Volunteers in Danish NGDOs
A Case Study of IBIS and Genvej til Udvikling

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Introduction

The so-called Third World has been the subject of much concern due to the predominant presence of poverty and hunger, and the people living in these countries are often denied access to basic human rights, such as education and inclusion in political processes (United Nations Human Rights, n.d.). The inequality of world living conditions is illustrated as almost 50% of the world’s population live in poverty (Global Issues, 2013), and “98% of the world’s undernourished people live in developing countries” (The hunger project, n.d.). On the one hand, there may be a general knowledge of these issues, and the developed countries’ population may sympathise with the people who suffer under these conditions. On the other hand, what is actually being contributed to generate development? Some of the actors that are actively involved in changing these conditions and bringing development to Third World countries are NGDOs. However, few people have an in-depth understanding of what these organisations do and how government funded aid is delivered.

Development work has not always been a given. It was not until after the Second World War that Denmark actively engaged in monetary support to developing countries. However, what may have been a tentative beginning has since grown to be a rather extensive enterprise (Danida, n.d. A). Today Denmark is considered in the top league of development aid providers, both in relation to quality and the extent to which fund is given. Denmark has a tradition of devoting a certain percentage of its GNI to development aid, which in 2012 amounted to DDK 15.59 bn. (Danida, n.d. B).

The primary means by which Denmark operate is through the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, and the Danish development aid is administered by Danida, which is an independent agency within the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. This agency is responsible for contemplating, executing, and quality assuring the Danish development aid projects (Danida, n.d. C). The work of Danida is focussed on helping the most underprivileged countries, where the needs are greatest (Danida, n.d. D). Danida collaborates with a number of Danish NGDOs, through which some of their development aid is channelled. The Danish NGDOs are trusted a considerable amount of the Danida funds, which in 2012 amounted to DKK 1.05bn for development activities (Danida, n.d. E).

By collaborating with Danish NGDOs, Danida attempts to engage and incorporate the public in development work. According to the Danida strategy, NGDOs are useful actors in this respect because they are able to create a link between the government and society at large (Danida, 2011). They are able to involve the public due to NGDOs being characterised by civil and voluntary
participation (Lorentzen, 2010). Roots in the Danish community is an essential value for receiving Danida funds, and ties to the public are for example measured through the level of voluntary participation within the organisation (Danida, 2011).

Furthermore, Danida wishes to involve a broad spectre of diverse organisations, ranging from large national organisations to small local organisations (Danida, 2011; Christensen & Molin, 1995). As organisations can be very different, they can also offer very different roles to the volunteers: In some organisations, the volunteers make up an essential part of the human resources, whereas in other organisations the volunteers perform a supporting role to the professional employees. Though the act of volunteering is not a new invention, these actions have become more visible in society and “is rapidly recognized [by many governments] as the glue that helps hold societies together and as an additional resource of use in solving social and community problems” (Hodgkinson, 2003). Hence the relevance of exploring how volunteerism contribute to the achievement of the development goals of Denmark.

This relevance is based on the believes of Danida, which suggests that it is a strength to have strong public ties through the involvement of volunteers. Therefore, this project wishes to investigate whether a large involvement of volunteers is an asset in relation to the aim of development by looking at two different practices of development work. This is illustrated by investigating two different Danish NGDOs: IBIS, which is primarily run by employees, and Genvej til Udvikling, which is primarily run by volunteers. These organisations represent different approaches to development work and voluntary participation, which may affect the work of the organisations.
Problem Formulation

This project will therefore investigate what it means for an NGDO to be primarily run by volunteers or primarily run by paid employees. Which elements come into play, and how do these affect the work of the organisation and its goal of development in the Third World? On that note, what role does the volunteers play within the organisation, and how do they contribute to the Danish development sector, as well as the overall aim of development?

What is an NGDO?

The term NGDO is an abbreviation for Non-Governmental Development Organisation, also sometimes called a development NGO. The work of NGDOs stems from the belief that the reasons for poverty are structural and that the best way to prevent poverty and disasters is through development initiatives. It is also a common understanding among NGDOs that the eradication of poverty requires more than humanitarian aid. This understanding does, however, have a relatively short history. The development field that addresses the reasons for poverty and ways to eradicate it was initially launched by the US president Truman in the 1949, and most of the UN agencies that addresses development came into being at this time. However, it was not until the 1960s and 1970s that many of today’s well-known foreign aid organisations either converted to development aid or at least had their eyes opened to this kind of aid (Eade, 2000).

In order to make sense of what the term NGDO means, it is important to know what defines and characterises an NGO and what classifies an NGO as an NGDO. However, what seems to be a relatively simple task is complicated by what David Lewis (2003) describes as a “terminological and conceptual confusion”, which is caused by overlapping concepts and different perceptions by scholars that contribute to blurry or contradictive distinctions. It is, however, possible to make some sense of NGOs by looking at the terms that are often used in relation to the field, such as ‘non-governmental’ and ‘non-profit’. These characteristics situates the sector in which NGOs operate, which is somewhere between the state sector and the market sector, without being directly connected to any of the two. Therefore, this space is often referred to as the third sector (Lewis, 2003).
Some scholars view the term NGO as an umbrella term that describes all the organisations within the third sector. However, there is disagreement among scholars whether or not the focus on development should be incorporated directly into the definition of NGOs, meaning that there would be no distinction between NGOs and NGDOs. Such a definition would place NGOs as a sub-group within the third sector (Lewis, 2003) rather than using NGO as a general term that applies to all organisations in this sector.

The two scholars Lester Salomon and Helmut Anheier (1997) acknowledge that there are disagreements in the literature concerning NGOs, hence they have tried to develop five key characteristics that are shared by the organisations that operate in the non-profit sector. Thereby these characteristics should also apply to NGDOs and can be used as a basic definition that leaves room open for different views and interpretations (Salamon and Anheier, 1997; Lewis 2003). The characteristics are as follows:

- They are organized, i.e., they possess some institutional reality.
- They are private, i.e., institutionally separate from government.
- They are non-profit-distributing, i.e., not returning any profits generated to their owners or directors.
- They are self-governing, i.e., equipped to control their own activities.
- They are voluntary, at least in part, i.e., they involve some meaningful degree of voluntary participation, either in the actual conduct of the agency's activities or in the management of its affairs. (Salamon & Anheier, 1997).

Some of these characteristics are repeated in the definition suggested by Anna Vakil (1997) who views NGOs as “self-governing, private, not for-profit organizations that are geared to improving the quality of life of disadvantaged people”. This may be interpreted as a return to the view that suggests, at least to some degree, that development is a defining feature of NGOs. Nonetheless, whether or not the goal of development and poverty reduction is incorporated into the term NGO is less relevant to this project, where the term NGDO clearly marks out a special kind of NGOs that deal with different kinds of development aid.

This project therefore views NGDOs as NGOs that perform development aid in Third World countries and agrees with Lewis when he states that “Development NGOs’[sic] can therefore be understood as a specialized sub-group of third sector organizations which share a set of common structural and motivational elements with the wider third sector, but which have distinctive, shared
concerns with development and poverty reduction” (Lewis, 2003). NGDOs often focus on projects that will create development and growth, which will lead to reduced poverty in Third World countries. This is different from the projects of humanitarian organisations that are temporary and cover an urgent need. Development organisations aims to find solutions that are not just temporary. Thus, NGDOs distinguish themselves by performing long-term relief as opposed to emergency relief. The goal to reduce poverty and raise living standards in the Third World can be approached through different means, hence the field of development aid includes various activities and projects that for example deal with economics, education, sustainability, health issues and human rights issues (Eade, 2000). The non-profit sector consists of organisations that specialise in either one or both of the two kinds of foreign aid. However, this project focuses on organisations that mainly perform development aid and therefore can be defined as NGDOs.

Volunteerism

When exploring volunteerism it may be useful to define what the word means. The online Oxford English Dictionary appears to define volunteerism in terms of the military and social service areas where volunteers should be the main driving factor (Oxford English Dictionary, 2013). It does not, to the same extent however, define volunteerism and volunteers in the way that it is most commonly understood – or at least the Danish “common language” definition of volunteerism – which is the understanding that individuals or groups of individuals willingly, and usually without pay, engages in an organised activity or cause which they believe to be worthwhile. In fact, the word ‘frivillighed’ (volunteerism) does not feature in either of the two Danish dictionaries Politikens Retskrivnings- og Betydningsorbog or Politikens Nudansk Ordbog, which could be an expression of volunteerism as a concept being a relatively new invention in Denmark, though the act of volunteering is not.

The definition of volunteering have developed through time, from initially referring to the act of willingly serving the military, to a term used on a daily basis about people delivering aid or accepting an obligation voluntarily (Duguid & Schugurensky, 2013). In relation to NGDOs, it is relevant to explore the concept of volunteerism, as this is a global phenomenon since people around the world are devoting their time and energy to help as volunteers (Snyder & Omoto, 2008).
Louis A. Penner (2002) defines volunteerism as “long-term, planned, pro-social behaviours that benefit strangers and occur within an organisational setting”. Additionally, Snyder and Omoto present six characteristic features when conceptualising volunteerism, substantiating the description by Penner. The six characteristics are:

1. The acts of a volunteer must be voluntary, and without connotation to obligation or oppression.
2. Volunteering should be a deliberate act and involve an amount of consideration.
3. Volunteer activities are not based on one-time events, but on activities with longer time duration.
4. Personal motives of receiving pay or avoiding punishment precludes the act of volunteering.
5. The services provided by volunteers should be wanted and accepted by the recipients, thus “volunteering involves serving people or causes who desire help”.
6. Volunteerism comprises social acts in the interest of people or causes and is performed through organisations. (Snyder & Omoto, 2008).

Based on these characteristics, Snyder and Omoto define volunteer-work as consisting of “freely chosen and deliberate helping activities that extend over time, are engaged in without expectation of reward or other compensation and often through formal organizations, and that are performed on behalf of causes or individuals who desire assistance” (Snyder & Omoto, 2008).

