare), the growth of community-based voluntary service will be constrained by challenges such as the lack of opportunities to develop volunteer management capacity, the absence of a comprehensive volunteer policy, underdeveloped volunteer infrastructure and insufficient funding.

Introduction

The aim of this research is to document and analyse civic service and volunteering in South Africa. This is part of a wider five-country study into the prevalence and form of national, international and local community-based civic service programmes in the SADC region. The study focused on both governmental and non-governmental civic service programmes from a social development perspective.

The study followed a qualitative descriptive research design to gather in-depth, rich information on the nature and form of civic service and volunteerism in South Africa. Interviews with key informants and focus groups with service providers at the national, provincial and community level enabled the study to get a broad overview of the field of civic service and volunteering in South Africa. Additional secondary text analysis was used to enrich the primary data gathered through the interviews. Research activities were framed by several research questions developed from those used in the GSI global assessment of civic service and volunteerism and adapted to fit the South African context.

Key informants, service providers and community organisations involved in service programmes were sampled using a purposive sampling method. They included those who work in key sectors of health (especially HIV and AIDs), women, youth, social welfare, community work and education (including early childhood education and school-feeding) and the environment, amongst others. Two focus groups were held. Data analysis was descriptive and interpretative. The analysis of emerging themes and issues was guided by the research questions. Information obtained from organisations' documentation was used to triangulate issues and provide quantitative information on the nature and extent of civic service programmes' activities. In addition an on-going literature search was conducted. This literature review is included in this final in-country research report and serves as a conceptual framework for the analysis that follows. Research activities took place between June 2005 and June 2006.

Research Scope and Design

Aim of the Study

The aim of the in-country study is to document and analyse civic service and volunteering in South Africa as part of a wider study of five countries in the SADC region: Botswana, Malawi, South Africa, Zambia and Zimbabwe. The study will inform the examination of the implications for policy and practice in a regional context. The study focuses on both governmental and non-governmental civic service programmes from a social development perspective.

The overall aim of this study is to deepen the work started by the Global Service Institute through its assessment of the nature and form of civic service around the world Moore McBride, Sherraden, Benítez & Johnson (2004). Furthermore, it aims to document and analyse civic service and volunteering in five Southern African countries with a view to examining implications for social development policy and practice in a regional context.

Supporting this, the objectives of the five-country study are:
1. To identify formal and informal civic service programmes in five countries in the Southern African region (Botswana, Malawi, South Africa, Zambia and Zimbabwe);

2. To conduct country profile studies of civic service initiatives with reference to the nature and scope of civic service and the meaning of civic service for the servers and beneficiaries in the respective countries;
3. To determine what policies and incentives exist to promote civic service;
4. To examine the implications of civic service for social development policy and practice in the region.

By fulfilling these objectives, it is intended that this study will contribute to building civic service as a field of knowledge and practice at a regional level in the SADC countries and assist in building networks that could advance the service agenda in the region.

Selection of Service Programmes Studied

According to the generic research proposal for the five-country study, two main types of programmes have been identified:

• Structured civic service programmes which the Global Service Institute defines as "an organised period of substantial engagement and contribution to the local, national, or world community, recognised and valued by society, with minimal monetary compensation to the participant" (Sherraden 2001:2).

• Informal community-based service programmes which are organised by people at local level, and involve consistent volunteer activity over a period of six months or more.

South Africa has a wide range of volunteering and service programmes that were eligible for inclusion in the in-country research. They span different human development sectors, e.g. education, health and social welfare among others, and include: community service programmes, civic education, mutual aid support and self-help groups, faith-based and indigenous community support networks and structures, volunteering programmes and programmes targeted at women, children (especially orphans), youth, the elderly, people affected by HIV and AIDS and poverty.

Ultimately the study came to focus largely on civic service programmes, with voluntary programmes forming a much smaller component of the study. This is because civic service is a fast-growing area of activity in the South African context, and one which has received considerable attention from policy-makers since 1994 when South Africa held its first democratic elections.

Research Team

The principal country researcher for this study is Helene Perold, the Executive Director of VOSESA, who was involved in all stages of implementation of the in-country study and responsible for the timely production of deliverables. She was supported in the data collection by Thandile Ntshwanti, from Thandile Ntshwanti and Associates, in the data analysis and report writing by René Carapinha, from the Centre for Social Development in Africa, University of Johannesburg, and Salah Elzein Mohamed, from Volunteer and Service Enquiry Southern Africa (VOSESA).

Deliverables

According to the Terms of Reference provided, the in-country research team was expected to produce the following deliverables:

- A research plan
- Quarterly progress reports indicating progress at various stages of the study (data collection, data analysis, draft report, final report) as per the agreed time frame.
- A draft of initial findings.
- On completion of the study the researchers will deliver:
    1. A list of interviewees.
    2. A list of participants in the focus groups.
    3. Transcripts of interviews and focus group proceedings.
    4. A literature review and full bibliography of sources consulted during the literature search.
    5. An analysis of the nature and scope of service and volunteering programmes

Report Structure

The report is presented in four sections:

- **Section One** provides a brief overview of the South African context, describes the historic and current context of service and volunteering in South Africa, and outlines the policy framework within which civic service programmes are operating.
- **Section Two** presents the literature review conducted for this study. Local and International literature has been used in order to present a conceptual framework for civic service and volunteering in South Africa.
- **Section Three** describes the research methodology used. It situates the South African study within the design of the five-country study, identifies modifications that were made to fit the South African context and provides a rationale for these.
- **Section Four** presents, analyses and discusses the research findings in relation to the main research questions.
- **Section Five** presents the conclusions and recommendations emerging from the study. The conclusions are presented in relation to the aim of the study and are based on the findings.

Section One: The South African Context

1.1   Introduction

According to Patel (2003:89) civic service and volunteerism is "shaped by the history and service traditions of a society, its level of development, the way in which it governs itself, organises its economy and views the role of its citizens and its social institutions in meeting human needs and in promoting democracy". The nature of civic service is specifically determined by the level of economic and social development of a country and its relationship to the global economy (Patel, 2003). It is therefore necessary to take cognisance of these contextual variables if one wishes to generate knowledge about the nature, form and scope of civic service in a country.

1.2   South Africa: An Overview

South Africa is located at the southern most tip of Africa. It shares its borders with Namibia, Botswana, Zimbabwe, Mozambique, Swaziland and Lesotho. Most of the south-western border is the Atlantic Ocean and the south-eastern border is the Indian Ocean. South Africa spans across 1 219 090km^2 of land (Statistics South Africa, 2001).

South Africa has an estimated population of 47.4 million: 51% of the population is female, 32% are between the ages 0 - 14 and approximately 7.7% of the population is older than 60 years (Statistics South Africa, 2006). The implied rate of growth for the South African population has been declining steadily between 2001 and 2006. The overall growth rate for 2005-6 is estimated at 1.06% compared with 1.25% for 2001-2 (Statistics South Africa, 2006:6). Most South Africans (55.1%) reside in urban areas compared with 44.9% who reside in rural areas. In addition there has been an upward trend (2.4%) in urbanisation between 1996 and 2001 (Statistics South Africa, 2001). Just over 20% of the South African population lives in KwaZulu-Natal.

For 2006, life expectancy at birth is estimated at approximately 49 years for males and 53 years for females. The estimated overall HIV-prevalence rate is approximately 11%. The HIV positive population is estimated at approximately 5.2 million (Statistics South Africa, 2006).

1.3   Context of Service and Volunteering in South Africa

South Africa has a rich history of voluntary service that promotes the public good beyond the family to the local community. Typically of an informal nature, this type of voluntary action could be defined as mutual aid, kinship or social networks that promote a sense of mutual responsibility and reciprocity. This type of engagement is greatly determined by cultural and or religious values. The history of voluntary service aimed at promoting the social functioning of communities in South Africa is well documented, covering the beginning of the twentieth century, the pre-apartheid era, the apartheid era, and recent developments since the 1990s (McKendrick 1998; Potgieter 1998; Sewpual & Holschler 2004). These activities range from formal provision by government to informal localised responses from communities and both types of provision have always involved volunteers in one way or another.

Swilling and Russell (2002 cited in Perold, 2003:30) conducted a study in 1999 to estimate the size of the non-profit and voluntary sector. They found that over "1.5 million people actively contributed their time to non-profit organizations. Their contribution was equivalent to 316 991 full-time jobs with the value of the volunteer labor amounting to R5.1 billion. The volunteer labor accounted for 49% of the non-profit workforce."

The notion of mutual responsibility is promoted and captured in the use of concepts such as *letsema* and *vukuzenzele*. The notion of *letsema* in South Africa is situated in the ideal of community ownership and is fostered by the African philosophy of *ubuntu* – "the creation of a caring society, human agency, collaboration and partnerships and human diversity" (Patel, 2005: 204). The core message of *vukuzensele* is to lend a hand in building a better life for all. Today *vukuzenzele* finds expression in a social outreach programme launched by the Presidency of South Africa through all government departments, involving volunteers and supported by government funds. The *Vukuzensele* programme emphasises and promotes collaboration between government and society in all sectors and communities on the basis of active participation in the programme of action. It promotes the spirit of volunteerism and civic responsibility. It stresses the task of nation building in the context of joint action towards eradicating the imbalances of the past. *Vukuzensele* stresses the need for individuals to stand up and do it for themselves as it encourages initiative and responsibility for changing one's own circumstances. Gillwald (2002) refers to this programme as "a call to action and a reminder to society that government on its own cannot address the myriad of challenges that are facing the new and transforming society". The spirit of partnership between government and the public has the added advantage of giving citizens the sense that their contribution to the wellbeing of society as a whole is appreciated and valued by Government.

Mutual responsibility is also fostered by religion and related values in South Africa – such as those of Christianity, Hinduism, Islam and Judaism. Volunteering in South Africa therefore often takes on the meaning of selfless care of another without compensation or reward, observed often as "charity" from the more fortunate to the less fortunate (Eberly in Perold, 2003) and as informal support systems of care amongst those in need (Everatt & Solanki, 2005). As evidenced in the study by Everatt and Solanki (2005) volunteerism is part of the informal web of solidarity that binds societies together. At its best, volunteerism in and of itself can provide communities with the most basic support and therefore become crucial in providing a basic social safety net.

In general the goal of civic service is typically proactive, developmental and peaceful (McBride & Sherraden, 2004). The word 'civic' differentiates civic service from military service that is associated with defence, protection and force. This is an important differentiation, particularly from an historical perspective in the South Africa context. The notion of national service used to be associated with compulsory military service for young South African white males during the apartheid era when the army was involved in suppressing internal resistance as well as making incursions into neighbouring countries.

The anti-apartheid struggle also provided a context for citizen activism. The mass social movement played a leading role in facilitating social change in South Africa. This gave rise to various forms of service organisations that were focused on the goal of liberation, drawing on voluntary participation, mainly within and between African, coloured and Indian communities. These organisations aimed at mobilising civic participation to promote collective good (Patel, 2003).

This context of political and civic engagement provided the foundation for active citizenship in the new South Africa (Patel & Wilson, 2004). Today this energy is harnessed to promote the developmental objectives of democratic South Africa and in particular "the notion of rights and responsibilities of citizenship within democracy" (Perold, 2003: 5). More recently, factors such as globalisation and regionalisation have further promoted civic engagement through non-governmental organisations as well as community-based service and volunteering efforts, as organisations and individuals seek to combat poverty and the impact of HIV and AIDS. It has also observed that there is a decline in traditional forms of civic engagement viz. through unions and political parties and "civic service and volunteerism is becoming more prominent as people search for new forms of participation, representation, collective action and self-expression" (Patel, 2003: 90) in a democratic environment.

It is evident that civic service and volunteering are greatly determined by the national socio-economic context (Patel, 2005). South Africa as a developmental country, is faced with particular developmental challenges e.g. unemployment, HIV and AIDS. From a national perspective, the economic and social functioning of the South African population is greatly affected by the effects of HIV and AIDS (30.2 % prevalence amongst pregnant female antenatal clinic attendees (Department of Health, 2005)), unemployment (26.5% unemployment rate (Perkins, 2006)) and poverty (HPI-1[1] value of 30.9% (UNDP Human development Report, 2005)). The context is further characterised by high malnutrition and infant mortality rates (%IFR), lack of housing and public health, high levels of illiteracy and constrained access to education (78% - combined primary, secondary and tertiary gross enrolment ratio (UNDP Human development Report, 2005), and high levels of crime, violence, abuse and neglect. (Refer to Appendix A for a tabular presentation of human development indicators for South Africa).

Unemployment remains one of the key indicators of the performance of any economy. However, the unemployment rate is not only of economic significance, but of social significance as it is a key variable in alleviating poverty (Loots 1997). Although the South African economy is set for its fifth consecutive year of positive economic growth and the business cycle has moved into a renewed recovery phase since June 1993, unemployment is increasing (Loots, 1997). In 2005 the official[2] unemployment rate was at 26.5% (Perkins, 2006) while the unofficial unemployment rate was estimated at over 40%. The high unemployment rate makes it difficult to alleviate poverty and inequality in South Africa over the long term. Unemployment is particularly prevalent amongst women, the black community and the youth. The table below illustrates this in relation to geographic regions, gender, race and age.

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[1] HPI-1 Human Poverty index refers to the proportion of people below a threshold level in basic dimensions of human development.
[2] The official definition of unemployment excludes people who are discouraged and are no longer actively seeking work.

Table 1: Unemployment rates for March 2005
(Official definition, i.e. excluding discouraged workers)

Description	Unemployment rate (%)	Description	Unemployment rate (%)
By province		*By race*	
Western Cape	17.6	Black African	31.6
Gauteng	22.7	Coloured	19.8
Eastern Cape	27.1	Indian / Asian	18.0
Mpumalanga	27.4	White	5.1
North West	28.8	*By age (years)*	
Northern Cape	29.4	15–24	52.6
Free State	30.6	25–34	31.0
KwaZulu-Natal	31.7	35–44	17.1
Limpopo	32.4	45–54	11.9
By gender		55–65	8.1
Male	22.4		
Female	31.4	**Total**	**26.5**

Table adapted from Perkins (2006).

The above table illustrates the official unemployment rate for South African youth to be between the ages of 16 and 25 is 52.6%. This is an indication of the need for support to young people who have left school and have poor prospects for income generation, and provides the context for structured, youth-focused service programmes with the goals of rendering service whilst acquiring skills and increasing the options of young people for career choices.

The relationship between learning, service and employment emerges as an interesting aspect of the approach to civic service in South Africa. While South Africa's education system has successfully enrolled the majority of school-age children (the gross enrolment ratio for primary and senior phase in 2005 being 97% (Department of Education 2006)), the content and quality of education does not develop the skills required by the economy (Chisholm 2004; Budlender 2006). The Minister of Education told Parliament in May 2006 that "Many young children are not learning to read and write, university students obtain degrees that are a dead end, and our institutions are not delivering the skills the country needs" (Mail & Guardian 2006:11). The statistics also demonstrate a level of drop-out in senior school (overall gross enrolment ratio level reduces from 103%[3] to 89% (Department of Education 2006)). Despite faster economic growth, many school-leaving youth face limited opportunities for employment due to a poor match between their skills, formal qualifications and the demands of the economy. Combined with the high unemployment rate, this situation has led to estimates that approximately 30 per cent of young people leaving school with a matriculation certificate are unlikely ever to find employment (Weekend Argus 2006:3). Faced with limited opportunities for further education

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[3] Gross enrolment ratio (GER) is defined as the number of learners, regardless of age, enrolled in a specific school phase (e.g. GET band for Grades R to 9) as a percentage of the total appropriate school-age population (e.g. five to 14-year-olds for the GET band). GER is used to show the level of participation in education. For example, a GER of more than 100% indicates that there are more learners in the formal school system than in the appropriate school age population (total potential population), which indicates enrolment of under-aged and over-aged learners owing to early or late entry and grade repetition.

and very few other options, more and more young people are turning to voluntary service as a means of acquiring the experience and skill that could give them access to the labour market.