*Why do people volunteer?*

The reasons for volunteering are very heterogeneous, although some tendencies can be presented in relation to the aim of volunteering. Motivations for volunteering can according to Duguid and Schugurensky (2013) be divided into a distinction between the “old” and the “new” type of volunteering. The old comprises long-term commitments and regular volunteer work, whereas the new is more episodic, with volunteers only engaging in short and occasional tasks. The classic volunteer is regarded as more idealistic, altruistic and putting the organisation first, in contrast to the “new” volunteer who is more pragmatic and tends to make a cost-benefit analysis before volunteering (Duguid & Schugurensky, 2013). Such an approach is often used in connection to voluntarism tourism advertisements that for example points out the opportunity of making new friends and experiencing a different culture from within while feeling good about yourself, knowing
that you are doing something worthwhile (Lacey & Ilcan, 2006; Kilroy, n.d.). Here the assumed benefits and experiences that the volunteer obtain through their effort outweigh the time donated.

Who volunteers?
The meaning of volunteerism varies across countries and cultures. It varies if getting involved in societal problems is seen as a matter of personal choice/responsibility (individualistic orientation), or as a normative obligation and a collective concern (collectivistic orientation) (Snyder & Omoto, 2008). As a group, volunteers are very heterogeneous and it is therefore not the aim of this section to present some definition of a volunteer prototype. Yet, as a group, volunteers consists of people of all ages, with different backgrounds, skills and expertise, and the kind of work they do is dependent on the type of organisation in which they volunteer. Volunteering involves some level of altruism, although many people volunteer for personal gain, at least partially. The numbers of hours devoted differ from case to case since some may donate their time to a project for the common good; others are more continuously involved in an organisation (Bussell & Forbes, 2001).
The stability or instability of volunteers, especially if an organisation is primarily run by volunteers, could therefore have some impact on what is being done, how effectively projects are launched, and how successful the organisation will be in achieving its goal for the project.

Research Design and Method
The process of this research project was initiated by choosing a topic, which was development organisations. Next existing literature and research of this topic was explored and at this point in the process it became evident that narrowing down the topic of research was essential due to the extensiveness of the NGO field, and Danish development organisations became the focus. The ‘case study’ research design was selected, allowing an in-depth investigation of individual cases. Thus, the style of the research was of an inductive logic (De Vaus, 2001), as few observations should build a general understanding of the chosen topic. Furthermore, this approach was applied in order to approach the organisations with a *tabula rasa*, and thereby prevent the project from being steered by pre-existing theories and assumptions. This led to the problem formulation, which presents the focus of the project, namely volunteers in two Danish NGDOs. Moreover, the research question is of a descriptive form, as it focuses on “what is going on”, rather than seeking to explain “why is it going on”. However, this does not exclude reflections of the findings as the *what* questions are
necessarily followed by elaborative interpretations and reflections, which denotes the *why* perspective. Nonetheless, this project took its starting point in the descriptive research questions, as it is known to contribute to knowledge of our society, in this case the role of volunteers in contrast to employees in Danish NGDOs and the Danish development work (De Vaus, 2001).

The two organisations, IBIS and Genvej til Udvikling (GtU), were selected as case studies out of a number of Danish NGDOs, notably due to their differences, by which the diversity among Danish NGDOs would be presented. The differences were foremost present in the organisations’ size and respective involvement of volunteers. Although this project does not aim to favour one form of organisation over the other, an in-depth investigation of each case study should facilitate a more general conclusion on the use of volunteers.

Research design is the fundament for knowing what data is required in order to answer the research questions (De Vaus, 2001). De Vaus states how “too often researchers design questionnaires or begin interviewing far too early – before thinking through what information they require to answer their research question” (De Vaus, 2001). Unfortunately the research process of this project made that error, which is reflected in the collected data. This research error was made in relation to the interview of Jørgen Olsen, the coordinator of GtU, which was conducted before a clear focus had been obtained. This caused an unnecessary long transcript, which arguably could have been shorter and more concise, had the interview been conducted later in the research process.

The method by which the empirical data was collected presents the qualitative method, which aim to gather an in-depth understanding of human behavior and the reasons that govern such behavior. In this research, the qualitative method presents specifically the qualitative types of interview and text analysis (De Vaus, 2001). Hence, the empirical data for answering the research question was constituted by interview transcripts, books, and documents from the respective homepages. The material was selected on criteria of entailing authenticity, credibility and representatives. The applied qualitative method entails difficulties by generating a large database, due to the reliance on text in various forms, without having a specific analytical path (Bryman, 2008). Another difficulty this project encountered was that there was not a lot of information about the IBIS volunteers on the IBIS webpage, and email correspondance has thus been a necessity. Though some information has been obtained this way, some emails have been left unanswered which means that other information has not been obtained.
The aforementioned research error represents a critical aspect of the research process and leads to the subject of delimitations. The empirical data for the two case studies is diverse, as an interview was conducted in relation to GtU, and text analysis has been the basis for researching IBIS. One of the implications of not having conducted an interview for both organisations is that the interview is context specific whereas the literature on IBIS’ homepage is not dependent on this specific research, which is something to consider when analysing the empirical data (Bryman, 2012). Because the selected data is written in diverse contexts, the process of selecting relevant data is essential. Moreover, the project could have benefitted from similar material for both case studies, thus if resources had allowed it, an interview of both case studies would be preferable. However, what is common for the different qualitative material is the interpretative approach that should be adopted. The interpretative approach entails a consideration of both the context and subjective attitudes, which is especially relevant in relation to the interview (De Vaus, 2001).

The consideration for context and subject’s attitudes is important in the interview of Jørgen Olsen, as the interview functioned as a supplement to the information available at the organisations’ homepage. Thus, the purpose with the interview was to obtain additional information. Moreover, ethical considerations are important in qualitative research, due to its potentially direct inclusion of individuals. On that note, it is the researchers’ responsibility to ensure that “participants are not harmed, privacy is maintained, and the participants have provided informed consent” (Lichtman, 2013). In order to uphold this role, the participant was presented with the interview rules, offering anonymity and confidentiality.

Validity and Reliability
Validity concerns the integrity of the results, i.e. if the research design enables unambiguous conclusions to be drawn from the results (De Vaus, 2001). The credibility of the results of this project is supported through the combination of considering which data to incorporate and by investigating two different functions of volunteers. Furthermore, the role of the volunteers was investigated through different elements of the organisation, in relation to the effectiveness of the organisation. Volunteerism was thus illuminated from different sides, which strengthens the validity of the results. However, one should acknowledge the interpretative approach of the qualitative method, which may give rise to different results due to individual interpretations (Bryman, 2012).

Another aspect of the qualitative method to consider is the process of collecting data, which entails a degree of purposeful selection. This is a relevant aspect in evaluating the reliability of the project. Reliability comprises the degree to which the research is repeatable with the same results.
Because the interview and the GtU webpage is in Danish, certain language competencies are required in order to repeat the exact same research. If the same qualitative data is available, the research can be considered to uphold reliability, and any changes in results may reflect real societal changes (De Vaus, 2001).

**IBIS**

**Introduction to IBIS**

IBIS is an independent, Danish development organisation, which derives from the international organisation World University Service (WUS). WUS was founded in the early 1920s, with a large involvement in social activities for students in Europe. However, in the 1960s the work of the organisation was expanded to support developmental projects in the Third World. On the 3rd November 1966 the Danish WUS was founded as a branch of the National Union of Danish Students (DSF) (IBIS, n.d. C). The desire to increase the involvement in international political work arose, and the Danish WUS established itself as an independent organisation in 1970, but continued the cooperation with WUS International in supporting the Third World. The detachment from WUS was complete in 1991, when the process of changing the name to IBIS was final (IBIS, n.d. C).

Although IBIS started as a student run organisation, it has since its beginning grown substantially. Today IBIS has eight national branches spread across Africa and Latin America, thus IBIS works globally, national and locally, in the attempt to ensure good living standards for the weakest. This involves decreasing global poverty and inequality (IBIS, n.d. D), primarily in Latin America and Africa. IBIS is also operating in Denmark by increasing awareness, raising funds, as well as lobbying to promote political changes (IBIS, 2013). IBIS has both international and local partners, which are important in ensuring local ownership and generating sustainable changes in Latin America and Africa (IBIS, 2013).

IBIS and partners of the organisation believe that through education, democratic empowerment and access to resources developing countries can progress (IBIS, n.d. D). IBIS engage in this development of a democratic society through support, consultation, facilitation and capacity building (IBIS, n.d. C). IBIS provides knowledge of democratic processes to underprivileged people, in order to enable them to participate in the political processes of their community (IBIS, n.d. B). Moreover, IBIS is concerned with implementing these societal changes.
in a thorough and sustainable way, in order for as many people as possible to benefit from the development processes (IBIS, 2013).

**Vision, Mission and Strategy**

In the problem formulation this project questions the efficiency of two different kinds of organisations. In order to answer this question it is important to identify the individual goals of each organisation because these represent the parameters by which the efficiency is measured. The goals form the basis of the work of the organisation and indicate what is needed within the organisation and displays their level of ambition.

The vision of IBIS is to fight global inequality and poverty. Therefore they work for “a just world in which all people have equal access to education, influence and resources” (IBIS, n.d. D). Moreover, IBIS has outlined a mission that describes their plan of action on a local, national and global level.

On a local level, the mission of IBIS is to ensure access to knowledge and quality education in order to support individual rights and improve the opportunity for people to take active part in their own society (IBIS, n.d. D). Nationally they focus on democratic developments as they believe this will strengthen collective rights and policies, which will be of significance to poor and oppressed people (IBIS, n.d. D). On a global scale, IBIS fight for the interests of the poor and tries to find answers to the structural problems that are believed to be the root of the problems related to inequality and poverty.

This mission has guided IBIS to focus their work on three main areas: Education, Democracy, and the area of Tax, resources and climate change (IBIS, n.d. E)

**Education**

The justification of IBIS’ attention on education is based in the belief that there is a clear connection between good quality education and the wealth of individuals and societies (IBIS, n.d. A). Furthermore, IBIS believes that education is key to achieving improvements within the two other areas. This has caused IBIS to adopt the Global Education for Change Strategy (EfC), which is the strategy that has guided their work in the educational sector from 2012 to 2017 (IBIS, 2012A). Education is a strong political tool and therefore it is important for the EfC strategy not only to focus on the quality of education but also to ensure that it is transformative, meaning that
the education facilitates positive changes within a society. Furthermore, the EfC strategy aims to give the students the skills that are needed to actively engage in one’s society (IBIS, 2012A). According to IBIS, success and effectiveness within the field of education in Third World countries requires:

1) Long term engagement by IBIS and partners
2) Transformation of the pedagogical practices and a paradigm shift in education policies.
3) Cultural, social and political changes at local, national and global level.
4) Substantial and continuous economic investment by the national governments and the international donor community. (IBIS, 2012A).

These requirements are relevant in relation to the success of IBIS within this sector because they offer some guidelines for what IBIS must do and which areas their work must influence to meet the goal of quality education for all.

*Democracy*

The second aim of IBIS’ work strategy is related to democracy. The strategy for quality education already contains elements that prepare the individual for democratic participation, and the objective of IBIS’ Democracy strategy is therefore more focused on empowering a civil society that can push for democratic changes (IBIS, 2012B). The democratisation strategy encompass three specific goals:

1) Empower civil society to conduct local, national and international advocacy for democratic reforms, fair economic redistribution and full transparency and accountability of public and private sector budgeting and expenditure
2) Participation and influence of civil society in governance with focus on women, indigenous peoples and youth at local, national and international levels, including indigenous territories.
3) Equitable access to natural resources, influence on extraction and climate change policies and support to adaption initiatives. (IBIS, 2012B).

IBIS acknowledges that the goal of development towards democratic societies is very ambitious, and such an ambitious goal makes high demands on the organisation and its work.

*Tax, resources and climate change*
The third and last main focus of IBIS encompass two different strategies: one related to extractive industries and another that addresses issues related to climate changes. According to IBIS, the world holds enough resources to provide better living standards to Third World countries and to secure the environment (IBIS, 2009; IBIS, n.d. F).

The aim of IBIS’ tax and resource strategy involves significant international structural changes, and therefore IBIS has found it necessary to address these issues through cooperation with strong partners within the national and international networks (IBIS, 2009). Locally and nationally, IBIS aims to support civil society organisations and networks, and strengthen their ability to “defend environmental, social, cultural and economic rights and claim transparency, adequate taxation and investment for development” (IBIS, 2009). This strategy will be combined with efforts to raise awareness in the North, and lobbying and advocating for policies on an international level.

The strategy regarding climate changes also relies on the cooperation with other organisations. Climate changes influence the entire globe but has had the largest impact on developing countries. Therefore, the focus of IBIS is to influence policies and make the developed countries take responsibility, by reducing their emission of greenhouse gases and help the developing countries deal with the consequences of a changing climate. Furthermore, IBIS is working through campaigns and advocacy in Denmark, to make sure that Denmark plays a leading role in the struggle against global warming (IBIS, 2012 C).

The vision of IBIS concerns the overall goal of poverty reduction and achievement of human rights. This vision has further developed into a clear mission and detailed strategies. The strategies are formulated in formal documents and bear witness of quite ambitious goals that seeks to influence changes at many levels; goals that also requires a very determined work-effort and knowledge within many different fields. Therefore, the high goals also make high demands on the organisation and its resources.

**Structure**

When analysing which elements come into play in an organisation primarily run by employees, it is relevant to look into some of the structural elements in order to investigate how the management of the organisation affects the work that is being done.
IBIS’ main office is located in Copenhagen, Denmark, and it is here that the major decisions concerning the organisation is made, and it is from here that the national branches have been created and must report to. The organisation has eight national branches besides the one in Denmark: three in Latin America (Bolivia, Guatemala, Nicaragua) and five in Africa (Ghana, Liberia, Mozambique, Sierra Leone, South Sudan). In each of the national branches, IBIS has a number of Danish employees working in cooperation with local employees as well as a number of local partnerships and organisations, in order to strengthen the long-term work in the local area (IBIS, n.d. G).

In fact, IBIS has rather many employees: 50 in Denmark and 288 in Africa and South America, whereof 23 are stationed there as international advisors, and the rest are locals (IBIS, n.d. G).

The organisation in Denmark constitutes a General Assembly that elects members to the Board of Directors. This board consists of fourteen members including a Chairman and Vice Chairman. There are two permanent committees under the Board of directors, working on different aspects of the organisation: One is the Financial Committee which is responsible for the organisation’s economy, employees etc., and the Chairman is always a member of this committee; the other is the Programme Committee which deals with the different permanent theme programmes (such as education and democracy) and strategies to execute these, as well as evaluation of programmes. More temporary committees are also created when necessary (IBIS, n.d. H). At the local level, IBIS has four volunteer departments, one in Copenhagen, Aarhus, Aalborg and Kolding. Here they work in different theme-based working groups in order to promote and develop some of the projects from the headquarter (IBIS, n.d. J).

At the main office in Copenhagen, a separation of work tasks is in place, something that is illustrated in the existence of five departments of distinct work tasks (IBIS, n.d. I). Furthermore, ascribing a number of different job titles to the employees, and depending on the employee’s position and responsibilities, titles such as coordinator, supporter, assistant, advisor, director etc. are assigned (IBIS, n.d. I). A separation of labour, as well as the hierarchical divisions, indicate a degree of administrative hierarchy, which according to Mintzberg (1979) could have developed due to an expansion of the organisation. In his depiction of how organisations are generally structured, Mintzberg explains how the evolvement of administrative hierarchy is an expected step when an
organisation grows. As the organisation expands, the need for direct supervision increases and manager positions are created to oversee and coordinate the work of the Operating core (Mintzberg, 1979). As the organisation further grows, more responsibility is being moved from one employee to another, thus creating different hierarchical positions.

Hierarchy and division of labour are some of the elements of Weber’s description of a bureaucratic system, which according to Visitchaichan (n.d.) may best be understood as a machine “made up of interlocking parts that each play a clearly defined role in the functioning of the whole”. Some of the central characteristics of Weber’s bureaucracy that are directly relatable to the structuring and management of IBIS are: Division of labour, responsibility and authority; an organisation of offices or positions as a hierarchy of authority; and members should be selected on the basis of their qualifications or knowledge (Visitchaichan, n.d.). The last point will be elaborated in the succeeding section on employees. Furthermore, Visitchaichan argues that the ideal bureaucracy “would be perfectly rational and would provide maximum efficiency of operation”. This means that every action is performed with a purpose and with consideration of how to achieve the most, which for IBIS is development. Jaques (1992) argue that “bureaucracy [and the effective deployment of talent and energy] is the best structure for getting work done in large organizations” (in Visitchaican, n.d.).

Therefore, a bureaucratic structure is thus closely linked to both the size and effectiveness of organisation, at least theoretically, and Visitchaichan (n.d.) describes how Weber also saw the implementation of bureaucracy as “a normative model to ease the transition from small-scale entrepreneurial to large-scale professional management in organisations”. Because IBIS has developed from being a voluntary student organisation into an international, profession organisation with employees, the quote could offer an explanation to why IBIS is structured the way it is.

However, Berndtson (1995) argues that the size of the organisation does not necessarily say anything about the degree of administrative hierarchy, but claims that it may just be that more people have been hired (Berndtson, 1995).

On that note, although not everyone involved in IBIS is an employee of the organisation, they do make up a significant part of the organisation. Employing staff, rather than solely relying on volunteers, means that the organisation can expect certain things from its staff members, for example that they will work so many hours, on certain projects, and perform certain tasks (Habermann, 1987). Still, IBIS rely on an active group of volunteers and the organisation does a lot
to keep them motivated and provide them with skills and knowledge which can be applied in the organisational work (Habermann, 1987) – this will be elaborated in the section on volunteerism in IBIS Denmark.

To sum up, as have been illustrated, IBIS is a rather formalised organisation with clearly defined departments and separate responsibilities. The organisation relies on employees to organise and perform a great deal of its work, and the administrative hierarchy means that the subordinate (relative to how strictly the hierarchy is taken) is accountable to an immediate person and not just some distant project or ideal. Also, the principles of bureaucracy help to ensure a satisfying level of professionalism as the employees are hired based on their qualifications.

**Employees**

In order to reach a better understanding of the different elements that come into play in relation to the employees, it can be helpful to look at the different departments and fields of work that the employees are divided into. These departments illustrate some of the different tasks that the employees carry out and thereby reveals some of the resources that the employees bring to the organisation (see Appendix A). Furthermore, it can be useful to look at the general profile of the employees and look into the features that characterise them as a group.

IBIS Denmark has several paid employees at their main office in Denmark, along with having paid employees stationed at the offices of the eight national branches. These employees constitute both advisers, who have been sent out from the Danish office, and local people from the country in which the office is situated. At the main office of IBIS, the employees (besides the General Secretary) are as mentioned divided into five main departments: Call Centre, Policy and campaign department, communication and fundraising department, international department and administration department. The employees within each department are further subdivided into different work areas (IBIS, n.d. I).

For example, the policy and campaign department encompass 14 paid employees plus three interns (IBIS, n.d. I). This means that IBIS has 17 people who, each week, are concentrating on furthering the campaigns that raise awareness of different issues, e.g. in the public schools. The fact that these people are not just volunteers but people who work in IBIS as their main occupation
means that there is a large stable amount of human resources that are invested in the campaigns. Unlike volunteers who are forced to compromise on the amount of time they can invest in their organisation, the paid employees represent a reliable time investment within their work area which means that a certain amount of time is used to further this work area each week. Since it is one of IBIS’ strategies to raise awareness both among politicians and the general public, for example through campaigns, it is arguably a great asset to have a large amount of human resources committed to tasks that have to do with campaigns, which in the end will further IBIS’ ability to reach its goals, as they are a more stable workforce (Habermann, 1987).