As indicated by the Minister of Education, there is a substantial pool of graduates who, due to a mismatch between their education and the skills required by the economy, are unable to secure job opportunities. It has become very important to provide students in universities with opportunities to learn more about the communities in which the institutions operate and in which they will be required to work as professionals. As early as 1997 the Department of Education recognised the need to transform the nature of professional training (in health as well as other sectors) so as to prepare graduates for the application of their skills in an environment challenged by poverty and made more complex by the need for professionals to work in a diversity of languages and cultures. Education White Paper 3 (Department of Education 1997) created the policy framework for universities to become more responsive to socio-economic needs and this provided the basis for the introduction of community service for professionals, as well as encouraging the integration of service learning in university curricula as an experiential learning methodology. Service learning provides young people with the opportunity to render service whilst infusing their academic learning with community-based experience.

A relationship thus emerges between education, civic service and employment in the South African context: for young school leavers, youth service provides an opportunity to acquire skills through service, skills that they have not received at school and that could enhance their employability; for higher education students, civic service provides an opportunity to deepen academic learning in contexts in which knowledge and professional skills need to be applied.

In addition to unemployment, HIV and AIDS is a major challenge for the reconstruction and development of the country. According to the HIV/AIDS/STD Strategic Plan for South Africa 2000-2005, estimates suggest that of all people living with HIV in the world, 6 out of every 10 men, 8 out of every 10 women, and 9 out of every 10 children are in Sub-Saharan Africa. South Africa has over 5 million people living with HIV and AIDS, a 10.8% prevalence rate according to the 2005 South African National HIV Survey (Avert.org 2006). South Africa is thus one of the countries hardest hit by the epidemic which has already had a profound impact on many aspects of South African society and is projected to affect the country's economic, education, and health sectors. Ultimately both unemployment and HIV and AIDS aggravate and reinforce the socio-economic poverty trap (Whiteside & Sunter, 2000) and human development (O'Grady, M 2004).

These challenges set the agenda for service and volunteering. The social and economic contexts are instrumental in two ways. They influence the need and extent for service whilst determining to some extent who can and who will provide service. The relation between volunteering and poverty is illustrated by the findings of a recent national survey into the state of giving in South Africa. The survey found that "poor respondents (23%) were more likely to volunteer than the non-poor (17%)" (Everatt and Solanki, 2005). This suggests that there is a high incidence of mutual responsibility and social giving in communities with a high prevalence of poverty. However, mutual responsibility or social giving is not only promoted by need (bottom-up response), but also increasingly through formal policy guidelines (top-down interventions). A good example would be home and community-based care (HCBC) programmes which involve community members responding to community needs, but which are also promoted and supported by government. The nature of service and volunteering is therefore typically informed by this two-way process.

In conclusion, social, political and economic improvement is evident in South Africa, owing to the persistent legacy of its inequitable history, and a great deal still needs to be achieved to ensure a better life for all the country's citizens. Service and volunteer programmes have a role to play in improving people's lives and these programmes tend to be shaped by community need and the South African government's transformation agenda.

1.4   Policy Framework

According to Daries and Mokganyetsi (2002 in Perold, 2003) the United Nations International Year of the Volunteer in 2001 sparked renewed interest in voluntary service in South Africa. It led to President Thabo Mbeki's declaration of 2002 as the National Year of Volunteering and the launch of the Vuku'zenzele or Letsema Campaign. This campaign highlighted the role of volunteers and has stimulated a revival of the culture of community care. The Department of Social Development indicated that a national policy for volunteering would be developed, but at the time of writing no such policy had been formulated. However, the declaration of 2002 as a National Year of Volunteering builds on a substantial policy framework for service in South Africa: national youth service, community service for higher education, community service for certain professions and home and community based care (HCBC). The policy framework relating to each of these areas is discussed below.

1.4.1 National Youth Service

The concept of 'national service' is a contested one in the South African context (Foley, 1999 and Perold, 2002 in Perold, 2003). Perold (2003) explains that this is substantially due to the fact that the apartheid government's use of the military to subjugate South Africans left a close association between the term 'national service' and apartheid's repressive actions and militaristic tendencies. As a result the experience discredited the idea of national conscription and left a legacy in which the concept of a centrally driven national service is viewed with suspicion by many South Africans (Perold, 2003:14).

Currently various policy documents endorse the notion of National Youth Service. The Reconstruction and Development Programme (1994) and the National Youth Policy 2000 (1997) both identified National Youth Service as a key initiative for human resources development and for promoting a culture of service towards communities and society. This was followed by the Green Paper on National Youth Service which was produced by the National Youth Commission in October 1998 and endorsed by a wide range of stakeholders early in 1999. The National Youth Commission also produced a number of drafts of a White Paper on National Youth Service. This White Paper has not yet been accepted although it has been considered by Cabinet since 2000. Instead in 2003 Cabinet approved the National Youth Service Implementation Plan that shapes the design, funding and implementation of youth service programmes and provides a broad ambit within which bottom-up initiatives are able to grow and operate, with or without state support.

In August 2004 the South African government launched the National Youth Service as an initiative "to engage young people in service activities that are aimed at nation building whilst providing opportunities for learning" (NYSU 2006)**.** The concept of national youth service is understood as the "involvement of young people in activities which provide benefits to the community whist developing the abilities of young people through service and learning" (NYSPF, 2003). Sectors targeted include those able to place an emphasis on labour intensive interventions: housing, infrastructure, water and sanitation, environment and tourism, and health

and social development. The goals, servers and objectives are further detailed in the literature review below.

1.4.2 Community Service in Higher Education

Community service is part of the process of transforming higher education in South Africa. The White Paper on Higher Education (Department of Education 1997) specifically refers to the role of community service within the overarching task of transforming higher education on a number of occasions. It calls on higher education institutions to:
- promote human resource development through programmes that are responsive to the social, political, economic and cultural needs of the country;
- promote and develop social responsibility and awareness amongst students of the role of higher education in social and economic development through community service programmes;
- conduct feasibility studies and develop pilot programmes that explore the potential of community service in higher education.

The Founding Document of the Higher Education Quality Committee (HEQC) of the Council on Higher Education (CHE) provides further impetus for community service in higher education by identifying knowledge based community service (service-learning) as one of the three areas for the accreditation and quality assurance of higher education. In March 2003 the HEQC released criteria for the first round of higher education audits. These include criteria for service-learning (CHESP 2003).

1.4.3 Community Service for Health Professionals

In 1998, the Department of Health (DoH) began the implementation of the Policy on Community Service for newly qualified health professionals. The one-year period of community service for health professionals has been implemented in South Africa since 1998. The first group to be deployed for a 12-month period of service in public health facilities comprised the young doctors in 1999, followed by the dentists in 2000 and the pharmacists in 2001. A further seven professional groups followed in 2003, including physiotherapists, occupational and speech therapists, clinical psychologists, dieticians, radiographers and environmental health officers. In 2004, the Health Minister announced that community service will be extended to include nurses once the Nursing Bill has been passed by Parliament (Mohamed 2006a). While there was some discussion about putting in place community service for newly-qualified lawyers and accountants, no finality has been reached on this matter Perold (2003).

1.4.4 Home and Community-Based Care (HCBC)

An evaluative review of the home and community based care undertaken by the Community Agency for Social Enquiry (CASE) (Mwite, Lopes & Dudeni, 2004) provides a comprehensive overview of HCBC in South Africa. In this report a summary is given of prominent policy and research that has both informed and reported on HCBC. It also provides a current overview of the extent and impact of HCBC. Mwite et al. (2004) report that the most influential policy documents on HCBC are:
1. *Integrated Home/Community Based Care Model Options* produced by the Department of Health (DoH) and Department of Social Development (DSD) in 2002 after Cabinet identified HCBC as a priority and mandated both departments to ensure that 600 HCBC programmes were established by March 2005.

2. *National Guideline on Home-based Care & Community Based Care* produced by the Department of Health (December 2001).
3. *National Guidelines for Social Services to Children Infected and Affected by HIV/AIDS* produced by the Department of Social Development in 2002. This does not focus specifically on HCBC, but chapter two deals with community-based care and support models while chapter three discusses how to establish a home/community-based care and support service.

1.4.5 Community Service in Schools

In 2006, the Department of Education introduced community service in senior secondary schools as part of the Life Skills Orientation curriculum for the Further Education and Training band. This initiative marks a major systemic effort to widen the range of opportunities available to young people to participate in local community development, and to develop their understanding of active citizenship through practical engagement. The purpose of this component of the curriculum is to enable learners in grades 10 – 12 to: "… demonstrate an understanding and appreciation of the values and rights that underpin the Constitution in order to practise responsible citizenship, and to enhance social justice and sustainable living." (Department of Education 2003:16)

The National Curriculum Statement (Department of Education 2003:16-17) outlines assessment standards for learners in Grades 10, 11 and 12 and they include participating in a community service that addresses a contemporary social or environmental issue, gaining an understanding of the value of diversity, identifying and intervening in discrimination and violations of human rights, gaining first-hand experience of democratic structures at school or community level and reflecting on core aspects of personal philosophies, values, beliefs, religions and ideologies, which will inform and direct actions in life and contribute meaningfully to society.

The goals of this component of the curriculum and the associated assessment statements indicate clearly that the introduction of community service in schools is related to the larger task of stimulating civic engagement among young people in school. This creates the opportunity to address important community needs whilst fostering participation by young people and in the process supporting their social development e.g. increased employability, social capital, and social and civic skills.

1.4.6 Further Education and Training Certificate: Youth Development

In July 2006, the South African Qualifications Authority published for comment (SAQA 2006) a proposed unit standard for a qualification entitled Further Education and Training Certificate: Youth Development. The purpose of the qualification is "to prepare practitioners who are responsible for the development of young adults in initiatives designed to develop the youth and to integrate them into the working economy and society". It is envisaged that the qualification will produce qualified people who can serve *inter alia* on youth desks in government departments, or as team leaders for national youth service programmes (SAQA 2006: 4-5). This development indicates that the South African government is intent on putting in place the skills that will strengthen the human resources component of national youth service programmes. Once finalised, the qualification will be accessible through Further Education and Training Colleges.

Section Two: Literature Review

2.1   Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to present an overview of the meaning, nature and extent of volunteering and civic service in South Africa. Some specific references are made to various programmes in order illustrate the form, scope and age of programmes; who volunteer and serve, the goals and areas of serving and volunteering; what hinders and promotes service and volunteering and which policy frameworks and legislation inform volunteering and civic service.

2.2   Meaning of Civic Service and Volunteering

In relation to the contextual factors discussed in sections 1.3 and 1.4 above, it is postulated that civic service and volunteering in South Africa take many forms and embody diverse meanings because of the country's history and the "diversified and bottom-up South African approach" that characterised policy-making following the establishment of the new democratic order in 1994. This was demonstrated in specific through the processes leading up to the formulation of the National Youth Service Implementation Plan (Perold, 2003:30).

In attempting to define civic service and volunteering, however, the definition of Sherraden (2001 in McBride and Sherraden, 2004:3s) is useful as it describes civic service as "an organized period of substantial engagement and contribution to the local, national, or world community, recognized and valued by society, with minimal monetary compensation to the participant". In this definition civic service is presented as an organised, formal and goal-directed intervention that involves individuals in programmes that seek to enhance their own development whilst contributing to community or national development goals. This definition is useful because it differentiates service from volunteerism that is less formal, less well-defined and less intensive. But, according to Perold (2003) portraying service only as formal and programmatic might be limiting its manifestation in the South African context. A rich hybrid of informal care systems and volunteer initiatives exist in communities throughout the country – particularly in the context of HIV and AIDS. The definition presented by Moore et al (2002 cited in Patel, 2005:14) is perhaps more pertinent to the South African context: it describes civic service as broadly referring to "voluntary service and citizen action to promote the public good and extends beyond the family to local communities, national and cross-national areas". The variations in the nature of service can therefore be seen as part of a continuum – "those providing service can be totally voluntary with no compensation at all, or they can be compelled to perform the service in question with appropriate compensation being received" (Moore et al. 2003 cited in Perold 2003: 5).

A continuum of service is also observed on other levels in South Africa. Clotfelter (1999 in Perold, 2003) identifies different types of service in South Africa by arguing that, if service is sponsored by government then it is called public or national service; if service is compensated then it is called stipend service; and when service occurs through an educational institution then it is called service-learning.

Further differentiation is presented by Perold (2003) who identifies at least three types of service activities in the South African landscape: firstly, the mainly free and voluntary activity through which humanitarian assistance or relief is provided to the needy (volunteerism); secondly,

activities undertaken in the service of a greater cause, or ideal – in this instance the service activities are carried out within a strict moral or legal code of conduct; and thirdly, professional activities in a structured relationship where expert service is provided for a fee.

The existence of various forms of civic service and volunteerism in South Africa is further demonstrated by a diversity of context, purpose and form. Firstly, service is rendered in a variety of sectors – human and social services, education, health, community development, employment/economic development, cultural integration, environmental protection, peace and human rights. Secondly, service initiatives make different types of contribution – from meeting basic needs, to the personal growth of the servers, to human and social capital development, citizenship, participation and in the building of democracy. And, finally, service takes different forms – volunteerism, national youth service, social and disaster relief, emergency services, advocacy, localised community service provided by community-based organisations and community service as a requirements for professional registration (Patel, 2003 in Perold 2003: 7).

In addition it is more than likely that there are different and competing visions of civic service. Various permutations of civic service types are possible in that they are determined by different rationales, purposes, institutional arrangements, resources and impacts. The different beliefs, assumptions and interests of those who promote service also influence the kind of service that is pursued. This view, argues Patel, is in agreement with Westheimer and Kahne (2002 cited in Patel, 2005) who state that the choice about what kind of service is carried out is essentially a political one.

2.3   Form, Scope and Age of Programmes

The form and scope of volunteer and service programmes in the country varies from informal programmes that focus on local community needs to broad national formal programmes. According to the literature a range of service and volunteering programmes are present in South Africa. While volunteering is the oldest and most established form of informal giving, the development of structured civic service programmes is a feature of South Africa's democracy post-1994 where community and youth service, in particular, have taken root as a means of involving young people and young professionals in realising national development goals.

The community service programme for health professionals is an example of a formal structured programme. This programme was formalised in 1998 through legislation that governs the conditions for the registration of health professionals. At that stage the programme involved only young doctors. This was extended to included dentistry graduates in 2000, pharmacy graduates in 2001, and physiotherapists, occupational and speech therapist, clinical psychologists, dieticians, radiographers and environmental health officers in 2003. Over time it is expected that this programme will also be extended to include nursing and possibly law and accounting graduates.