This is not just an asset that concerns issues related to policy and campaigns but it is something that can be applied to other work areas within IBIS, and relates to other elements within their goals and strategies. It is also an advantage in relation to funding that the organisation is able to hire employees to work in the call centre, and that they have administrative employees who ensure that the organisation has the necessary resources and time to complete the paperwork that is connected with a Danida partnership. Thus employed workers represent a reliable and stable resource. Furthermore, the essence of IBIS’ work is that development projects should be long-term and sustainable, something which is less likely to happen if the organisation was relying on volunteers to plan and execute the different projects, as volunteers must be expected to be a less stable workforce compared to employees (Habermann, 1987) since the volunteers are not “bound” to the project other than by interest, or for other personal reasons (Karr & Meijs, 2012). Conversely, if the people working in the different departments are paid staff members, they are typically under contract and have a bigger incentive to work over longer periods of time. Therefore, employees increase the likelihood of quality and continuity (Habermann, 1987), and are thus an enabling element in IBIS.

By dividing the five departments into specific work areas, it indicates that the IBIS employees are hired to perform a specific task. Each employee is assigned with labels that show what work areas they are connected to and thereby points in the direction of what tasks they perform (IBIS, n.d. I). In addition, it is evident in the job advertisements that IBIS employ people who possess certain skills and who are educated or experienced within the field. Furthermore it is clearly stated what tasks the employee must perform (IBIS, n.d. K). Although employees represent some kind of cost, they are simultaneously contributing to the organisation with knowledge and skills.

The fact that IBIS is mainly run by paid employees and not by volunteers means that the organisation to a higher degree is able to control who is in charge of what. IBIS predetermine
certain requirements in their job advertisement (IBIS, n.d. K) and thereby they are able to employ people who are qualified and have the skills that IBIS consider to be necessary, in order to perform tasks that will further their goals. Thus, IBIS is able to secure that the people who mainly run the organisation are specialised professionals.

It is also evident in some job advertisements that IBIS expects certain things from their new employees. They are expected to conform to the culture of the organisation and to act in accordance with the organisational values (IBIS, n.d. D). This is expressed in a job advertisement where IBIS states that: “The CD is expected to effectively lead IBIS’ country programme and to work for IBIS’ vision and strategies according to IBIS’ values and principles” (IBIS, n.d. K). When an organisation is run by paid employees it becomes acceptable to demand a certain performance or behaviour of them because they receive a salary. It is less legitimate to demand something from volunteers because they freely give their time and get nothing in return, and therefore it can become harder to set certain standards in relation to values (IBIS, n.d. D). Furthermore, the values of IBIS are not just an expression of certain feelings towards different issues. It is values that set the standard for the work behaviour that the organisation wants the employees to follow. For example, the value of responsibility is followed by an expectation of a certain leadership style, such that the employees should “lead by example” (IBIS, n.d. D).

As the job advertisement illustrate, IBIS has specific expectations for their future employees, indicating a greater interest in hiring people with certain skills rather than hiring people who share the fundamental believes of IBIS. On this note, it should be considered that some employees may have chosen IBIS as their work place for no other reason than to be employed, more so than because of what IBIS stands for. This does not mean, however, that they are not as committed to the work they perform as someone who may have chosen the organisation exactly for its vision.

IBIS employees are specialised and perform tasks within certain areas or related to certain issues (see ‘work area’ in Appendix A; IBIS, n.d. I). Furthermore, IBIS also have many employees who work with different forms of administration such as payroll, IT and logistics. According to Mintzberg (1979), the employees who work within these areas can be defined as support staff, as their tasks lie outside the basic work that is directly related to the goal of the organisation. Although the support staff does not directly work on furthering the goals of the organisation, they might improve the effectiveness of the organisation as a whole, since the people who work with more goal
related issues can concentrate entirely on these areas without having to set aside time for administrative tasks.

Some of the elements within the form and structure of IBIS is connected to Weber’s theory of bureaucracy such as the division of work areas, clearly defined role of each employee, the fact that employees are chosen on the basis of professional skills, and that they work in return for a certain salary (Visitchaichan n.d.). Thereby bureaucracy is connected to having paid employees. Bureaucracy and a division of labour is believed to have positive effects on coordination and is also believed to strengthen efficiency within an organisation (Visitchaichan n.d.). There are, however, other negative effects connected to bureaucracy and employees. When work areas and duties are fixed, the organisation becomes less flexible and is therefore not able to quickly adapt to new situations. Furthermore, it is possible that certain descriptions of working areas lead to employees who only do what is expected of them and not more than that. Furthermore, the fact that employees are put into a certain box, here being an office with specific tasks, might hinder creativity and innovative thinking (Visitchaichan n.d.).

The fact that IBIS is run by employees has many positive effects on the work of the organisation but the bureaucratic features might also create limitations. It is, however, difficult to see how a large organisation like IBIS would work without some degree of bureaucracy and hired employees. Thereby these limitations might be unavoidable in larger organisations with employees, and at the same time a smaller organisation with less bureaucracy might miss out on the positive effects connected to bureaucracy.

Volunteers

Despite IBIS being primarily run by employees, the organisation started as a voluntary student organisation and has maintained some of its original character through its four local volunteer departments. It is thus relevant to investigate what role the volunteers play in the organisation and how they contribute to IBIS achieving its goal of development in Third World countries.

Volunteers in IBIS are primarily engaged in national activist and campaign activities such as demonstrations, the production of debate and opinion papers, organising talks on specific issues, arranging parties in order to create awareness of an issue, or arranging flashmobs (which is the
sudden appearance of a group of people, performing a seemingly pointless act, for then quickly to disperse) (IBIS, n.d. J). Such activities related to information about the organisation’s projects and programmes are by Danida referred to as PRO, and an organisation can apply for funding to cover the expenses related to such PRO activities (Danida, 2011). This would mean that Danida considers the volunteers to be engaged in activities that are worthwhile and contribute to the organisation and its overall aim of Third World development.

Two important aspects of being a volunteer in IBIS is 1) the organisation’s emphasis on educating its volunteers, and 2) socialising, for which events are regularly arranged for all volunteers. In relation to point 1), IBIS arranges events where the volunteers will attend a lecture on for example development, capital outflows, or education as a way out of poverty. Additionally, the volunteers have the opportunity to participate in seminars offering an array of competence-giving workshops. Lastly, volunteers in IBIS have the opportunity to travel with the organisation’s LæseKaravane (Reading Caravan) to one of its partner countries (IBIS, n.d. J).

According to Amanda Mukabami Mortensen, whose official post is Volunteer Coordinator in IBIS Aalborg, there is no official record of how many volunteers that are involved in IBIS Denmark, and generally the numbers vary a lot over time. There are currently about eight active volunteer members in Aalborg despite about forty members on their Facebook page. Moreover, the volunteer members that do engage actively in one of the four local departments are typically involved in the activities mentioned at the beginning of the section, as well as collecting signatures, visiting high schools and universities, and the volunteers stay updated on IBIS Denmark’s projects outside of Denmark. Some volunteers have a particular interest in a project, for example capital outflow or education, while others have a general interest in a specific country (Appendix B). This approach to volunteerism, where members are involved with specific task-directed responsibilities, is referred to as ‘program management’ (Karr & Meijs, 2010) and will be elaborated in the section about ‘volunteer management’.

Furthermore, Mortensen argues that the work of the volunteers is of great importance and value to IBIS; they are the face of the organisation, since they are the ones people meet when IBIS interacts with the locals in different Danish towns (Appendix B). Lærke Petersen adds to this point as she explains how the volunteers are essential in creating ties to the public and raising awareness (Appendix C). The volunteer departments collaborate closely with the campaign department at IBIS’ main office in Copenhagen, and the volunteer departments are thus not independent from the
main organisation (Appendix C). In fact, the five Volunteer Coordinators (one in Aalborg, two in Aarhus and two in Copenhagen) are paid employees (Appendix B) and their involvement in IBIS must therefore be thought of somewhat in terms of the employees as discussed in the ‘Employees’ section.

**Volunteer Management**

Presumably, the reason for IBIS to invest so much in its volunteers could be that they know that not everyone volunteer from altruism alone, thus the members may need some motivation to continue their involvement within the organisation for longer periods of time (Karr & Meijs, 2010). However, L. Petersen states that the typical volunteer is active for 1-2 years, while others only for a few months, which may be related to the fact that they are also typically students (Appendix C).

*The functional approach* to volunteerism states that there is an array of reasons for why people volunteer, and more importantly what the volunteers hope to gain from volunteering (Karr & Meijs, 2010), thus this approach incorporates the cost-benefit perspective to volunteerism as discussed in the theory section. Though the reasons and expectations for volunteering may be many, Clary and Snyder argue that it is the ‘functional rewards’ that predicts the satisfaction and continuity of volunteers (Karr & Meijs, 2010). That is, the more rewards (specific to the expectations of the individual) that the organisation can deliver, the more incentive for continuing volunteering, whether the reason is “enjoyment-based” or “gain-based” (Karr & Meijs, 2010). This is made evident as L. Petersen explains that it is a combination of socialising, getting a profession network and experience that motivates the volunteers to join IBIS (Appendix C).

Furthermore, the aforementioned ‘program management’ approach by Karr and Meijs (2010) argue that this approach to volunteerism “is likely to enhance the long-term survival of the organisation as well as its ability to adapt” (Karr & Meijs, 2010), which may be experiences in IBIS through what L. Petersen describes of an “interesting dynamism” due to the continuous influx of “new young energies” (Appendix C). Furthermore, because the program management approach does not necessarily foster an environment of similarity or conviviality among the volunteers, the organisation will have to put more effort into sustaining the volunteers’ motivation (Karr & Meijs, 2010). This is evident in IBIS through the many activities and opportunities they offer for personal and “professional” development, as explained at the beginning of this section. This way IBIS is both trying to overcome the limitations of the project management approach (which according to
Karr and Meijs does not foster many “enjoyment-based intrinsic motivation” activities), as well as the tendency of not being able to retain members (Karr & Meijs, 2010).

To sum up, research into how volunteers are used in IBIS has shown that they are a fairly organised part of the organisation, which is somewhat independent from the main Copenhagen office, yet working as an extended part of its projects. The volunteers are involved in many different activities and in return for the time they donate to IBIS, they gain a range of experiences and opportunities. However, the volunteers are chiefly involved in local activities which are aimed at informing the Danish public, therefore one may argue that the work of the volunteers does not have much effect on the actual development work in Third World countries. Furthermore, the research has shown how IBIS in practice tries to overcome some of the limitations associated with particular theoretical approaches to volunteerism.

**Finances**

The finances of a developmental organisation holds great significance, as the aspect is decisive in the effectiveness of an organisation realising its goal. The income and expenses of IBIS will be explored, and the financial donors will be considered, as they possess great power in determining the financial resources (Bendell, 2006). Furthermore, Danida’s role will be assessed, as governmental funding can have enabling or constraining impact, notably in relation to an organisation’s autonomy (Bebbington, 2008). Exploring these elements will enable an understanding of the degree to which IBIS rely on financial resources, and how it is obtained. The finance of IBIS will be analysed based on data and reports from previous years, as data from 2013 is not yet available at the time of writing.

**Income**

IBIS is a member-based organisation; hence, membership fees are part of the income, along with annual grants and funds from private donors. In 2012 the total income amounted to DKK 202,216,000. Danida is the most essential contributor, as their annual grant in 2012 constituted 53% of the IBIS income. The grant had decreased from DKK 115.9 m in 2011 to DKK 106.5 m in 2012, but Danida evidently remains an indispensable financial contributor to IBIS. Other institutional donors constituted 29% of the total income, and funds raised from private donors, foundations and
national fundraising reached DKK 22 m, equivalent to 11% of the total income. These figures represent 93 per cent of the finances granted for development activities, and the remaining 7 per cent is for humanitarian work (IBIS, 2013; IBIS, 2013A).

### Income for Development Activities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Danida</td>
<td>53%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Institutional Donors</td>
<td>29%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private Funds</td>
<td>11%</td>
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</tbody>
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*Expenses*

In 2012 the expenses of IBIS amounted to a total of DKK 201.7 m. The expenses are divided into two categories: one concerning the expenses spent on development projects and programs, and the other comprising other expenses such as administration. In the first category, the long-term development constitutes 82% of the expenses, 7% were spent on humanitarian work, and the remaining 11% were spent on campaigns and advocacy. The second category comprises other expenses, which is mainly expenses within the organisation such as salaries, travels and meetings, and new IT-systems. This illustrates the expenses spent on administration, which amounted to DKK 13.7 m in 2012, with a share of 6.8% of the overall expenses (IBIS, 2013; IBIS, 2013A).
**Interpretations**

The income and expenses illustrate from where IBIS raises its financial resources, along with how they are distributed. A great financial contribution from various actors is present in the financial accounts; especially Danida is an important contributor.

Part of the organisation’s funds are spent on administration and salaries, hence funding is directly influencing the paid employees. On the one hand, financial resources enable an organisation to have employees, due to the need to pay for salaries. On the other hand, it is also the employees who are involved in collecting the financial resources, both grants and membership fees.

In 2012, DKK 10.4 m of the total income was received as contribution for administration. Of the Danida grant, a share of 6.5% was marked for administration in 2012, which constituted DKK 6.9 m of the total amount for administration, hence Danida is of significance to the administration of IBIS. It has been illustrated how Danida is significant to administration as well as to development projects of IBIS; hence Danida is arguably an essential factor for the financial sustainability of IBIS.

The definition of NGDOs describe how they are institutionally separated from the state, however, the autonomy of IBIS can be questioned as more than half of the organisation’s funding comes from a governmental actor. This dilemma is elaborated on by Johansson et.al, who describes how
NGDOs are held accountable for their received funds and activities, in accordance with policies and ideologies of the government donor agency (Johansson, Elgstrøm, Kimanzu, & Persson, 2010). The Danish Ministry of Foreign Affairs promote support for a civil society, including Danish NGDOs that entails a high standard of professional competences (Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 2011). Thus, when looking into criteria and guidelines set by Danida for the organisations they support financially, the statement by Johansson et al. can be regarded as valid. The criteria set by Danida comprises:

1) Administrative and professional capacity, including monitoring of programmes.
2) Developmental experience.
3) Adherence to Danish development policies.
4) Context analysis of focus countries
5) Own financing and public participation. (Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 2012A).

When receiving financial support from Danida, organisations are required to operate in accordance with presented development standards (Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 2013). In order to govern the fulfilment of agreements and responsibility of organisations, Danida presents general guidelines for grant administration, which apply to all Danish organisations receiving grants. If an organisation breaches the conditions for support, Danida is entitled to suspend payment and/or withdraw approval for support, and may claim repayment of already paid support (Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 2013; Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 2012B).

The administrative guidelines comprise financial conditions regarding how much the organisation itself has to raise (own financing). Previous to 2013 it was required that 10% of the funding for development programs and project activities was raised through own financing. This was increased to 20% in the pursuit to obtain a close relationship to the Danish public and a funding through diverse sources (Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 2012A; Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 2012B). The 20% of own financing include a minimum of 5% of cash contributions or membership fees raised in Denmark. Funding from other private donors or international partners counts as the remaining 15%. The administrative guidelines by Danida also entail that the expenses for administration must not exceed 7% of the total budget (Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 2012A; Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 2012B).

The guidelines extend to cover how the organisation should operate, which includes how the financial support should be focused in a limited number of countries, and a strategy for each
country should be developed. The organisation is required to uphold a satisfying level of administration and professional capacity to complete the projects (Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 2012B), which once more indicates that the organisations need employees when involved in a partnership with Danida.

The statement by Johansson et.al illustrated how policies of the government donor can influence an organisation’s activities, the reason being that deliberations and compromises might be made by the organisation, in order to comply with the political policies and to maintain the financial support. Based on the presented guidelines from Danida, one can apply this statement to the case of IBIS. IBIS is arguably dependent on Danida, which according to Johansson et.al suggests that the operational freedom is decreased. This argument is further supported by Nelson and Wright who argue that the autonomy of NGOs is challenged due to official funding (Johansson, Elgstrøm, Kimanzu, & Persson, 2010; Nelson & Wright, 1995).

The decreased operational freedom can bear negative connotations, as this type of organisation is assumed to work where developmental help is needed and not under certain guidelines. However, the guidelines enforced by Danida in situations of financial support, are placed due to Danida having a responsibility for planning, completing and quality assuring the work of supported organisation. In 2011 Danida donated a total amount of DKK 15,753 bn to development aid, which is arguably in itself a valid reason for having the guidelines in order to secure a proper spending and administration (Udenrigsministeriet, n.d. B). Based on this, the guidelines are not enforced to obtain a restrictive role but merely in order to secure the best development aid.

**Provisional Findings**

The findings of the investigation have illustrated how different aspects of IBIS contribute to the effectiveness in achieving the goals of development in Third world countries. The main points are:

The structure and management found that administrative hierarchy and division of work contributed to the effectiveness. In IBIS, responsibilities of the employees and volunteers are very different: employees are chiefly concerned with the operation and management of the organisation. Thus, it is the employees who are directly involved and responsible for the projects and development work,
whereas the volunteers mainly contribute to raising awareness in Denmark, and anchoring the work of IBIS to the local Danish communities. Thus, it is the employees who contribute to the effective execution of IBIS’ overall goal of development in Third World countries. Danida contributes significantly to the effectiveness of IBIS, due to the amount of funding. However, funding from Danida entails certain guidelines that the organisation must follow, both concerning how the organisation should operate and how it should administrate the funding.

**GtU - Genvej til Udvikling**

**Introduction to GtU**

Genvej til Udvikling (GtU) was founded as an organisation in 1978 after having existed as a working group since 1976 (GtU, 2011). GtU was established with inspiration from the international Emmaus movement, an umbrella organisation founded in 1949 (GtU, 2011; GtU, n.d. A). GtU was officially accepted into the Emmaus International community in 1983 and has thenceforth stood as the mother network of GtU, sharing visions and beliefs about the approach to developmental aid in Third World countries (GtU, 2011).

Rather than seeing developmental projects as a modern form of “the white man’s burden”, where the West must save the Africans from destitution, Emmaus and GtU take the opposite approach. In a booklet, GtU states that help should be built on the conditions and the involvement of the local people. (GtU, n.d. A). Emmaus and GtU are built on the notion of first serving those who suffer most, and first those who are less happy than yourself (GtU, n.d. A). These two phrases have been put into practise as GtU primarily supports activities in West Africa, Mali, Benin, Burkina Faso and Niger, since these are among some of the poorest countries in the world (GtU, 2011).

One way in which GtU in the past has implemented this belief into their actual work, was through fair-trade. In 1984 GtU was one of the founding partners of U-landsimporten, which was the first national organisation in Denmark to trade with merchandises that secured the producer a fair price for his work (U-landsimporten, n.d.). This work is now carried on by Fairtrade Danmark (GtU, 2012), and today the primary occupation of GtU is the sale of different handicrafts, as well as
activities in order to spread information about West African countries and their condition (GtU, n.d. B).

Vision, Mission and Strategy

The elements of vision, mission and strategy are all important when analysing an organisation, as they are the foundation for the organisation’s work. In relation to volunteerism, these elements are significant, as the vision and mission can function as the reason for volunteering in a particular organisation (Paton, 1999).