The scope of this programme is national as it covers all provinces in South Africa. The distribution of services is illustrated by the graph bellow (Mohamed 2006a)

Figure 1: Number of Community Service Health Professionals by Province (1999 - 2005)

Number of Community Service Health Professionals by Province (1999 - 2005)

Number of communityservice health professionals

Province	Value
Eastern Cape	1200
Free State	1026
Gauteng	1876
KwaZulu Natal	2813
Limpopo	1298
Mpumalanga	1416
Northern Cape	451
North West	973
Western Cape	1281
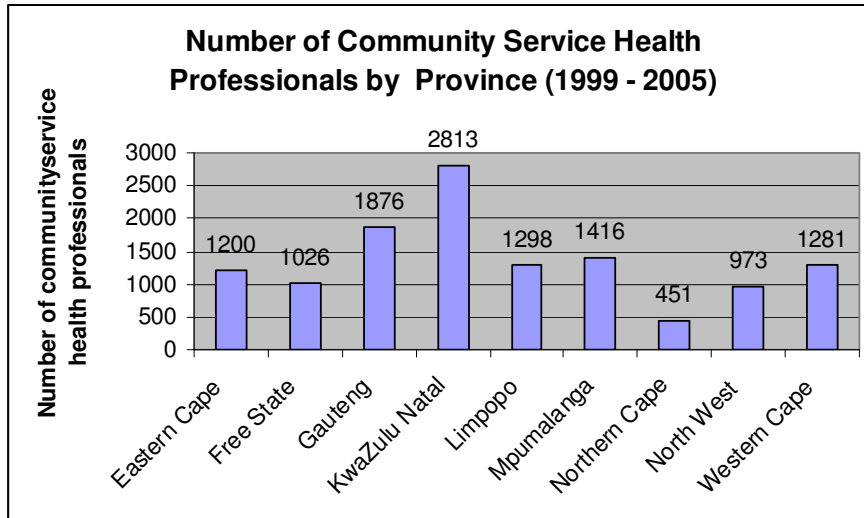
Source: The Health Systems Trust (www.hst.org.za/healthstats) (cited in Mohamed 2006).

This graph illustrates that KwaZulu-Natal receives the highest number of community service health professionals, while the Northern Cape received the least. KwaZulu-Natal is the most populous province in the country (20.6% of the total population) while the Northern Cape is home to the smallest number of people (1.9% of the total population). It therefore seems that there is a direct correlation between the size of the population of the province and the number of health professionals serving in that region.

The National Youth Service is also a formal structured initiative that operates across the country. Launched in 2004, the NYS had registered 30 programmes by 2006 involving 13 087 participants.

The national youth service model is an "integrated model that harnesses the potential of youth to become active citizens that contribute to social development as they gain skills" (NYSU 2006). It comprises three components:

Community Service	+	Structured Learning & Individual Development	+	Exit Opportunities: Self or formal employment Further learning

The National Youth Service uses a youth development methodology that focuses on service by unemployed young people to South Africans in general. Structured learning is accredited and comprises life skills, technical skills and entrepreneurship education which are integrated throughout the period of service. National youth service programmes typically run for 12 months

or more in order to give young people sufficient time and scope to acquire skills and experiential learning (NYSU 2006).

The National Youth Service Unit works with government departments and civil society organisations to explore and operationalise opportunities for service. The NYS is implemented through a range of agencies: government departments, municipalities, community-based organisations and non-governmental organisations. The government departments deliver certain services through programmes involving unemployed youth (the departments involved by 2006 are Housing, Public Works, Health, Social Development, Water Affairs and Forestry and Correctional Services) (NYSU 2006). NYS projects thus operate at both national and provincial levels and are spread across the health, construction, conservation, social and community development (including education) sectors.

The following table presents the range of NYS programmes for 2006:

Project	Province	Nos.	Service Sector	Budget
Educo Africa	Western Cape	72	Conservation & Youth Development	R5 639 982
Labour Intensive Training & Engineering	Limpopo	129	Rural road rehabilitation	R10 880 827
Labour Intensive Training & Engineering	Northern Cape	180	Construction	R1 924 636
Western Cape Nature Conservation Board	Western Cape	84	Environment	R5 528 149
Joint Enrichment Project	North West Province	180	Primary Health Care, Backyard Gardening, MPCC Construction.	R7 559 890
Reach for Life	Mpumalanga	20	HIV AIDS Care & Counselling	R1 490 960
Conquest for Life	Gauteng	30	Social development	R 455 383
Siyanceda Programme for Mentally Disabled Youth	Western Cape	80	Care for the elderly Care for children Garden cleaning & Landscaping	R2 870 123
17 Shaft	Gauteng	184	Construction Horticulture	R11 725 982
Community Aids Response	Gauteng	80	HIV AIDS Care & Counselling	R3 217 397

Project	Province	Nos.	Service Sector	Budget
ETDP Youth Community Research	National	100	Social development	R2 518 319
National Peace Accord	National	31	Social development	R243 883
Faith Based Youth Dev. Project	National	270	Construction	R2 587 050
Mogale City EcoCity	Gauteng	200	Construction	R2 877 588
Wilderrock Farm EcoCity	Gauteng	100	Construction	R1 917 855
Midrand EcoCity	Gauteng	100	Construction	R4 530 328
Assistant Probation Officers	National	470	Social development	R4 294 720
Drakenstein Municipality People's Housing	Western Cape	150	Construction	R1 012 429
Moses Kotane	Limpopo	522	Construction	R870 159

Source: NYSU, 2006

Service learning programmes in higher education institutions in South Africa range from formal and structured service-learning academic programmes to informal and relatively unstructured volunteer activities. Prior to 1994, community outreach and extension service programmes were the major categories of community engagement in the South African higher education institutions. These programmes were mainly initiated by concerned academic staff in response to the social, economic and political needs of communities at the time. According to Perold (2003:24) the largest and most structured community service initiative in higher education in South Africa was launched in 1999 following the publication of the Joint Education Trust research study into community service in higher education. This is known as Community Higher Education Service partnerships (CHESP). Today this programme operates in eight South African universities in which staff have been trained to implement such partnership programmes, and the universities have been assisted through CHESP to develop institution-wide service-learning policies and programmes (Perold, 2003:24). By 2006 close to 200 credit-bearing modules (courses) incorporated the principles and practice of service-learning.

Collectively, these modules included 39 different academic disciplines and involved almost 7 000 students ranging from first year to master's level (CHE 2006).

Today these programmes are becoming more formalised. In recent years, several higher education institutions have developed institutional policies, guidelines and strategies for community engagement and service learning. Generally, these policies address diverse issues such as the institution's interpretation of community engagement and service learning; objectives to be achieved through the policy; mechanisms for implementing the policy; staff promotions and rewards pertaining to community engagement; organisational structures and staffing required for implementation; risk management in terms of student placements and the allocation of resources towards implementation.

The scope of service learning programmes is largely dependent on the geographic location of a tertiary education facility and the extent of a university's "reach".

Home and Community Based Care programmes (HCBC) are also increasingly becoming formal as National Guidelines (2001, 2003) and Care Models (2002) are promoting more formal structures and processes and support from government departments. Two formal appraisals of HCBC projects were conducted by the DoH and DSD. The first appraisal covered the period 1 March 2000 – 31 July 2001. The second covered the period 1 April 2001 to 30 September 2002. According to Mwite et al. (2004: 22) the 2001 appraisal found 466 HCBC-related projects, while the 2002 appraisal found 892. The 2001 report noted that the projects were concentrated in urban communities. However, it noted that not all existing projects had been covered, especially in KwaZulu-Natal. In 2003 about 50% of the projects were run by non-governmental organisations and just over a third (36%) were initiated and managed by community-based organisations (CBOs) (Mwite et al., 2004:22).

According to the UNDP Annual Report of 2004 (UNDP, 2004) more than 100 **national and international UN Volunteers** have served in South Africa since 1994. The UNV established itself in South Africa in 1994 just as the apartheid regime came to an end. The UN Volunteers at that time responded by addressing the objectives set forth by the post-apartheid government. The UNV implemented various initiatives to assist the government in its mandate to improve the social and economic conditions of the poor and traditionally excluded members of society (UNV News release, 2003). In 2002 for a three-month period the UNV, together with the UNDP country office, provided a fully-funded logistics and events officer to assist with the preparation of the World Summit on Sustainable Development in Johannesburg. Three additional UN Volunteers were recruited and rallied nearly "3, 000 local volunteers to support the Summit as greeters, ushers, tour guides, assistants at information kiosks, information technology specialists, general practitioners and assistants in various fields" (UNV News Release, 2003:1).

In 2003 there were eight UN volunteers serving in South Africa. "Two anaesthesiologists and a general practitioner are supporting the health care sector in rural areas by building local capacity to respond to regional health care needs; two statisticians are working with the United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) processing and analysing 2001 census data; one international UN Volunteer is enhancing business and community relations in a joint project by UNV and the New Academy of Business. The UN Volunteer is based at the African Institute for Corporate Citizenship and investigates the process of involving multinational corporations and national companies in local development initiatives and the possible role for volunteers in this process; one national UN Volunteer supports the Cisco Networking Academy Programme in South Africa as an IT specialist managing a 280-hour, web-based curriculum programme that teaches students to design, build and maintain computer networks; and a Japanese

international UN Volunteer works as a business and human rights specialist in a project to support sustainable development and humanitarian relief works" (UNV News release, 2003: 1)

The non-profit survey conducted by Swilling and Russell in 1999 provides an indication of the **extent of service and volunteer activities** nationally across South Africa. Swilling and Russell found that in 1999, "1.5 million volunteers actively contributed their time to non-profit organisations. Their contribution was equivalent to 316 991 full-time jobs with the value of the volunteer labor amounting to R5.1 billion. The volunteer labor accounted for 49% of the non-profit workforce" (Swilling and Russell 2002 cited in Perold, 2003:30).

More recently, a national study on social giving found that just less than a fifth (17%) of the respondents that participate in the survey volunteered their time to a specific cause or charity in the month before the interview (Everatt & Solanki, 2005). On average 11 hours were volunteered, totaling nearly 6 000 hours. Ultimately this extrapolates to 4.6 million people which is a considerably higher figure than the scope of volunteering identified by the Swilling and Russell non-profit survey. This is thus an indication that the scope of service and volunteering is extensive and appears to be increasing.

2.4 Service Role: Time Commitment and Compulsory Nature of Service

National Youth Service programmes are generally 12-18 months of duration. The draft White Paper on Youth Service states that "the issue of whether participation is voluntary or compulsory will be determined by the criteria developed for participation in the service programmes, and on the need and condition of the target groups in question" (Perold, 2003:18). Most service programmes in South Africa entail voluntary participation with the exception of community service for health professionals. The **community service programme for health professionals** is a one-year mandatory period of community service that is required of graduates in most health professions following the completion of their formal training. Community service is a prerequisite for registration as a health practitioner. Graduates are deployed in public health institutions as a strategy to (*inter alia*) address the need of scarce human resources in the health sector.

Participation in National Youth Service programmes is voluntary, but requires a formal commitment of the young participants of one year. The NYSPF contains no discussion about whether the National Youth Service will be compulsory or voluntary though it appears that compulsory service is not being contemplated (Perold, 2003). According to Perold (2003) the draft White Paper, however, provides some guidance as to the views of the National Youth Commission on this issue. It views NYSP as comprising "a mix of voluntary and compulsory characteristics. Compulsory NYS programmes are those that are integrated into the curriculum of a further or higher education programme or those that are related to requirements of our judicial system in cases of alternative sentencing" (Perold, 2003: 18). More recent developments demonstrate that the voluntary participation in national youth service continues to be the dominant paradigm, with participants being required, however, to make a commitment to participating for the full period of 12 months (or as stipulated by the programme duration). Further evidence of the thrust to encourage voluntary participation is the intention of the National Youth Service Unit to mobilise a much larger number of volunteers (of all ages) in 2007 (NYSU 2006).

Among **service learning programmes**, the choice to undertake the programme is voluntary. Once enrolled, however, students will be required to undertake the service component in order to fulfil the requirements of the course. It is important to note that many university-based volunteer programmes are extra-curricular and non-credit bearing; however, outreach initiated from within the institution by a faculty or a department may give recognition in the form of academic credit or research publications.

The service role in **HCBC programmes** are also of a voluntary nature. Participation in service and volunteer programmes such as the loveLife groundbreakers, City Year, employee volunteers, Big Brothers and Big Sisters South Africa, and international volunteer programmes operating in South Africa all entail non-compulsory service roles. However, in all of the above programmes volunteer roles and service roles are generally formalised and there are expectations for specific outcomes.

2.5 Servers, Service Areas and Goals

The literature review shows that the highest incidence of volunteering in South Africa occurs among women, poor communities and Indian and African people. As is shown below, almost two-thirds of respondents are volunteering for religious reasons, while the next most frequent sites of engagement for volunteers are among the poor and in support of people affected and infected by HIV and AIDS.

Service programmes have explicit goals and areas of service, and servers are recruited according to the programme design. Servers range from 40 down to 18 years old, depending on whether they are health professionals, women working in the field of home and community-based care or young people in youth service programmes. Service goals range from extending health care to underserved communities, giving communities affected by HIV and AIDS access to care, developing and mainstreaming youth whilst inculcating a culture of service among youth, developing appropriate skills so as to improve employability, and higher education institutions developing community partnerships with a view to increasing their social responsiveness.

The **recent study into the state of giving** (Everatt & Solanki, 2005) provides an overview of national trends in relation to who is volunteering and serving, and in which fields or sectors they are volunteering. This study identified some gender and race discrepancies in relation to the profile of the volunteer, with 19% of female and 17% of male respondents having volunteered, although woman on average gave slightly more time than men (12 hours for women and 10 hours in the case of men). Indian respondents were the most likely to volunteer (23%) followed by Africans (19%), whites (12%) and coloureds (11%) (Everatt & Solanki, 2005). However, "African volunteers gave the most time, averaging 11 hours each in the month before being interviewed; they were followed by coloured respondents (10 hours), Indians (9 hours) and lastly whites (5 hours)" (Everatt and Solanki, 2005: 21, 31).

Furthermore, the study found that poor respondents were likely to volunteer more time (23%), averaging 13 hours compared with an average of 11 hours volunteered by non-poor respondents (17%). This suggests that where people lack money, they give more time. The authors thus argue that "volunteering is not the preserve of the middle class with time and resources at their disposal" (Everatt & Solanki 2005:32). They came to the same conclusion for giving money, clothes and food directly to the poor or to charities, organisations and various causes.

The incidence of volunteering seems to be largely constant across education categories: those with formal tertiary education volunteered 13 hours while respondents with no formal education averaged around 12 hours (Everatt and Solanki, 2005:20). Volunteering amongst youth and adults is also fairly constant (between 10 and 11 hours); rising slightly among those aged over 60 years of age (average 12 hours).

Geographical discrepancies were also observed as "rural dwellers were most likely to volunteer (23%); followed by people living in formal dwelling is small towns (16%). In metropolitan areas formal and in-formal dwellers were equally likely to have volunteered (15% respectively). These findings are reflected in the analysis of volunteering across the provinces.

Table 2: Volunteering in South Africa by Provinces

	W-Cape	E-Cape	Mpuma-langa	KZN	N-Cape	Lim-popo	Free State	N-West	Gau-teng
% volunteered	15	33	5	17	27	26	14	8	13

Source: Everatt and Solanki (2005:32).

Everatt and Solanki observed that two predominantly rural provinces – Mpumulanga and Limpopo – had the largest proportions volunteers. In the Eastern Cape a third of the respondents volunteered (it is noted that consistent high levels of giving in various forms are attributed to this province) in relation to only one in twenty in Mpumulanga.

In relation to areas in which volunteering takes place, Everatt and Solanki (2005) found that volunteers give their time often to more than one cause. However, it was found that volunteering time to religious bodies and their various activities were most prevalent (60%). This was followed by giving to the poor (31%) and HIV/AIDS (23%). Significant proportions volunteered in support of the aged (19%), children (18%) and the homeless (15%). These findings are captured and illustrated in the table below.