The vision and mission described on the webpage of GtU are greatly intertwined, but can be identified as follows: The vision of GtU is to have a Third World that is self-sufficient, autonomous and self-confident, and the mission is to advance these by aiding long-term development, rather than merely conducting humanitarian aid, for the ones most in need (GtU, 2011). Another mission is to be effective in providing information to the public, about the beauty, values and traditions of the Third World, which the Northern world should be inspired by (GtU, n.d. C; GtU, 2011). Jørgen Olsen states how he believes that the best strategy to raise awareness is through personal contact with the local Danes (Olsen, interview, p. 25). The personal contact and emphasis on the locals is equally important in relation to the local Africans, as it is believed that development best succeed when it is based on the wants and needs expressed by those affected (GtU, 2011).

The vision of obtaining a developed Third World, along with the mission of helping the ones most in need and collaborate with local partners, is evident in the strategy of GtU, for example to support projects in the poorest countries, and projects that are concerned with the local circumstances (Lund et.al, 2013). One strategy for developing the weakest countries is to strengthen their economy. Thus, GtU emphasises the importance of export from these countries and how a fair payment for the exported commodities could improve living conditions. This is the reason for GtU to encourage the public through articles in newspapers, and to purchase Fair-trade marked commodities, as the mark secures decent conditions and pay for the producers (GtU, n.d. B).

Throughout the organisation's existence, GtU has been selling handicraft products made by locals in the developing countries. The purpose of selling handicrafts is to obtain an income base for the producers, who typically are poor craftsmen, as well as to show how the developing countries
hold cultural values, and a creative and active public. Thus, this activity demonstrates the mission of providing information (GtU, 2012; GtU, 2011). Furthermore, the mission of providing information is also obtained through lectures held by the organisation, articles in various medias, and a journal is published four times a year, in which the organisation's work and results are reported (GtU, n.d. D; GtU, n.d. E).

However, GtU does not present a document with clearly defined strategies for how to achieve their goals, therefore the strategy is governed by ad-hoc principles where the members determine what projects to engage in based on the resources available (Olsen, interview, p. 17). Thus GtU evidently draws on its members as a resource in obtaining the mission, and a member can have influence on the organisation’s development work (GtU, 2011).

**Structure**

When analysing which elements come into play in an organisation primarily run by volunteers, it is relevant to look into some of the structural elements in order to investigate what about the organisational structure and management that affects the work being done in GtU (Habermann, 1987).

GtU is comprised of a Board of Directors consisting of a minimum of three elected members (including a Chairman, deputy, and treasurer) as well as two understudies (GtU, 2013A). These are all elected at the annual General Assembly meeting where all decisions, applicable to the entire organisation, are made. Leatherwood and O’Neal (1996) and Inglis et.al. (1999) argue that volunteer boards in small non-profit organisations are more likely to engage in day-to-day issues more than the strategic issues of the organisation (in Lambert & Lapsley, 2010; Lipson, n.d.). This is also the case in GtU where five out of seven board members are currently involved in one or more of the four theme-based working groups (GtU, 2013C), thus they are not exclusively involved in strategizing or managing the organisation, and adopt a more operational role (Lambert & Lapsley, 2010).

The day-to-day management of GtU is conducted by the Coordinator Jørgen Olsen whose role is to be the link between the Board and the four working groups, and to have an overview of what is happening in the organisation (Olsen, interview, p. 1). The title ‘coordinator’ is used instead of ‘General Secretary’, which is more common in larger organisations with more hierarchical layers.
Furthermore, GtU currently have somewhere between 10 and 20 active members, all of which are volunteers. Additionally, GtU currently has 167 members paying membership fees (Olsen, interview, p. 17) as well as 4-5 non-members who volunteer in the organisation (Olsen, interview, p. 16).

Regarding the aforementioned four theme-based working groups, these currently count fifteen volunteers (GtU, 2012A; GtU, 2012B; GtU, 2012C; GtU, 2013B). Each group usually meets once a year and all other communication among the group members usually happen via email once a month. The working groups enjoy a great degree of freedom, as they are not bound to specific strategies and tasks they have to complete. In fact, the groups are rather self-directed, which is made evident in that the coordinator, despite his formal title, does not know what two out of four groups are currently working on, if they are working on anything (Olsen, interview, p. 15). Most decision concerning the respective working groups need not be approved by the Board of Directors (Olsen, interview, p. 19). This testifies of a flat organisational structure, which is characterised by “few levels [of hierarchy] relative to the size of the organization” and is different from a vertical/tall structure in the span of control within the organisation (Porter & Lawler, 1965). What adds to the flat structure of GtU is that the authority vested in being a board member or coordinator is not being exercised.

Management style
The flat structure and possibilities for having influence, as well as GtU’s ability to adapt to the needs of its members, is an expression of the organisation’s management style. The ‘membership management’ approach (as opposed to ‘program management’) explains that by prioritising the volunteers and their goals, as well as paying “careful attention to those who will be admitted to membership”, the organisation “could be expected to cultivate broad, multifaceted volunteer involvement, likely to lead to greater overall satisfaction with the volunteer experience” as well as a considerable degree of loyalty (Karr & Meijs, 2012). However, Karr and Meijs argue that this management approach may not always “provide a stable basis for long-term survival [even if] volunteers may indeed remain loyal … for longer periods of time” and that an organisation employing this approach “risks stagnation, lack of growth, and eventual extinction” (Karr & Meijs, 2010). The way this is experienced in GtU is in the aforementioned autonomy of the volunteers, GtU’s adaption to their wishes, the long-term involvement of the current volunteers (for example
co-founder and coordinator Jørgen Olsen, and the current chairman through 25 years, Per Adelhart Christensen), as well as a recent decrease in paying members.

**The nature of projects**
The structure and management style is also reflected in how projects are run. Due to the size of the organisation and the small number of active members, the way GtU works is more on an ‘ad-hoc’ basis, i.e. people invest as much time as they can, when they can. This means for GtU that it is not possible to decide on certain strategies and projects for the future.

Different levels of formalities apply to different types of projects. For example, Danida make high administrative demands on the organisation, such as evaluative reports (Olsen, interview, p. 22). Conversely, in most cases, non-Danida projects are not reported in terms of progress, and generally, GtU does not make formal reports of what is being done internally in the organisation (Olsen, interview, p. 19), which indicates an organisation with a low degree of bureaucracy. The reason why GtU does not keep record of the progress of non-Danida projects is a combination of the organisation’s informality and that the organisation does not think it possible to record any measurable progresses when it comes to democratisation, because “what this is about, is to look more than one generation ahead” (Olsen, interview, p. 15+22).

To sum up, GtU is an organisation where rules and formality does not govern the way the organisation is run. The ad-hoc nature of GtU, as well as the significant autonomy of the working groups, testifies of an organisation with a low degree of administrative hierarchy and where the work of the volunteers is not overseen despite the presence of a coordinator. As mentioned, this means that volunteers are able to propose and work on a variety of projects, chiefly because the organisation does not have a set of defining key issues, or overall subject fields.

**Volunteers**
As GtU is solely run by volunteers, they are essential to every aspect of the organisation, hence the relevance of exploring how they operate and affect the effectiveness of the organisation.

The active members are not appointed to perform a certain function or take on specific tasks, the exception being the board members and the coordinator, who is in charge of the maintenance of the webpage (Olsen, interview, p. 3). Also, the active members are not specialised or trained in what
they do specifically in the organisation, yet most are well-educated people who offer their expertise to the organisation (Olsen, interview, p. 17). According to Habermann (1987), one reason why professionals choose to volunteer is that the method of work is different from the usual practice in their field, and volunteerism thus offers a versatile application of their knowledge as well as personal development, which is one of the identified reasons for continuing volunteering (Habermann, 1987).

Although the volunteers are not specialised in what they do in the organisation, there does seem to be some examples of correlation between the project theme and the involved volunteers’ field of expertise. For example, an agricultural technician was drawn upon in relation to a project on cattle breeding, and a language professor was involved in opening a bilingual school in Amataltal as well as producing school books in the local language (Olsen, interview, p. 16; GtU, 2011). Moreover, the interview with Jørgen Olsen found that it is not just the expertise or knowledge of its members that GtU make use of, but also their network. For example, Jørgen Olsen explains how one of their passive members is a member of the Board of Directors of two foundations, and GtU has in the past received a considerable amount several times from these two funds (Olsen, interview, p. 24).

As illustrated, the volunteers can have influence on the project they are working on and the decisions that are made. Also, having a principal role in a project directly relating to one’s skills, means that the volunteer will feel well-equipped to undertake a task, which is another argument for staying involved (Habermann, 1987), and directly relates to the management style of GtU, as explicated in the section on structure, which was referred to as ‘membership management’.

On that note, the reason for volunteering in GtU, compared to a larger NGDO, is made evident when the Chairman of GtU is asked about why he chose a small organisation like GtU. To this, he answers that it is the intimacy that is important, as well as the increased possibility of having influence in a small organisation that attracted him (GtU, 2011). The reason for volunteering in GtU is elaborated, as Jørgen Olsen mentions idealistic motives. He states how the members of the organisation have always represented people of various employment rates, from full-time employees, unemployed, to retirees, and on that note he states how there is an array of activities in which one can volunteer, but people typically chose GtU based on idealistic motives (Appendix E). Furthermore, this idealism is also present when Jørgen Olsen describes how a certain way of life is valued within the organisation. For example, by buying second-hand commodities and recycle, and how one should be conscious of resources (Olsen, interview, p. 9).
The reason why the organisation function the way it does, has to do with the reality of what one can expect from volunteers. In the interview Jørgen Olsen argues that “people have a lot on their plate in their so-called pulsating lives”, and if an organisation “wants a group of volunteers around it, one has to be careful not to overburden them with information and mails” (Olsen, interview, p. 15). Thus, it becomes a balance between having fun and doing work (Olsen, interview, p. 15). And as stated in the section on structure, the work of the volunteers has to be on their own terms. For example, Jørgen Olsen tells of one volunteer and how her contribution to the organisation primarily entails selling some of the products that GtU buys from their African partners – this is what she can manage (Olsen, interview, p. 23). This is an essential point to Habermann (1987) in relation to reasons for continued volunteerism: that the personal needs of the volunteer is taken seriously. However, autonomy may not always be a positive dimension of volunteerism. For example, if the wants and interests of the volunteers always guide their actions, it may not serve what is best for the organisation or the need of the West African people.