Table 3: Areas of Volunteering

Cause / organization supported	% respondents
The church/mosque/synagogue/temple	60
The disabled (e.g. dogs for the blind)	13
HIV/AIDS	23
The poor	31
The environment	4
Children	18
The aged	19
The homeless	15
Animals	4
Victims of violence	5
Victims of emergencies (e.g. floods)	7
The unemployed	10
International issue (e.g. Iraq war)	1
Sport	6
Counselling	7

| Political party | 4 |
| Other | 9 |

Source: Adapted from Everatt and Solanki (2005:34).

More specific server and volunteer trends are associated with programmes that target specific beneficiaries, and have focused programme goals in clearly identified service areas. For example, **community service for health professionals** involves health care professionals at a specific point in their training. Seeing that this programme is compulsory for graduates prior to their registration as health professionals, the number of servers depends on the graduation output of the universities that train these professionals. By the end of 2003, 7166 health professionals (5 518 doctors, 1 231 pharmacists, and 417 dentists) had completed their community service of one year (Health Systems Trust 2005). The inclusion of the seven other professional groups as from January 2003 (physiotherapists, occupational and speech therapists, clinical psychologists, dieticians, radiographers and environmental health officers) meant that an additional total of 3 025 health professionals (across the disciplines) were deployed in community service in 2004 and 2 776 in 2005. The service area of this programme is limited to public health care in the country. Perold (2003:20) summarises the goal of this community service as being to improve access to quality health care to all South Africans, particularly in rural areas and in under-served communities. The initiative helps address the challenge South Africa faces of scarce human resources in the health sector. In addition, newly qualified health care professionals are provided with an opportunity to be further professionally socialised by developing skills, and acquiring the knowledge and critical insight that aligns their professional development more closely with the context in which they will be practising.

The **National Youth Service programme** seeks to contribute to the enhancement of youth as present and future social capital in South Africa. It engages young people in a formalised process of providing a valued and necessary service to the communities in which they live, while increasing their education and skills training, and providing them with opportunities to generate income. The focus of the National Youth Service programme is on four target groups among young people between the ages of 18 and 35: unemployed young people, youth in conflict with the law, further education and training students, and higher education students.

The vision of the National Youth Service Policy Framework is the "development of youth through providing long-term and effective means of reconstructing South African society through physical rehabilitation, asset building and renewal of community resources and rebuilding the fabric of communities. The NYS will foster a spirit of nation building by inculcating a culture of service, a common sense of nationhood, engendering a new form of patriotism as well as promoting intergenerational understanding" (Perold, 2003:16). The National Youth Service has the following objectives (NYSU 2006):

- To promote social cohesion;
- inculcate a culture of service to communities in young people;
- inculcate the spirit of patriotism in young people and an understanding of their role in the promotion of civic awareness and national reconstruction;
- develop the skills, knowledge and abilities of young people to enable them to make a meaningful transition to adulthood; and
- to improve youth employability through opportunities for skills development, work experience and access to economic & further learning opportunities.

Sectors targeted include those able to place an emphasis on labour intensive interventions: housing, infrastructure, water and sanitation, environment and tourism, and health and social development. The chart below indicates the areas in which youth servers are serving. These areas are health (58%); the environment (19%); construction (13%); social development (5%); and education (5%).

Figure 2: Participants in National Youth Service Projects by Sector
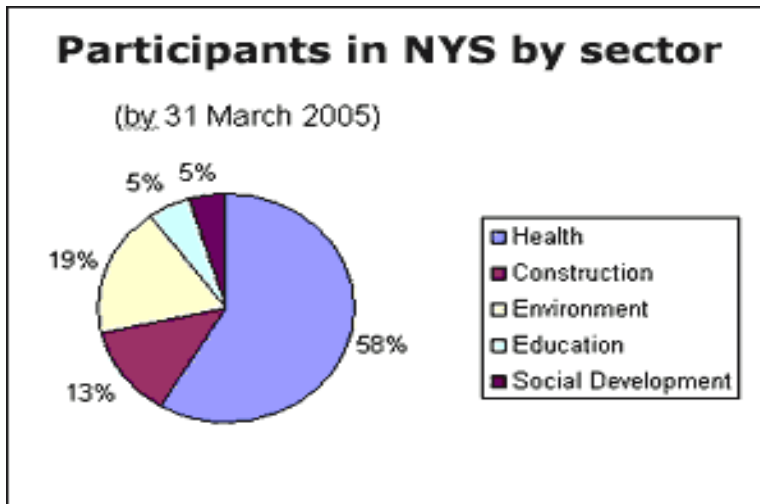
Source: Mohamed (2006b)

Service learning programmes operate within universities and technikons. The servers are the students of the various universities and the academic personnel also usually participate in various ways in these programmes. The service areas usually depend on the field of academic expertise. The goals of these service programmes determine the area of service. In 1999, the Joint Education Trust launched its Community-Higher Education-Service Partnership (CHESP) project. The ultimate goal of CHESP is to contribute to the reconstruction of the South African society through the development of a socially accountable model for higher education. Central to this model is the development of partnerships between communities, higher education institutions and the service sectors to address the development priorities.

Service learning engages students in activities where both community and student are primary beneficiaries and where the goal is to provide a service to the community and, equally, to enhance student learning through the provision of this service. Characteristics central to service learning are reciprocity, mutual enrichment and integration with scholarly activities. In general, through community engagement, the expertise of the higher education institutions in the areas of teaching and research are applied to address challenges that face society.

Home and community-based care (HCBC) is described as follows:
> "the care/services that the consumer can access nearest to home, which encourages participation by people, responds to the needs of people, encourages traditional community life and creates responsibilities" (DoH & DSD, 2002: 2 in Mwite et al, 2004: 11).

The overall objectives of HCBC include:
- To shift the emphasis of care to the beneficiaries – the community;
- To ensure access to care and follow-up through a functional referral system;

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- To integrate a comprehensive care plan into the informal, non-formal and formal health system;
- To empower the family/community to take care of their own health;
- To reduce unnecessary visits and admissions to health facilities;
- To ensure that children and families who are affected by HIV/AIDS access social welfare services within their communities. (DoH & DSD, 2002: 2-3 in Mwite et al, 2004: 12)

Two appraisals of HCBC projects were conducted by the Department of Health and the Department of Social Development. The first appraisal covered the period 1 March 2000 – 31 July 2001. The second covered the period 1 April 2001 to 30 September 2002. According to Mwite et al. (2004: 22) the 2001 appraisal found 466 HCBC-related projects, while the 2002 appraisal found 892. The 2001 report noted that the projects were concentrated in urban communities. However, it noted that not all existing projects had been covered, especially in KwaZulu-Natal. In 2003 about 50% of the projects were run by non-governmental organizations and just over a third (36%) were initiated and managed by community-based organizations (CBOs) (Mwite, 2004: 22).

In 2001 there were a total of 8 540 volunteers involved in HCBC programmes. This amounts to 52% of the human resources engaged in HCBC activities (Mwite, Lopes, Dudeni, 2004). Mwite et al. (2004) report that in 2003 a total of 19 616 (62% of total personnel) were volunteers. Mwite et al. (2004: 112) found that "most caregivers are African females, with the larger proportion of them being under the age of 40. Less that half of the caregivers in the survey had completed matric, though most caregivers reported having some sort of training work experience pertaining to home and community-based care. Most caregivers typically provide HCBC for more that 2 years". Mwite et al. (2004: 112) further found that almost all caregivers spend "at least three days a week providing HCBC for over three hours per day. Almost half of caregivers, however, spend over one hour traveling to beneficiaries. At least 5 beneficiaries are visited on an average day and would spend no more that one hour with each beneficiary".

Dinat, Ross and Ngubeni (2005: 29-33) present an argument that many NGOs are exploiting volunteers providing home-based care. According to Akintola (2005 in Dinat et al., 2005) home-based care programmes are often inadequately developed and their effectiveness is questionable. Furthermore home-base care done properly is not a cheap option although costing studies show that HCBC varies greatly because the standard of care varies greatly. According to Dinat et al. (2005) it is becoming clear that the cost always exists and is paid for, but the cost is currently being carried out by the poor themselves. The poor can also not provide essential clinical and professional social care that is needed. Dinat et al. (2005: 29-33) highlights this as a major constraint of HCBC –

> It is worrisome that the clinical component of care and the professional social care are missing in the majority of HBC programmes. All anti-retroviral therapy and treatment of infections are supposed to happen at the clinics, which is a problem for the bed-bound patient. By law, lay caregivers cannot access the medical records and cannot diagnose, prescribe or treat. They also find difficulties in referring patients to the clinic. Their patients are terminally ill and bed bound, so they face the problem of getting prescriptions for their patients. Their activities are thus restricted to bathing and feeding patients and cleaning the house.

The beneficiaries of HCBC include all those infected ranging from the asymptotic to those who are terminally ill, all caregivers, families, affected children, and 'the entire community' (DoH &

DSD, 2002: 4 in Mwite et al., 2004). Furthermore, it names providers of services as including professionals, non-professionals (including family members, volunteers and traditional healers), and community and faith-based organisations. It envisages that all players would be members of a team who would provide 'integrated' and 'comprehensive' services which provide a 'continuum of care'. However it does seem that there are some challenges in the implementation of this care model (Dinat et al., 2005).

The **loveLife groundBREAKERS programme** is a youth development and peer education service programme established by loveLife in 2001 (Burnett 2006). It mobilises young people aged 18-25 years old to work with 12-20 year olds in order to stop the spread of HIV and AIDS, and specifically to prevent new infections among teenagers. The groundBREAKERS are contracted for a period of one year, during which they receive training that enables them to run loveLife's programmes. Each groundBREAKER is paid a monthly stipend of R1 000.

In the 2005/6 fiscal year, the programme reached unprecedented scale with the establishment of a national volunteer corps of 1 654 unemployed youth (aged between 18 to 25 years) across the country. To swell their capacity, each groundBREAKER recruits between 4 and 5 'Mpintshis'[4] – non-stipended volunteers who help the groundBREAKERS roll out a range of events with young people in particular localities. By 2005/6 a total of 5 910 Mpintshis were participating in the groundBREAKER programme. The expansion of the programme had been driven by research which showed (in 2003) that young people who had been exposed to more than three loveLife programmes, and specifically to loveLife groundBREAKERS, were 60% less likely to be HIV positive than their peers (Burnett, 2006).

Big Brothers Big Sisters South Africa (BBBSSA) is a non-profit initiative launched in South Africa in 2000 as an affiliate of the Big Brother Big Sister international programme (Legong 2006). BBBSSA was first established in the Western Cape, following which it was extended to Gauteng in 2002 and KwaZulu-Natal in 2005. South Africa is the first African country to implement the Big Brother Big Sister programme. The programme is based on a mentorship model that aims to promote and restore a positive life vision and to provide inspirational role models to youth. It involves one-to-one mentoring sessions between a volunteer mentor (a 'Big') and a child or young person (aged 6-18) who is in need of support (a 'little') for an hour a week for a minimum period of one year. After being "matched", the mentor and mentee set about building a trusting friendship. Needs determine the areas of service and this vary from children who struggle academically or battle with low self-esteem, to those who are abused, neglected or infected and affected by HIV/AIDS.

The servers are volunteers (e.g. university students) who function as mentors and come from all walks of life, all races, ages and genders. The Littles are referred to BBBSSA by various children's homes, schools and communities that work in partnership with the programme. However, BBBSSA has found that the main constraints to recruiting sufficient volunteers are the following:
- Children who participate in the programme live in poor communities that many volunteers are not familiar with. In some cases volunteers perceive these areas to be unsafe and are reluctant to go into the communities in which the children live. It is thus very important for BBBSSA to persuade people who reside in these areas to volunteer, and this means running volunteer awareness programmes in these communities.
- There is a need to raise the awareness of the value of volunteering at grassroots level outside the affected communities as well.

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[4] *Mpintshis* is an IsiZulu word meaning a friend or buddy

- The main challenge to making matches between mentors and children seems to lie in securing sufficient commitment from the mentors. Many Bigs are uneasy about a full year's commitment, but the reason for this duration is to enable the programme to have an impact on the child's life. Mentoring for less than a year is unlikely to yield the same results.

BBBSSA has four main programmes and the scale of each is indicated below by the number of active matches made as at May 2006 (Legong 2006):
- The school-based programme where a mentor visits during school hours on the school property (173 active matches);
- A children's home programme where a mentor visits the child at the Children's Home. Depending on the home's rules the mentor may be allowed to take the child off the property (166 active matches).
- The community-based programme where a mentor will visit at the child's home, which is then based in a community (20 active matches).
- A diversion programme: This programme involves juveniles and youth who have committed less serious offences (20 active matches).

The volunteers of **International Volunteer programmes** are skilled and experienced personnel that are hard to come by in many countries. Organisations view them as a much-needed resource to fill a gap at a fraction of the cost it would require to fill the post using local experts. Some of the largest international volunteer programmes in South Africa are Volunteer Service Overseas (VSO), Skills Share and United Nations Volunteers. Over the past decade, UNV doctors have contributed significantly to boosting the capacity of rural health centres. Fifteen international medical officers served as United Nations volunteers in thirteen state hospitals in Limpopo Province. While helping to improve health services in remote rural hospitals they also assisted in strengthening the capacities of health personnel in and around the communities they worked. A second phase of this project started in August 2004 when an additional 45 UNV health professionals were deployed in Limpopo province. Significantly, the $5.3-million (around R30-million) cost of the project has been funded by the provincial Department of Health.

The UNV Programme has collaborated with the Southern African Student Volunteers (SASVO) in its effort to inculcate a culture of service and volunteerism among students and community members. Established in 1993, SASVO has mobilised more than 10 000 student volunteers to participate in over 215 community-based projects, literacy campaigns and voter education. About 110 rural communities in Gauteng, Limpopo, KwaZulu-Natal, and Eastern Cape have benefited from this initiative. The assistance provided to SASVO enabled it to build networks in Tanzania, Mozambique, Uganda, Namibia and Botswana. SASVO also promotes student exchange programmes with industrialised countries (UNDP, 2004).

Women and gender-based service organisations also benefited from a national effort to combat violence against women. UN Volunteers assisted in setting up provincial networks that include outreach centers for victims of abuse. The activities and services of UN volunteers in the areas of awareness and education, capacity building, literacy, training and action-related research have served to enrich the lives of many.

As part of a national effort to combat violence against women, UN volunteers have been involved in setting up provincial networks that include outreach centres for victims of abuse and campaigns to counteract violence against women in South Africa. UN volunteers have served in

the areas of awareness and education, capacity building, legal literacy, training, and action research (UNV 2003).

2.6 Institutional Dimensions: Access, Incentives, Information and Facilitation

Access to service and volunteer programmes varies from one programme to the next. It ranges from very formal criteria to very informal guidelines. For example, the **community service programme for health professionals** has formal criteria for who participates, since it is a targeted and compulsory programme during which the health professionals are remunerated. The 'service' components of this programme are closely related to the location of the health professionals in under-served areas of the health system. This programme is facilitated between universities and the Department of Health. The health professionals are supervised in their community service placements by senior health professionals.

Service learning programmes also have restrictive access criteria. Only students who are enrolled for particular courses that feature service-learning, participate in these programmes. There are no monetary incentives, but students are provided with practical learning opportunities which are perceived as an incentive as they create skills development and employment opportunities.

The **national youth service** sets specific criteria, for both access and the facilitation of participation. Firstly, as indicated above, the programme is aimed at young people between the ages of 16 – 35 in four target groups: unemployed young people, youth in conflict with the law, further education and training students, and higher education students. Secondly, participation lasts for between 12 to 18 months, but under specific circumstances programmes may be shorter (minimum 6 months) or longer. The nature of the service activity must be aligned with a national, provincial or local development objective. In addition the nature of the activities within the service project should provide a sufficient diversity of tasks for participating young people to gain the experience necessary to access identified economic and learning opportunities.

It is intended that all participating young people should be able to see how their activity benefits persons other than themselves. In addition all activities should promote learning that enables participants to:

- Undertake the activities to the standards required by the service activity;
- access further learning opportunities upon completion of the project;
- access economic opportunities upon completion of the project;
- be active citizens.

In 2007, NYS will scale up to engage youth in school, further education and training as well as higher education, as well as employed youth and adult volunteers in service programmes. The focus will be on engaging these groups to provide support/skills to communities in information and communications technology, mentorship for vulnerable children, and mathematics and science support to school children.

The **home and community-based care programmes** comprise not only volunteers. HCBC teams are would typically consist of (Mwite et al. 2004:12):

- a full-time team professional manager/coordinator (for example, a nurse or social worker);
- a child and youth care worker (R1 200 per month – does not specify full- or part-time);
- a part-time professional nurse; and
- 8 community caregivers earning a monthly stipend of R500 or R1 000 (these are the volunteers).

In 2001 HCBC-related projects employed 16 288 personnel. This included some who received no payment. A total of 8 540 (52%) were volunteers of whom 1 919 received a stipend, while 6 621 were volunteers without stipends. This means that in 2001 just over half of HBCB personnel were volunteers. A further 2 730 were recorded as 'T. caregivers', receiving regular wages. In the period 2002-2003, 15 326 (48%) of the total of 31 565 staff were volunteers receiving no stipend. This category had thus increased significantly in both absolute and relative terms. A further 4 290 (14%) were volunteers receiving stipends. This indicates that by 2002-3 a total of 19 616 (62%) of HCBC personnel were volunteers. The graph below depicts the spread of HCBC personnel (including volunteers) for the period 2001-3.

Figure 3: Number of Personnel in DoH Home Community-based Care Projects
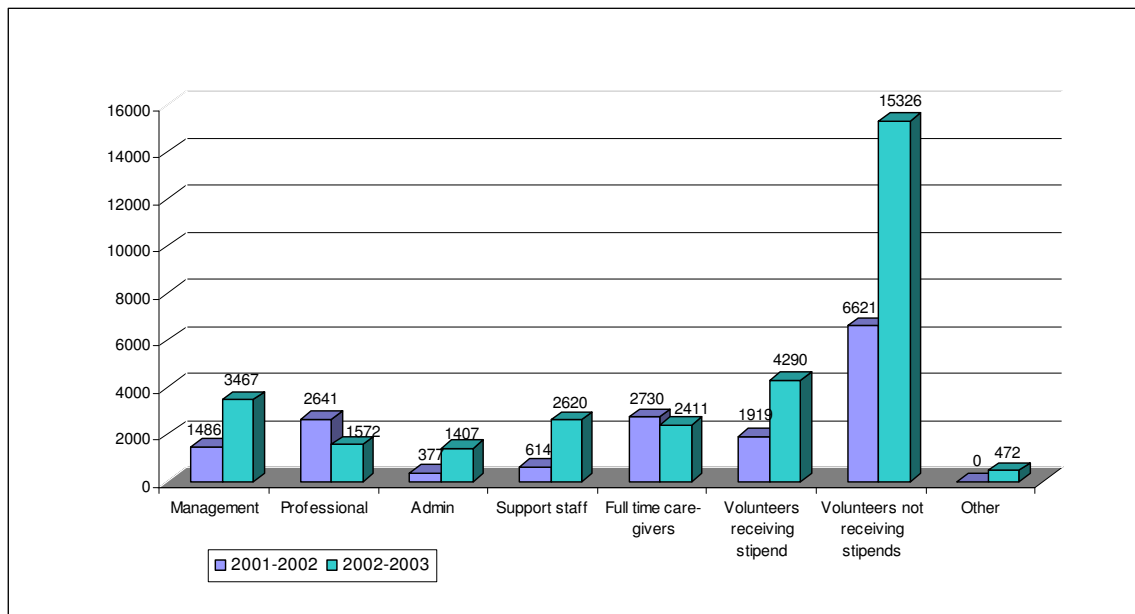
(Source: National Integrated Plan for Children and Youth Infected and Affected by HIV and AIDS), as presented by the Coordinator, Anita Marshall, to SABC Education Takalani Sesame Content Seminar November 2003)

Mwite et al (2004: 13) report that there are some discussions of the pros and cons of stipends in the DoH and DSD document. On the one hand, paying stipends can result in demands for formal salaried positions. On the other hand, caregivers often help households with food and other basic necessities, and a stipend helps to 'offset' this 'burden'. The document notes that stipends address the criticism that 'government is turning its back on the poor and leaving them to fend for themselves, or even of exploiting volunteers within communities' (DoH & DSD, 2002: 16 in Mwite, 2004: 13).

Stipends also contribute to poverty alleviation by injecting money into poor communities. Finally, caregivers themselves, while cognisant of the fact that they are volunteers, felt that financial compensation for their services would serve as a motivational factor, and, indeed, was necessary to satisfy their own needs. Alternative methods of compensation were suggested such as provision of basic needs such as food parcels. Some of the HCBC organisations do not have permanent staff at all; in these cases everyone – from management to the caregiver – is a volunteer and this sometimes makes it difficult to ensure that a sustained and regular service is provided (Mwite, 2004, Dinat et al., 2005).

2.7 Programme Administration

The National Youth Service operations and institutional arrangements are described as follows (NYSU 2006):

Partner agency	Role
The Presidency	Political Principal (through Minister Pahad).
National & Provincial Youth Commissions	Lobbying, advocacy, project identification, monitoring and evaluation and policy framework.
Umsobomvu Youth Fund	Manage the NYSU which in turn identifies and registers projects, provides financial support, capacity building and materials development.
State Departments (including provinces and municipalities) e.g. Health, Social Development and Housing	Implement NYS through projects like Home-Based Care, People's Housing Process, Water and Sanitation and other Infrastructure initiatives (e.g. access roads), ABET and Extension Service.

The National Youth Service Unit is located in the Umsobomvu Youth Fund which manages the operations of the NYS and works with government departments, municipalities and civil society organisations to explore and operationalise opportunities for service. The NYSU develops guidelines and manuals to support the identification, design and implementation of youth service projects, and trains and registers technical advisors who support organisations implementing national youth service projects. It also trains and registers programme institutional assessors who evaluate the quality of projects and recommend registration or capacity building. Projects that meet NYS criteria are registered with the National Youth Service Unit which brands and profiles the national youth service, secures funds and raises awareness about the value of service (NYSU 2006).

The Umsobomvu Youth Fund (UYF) provides infrastructural and funding support to the NYS. It has seconded six project managers, a communications officer and three administrators to the NYSU, and by 2006 had provided the NYSU with direct funding of R5 million and an overheads allocation of +-R10 million over three years. An NYS Database is in place, as are an NYS registration manual and toolkit.

Between 2002 and 2005, out of the 30 registered projects, 16 were funded by the UYF to the total value of R 93 615 274. This has made it possible for 6976 young people to acquire accredited skills in construction, health, environment & social development & receive certificates ranging from NQF Level 2 – 4. By 2006 additional resources of R150-million had been leveraged for the NYS by the UYF. A cost-benefit analysis indicates that programmes range between R6 000 and R26 000 per participant, which compares favourably with international experience.

In future, a multi-pronged funding model is proposed to support the NYS (NYSU 2006):
- Government departments are to ring-fence funds specifically dedicated to cover cost of service and stipends (through the Medium Term Expenditure Framework) and to provide exit opportunities.
- The National Skills Fund is to fund training costs run against credits on the National Qualifications Framework (including the training of trainers, team leader training and the training of young people in service)
- The Umsobomvu Youth Fund will fund the youth development costs and the exit opportunities, as well as capacity building and the management of the NYSU.
- It is proposed that funds for further education and higher education learners should be channelled directly to the NYSU, but it is not clear how this will operate in relation to current funding streams for FET and higher education to schools and universities respectively.

In the case of NGO volunteer programmes, funding is partially derived from government subsidies, but these programmes are mostly privately funded or resourced through partnership arrangements. For example, CHESP operates under the ambit of the Joint Education Trust, and is funded by the JET Board, the Ford Foundation and the Kellogg Foundation (Perold, 2003: 24). The Big Brothers Big Sisters South Africa programme has developed partnerships with a range of organisations and institutions such as the Umsobomvu Youth Fund, the National Youth Commission, South African Police Services as well as many others. The Department of Social Work at the University of Johannesburg and the University of the Witwatersrand School of Education have both integrated the programme into their curriculum as a service learning initiative, thereby enabling students at both universities to become 'Bigs' who mentor the 'Littles'.

The loveLife groundBREAKERS programme was funded by the Global Fund to fight tuberculosis, HIV and malaria, as well as the Departments of Health and Social Development, and the Anglo American Chairman's Fund. Unfortunately at the end of 2005 the Global Fund decided to discontinue its support for the programme and this has caused a major setback, making it difficult for the programme to retain its scale and scope. Instead, the 2006/7 fiscal year will see the number of groundBREAKERS reduced by approximately one-third, with the number of Mpintshis being reduced accordingly.

Most international volunteer programmes are also administered as partnerships – either between international organisations and the South African government, or between international and civil society organisations. One example of the latter is the partnership between the United Nations Volunteers (UNV) and Southern African Students Volunteers (SASVO). These two groups have joined forces to mobilise students and local communities to serve as volunteers in rural South Africa. The UNDP together with the US-based Association for Volunteer Administration (AVA) provides technical support (UNV News, 2004).

Section Three: Methodology

3.1 Research Design

3.1.1 Research Approach

The study followed a qualitative descriptive research design in order to gather in-depth information on the nature and form of civic service and volunteerism in South Africa. Interviews with key informants and focus groups with service providers at the national, provincial, local and community levels were intended to enable the study to provide a broad perspective on the field of civic service in South Africa.

3.1.2 Research Questions

In order to achieve the aims and objectives of the study, the research was framed by several guiding research questions developed from those used in the GSI global assessment of civic service and volunteerism and, subsequently adapted to fit the Southern African context. Specifically, for the South Africa case study, the research questions were as follows:

- What is the meaning of civic service and volunteerism and how it is shaped?
- What is the nature and extent of civic service and volunteering programmes?
- What are the main goals, strategies and target groups of these programmes?
- How do those serving in service programmes view the nature of their service experience?
- What support is provided for those serving in service programmes, particularly in terms of access, incentives, information, facilitation and training?
- What policies and legislation exist to promote and support civic service and volunteerism?
- What are the main factors that either promote or hinder the development of civic service and volunteering?
- To what extent do stakeholders in the field of civic service collaborate with each other?
- How do stakeholders view the way forward in terms of research into, and institutionalisation of, civic service and volunteering activities?

3.1.3 Sampling

Key informants, service providers and community organisations involved in service programmes were sampled using a purposive sampling method. In addition the snowball sampling technique was used to identify further individuals for interviews and to identify additional organisations, particularly community-based organisations, for inclusion in focus group discussions.

The team attempted to recruit a minimum of five key informants: two from government, two from non-governmental organisations and one from a donor agency. Key informants were defined as people who currently shape or influence civic service programmes. They are involved in the implementation of service and volunteering policies, and/or in the co-ordination of service and volunteering programmes. They are also people who are knowledgeable about civic service policies and programmes in South Africa and are to some extent directly involved in facilitating, supporting or influencing civic service initiatives.

3.1.4 Research Instruments[5]

Data was gathered through interviews with purposely-selected participants, focus groups and document analysis. For both the interviews and focus groups the standardised interview schedule, provided by the lead researcher, was used. The questions in the schedule were not altered, but were not always asked in the same sequence, in order to respond to the direction taken by the interviews and focus group discussions. In addition, documentation from key informants was analysed and incorporated in the findings from the study.

3.2 Research Activities

3.2.1 Interviews and Focus Group Discussions

Research activities in this study comprised eight key informant interviews:
- Two government departments:
   - The National Department of Social Development
   - Gauteng Provincial Department of Public Works
- Four NGOs:
   - loveLife groundBREAKERS (a youth service programme active in peer education in respect of HIV/AIDS)
   - City Year (a private sector youth service organisation)
   - Junior Achievement South Africa (a private sector organisation that mentors young entrepreneurs)
   - Joint Enrichment Programme (an organisation promoting youth development and youth service)

- One policy agency:
   - The National Youth Commission (a state structure responsible for directing youth policy and the National Youth Service)

- One funder and implementer of national youth service:
   - The National Youth Service Unit based at the Umsobomvu Youth Fund

Three focus group discussions comprising two participants each. The participants in the first focus group were:
- Eco-City (NGO implementing a youth service programme)
- National Business Initiative (enterprise development programme) (NBI is a non-profit business support organisation)

The participants in the second focus group were:
- Ashoka (a social entrepreneurship organisation that promotes civic service in South Africa)
- 17th Shaft (NGO that implements a youth service programme).

The participants in the third focus group were:
- Soweto home-based care (a community-based organisation)
- People Opposing Women Abuse (POWA) (an NGO that depends on volunteers)

3.2.2 Document Search

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[5] Copies of the adapted research instruments are included in the appendices to this report.

Documents for the literature review were collected and analysed between 1 September and 30 September 2005. Additional secondary analysis was undertaken between May and June 2006.

3.2.3 Key Informant Interviews

In total eight interviews were conducted with key informants. All the interviews were conducted between 2 June and 17 December 2005. Data was collected using the prescribed standardised interview schedule for the study. Questions were not always asked in the same way because of the need for the researcher to respond to the way in which each interview was progressing. In order to maximise the opportunity to gain in-depth information, the researcher allowed some flexibility in the order of the questions asked, exploring and following up responses given by the interviewees. The researcher ensured, however, that all the questions listed in the interview schedule were covered.

3.2.4 Focus Group Discussions

Two focus group discussions were designed for this study. The first was intended to include organisations that run structured service programmes. The second focus group discussion was designed to include representatives of organizations that run service or volunteer programmes. Despite their confirmation of attendance, very few organisations attended. Three focus group sessions were thus held with whomever attended, regardless of whether their programmes were structured service programmes or not.

The organisations that participated in the focus group discussions were Eco-City and the National Business Initiative, People Opposing Women Abuse (POWA) and the Soweto Home-based Care organization, Ashoka and 17th Shaft.

3.3 Data Analysis

Data analysis was descriptive and interpretative. Taped interviews and focus group discussions were transcribed verbatim. Data was segmented into meaningful analytical units. Themes for analyses were determined by both the themes of the interview schedule and the data collected. Regrettably the recording of the second focus group discussion was not usable owing to the malfunctioning of the tape recorder. Since no transcript was available, notes were used for the purposes of data analysis.

3.4 Limitations, Challenges and Lessons Learnt

3.4.1 Identification and Selection of Participants

One limitation experienced in this study was the organisation of focus groups and some of the interviews. Two focus group discussions were organised, all of which had ten organisations confirming their participation. However, on the appointed days, attendance was very poor. On each of the two occasions, only two participants attended, instead of the ten people who indicated that they would take part. This could have been because of the timing of the data collection process that coincided with the end of the year. This tends to be a busy time for most organisations and individuals, and could explain the last-minute cancellations made in respect of the focus groups. Consequently a third focus group was held with another two participants who rescheduled their participation.