As briefly mentioned earlier in this section, some of the volunteers (those in the four working groups) live relatively far from the office in Arden, for example in Copenhagen, Aarhus and Aalborg (cf. the four working groups on gtu.dk). The physical distance between the active members could therefore be an obstacle for the work being done in the four groups and how effectively they can work on a project. Interestingly, according to the literature on volunteerism, most volunteers prefer to live within close proximity of where they volunteer, so that travelling does not become a strain on the time already spent in the organisation. This is also directly related to Duguid’s notion of a pragmatic cost-benefit analysis, as explained in the section on ‘Volunteerism’. What this means for GtU is that the type of work the organisation engages in should be of a nature that does not necessitate the volunteers to meet in person, while collaboration can still take place. The physical distance poses a restrictive impact on the collaborative work of the volunteers, and the autonomy of the working groups is perhaps therefore a practical result of the actual situation of the volunteers, rather than a belief that the groups should enjoy great autonomy.

Furthermore, the coordinator states that the motives for engaging in GtU does not rely on social incentives, as the physical distances and few gatherings does not facilitate much socialisation within the organisation (Appendix E).
Another restriction is in relation to volunteers, which causes GtU to have limited human resources, as they can only be expected to invest their leisure time. Jørgen Olsen explains how the organisation sometimes has had to decline offers of a new project or cooperation because GtU did not have the sufficient manpower (Olsen, interview, p. 23). When asked about which measure they take to recruit new members, Jørgen Olsen answers that they do not take a very pro-active approach, something that is evident as new volunteers have addressed the organisation themselves, for example on the basis of adverts on volunteer-websites seeking translators (Appendix E). The inactive approach to gaining new members could be seen as a result of the usual duration for which people volunteer; the archetypical active member is engaged for decades, and the long-term volunteers primarily represent the older generation (Appendix E). However, Jørgen Olsen also expresses a tendency for new volunteers to engage for a limited period, or to express interest in volunteering as translator, but then never respond when presented with a task. Based on the inactiveness, one can argue that the long-term volunteers are volunteering due to idealistic incentives and it is thus not necessary for GtU to uphold the motives for continued volunteering. Moreover, this indicates the “old” or traditional form of volunteerism as mentioned in the section on ‘Volunteerism’.

Despite all of this, it should be noted that GtU is not currently involved in any projects and the working groups are thus more or less inactive in relation to providing actual development work. This is very much related to the fact that volunteers represent a limited degree of human resources. Therefore, the volunteers are only involved in raising awareness and selling handicrafts. Thus, when keeping the relatively ambitious vision in mind, volunteers are arguably not contributing much to the greater picture of Third World development.

Finances
The relevance for exploring the finances of GtU is equivalent to the reasons described in the financial section on IBIS, namely that financial resources is decisive in the work of an NGDO (Bebbington, 2008). The basis for this analysis is accessible annual accounts from 2007 to 2012, which demonstrate how the financial resources are funded and distributed to specific development projects in the respective years. The finances funded for development work can be illustrated in a chart, which enables a comparison between the finances of the respective years. This chart presents the financial resources that GtU has been granted annually, to the four project divisions presented in the annual accounts.

**Project Funds and Membership Fees**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Amount</th>
<th>2007</th>
<th>2008</th>
<th>2009</th>
<th>2010</th>
<th>2011</th>
<th>2012</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Danida Amaltaltal</td>
<td>1,641,000</td>
<td>804,000</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>734,000</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Danida Kaoumaram</td>
<td>767,000</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other projects Niger</td>
<td>94,250</td>
<td>75,968</td>
<td>48,124</td>
<td>101,274</td>
<td>5,800</td>
<td>18,185</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dialog Tourism Niger</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>744,368</td>
<td>200,000</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Membership fee total</td>
<td>26,785</td>
<td>28,800</td>
<td>30,800</td>
<td>30,103</td>
<td>29,815</td>
<td>26,553</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The development projects of GtU have, along with the finances, changed greatly within the last two decades, as the organisation entered the 21st century with a Danida partnership, but is currently without government funding.

- In 2007, Danida supported the Amataltal project with DKK1.64 m, along with another project that focused on coexistence in Kaoumaram. Together the two projects were granted DKK 2,438,600 (GtU, 2008). In the annual account of 2007, a project division of ‘Other Projects in Niger’ is presented, which entailed financial resources of DKK 94,250. These were funded by private funds, and the Tips and Lotto Fund (GtU, 2009A).
• In 2008, Danida granted DKK 804,000 to the project in Amataltal. The ‘Other Projects in Niger’ was granted DKK 75,968, which was granted by the same donors as in 2007 (GtU, 2009A).

• In 2009, the former project in Kaoumaram was transformed into a two-year-long project on Dialogue-Tourism in Niger, in collaboration with CISU. This project was granted DKK 2,422,600 by CISU. Unfortunately the project ended prematurely (GtU, 2010A; GtU, 2011A; GtU, 2012D). This explains why the charter only illustrate a funding of DKK 940,000.

• In 2009 and 2010, the Danida grant for the Amataltal project was distributed in such a way that there was no contribution in 2009, but DKK 734,000 in 2010 (GtU, 2011A; GtU, 2009B).

Danida funding evidently bore significance in the development work of GtU in the emphasised years. The Chairman expressed in 2009 how it was an aim to continue the projects despite the expiring funding, and how the organisation realised how not all would succeed, especially due to the lack of funding (GtU, 2009B). Thus, since the end of 2010, GtU projects have been financed through private funding and grants from the Tips and Lotto Fund (GtU, 2013D).

The following chart illustrate how much of the funding that GtU has spent on the projects, along with the expenses for administration.
Based on these charts, it is evident that government funding for development projects previously has been an essential element. The organisation has arguably been able to do more with project funding than without, due to the considerable amount of funds that came from external contributors. However, the Chairman has emphasised the importance of being able to function both with and without funding (GtU, 2009A).

In the annual accounts, it is presented from where the organisation obtains its annual income, besides the specific project funds. The membership fees are essential, and these amount to an annual average of DKK 28,809 (GtU, 2009A; GtU, 2011A; GtU, 2013D). This amount is distributed on expenses for information work, administration, and membership fees to other organisations. Thus the element of membership fee has been of great significance to the organisation’s work.

Another significant element of GtU is the purchase of homemade items from developing countries, which are sold at various venues in Denmark. This is not an element from which a great profit is made, as the earnings have only in 2008, 2009 and 2012 covered the expenses of purchasing the handicrafts. On an average this activity generates an annual deficiency of DKK 2,159. However, the coordinator describes how this activity, along with most of their work in Denmark, concentrates on providing people with information (Olsen, interview, p. 5). Thus, neither profit nor great financial funding is essential in relation to the work located in Denmark. In relation to the aforementioned statement by the Chairman, this observation illustrates that the organisation is able to function without state funding. However, the coordinator does state that it is necessary to maintain the current number of paying members, in order to have a sustainable organisation (Olsen, interview, p. 26).

An argument for GtU currently being able to function without great financial resources is the fact that the organisation is primarily run by volunteers, hence there are no great expenses, for example to salaries. However, the annual accounts presents such salary expenses in the years 2007 to 2011, due to the Danida collaboration. Furthermore, as described in the analysis of IBIS, Danida collaboration also entails that 7% of the received funds are earmarked for administration, which means that in Danida funded projects GtU has had paid employees.

It has been illustrated how the financial resources are currently limited compared to previously. However, it is not a great hindrance in achieving the organisation’s goal of raising awareness, due to the aspect of volunteers. Moreover, the private funds for ‘Other Projects in Niger’ permits
continued work in the Third World. However, one can argue that the achievements are fewer without the prior state funding, as the organisation is engaged in less projects.

As described in the financial section on IBIS, Johansson et.al (2010) states how state funding might have a limiting effect on the operational freedom of an organisation. This is supported by Nelson and Wright (1995), who add that not relying on government actors and official aid agencies may permit the organisation to follow “risky and non-conventional policies” (Nelson & Wright, 1995). These views presented by Johansson et.al (2010) and Nelson and Wright (1995) constitute considerations made by Jørgen Olsen, who states how one must make considerations before entering into a ‘Danida fairy-tale’, as such collaboration will cause a certain discourse, mindset, and regulations that an organisation must follow (Olsen, interview, p. 23).

Thus, for GtU it is not a primary concern of how much you do, but what you do, and Jørgen Olsen emphasises that they are still doing something, despite the omission of state funding and larger projects (Olsen, interview, p. 23). Thus, membership fee, private funding and volunteerism are elements that can be derived from the financial aspect of GtU, as contributing something worthwhile in achieving the organisational goals.

**Provisional Findings**

The findings of the investigation have illustrated how different aspects of GtU contribute to the effectiveness in achieving the goals of development in Third world countries. The main points are:

As the analysis showed, the structure of GtU is rather flat, something which is illustrated through the lack of clearly defined roles, indicating a somewhat laissez-faire approach to member responsibilities. The volunteers make up the entire workforce and therefore they are essential to everything the organisation does. Furthermore, the autonomy of the volunteers and the loose composition allows the individuals to exercise influence in decision-making processes. This is further emphasised in that the annual financial resources vary, as the membership fees and funding is not constant each year. The finances illustrated that without Danida funding, GtU is not under restrictions/guidelines, but this also means that they have limited financial resources, which is affecting the number and size of projects.

GtU has an ambitious vision, which require an appropriate amount of human and financial
resources. The limited financial and human resources of GrU means that the organisation is only able to have a limited significance in relation to development in the Third Worlds. Thus, without substantial funding the focus of the organisation is more or less directed onto the goals of being informative.