It is also worth mentioning that although we conducted an interview with a key informant from the Expanded Public Works Programme (EPWP), we have not used this data in our study. This was mainly because only one section of the programme, the social cluster, can be regarded as a service programme and no information about this was available from the interview. The information available is about the EPWP as a poverty alleviation programme and thus cannot be factored into this study.

3.4.2 Availability of Literature

South Africa has a wealth of volunteering and service experience, some of which is documented, but most of which has not been studied. This study provides an important means for starting to rectify this, but the small scale of the study enabled the research team to do no more than scratch the surface. The lack of in-depth investigation of both civic service and volunteer programmes proved to be a huge challenge for contextualising the study within a comprehensive literature review. However, some data was accessed in broad national surveys, organisational reviews and some programme reviews. The lack of academic and theoretical enquiry into volunteering and civic service did, however, serve as a significant constraint.

3.4.3 Other limitations

Another limitation to the study is associated with its small size. It was difficult to capture the full range of the service experience in South Africa, particularly the differences between urban and rural experiences. Furthermore, the study concentrated on service experiences, and did not focus in any depth on the very large and diverse array of volunteering that takes place in South Africa.

Section Four: Findings and Discussion

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the main findings of the study. It draws from the primary data obtained through key informant interviews and the small focus group discussions, as well as secondary data sourced for this study. In the next subsections, the section examines the following:
- Meaning of service and volunteering in South Africa
- Form, scope and age of service programmes in South Africa
- Service role: service nature and time commitment
- Servers, service areas and goals
- Institutional dimensions
- Programme administration
- Policy and legislation
- Factors promoting or hindering service and volunteering
- Regional collaboration
- Future research.

4.2 Meaning of Service and Volunteering

In South Africa, service and volunteering are understood in a variety of ways. While some participants in this study distinguish between service and volunteering by emphasising the structured nature of service programmes, others see service as being synonymous with voluntarism in that both actions (service and volunteering) provide evidence of people's willingness to engage with society for the promotion of a wider public good.

For most of the participants in this study, the meaning of service programmes in South Africa is closely related to the programmes being formal and structured with a clear set of objectives and outcomes. For example, a participant in a focus group discussion said that participants in service programmes are told:

> "to be here from eight [o'clock] until five [o'clock] – and these are the objectives of the project, and this is what you have to learn….after twelve months, this is what you must have, and therefore it is very important you achieve these things".[6].

The meaning of volunteering, on the other hand, seems to stem from the willingness of the participant to use his/her time and effort without any expectation of payment[7]. According to a participant:

> "Voluntarism is about using the type of people towards the intervention that we are implementing. There is no cost to us whatsoever. ..it is also linked to having the individuals who are participating in the programme being willing participants. It is not something that we really force to people"[8].

In addition to this distinction between the meaning of service as structured engagement and volunteering as being more informal and altruistic in nature, the data show that there are four different ways in which the meaning of service and volunteering is understood in South Africa.

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[6] Focus group discussant, Mfanafuthi Khanyile from Eco-City
[7] Focus group discussant, Xolile Caga from the National Business Initiative .
[8] Focus group discussant, Xolile Caga from the National Business Initiative

While some of these understandings are embedded in culture, history, or national development policies, others are more pragmatic.

4.2.1 Cultural/Traditional Values

Many respondents argued that the concept of service and volunteering in South Africa is part of the African philosophy of *ubuntu*, which denotes caring and sharing. For example, a participant commented that:

> *"Our heritage as Africans is about returning to the community… you helped me grow; I will help you grow as well"*

He stressed that in South Africa service and volunteering derives from the value of reciprocity embedded in African culture:

> *"I am because we are … we exist in those communities and in a way we have to return … by being involved in community projects you are in a way saying to the community that brought you up, 'thank you'.."*

A similar understanding was mentioned by a focus group participant from People Opposing Women Abuse (POWA) who indicated that service is entrenched in society and forms part of its way of life and value system:

> *"it is all about communal responsibility…it's always been there… you can do it without knowing you are volunteering"*

These statements suggest that the notion of 'giving back' to one's community is intrinsically embedded in African culture. Significantly, the comments show that the value of reciprocity permeates the worldview of individuals in many different social strata – in the policy-making world of the National Youth Commission as well as among people working in non-governmental organisations – and indicates that the shape of service and volunteering programmes in the country are likely to be informed by these deeper traditional values.

4.2.2 Individual Motivation

Volunteering is also understood as a commitment by individuals to do something for the benefit of the wider society. Personal motivation emerged quite strongly in the focus group discussions as a driver for volunteering. For example, a participant in a focus group discussion described volunteering as:

> *"something you do to reach out to someone regardless of the working conditions; you enjoy it and it makes you feel good and happy."*[9]

Within the ambit of this understanding, the goals of the volunteering intervention may vary. A volunteer may aim to assist another person ("*volunteerism is something you do with love to help the next person*"[10]) or the desire to assist others could translate into a goal of helping to rebuild the country, as in "*individuals want to contribute to the development of the country because of the situation we find ourselves in*"[11].

The motivation of individuals to help others or to support the larger nation-building effort provides an important ingredient for the shaping of both civic service and volunteering

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[9] Focus group discussant Cathering Nyakato from POWA
[10] Focus group discussant Mabel Letlabi from the Soweto Home-based Care
[11] Focus group discussant Xolile Caga from the National Business Initiative.

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programmes. Significantly, however, the data show that in some cases there is a clear preference for "*assisting the communities*"[12] rather than assisting the government. This amplifies our understanding of individual motivation in that it suggests that servers and volunteers may be driven mainly by working with people who share their own circumstances or background, or are familiar to them. Also, servers are particularly motivated by the prospect of making a visible difference in the lives of others.

4.2.3 National Goals

Civic service and volunteering programmes in South Africa are also understood as activities undertaken in the pursuit of national goals or unmet community needs. For example, during the struggle against apartheid, the notion of volunteerism existed with a clear political meaning and focus. For many respondents in this study, the history of service and volunteering is thus embedded in the history of political struggle. For example, a key informant emphasised that:

> *[in the past] "we understood volunteerism and service only to have meaning in a context of struggle"[13]*

This view was also expressed in focus group discussions which made reference to the Soweto youth uprisings of 1976: *"The 1976 youth has shown us this"*[14].

Furthermore, the youth who were active in politics during apartheid, were referred to as "*amavolontiya*" –an IsiZulu word meaning a volunteer. During the 1970s, young people mobilised themselves; they knew what they were concerned about, why they were coming together, why they were sharing their experiences. This constituted a basis for unity among young black people in particular.

In post-apartheid South Africa, however, many civic service and volunteering programmes are aligned with government's transformation agenda and the expectation that the democratic state should produce "a better life for all"[15] has replaced the notion of struggle. The understanding of service and volunteering having the potential to contribute to national development goals has thus given rise to new programmatic directions, which emerged since 1994. For example, the National Youth Service programme aims to involve young people both in service and learning. The launch of service learning programmes in universities can also be seen as a response to the policy direction provided by the Department of Education to encourage greater social and community responsiveness on the part of higher education institutions.[16]

Other developments include the emergence of service and volunteering programmes in response to unmet social needs. For example, the scourge of HIV and AIDS has increased volunteering in home-based care programmes. Also, in 1998 government introduced a mandatory period of community service for graduating health professionals that seeks to address the uneven distribution of health professionals in under-served parts of the country.

Comments made by key informants and focus group respondents also point to the way in which the meaning of service and volunteering is changing in the post-apartheid environment:

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[12] Interview with Sello More, the National Youth Commission.
[13] Interview with Mzwandile Radebe, Department of Social Development
[14] Focus group discussant MfanaFuthi Khanyile from Eco-City, referring to the Soweto uprising of 1976 when young people took the lead in mobilising against the apartheid government.
[15] Slogan of the African National Congress since 1994
[16] Education White Paper 3 of 1997 on the Transformation of Higher Education .

> "*Service assists to deliver the government's objectives*"[17]

> [In the past] "*we understood volunteerism and services only to have meaning in a context of struggle, a political base … The new meaning of service is taking shape ... service gives you the opportunity to acquire skills and experience …*" [18]

These observations suggest that the meaning of service and volunteering in South Africa is not only defined and influenced by the present-day context in which it is developing, but that it is also shaped by the context of political struggle out of which the country's new democracy has emerged.

4.2.4 A Second Best Option

Finally, the data show that in some cases the context of poverty and underdevelopment means that people understand service or volunteering as a 'second best option' – something to do when no other alternatives are available for employment or learning. According to a key informant:

> "*Some people understand service as volunteerism, but attach a negative connotation to doing work that is unpaid when they are desperate for real jobs*"[19].

These four categories of meaning indicate that service and volunteering programmes are understood to be closely aligned with the core values of African culture. For many people it resonates with the history of struggle under apartheid. Today it is understood to express the actions of individuals who seek to help others, develop themselves or to contribute to national development goals, but in some cases poverty makes people see service or volunteering as a 'second best option' in the absence of sustainable livelihoods.

4.3 Form, Scope and Age of Service Programmes in South Africa

The sample used for this study includes eight service and volunteering programmes in South Africa, as outlined below in Table 4

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[17] Focus group discussant Mfanafuthi Khanyile from Eco-City
[18] Interview with Mzwandile Radebe, Department of Social Development
[19] Interview with Lesleigh Timothy from Junior Achievement South Africa (JASA)

Table 4: Summary of Programmes Surveyed in South Africa

	Organization	Programme/project	Activities	Age of programme	Number of servers in any one year	Age range of servers
1	**National Youth Commission**	**National Youth Service**	**Community service & learning and skills**	**3 years**	**13 087 (over the entire period = average of 4 362 per year)**	18 -35 years
2	**Department for Social Development**	**Unemployed Youth Programme**	**Training youth to work with bees and export honey**	**1 year**	**470**	Youth
3	**loveLife**	**groundBREAKERS**	**Youth development and peer education**	**5 years**	**1 654 groundBREAKERS & 5 910 Mpintshis[20]**	18 -25 years
4	**City Year**	**City Year South Africa**	**Servers act as mentors to children in poor communities and schools.**	**2 years**	**115**	18 – 25 years
5	**National Business Initiative**	**Youth Entrepreneurship**	**Mentoring**	**2 years**	**100**	40 years+
6	**Soweto Home-based Care**	**Volunteer programme**	**Education and counselling**	**8 years**	**17**	22 years +
7	**People Opposing Women Abuse (POWA)**	**Support for abused women**	**Counselling and research**	**4 years**	**60**	20 years +
8	Eco-City	Eco-City	Construction	5 years	100	Data not available

4.3.1 Form of Programmes

The sample contains a strong focus on youth service programmes with five out of the eight programmes being service programmes, all of which have young people as servers. In a number of cases youth are also intended to be the beneficiaries (e.g. groundBREAKERS, the National Business Initiative's youth entrepreneurship programme and the Department of Social Development's youth unemployment programme).

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[20] *Mpintshis* is an IsiZulu word meaning 'friend' or 'buddy'.

> **Box 1: National Youth Service – Structured, voluntary and diverse**
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> *National youth service in South Africa is voluntary in form and comprises a diversified mix of programme provision through governmental or civil society agencies that are all aligned to national development goals and formally structured according to the national youth service model... Political responsibility for the initiative is located in the Presidency and the NYS programmes are managed by the National Youth Service Unit located in the Umsobomvu Youth Fund. The programmes are structured around three essential functions: (1) service provision by youth that benefits the broader community; (2) youth citizenship and positive socialisation; and (3) experiential learning and individual development. At the core of youth service is the objectives of service, learning and viable exit opportunities such as employment or further learning. Youth service is implemented through an integrated approach through government departments participating and providing opportunities for youth to contribute to take forward the specific priorities within a department, as well as through non-governmental or community-based programmes. Through service, the intention is to foster national development and mainstream the youth.*

Three of the programmes in the sample are more focused on volunteering than service: the Soweto Home-based Care, People Against Women's Abuse (POWA) and the National Business Initiative's youth entrepreneurship programme. These programmes tend to be shorter-term and less intensively structured than the service programmes

There are also a number of other types of service and volunteering programmes in the country. Examples of these include service learning programmes (e.g. the Big Brother Big Sister South Africa Programme) and community service for health professionals,

4.3.2 Scope of Programmes

Four of the programmes surveyed are national in scope and thus take place in various parts of the country: the National Youth Service, the Department of Social Development's unemployed youth programme, and the National Business Initiative's youth entrepreneurship programme. Four others are local programmes: City Year South Africa, the Soweto Home-based Care, People Opposing Women Abuse, and Eco-City all undertake their activities in particular geographic locations.

It is noteworthy, however, that while the National Youth Service operates nationally and has national objectives, it also aims to be responsive to needs at local level:

> *"National service is about inculcating a culture of service in our own communities, where we live. So it's mostly local."*[21]

This is a significant counterpoint to past conceptions of 'national service' in South Africa under apartheid. Not only is national service perceived as being about serving and developing local communities for the common good, but the need to customise service to local needs is a strong imperative. This contrasts strongly with past notions of 'national service' as a uniform or undifferentiated phenomenon seeking to impose a particular way of life on the country.

4.3.3 Age of Programmes

All programmes in the sample are a product of the democratic dispensation of post-1994 South Africa. The age range of these programmes is 1 – 8 years. While most of the service programmes in the sample are between 1 and 5 years old (the national youth service programme, the unemployed youth programme, and City Year South Africa), volunteering

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[21] Interview with Sello More from the National Youth Commission

programmes are relatively older, as in the case of the Soweto Home-based care and POWA which are 8 and 4 years old respectively.

4.4 Service Role: Time Commitment and Compulsory Nature of Service

The nature of service programmes and time commitments by servers are discussed below.

4.4.1 Time Commitment

Time commitment varies across different service and volunteering programmes in South Africa. Data used in this study suggests a wide difference between service programmes and volunteering programmes in this regard. For example, in the Eco-City's housing construction programme, servers are required to report daily from 8 am to 5 pm for a period of 12 months[22]. In other programmes such as the National Business Initiative's Youth Entrepreneurship programme, the professionals who volunteer are expected to commit themselves for 36 hours which are spread over one year to mentor young entrepreneurs[23].

In terms of service duration, servers in structured service programmes such as the national youth service, groundBREAKERS and City Year are required to spend between six to twelve months in service. Volunteers in less-structured programmes tend to spend less time on their volunteering activities e.g. a week or two. However, there are indications of emerging mechanisms for volunteer retention. Volunteer-involving organisations are resorting to flexible contracts to ensure stability of volunteers without jeopardising the voluntary nature of their involvement. For example, servers with Eco-City and volunteers with the Soweto Home-based Care sign programme six-month contracts, but "they can leave at any time if they want to"[24].

Generally, structured service programmes in South Africa are voluntary and require servers to participate in the programme for between six and twelve months, sometimes as long as 18 months. All programmes in the sample are voluntary in nature. This seems to match the general trend in the country. Our secondary data shows that the only compulsory service programme in South Africa is the community service for health professionals: a service programme run by the national Department of Health[25], and service-learning programmes in which service is compulsory for the students who are enrolled in the course.

4.4.2 Nature of Service

It is noteworthy that in 7 of the 8 programmes surveyed, learning, personal support and skills development features strongly among the service activities carried out. Only in the Eco-City youth service programme were the servers involved in construction. In the remaining service and volunteering programmes activities ranged from youth development and peer education to servers mentoring children in poor communities and schools, professionals mentoring young people, and various activities in education, counselling and research. This suggests that the

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[22] Focus group discussant Mfanafuthi Khanyile from Eco-city
[23] Focus group discussant Xolile Caga, from the National Business Initiative
[24] Focus group discussant Mabel Letlabi from Soweto Home-based Care
[25] Mohamed SE (2005) *Community service for health professionals to improve services,* online at http://www.vosesa.org.za/focus/vol1_no2/index.html, Accessed 13 September 2006.

need for people development among beneficiaries is strong in many of the local communities in which the service programmes operate.

Box 2: The extent of volunteering in South Africa

A national survey (dubbed the 'state of giving' survey) undertaken during the end of 2003 by The Centre for Civil Society, the Southern African Grantmakers' Association and the National Development Agency focussed on the extent and nature of social giving amongst South Africans (Everatt & Solanki, 2005). The findings of the study suggest that 17% of the South African population volunteer their time (approx 8 million people in relation to a total population of 47.4 million (Stats SA, 2006). This can be compared with 1.5 million people who actively volunteered their time to non-profit organisations in 1999 (Swilling and Russell, 2002 cited in Perold, 2003:30). During the month that the participants in the 'state of giving' study were interviewed an average of 11 hours each were volunteered. This totals nearly 6 000 hours per month.

Woman volunteered slightly more time than men; African volunteers gave the most time, averaging 11 hours each in the month before being interviewed; they were followed by coloured respondents, Indians and lastly whites. The average time that is volunteered is constant amongst youth and adults (between 10 – 11 hours) and only rises among those over 60 years of age (rising to an average of 12 hours). Poor respondents (23%) were more likely to have volunteered than non-poor (17%). The study established that volunteering in South Africa is thus not the preserve of the middle class (Everatt & Solanki, 2005: 10, 11).

4.5 Servers, Service Areas and Goals

4.5.1 Servers

Service programmes in South Africa seem to focus on vulnerable groups in society: youth, women and people with disabilities. While youth are particularly targeted as servers and recipients of service in structured service programmes, secondary data suggests that women dominate volunteering programmes as volunteers, particularly in the field of home and community based care[26]. The most common age range of servers in the sample is 18 – 25 years. However, the national youth service programme extends that range to 18 – 35 years (for more details, see table 1).

The sample of the service and volunteer programmes used in this study shows a strong focus on servers who are unemployed and unskilled youth. However, there are skilled professionals involved in some service programmes such as the youth entrepreneurship programme of the National Business Initiative, which recruits volunteers of 40 years and older.

4.5.2 Service Areas

Table 5 below summarises service areas covered by the eight programmes in the sample. It shows that five out of the eight programmes in the sample span 2 to 3 areas of service at the same time. It also shows a tendency by the organisations involved in these programmes to focus more on areas of education, personal development of servers, and heath issues.

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[26] Report of an environmental scan on volunteer-involving organisations in the HIV and AIDS sector and their relationship with selected government departments, a report researched and compiled by Vosesa for the Nelson Mandela Foundation.

Table 5: Summary of Service Areas

Programmes Service Areas	NYS	Unemployed Youth	GB	City Year	Youth Entrepre-neurship	SHBC	POWA	Eco-City
Education			■	■		■	■	
Community development	■							■
Personal development	■	■	■					■
Environmental protection								■
Health			■			■	■	
Employment/economic development					■			
Infrastructure development								

Source: the table is compiled based on responses by key informants, focus group discussions and secondary data. NYS = National Youth Service; GB = groundBREAKERS; SHBC = Soweto Home-Based Care; POWA = People Opposing Women Abuse.

In the field of education for example, City Year South Africa focuses on mentoring school children in poor areas to help them do better in mathematics and science; the groundBREAKERS programme uses peer education in the fight against HIV and AIDS; and Soweto Home-based Care provides school talks and community outreach programmes to address critical issues of health, child abuse and domestic violence.

In the case of the national youth service, the unemployed youth programme of the Department of Social Development, the groundBREAKERS and Eco-City, the programmes all have strong components of personal development for servers as well as the development of communities. This may include, in addition to the particular skills needed to deliver the service, other life skills that will help servers become better citizens in the long run.

4.5.3 Service Goals

Service goals of the programmes in the sample are summarised in table 6. The summary demonstrates once again a strong focus on developing the servers themselves whilst at the same time developing the community and protecting the environment.

Table 6: Summary of Service Goals

	NYS	Unemployed Youth	GB	City Year	Youth Entrepreneurship	SHBC	POWA	Eco-City
Increasing server's motivation to volunteer more	■		■	■				■
Increasing the server's skill level	■	■	■				■	■
Increasing the server's social skills	■		■	■				■
Promote cultural								

	NYS	Unemployed Youth	GB	City Year	Youth Entrepreneurship	SHBC	POWA	Eco-City
understanding								
Increase the server's confidence and self-esteem	■	■	■	■				■
Increase employment rate of servers	■							■
Create/improve public facilities	■							
Promote wellbeing and health			■			■	■	
Promote educational development				■				
Facilitate community development	■	■				■		■
Facilitate sustainable livelihoods		■						
Promote sustainable land use								
Promote environmental protection	■							■
Increase employment opportunities					■			
Promote women empowerment			■				■	
Support young entrepreneurs					■			

Source: Table compiled based on responses by key informants, focus group discussions and secondary data. NYS = National Youth Service; GB = groundbreakers; SHBC = Soweto Home-Based Care; and POWA = People Opposing Women Abuse.

With regard to the focus areas of the service programmes, developing the servers themselves forms a key driver for all programmes surveyed in one way or another:
- five out of eight programmes aim at increasing the server's skill level;
- five out of eight programmes aim at increasing the server's confidence and self-esteem;
- four out of eight programmes aim at increasing server's motivation to volunteer the service experience; and
- four out of eight programmes aim at increasing the server's social skills

In terms of community development, five out of eight programmes aim to facilitate community development and three out of eight programmes aim to promote the wellbeing and health of the community. In addition, there are three programmes aiming at protecting the environment.

Box 3: Health and wellbeing – responding to the HIV and AIDS pandemic through service and volunteering

A major focus of some service and volunteering programmes in South Africa is aimed at responding to HIV and AIDS in communities. Home and community-based care is one example of a service programme that is directed by policy and informed by local needs. There are approximately 19 616 HCBC volunteers active in South Africa across 892 programmes accounted for (many programmes especially in KwaZulu-Natal are unaccounted for) (Mwite et al., 2004). These volunteers account for a reasonable proportion of volunteer action in communities and a total of 62% of the human resources of HCBC.

Half the programmes are run by NGOs and some are run by CBOs (36%). Mwite et al. state that the volunteers are mostly black African females with an average age range of 40 years and younger. They volunteer for two years and more, and volunteer at least 3 days per week. During this time it takes them on average an hour to travel, they visit up to five beneficiaries and spend about an hour with each of them. Their services include bathing, feeding and house cleaning.

The costs associated with these services are often completely absorbed by the volunteers who are mostly poor. Monetary incentives known as stipends average between R500 and R1 000 per month, although payment is not guaranteed every month. A further challenge of home and community-based care is the limited extent of services offered. As lay people the volunteers cannot provide the clinical treatment that many of the beneficiaries need (Dinat et al, 2005), especially those beneficiaries who are bedridden and terminally ill (and who are most likely to be the beneficiaries of HCBC). While this is a constraint in relation to the service that can be offered, it does put into perspective the role that volunteers (as opposed to trained and full-time employees) can play. It is important not to see the volunteers as a substitute for full-time employees in the health services, but rather to recognise the unique role that they can play...

Overall, the goals clearly indicate a strong alignment of service programmes with the national development goals. The data suggest that within the programme sample, 6 out of 17 service goals are primarily for the benefit of the servers, specifically to inculcate the culture of service among young people towards their community, and to increase their employability. The remaining goals show a strong tendency towards responding to unmet community needs, *inter alia* through activities such as provision of support to women and children in the face a growing domestic violence.

4.6 Institutional Dimensions: Access, Incentives, Information and Facilitation

The data show that recruitment and retention processes of servers and volunteers in South Africa are structured in most programmes. There are commonalities in terms of the criteria used to determine who is eligible to serve or volunteer. The most common criterion used is age. While many service programmes target 18 – 25 year-olds, the national youth service extends that bracket to include up to 35 years olds. In the case of the National Business Initiative, however, the programme spans a wider age range: it recruits professionals who are 40 years or older to mentor young entrepreneurs[27].

There also seems to be a tendency towards choosing people with prior volunteering experience. In addition to the general criteria, the National Youth Service programme requires that entrants are in possession of a matriculation (school-leaving) certificate, unemployed and that they fall

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[27] Focus group discussant Xolile Caga from the National Business Initiative

into one of its four target groups[28] which include higher education students; further education and training students; unemployed young people; and young people in conflict with the law. Furthermore, City Year South Africa requires that servers must be South African citizens, have a matriculation qualification, have no criminal record, and be able to communicate in English.

Overall, most respondents indicated that the rate of drop-out is very low – lower than 10% in most instances. However, that drop-out rate varies from one programme to another, and may be related to the circumstances of the participants rather than to the programme itself. For example, the drop-out rate was higher in the Department of Social Development's youth employment programme than in the Department of Health's home based care programme. It transpired that this was largely due to the fact that the Department of Health was paying a higher stipend (up to R1 000 per month)[29]. For this reason, the Department of Social Development has submitted a memorandum to Cabinet requesting an increase in the stipend offered in its programmes.

The request to Cabinet is significant in two respects: firstly it suggests that there is a growing demand for young people who are willing to serve in community-based programmes on the basis of a stipend. The growing demand creates some sort of competition in the field even between government departments. Secondly it highlights the lack of common policy guidelines within the public sector for the use volunteers.

Our secondary data point to another aspect of programme attrition where the drop-out rate is often exacerbated by emotional stress. This phenomenon has manifested itself in the home and community-based care programmes where stress is often caused by the context of severe illness and death in which HCBC volunteers serve (Department of Social Development, 2005). This trend is also observed among volunteers in the field of HIV and AIDS. An environmental scan of volunteer-involving organisations in the field of HIV and AIDS in South Africa has found that working with people with HIV and AIDS make some volunteers "get depressed and disappear" (VOSESA 2005).

The incentive structures of service and volunteer programmes in South Africa vary according to different organisations. Nevertheless, most service programmes include the following elements in their incentive structure:
- a retainer strategy;
- an exit opportunity; and
- the opportunity to acquire a qualification[30].

Stipends are used fairly widely, particularly in service programmes, but can be difficult to manage. The respondents emphasise that in some cases, "*young people see it as wages*"[31]. There are also significant variations in terms of the amounts paid out. Data from the sample show that stipends range from R500 to R1 000 per month. It is not clear why the rates differ so much, especially since the stipend is meant to cover subsistence and transport to and from the site of service. However, it is important to note that young people from poor sectors are under immense pressure to contribute to the running of their households. In a focus group discussion, a respondent commented that "*even their families see this* [the stipend] *as a salary*"[32].

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[28] Interview with Sello More, the National Youth Commission
[29] Interview with Mzwandile Radebe, Department of Social Development
[30] Interview with Sello More, the National Youth Commission
[31] Focus Group discussion
[32] Focus Group discussion

On the positive side, stipends provide an important and tangible means of valuing the inputs of volunteers, and appear to be an important incentive for the retention of trained caregivers. Stipends also offer a channel for poverty alleviation among volunteers from the poorest communities.

Beside the stipends, the data produced evidence of other forms of incentives. City Year South Africa, for example, offers a stipend of R600 per month as well as a transport subsidy that supports the travel to and from the programme, and a free full uniform. Servers with City Year South Africa are trained to work in schools and communities through the University of the Witwatersrand. In addition to that, servers who complete the full programme receive a bursary/post-service award to the value of R6 000 in order to pursue further education or entrepreneurial opportunities. Furthermore, service leaders at City Year South Africa receive a national Certificate in Development Practice from the ETDP SETA[33]. Skills gained by the servers include project management, facilitating learning, communication and budgeting.

Other incentives such as capacity building and training, uniforms, certificates, etc may thus be considered in lieu of or in addition to monetary incentives. In the National Business Initiative's mentoring programme for young entrepreneurs, participants are acknowledged through gifts and certificates, but do not receive any money[34]. Incentives also include work experience, free education and training, the opportunity to gain a skill, and the provision of a travel allowance[35].

Exit opportunities are important incentives and are increasingly becoming a feature of high-quality service programmes that look beyond the period of service in a context of unemployment, particularly for young people. However, the structuring of exit opportunities requires careful research and requires an alignment between the content of the service programme and the opportunities for employment or self-employment identified in the wider environment (Department of Social Development, 2005). This complexity is one of the reasons that most respondents felt that exit opportunities from service programmes are not sufficiently clearly structured or implemented. Nevertheless, respondents also acknowledged that graduation from service programmes does not guarantee instant employment, and this in itself underlines the importance of further support being provided to service programme participants in respect of further learning, employment or entrepreneurial opportunities.

The data thus indicate that there are a number of challenges associated with incentives. As noted earlier, some programmes lose participants to other programmes that pay higher stipends. Furthermore, the payment of stipends can lead to a sense of permanence and entitlement, which eventually translates into demands for formal salaried posts. This may be difficult to resist, but equally difficult to sustain in the face of fluctuating and uncertain funding streams.

4.7 Programme Administration

Data from this study show that service programmes are mainly shaped at the national level and implemented by local service providers. As a policy formulation and lobbying structure, the National Youth Commission is a major player in the national youth service programme. It does so through the provision of youth development guidelines used by the various government

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[33] The ETDP SETA is an education qualifications authority for the education, training and development sector
[34] Focus group discussant Clayton Lillienfeldt from City Year
[35] Interview with Busani Ngcaweni, National Youth Service Unit

departments, engaging a wide range of stakeholders in consultation processes that lead to design and implementation of programmes. Through the National Youth Service Unit, service providers, provincial and municipal authorities are engaged to deliver youth service programmes of varying types according to the youth service model. As described in section 2.7 above, the NYSU develops guidelines and manuals to support the identification, design and implementation of youth service projects, and trains and registers technical advisors who support organisations implementing national youth service projects. It also trains and registers programme institutional assessors who evaluate the quality of projects and recommend registration or capacity building.

Service providers such as NGOs and CBOs are contracted to implement service programmes since their proximity to local communities places them in a strong position to deliver the services appropriately. However, smaller CBOs experience a huge challenge in relation to their lack of capacity[36]. In the Western Cape and Gauteng, for example, CBOs are dominant, yet they lack the capacity required to deliver sustained service programmes. The Department of Social Development has a service standard assessment of providers delivering services. The Department also assists in building the capacity building of civic organisations through control systems such as regular financial and progress reports[37].

Funding for service and volunteering programmes in South Africa comes from a range of sources. These include government departments, the private sector and international donors. For example, all national youth service programmes registered with the National Youth Service Unit are partially funded by the Umsobomvu Youth Fund.

In addition, secondary data indicates that there is an emerging collaboration between the government and organisations of civil society, particularly in programmes that deal with HIV and AIDS. Despite the lack of clear policy guidelines regarding volunteer involvement, a number of government departments rely on the services of the volunteers and volunteer-involving organisations to advance their work in the field. For example, the Department of Health assists civil society organisations working in this field by:
- providing financial support in the form of stipends for volunteers;
- providing the "Care for the Carer" support programme which targets volunteers who provide counselling to children, families and individuals affected and infected by HIV and AIDS; and
- mentoring community-based organisations to increase the sustainability of their organisational structures and skills (VOSESA 2005).