It can therefore be questioned whether an organisation consisting only of volunteers, which in our case is the reason for limited resources, is capable of achieving something worthwhile in the overall development perspective.
Discussion

Based on the research it is possible to discuss the role of volunteers in the two NGDOs as well as the general role of volunteers within the Danish sector of Third World development. Both case studies have exhibited a limited influence of the volunteers on the development processes. Simultaneously, the investigation of IBIS showed beneficial elements in relation to employees. Even so, Danida reports indicate a belief in volunteer involvement and public support as an important element in the development sector. The very idea of volunteer work and the involvement of the larger society is closely connected to some of the Danish core values such as democracy, equality, fellowship (Christensen & Molin, 1995). It is therefore these values that have facilitated the Danish tradition of volunteer work within the Danish development sector, and has played a large role in the establishment of such a sector. Like IBIS, many Danish organisations began as voluntary student organisations, and the involvement of professionals within this sector only came later. Generally, Danida funding has increased substantially since the 1980s, which led to the tendencies for organisations to shift from being largely voluntary, and expand and use employees as a part of their working core (Berndtson, 1995).

Despite Danida reports indicating a belief in volunteer involvement and public support, the research of IBIS and GtU has shown that it is not the volunteers who attain the most significant results, in relation to actual development in Third World countries. Thus, a paradox is presented since one of the Danida requirements for cooperation is that the organisation must have ties to the Danish public and involve volunteers. This is despite the fact that Danida demands standards that can best be reached with an increasing involvement of employees, relative to the size of the organisation (Danida, 2011). This paradox is made further evident when taking into account that it is not the Danish community ties and volunteers that create effective development aid, since these are chiefly bound to the local sphere, whilst development aid is transnational.

One of the explanations to this paradox could be explained through the Danish belief in participation, tolerance, and diversity in the local community. But at the same time Danida expects results in return for their funding. What seems to prevail is thus a clash in the Danida reasoning, between a market logic and a volunteer logic: The market logic determines an organisation’s legitimacy in terms of results, whereas the volunteer logic determines an organisation’s legitimacy based on its actions of ‘doing something good’ (Christensen & Molin, 1995). It is thus a balance between achieving results and volunteer participation. The problem of achieving this balance in
relation to volunteers is illustrated in the case of GtU, where even the smallest contributions counts as adding value to the overall development work. GtU values interpersonal relations with its partnership organisations and live by the proverb: Little strokes fell great oaks. What GtU is emphasising is the “old” value based approach to development work, rather than a more result-oriented approach. Therefore, GtU tends to value what they do more than how much they do.

One of the reasons why Danida places so much emphasis on volunteerism may be grounded in the belief that there is a correlation between volunteer engagement and democratic performance, as investigated by Putman. His claim was founded on the reasoning that when people work together they “experience and learn the processes of negotiation and collaboration which are essential for democracy to survive” (Dekker & Halman, 2003). However, because the volunteers operate within the Danish boarders, it is the Danish society that benefits from these democratic practices. The volunteers are therefore still not contributing to the democratic development and practices in Third World countries.

However, a heightened sense of democracy may still be beneficial for Danish NGDOs; the implementation of democratic practices adds to the organisation’s legitimacy, and the organisation’s conformity with Western values, such as equity and non-discrimination, gives them an image of being genuine in the eyes of the public (Edwards, 2009). Public approval is important in relation to Danish NGDOs because a Danida cooperation requires the organisation to raise 20% of the Danida funding themselves; an income that is partly based on private contribution and membership fees. Being able to live up to the different Danida requirements arguably exist in order to ensure some accountability on the organisation and how the funding are spend. Thus, legitimacy is not solely given on the organisation’s public participation but also in terms of transparency and achievement, for example. This illustrates two different aspects of how a NGDO obtains legitimacy from Danida. The basis for accountability is contrasting as Danida uses public participation as means of legitimacy, but once the funding has been given Danida expects a degree of professionalism of the organisation, for example through the funding specifically to administration, whereby public participation might be overshadowed by the need for professionalism, in relation to how the organisation is evaluated.

Development with or without Danida

As mentioned earlier, there has been a significant increase in Danida spending since the 1980s, and with this monetary increase, an increased political interest in NGDOs has followed. For example,
NGDOs are invited by politicians as consulting partners in solving concrete issues and in the development of new policies within the field (Berndtson, 1995). The increased interest in involving private NGDOs in policy-making processes, and the increased use of organisations in the implementation of these policies, means that the organisations to some extent become professional entrepreneurs for Danida. The historical development has shown that Danida (and by that the Danish state) have become far more involved in the NGDOs as their funding have increased. Were this development to continue, a possible scenario could be that the NGDOs would be more or less reduced to organisational extensions of the state. Moreover, they would be accountable to the state, more than to the organisation's “clients”, i.e. the people at the receiving end of development aid.

As it is, NGDOs are already accountable to the state when involved in a Danida partnership and some limitations has therefore already been put on the organisation. So why do NGDOs engage in such a partnership? Furthermore, if the sole governmental aim is to develop Third World countries, one could question why a government chooses to cooperate with NGDOs, rather than giving direct government-to-government aid. Salamon (2010) describes how "government and [NGOs] are partners because of mutual benefit" (in Zimmer, 2010), through the theory of ‘interdependence’ (Salamon & Anheier, 1998). However, Salamon is aware of the critical aspect of governmental funding, as he states how the relation between government and NGOs has mainly attracted negative attention, as the government is perceived to pose a threat to the autonomy of an organisation (Salamon, 1987). The possibility of such a threat was found in the research of IBIS, which receives half of its income from Danida. Salamon describes how some literature suggest that such a relation “could not and should not exist” and that the two sectors should be clearly separated (Salamon 1987). However, the interdependence theory presents positive aspects of the interdependence and partnership between state and non-profit sector, rather than focusing on a potential conflict (Salamon & Anheier, 1998).

Salamon presents two perspectives on why the partnership has emerged. One is that governments respond to failures in the third sector, whereas the other suggests that the third sector responds to failures of the government (Salamon, 1987). Therefore, the two sector can engage in a relationship of mutual dependency where each actor compensates for the limitations of the other. This is also the case in Denmark, as a partnership between the government and an NGDO occasions mutual benefits. The third sector lack sufficient funding, which can be covered by Danida and thereby the state (Smith & Grønbjerg, 2006). Conversely, Danida sometimes lack the experience and knowledge on Third World development, which can be found in the NGDOs. Furthermore, the
state lacks the ability to be present at a local level, and thereby establish public roots (Salamon, 1987) and acceptance of state funding to development aid.

As the discussion has illustrated, the topic of this project is complex and opens up to a number of different aspects and reflections concerning Danish NGDOs and volunteerism.

**Conclusion**

The research found that IBIS and GtU are very different, and that employees and volunteers have different meaning for the elements that constitute the organisation. The investigation of the two organisations has shown that the elements that were most significant in affecting the work of the organisation was strategy, structure and finance. Furthermore, the research also found that the work of the organisation is affected by whether or not it comprises employees and/or volunteers. One of the elements in which this was made evident was in relation to the presence or absence of strategy. IBIS has a comprehensive strategy of how to achieve the organisation’s vision and mission. The presence of a strategy indicates that IBIS is aware of the available resources now and in the near future. As the employees represent a stability that enables the organisation to make plans, a connection is made between having employees and an operational strategy. Despite the fact that GtU, like IBIS, has an ambitious vision, the organisation does not have a strategy, which correlates with volunteers being a less stable human resource than employees. The absence of a strategy in GtU may furthermore be an expression of the informality that characterises the organisation.

The informality of GtU was experienced in the flat structure and absence of management. The informality of GtU was further expressed in the autonomy of the volunteers and the influence they can exercise on decisions. Moreover, the fact that the organisation functions without clearly defined work areas and responsibilities, results in GtU working on an ad-hoc basis. This means that the effectiveness of GtU is suffering under the ad-hoc nature, as it in GtU leads to sporadic contributions as opposed to a joint effort. This is in contrast to the organisational structure of IBIS, which was characterised by a higher degree of bureaucracy. The different features of bureaucracy in IBIS includes authority, division of labour and specialisation, and these features add to the effectiveness and coordination of the organisation.
Another feature of bureaucracy that was evident in IBIS, is that people are hired based on their qualifications, which in IBIS means that the employees are hired to perform certain tasks. The research further found that having employees means that the organisation can make demands on the staff, which is less common in relation to volunteers. The demands relates to skills, time invested, and completion of specific tasks, whereby the employees are expected to add quality and continuity to the organisation.

Certain expectations are also placed on an organisation when funded by Danida, for example transparency and quality assuring initiatives. Danida thus affect how the organisations operate and is administered. Moreover, the research found that Danida carries significant financial weight, which was illustrated both in IBIS and GtU, as IBIS received half of its financial resources from Danida, while GtU has achieved greater results through Danida partnerships. Furthermore, Danida’s demands on the organisation necessitates some level of employment due to the administrative aspects. At the same time, Danida places an emphasis on public participation, which gives rise to the “Danida paradox” as presented in the discussion.

However, the role of the volunteers in the Danish Third World development sector may be limited. The research found that the work of the volunteers in IBIS mainly amounts to providing information and raising awareness. This is a conscious decision by the management, as the employees conduct the work directly related to development aid. The volunteers are therefore not expected to perform tasks beyond providing information in Denmark.

However, the expectation and the role of volunteers in GtU is different than in IBIS, as the volunteers in GtU make up the entire workforce. They are thus also expected to perform tasks that would be covered by the employees in IBIS. Because of this, in GtU it is the volunteers who are expected to perform all tasks related to the organisation’s vision of development in the Third World. However, the limited resources of the organisation causes difficulties in transcending national borders, which causes the work of the organisation to be primarily centred on providing information and raising awareness in Denmark.

According to the discussion of this project, the tasks of raising awareness may have positive effects on the Danish development sector, as they are involved in raising support for development aid more generally. However, the research and discussion have exhibited evidence that because the activities of the volunteers in our cases mainly amounts to national efforts, the conclusion is that volunteers are not significantly contributing to Third World development.
Bibliography