Some funding is linked to ties that individual organisations have with international donors. For example, the Soweto Home-based Care project receives funding from the Canadian High Commission for the training of its volunteers.

4.8 Factors Promoting or Hindering Service and Volunteering

The data sourced in this study suggest that civic service and volunteering programmes are growing in South Africa in both public and private sectors. According to the respondents in this study, some of the underpinning factors for the growth of service and volunteering include a growing awareness among communities of the concept of volunteering and the South African government's strong emphasis on development which brings with it the potential to encourage

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[36] Interview with Sello More from the National Youth Commission
[37] Interview with Mzandile Radebe from the Department of Social Development

more volunteering At the same time, the inability of the education system to equip school-leavers with sufficient skills for employment (identified in section 1.3 above), functions as a significant driver for participation in service and volunteering and this is supported by the interview data. For example a key informant commented that:

> "young people are so hungry to get into the programmes that will help them develop and enhance their skills"[38]

However, respondents also identified several factors as hindrances to service and volunteering in the country. These include lack of sufficient resources. According to an official in the National Youth Commission:

> "contrary to what people see as high allocation [of resources] to the [National Youth] Commission, it is mainly for administration… there is little in terms of programmes. [39]

Furthermore, it is argued that young people have lost the spirit that was prevailing among youth during the struggle against apartheid. A key informant indicated that:

> "young people …have lost the spirit once possessed by the youth of the 70s and 80s"[40]

Other difficulties faced by volunteers include the constraints of poverty and high unemployment as well as perceptions (among men) that volunteering is for women. The stigma surrounding the HIV and AID pandemic also discourages volunteers from getting involved, or if they do, preliminary research shows that high stress levels caused by working closely with terminally ill people may lead to volunteers dropping out of home and community-based care support programmes.

The data suggest that while South Africa features a widely diverse voluntary sector, much of the volunteering tends to function independently. An official in the Department of Social Development expressed frustration by saying:

> "we have worked with VOLSA [Volunteer Southern Africa] … now it has collapsed and SASVO is in the process of closing down. There isn't any one to work with … no one advocating strongly….organizations are closing down"[41]

This could suggest that the volunteer sector lacks the cohesiveness to strengthen its collective impact; it may also suggest that more co-ordination within the voluntary sector could facilitate better resource flows from government in support of volunteer training and management. However, more thought is required as to whether increased co-ordination is likely to strengthen or constrain volunteering. It may be that flexibility and diversity in volunteering outweighs sectoral streamlining in that it provides more opportunities for people to get involved as and when volunteering works for them.

4.9 Regional Collaboration

The respondents in this study emphasised that regional collaboration in service and volunteering is important for regional development and growth. The achievement of regional integration, the eradication of poverty and reaching high levels of social and human development in the region, are the key objectives of the Southern African Development

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[38] Interview with Clayton Lillienfeldt from City Year South Africa
[39] Interview with Sello More, National Youth Commission
[40] Interview with Sello More, the National Youth Commission
[41] Interview with Mzwandile Radebe, Department of Social Development.

Community (SADC). The driver for the achievement of these objectives is the Regional Indicative Strategic Development Plan (RISDP), which focuses on a number of priority intervention areas. They include cross-sectoral intervention for poverty alleviation; combating HIV and AIDS; environment and sustainable development; and sustainable food security. The realisation of these objectives requires the mobilisation of all resources available to the region as a whole as well as within individual member states.

Civic service and volunteering in SADC can make a significant difference to SADC's drive for development and regional integration. A growing body of evidence in the region and internationally shows that civic service and volunteering can play a significant role in each of the priority areas that SADC has identified. For example, volunteering is being used as a strategy to address human capacity gaps in SADC. In recent years the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) has launched an initiative known as the Southern Africa Capacity Initiative (SACI) to address the erosion of productive capacity (caused primarily by HIV and AIDS), as well as brain drain and recurring disasters in the region. The initiative aims to provide schemes and a framework that will promote the use of volunteering as a tool for governments to mobilise and tap into the talent of professionals both at home and in the diaspora to enable the region to deal with its human resources crisis. (Oba 2005)

The development of a knowledge base on civic service and volunteering in the region is also in line with the provisions of the SADC Protocol on Culture, Information and Sport[42], which acknowledges the significant role of information as a prerequisite for political, social, economic and cultural development. The protocol calls on SADC member states to "cooperate in the creation of media for the dissemination of data and encourage information dissemination and sharing through networking of agencies in the region". It also calls on member states "to strengthen research capacities ….and support regional collaborative research by allocating necessary resources to the relevant research and training institutions".

SADC needs knowledge centres that understand its historical and cultural contexts as well as its development trajectory. According to Munetsi Madakufamba, Deputy Director of the Southern African Research and Documentation Centre, SADC "needs knowledge centres that can provide alternative analysis – alternative in the sense that the knowledge produced is from a regional perspective. …the region needs to produce its own development statistics and indicators and rely less on data generated by northern institutions, which is often extrapolated or based on wrong context" (Madakufamba 2006).

For all these reasons, closer contacts between partner organisations and institutions must be established in order to widen the scope of research on civic service and volunteering in the SADC region, and to inform policy and practice that contributes to the objectives of the Regional Indicative Strategic Development Plan. For example, a recent study by the European Volunteer Centre found that in the EU region, volunteering can contribute to regional integration. The findings show that by fostering an engagement between migrants and host communities in EU countries, volunteering contributes to a two-way process of regional integration. It makes the contributions of emigrants visible to host communities, creates an opportunity for mutual learning, extends the education of migrants and increases their employability. The study found that in the European Union, volunteering thus provides an excellent means of promoting interaction between migrants and citizens of Member States. Given the high levels of migration within the SADC region, volunteering and civic service are strategies that have great potential to

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42 The protocol was signed at Balntyre , Malawi , on 14th of August 2001 by heads of states or governments of SADC Member States

contribute to regional integration in SADC, and to deal with specific challenges such as xenophobia.

The respondents in this study indicated that closer regional collaboration can be achieved through sharing practices about what has worked or not worked in different environments and why. Besides the SADC Secretariat, structures such the NEPAD Youth Desk and the African Union Interministerial Forum for Youth are also seen as potential forums to facilitate collaboration in this field.

4.10 Future Research Agenda

Participants in this study suggested the following topics for future research:
• The relationship between volunteering, service and future success in learning and work.
• Conditions of volunteers: casualisation and exploitation; impact of the South African labour laws on volunteering.
• How to work with volunteers especially in the face of unemployment.
• How to market volunteering.
• Document southern African and African experiences.
• How can volunteers be used to transform our economy?
• To what extent does service contribute to social cohesion and regional awareness?

Section Five: Conclusions and Recommendations

In this section conclusions about civic service and volunteering in South Africa will be presented. Attention will be focused on the meaning of service and volunteering in South Africa, the different forms of service programmes, and the various players involved in the field of service and volunteering in the country and their roles.

This study has revealed that the concept of civic service in South Africa refers broadly to citizens' action to promote the public good, which extends beyond the family to benefit local communities and the country as a whole. There are variations in the nature of service, which can therefore be seen as part of a continuum – from totally voluntary involvement with no compensation, to the provision of a service with some form of compensation being received in the form of a stipend or other benefit (such as training, and access to future learning or employment opportunities). Service in South Africa is formally and informally facilitated by government in partnership with civil society and private sector organisations.

Political history and culture have had significant influences on civic service and volunteering in South Africa. During apartheid, the notion of national service was associated with the compulsory military service for young South African white males. At the same time, the struggle for freedom from oppression provided a context for citizen activism. The mass social movements played a leading role in facilitating social change in South Africa. In addition, volunteering in South Africa is based on the ideals of community solidarity and the philosophy of *ubuntu.* This facilitates social cohesion and participation which strengthens democracy in the country.

While volunteering programmes abound in South Africa, the focus of this study was on the emerging phenomenon of structured service programmes. The study demonstrates that in contemporary South Africa, service programmes are growing in range and number, fostered by the policy framework that has been put in place in the new democracy since 1994. These respond to government's transformation agenda and are operated by a wide variety of agencies: government departments, civil society organisations responding to unmet community needs, as well as private sector organisations. In this sense, service programmes operate within a national ambit, but seek to respond to local issues in a differentiated manner. The data show that most of the service programmes are relatively new, associated as they are with the new democratic dispensation, while the volunteering programmes tend to have a longer history.

At the policy level, it is interesting to note that the government is increasing its support for youth service programmes in particular. Policy frameworks and institutional arrangements for national youth service programmes, youth volunteering, community service for health professionals, and community service in higher education institutions and schools are in place. However, the implementation of these programmes varies considerably. Community service for health professionals has achieved a significant contribution in the health sector. National youth service and community engagement programmes in higher education institutions are showing some success. In the meantime, the youth volunteering programme and school community service are in their infancy. In addition to these, there is the home and community-based care programme, which is mostly a partnership between the government and community-based organisations.

The study has also shown that service programmes in South Africa involve government, civil society organisations and to some extent the corporate sector, all playing different roles. Government is mostly involved in providing policy frameworks, resources, and partially in implementation, particularly in the field of home and community based care. Civil society organisations are typically involved in implementation. The corporate sector uses different methods to encourage employee volunteering. These include taking time off, and matched-giving and internal award programmes that honour those who make exceptional contributions through volunteering.

The goals of the service programmes are generally two-fold: rendering service to communities in need and at the same time developing the servers in respect of their understanding of the communities in which they work, their practical skills and their life skills. The study suggests that among young school leavers, national youth service may be filling a gap that is presently created by an education system unable to provide young people with the skills needed for employment.

In addition, international volunteer programmes play a significant role in providing skilled and experienced personnel to development programmes in various parts of the country.

Service and volunteering programmes in South Africa are mostly found in the following sectors: health, social development and education, environment, construction and agriculture. With the exception of the community service for health professionals and service-learning courses in universities, service programmes are generally voluntary in nature. The motives for participation in these programmes are mainly altruistic although people are also motivated by self-interest such as providing or caring for others in order to be assured of receiving similar care in the future when it might personally be needed. Self-interest is particularly pertinent in the case of youth service and volunteering as participants hope *inter alia* to enhance their skills, gain opportunities and get experience that will facilitate future learning and employment prospects.

In the light of this study, we can safely say that civic service and volunteering programmes are growing in South Africa. The large structured service programmes (such as national youth service programmes or community service for health professionals) are attracting the skills and resources required to administer their complex designs. Outside the large organisations (including voluntary organisations such as the Red Cross or Child Welfare), the growth of community-based voluntary service will be constrained by challenges such as lack of opportunities to develop volunteer management capacity, the absence of a comprehensive volunteer policy, underdeveloped volunteer infrastructure and insufficient funding. The growth of the sector is mainly driven by social need, unemployment (particularly among youth) and, government policies that focus on national development.

The study has identified the importance of increasing the scope of research that aims at promoting voluntary service in South Africa as well as in the SADC region, and the importance of fostering wider regional collaboration in order to promote the integration of voluntary service in regional policy and practice.

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Appendices

Appendix 1: List of Interviewees

	Name	Organisation	Type of Organisation
1	Denise Hunt	groundBREAKERS	NGO
2	Mzwandile Radebe	Department of Social Development	National government department
3	Kaelo Sedumedi	Department of Public Works, Gauteng	Provincial government department
4	Busani Ncgaweni	National Youth Service Unit	State institution
5	Sello More	National Youth Commission	State institution
6	Lesleigh Timothy	Junior Achievement SA	NGO
7	Clayton Lillienfeldt	City Year	NGO
8	Loyiso Ntshikila	Joint Enrichment Programme	NGO

Appendix 2: List of Participants in the Focus Groups

	Name	Organisation	Type of organisation
1	Xolile Caga	National Business Initiative	NGO
2	Mfanafuthi Khanyile	Eco-City	NGO
3	Catherine Nyakato	People Opposing Women Abuse	NGO
4	Mabel Letlabi	Soweto Home-based Care	CBO
5	Nthombahlanga Mqushulu	Ashoka	NGO
6	Steve Corry	17th Shaft	NGO

Appendix 3: South Africa Human Development Statistics, 2005

South Africa Human Development Statistics 2005	
South Africa HDI Rank	120 Medium Human Development
Human Development Index (HDI) value 2003	0.658
Life expectancy at birth (years)(HDI) 2003 (a)	48.4
Adult Literacy rate (%ages 15 and above) (HDI) 2003 (b)	82.4 (e)
Combined gross enrolment rate for primary secondary and tertiary schools (%) 2002-2003 (c)	78 (f)
GDP per capita (PPP US$) (HDI) 2003	10,346 (g)
Life expectancy index	0.39
Education index	0.81
GDP index	0.77
Human poverty index (HPI-1) Value and Rank	30.9 and 56
Adult illiteracy rate (% ages 15 and above) 2003 (d)	17.6 (h)

Source: Adopted from UNDP Human Development Report 2005 South Africa Statistics

Aggregates for Education Index are based on aggregates of gross enrolment data calculated by the UNESCO Institute for Statistics and literacy data as used to calculate the HDI.

Notes:

a. The HDI rank is determined using HDI values to the fifth decimal point.

b. Data refer to national literacy estimates from censuses or surveys conducted between 2000 and 2004, unless otherwise noted. Due to differences in methodology and timeliness of underlying data, comparisons across countries and over time should be made with caution. For more details, see http://www.uis.unesco.org/ev.php?ID=4930_201&ID2=DO_TOPIC.

c. Data refer to the school year 2002/03, unless otherwise noted. Data for some countries may refer to national or UNESCO Institute for Statistics estimates.

d. Data refer to national literacy estimates from censuses or surveys conducted between 2000 and 2004, unless otherwise noted. Due to differences in methodology and timeliness of underlying data, comparisons across countries and over time should be made with caution. For more details, see http://www.uis.unesco.org/ev.php?ID=4930_201&ID2=DO_TOPIC.

e. Data refer to a year between 1995 and 1999.

f. Preliminary UNESCO Institute for Statistics estimate, subject to further revision.

g. Estimate based on regression.

h. Data refer to a year between 1995 and 1999.

Source:

row 2:calculated on the basis of data in row 6-8 of table 1 (HDR 2005); see technical note 1 for details.
row 3:UN (United Nations). 2005. Correspondence on life expectancy at birth. Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division. New York, unless otherwise noted.
row 4:UNESCO Institute for Statistics (United National Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization). 2005. Correspondence on adult and youth literacy rates. April. Montreal, unless otherwise noted.
row 5:UNESCO Institute for Statistics. 2005. Correspondence on gross, net enrolment ratios and survival rate to grade 5. May. Montreal, unless otherwise noted; aggregates calculated for the Human Development Report Office by the UNESCO Institute for Statistics.
row 6:World Bank. 2005. World Development Indicators 2005. CD-ROM. Washington, DC., unless otherwise noted; aggregates calculated for the Human Development Report Office by the World Bank.

row 7:calculated on the basis of data in colum 2 of Table 1 (HDR 2005).

row 8:calculated on the basis of data in columns 4 and 5 of Table 1 (HDR 2005).

row 9:calculated on the basis of data in column 5 of Table 1 (HDR 2005).

row 10:determined on the basis of the HPI-1 values in colum 2 of Table 2 (HDR 2005, p.221).
row 11:calculated on the basis of data on adult literacy from UNESCO Institute for Statistics. 2005. Correspondence on adult and youth literacy rates. April. Montreal.