Study-Service

— A SURVEY

Prepared as a background paper for research into various aspects of study-service

Diana Fussell
and Andrew Quarmby
Abstract

This report, as a survey of study-service schemes, grew out of a study-service seminar in Yogyakarta, Indonesia, in November 1972. Its purpose is to outline what is happening in a number of countries, especially in Asia and Africa, in the development of study-service schemes. The schemes are designed to provide participants with a useful educational experience and at the same time give a practical service to the community. The report gives a broad picture of why such schemes are being created, explains what they do, describes the rationale for different methods of approach to the introduction of such schemes, including the constraints with which such schemes must operate, describes some incentives associated with study-service, and indicates some areas where research on study-service is needed.

Résumé

Le présent compte rendu, lequel est une étude des systèmes de services au cours des études, doit son origine à un colloque sur les systèmes de services au cours des études, tenu à Yogyakarta (Indonésie) en novembre 1972. Il a pour objet d'exposer comment se déroule dans certains pays, notamment en Asie et en Afrique, la mise au point des systèmes de services au cours des études. Ces systèmes ont été conçus en vue de permettre aux participants d'acquérir une expérience valable en matière éducative tout en fournissant des services utiles à la collectivité. Ce compte rendu donne un aperçu global des motifs pour lesquels ces mêmes systèmes sont en voie d'être créés. Il explique l'action de ces systèmes ainsi que la raison d'être des diverses méthodes d'introduction de ces systèmes. Il fait état des restrictions à l'intérieur desquelles ces systèmes sont appelés à fonctionner, ainsi que des moyens auxquels on a recours en vue d'encourager la mise en marche des services au cours des études. Il indique les secteurs où il y aurait lieu de procéder à des recherches sur les services au cours des études.
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The views expressed in this publication are those of the authors and do not necessarily represent the views of the International Development Research Centre.
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Preface

This report, funded by a grant from the International Development Research Centre, is an account of various study-service schemes in a number of developing countries. These schemes, organized within the framework of the national education systems, are intended to involve young people in practical activities, which help to assist and serve people in the communities as well as provide the participants with a valuable educational experience.

This report explains what such schemes attempt to achieve, why they are being introduced, and the reasoning behind the many methods of approach to their introduction and the difficulties encountered. Attention is also given to the areas where research on study-service schemes is needed.

The authors, Diana Fussell and Andrew Quarmby, have worked in the field of education, and specifically on study-service, for a number of years. They have undertaken consultative work assignments with the International Secretariat for Volunteer Service, UNICEF, the Ford Foundation, and the United Nations Development Program. They have written a number of reports analyzing study-service schemes in various countries, some of which have been published by the International Secretariat for Volunteer Service. They also edit and publish Study-Service Newsletter, a periodical containing news and comment about study-service and related schemes. At present they are living in Indonesia, working as consultants to BUTSI (the Indonesian Board for Volunteer Service) and KULIAH KERJA NYATA (Indonesia's national study-service scheme) under United Nations Development Program/United Nations Volunteers sponsorship.

We hope that this information will prove of interest and value to those presently engaged in working with study-service schemes and to those who may be in the process of establishing or promoting such activity.

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KULIAH KERJA NYATA participants describing their experiences to a faculty member during a field visit.
Introduction

Background

In November 1972, a group of people interested in study-service schemes, including representatives of many of the world’s pioneering schemes in this field (from Indonesia, Ethiopia, Nepal, Nigeria, Thailand, India, and the United Kingdom), met in Yogyakarta for a seminar organized by Indonesia’s Department of Education and Culture on “Study-Service Activities in Higher Education.” As far as we know, this was the first international meeting devoted specifically to the subject of study-service.

Participants at this seminar came to the conclusion that some research needed to be done on the effects of study-service activities. It was also suggested that this research be developed in the form of individual but parallel research projects in different countries, with the projects interlinked to allow an exchange of ideas on methods, experience, and results. As a preliminary step in helping this research get under way, the International Development Research Centre (IDRC) asked us to write this background paper on study-service.

Gaps and bias

We do not claim that this paper is either a complete survey of the world’s study-service schemes, or an objective analysis of the study-service phenomenon. We are personally too far involved in helping develop study-service schemes to be able to claim objectivity, and there are too many significant gaps in our experience of the world’s major study-service schemes for us to claim completeness. This paper merely relates what is happening in a number of countries and allows us to express some of the opinions developed during our experience in this field. The focus is on study-service at the post-secondary level of education, particularly in countries in Asia and Africa.

The study-service and related activities that are increasing in countries such as the United Kingdom and the United States are also important, but usually take a different form because of different conditions in these countries. These schemes are not described in any depth here as they are outside the focus of this paper and their inclusion would unnecessarily complicate it. However, we do mention some of the differences because it is important to appreciate that there are differences, and to understand the reasons for these. Otherwise, attempts may be made to transplant study-service concepts that are relevant in one situation but not in another, which could have very unfortunate results.

This is intended to be a background paper only; we hope it will be of use to other people who are also working to promote greater general understanding of why study-service schemes start and what happens thereafter. Research into various aspects of study-service could explore these schemes in greater depth, and provide detailed, data-backed analyses of the developing trend towards study-service.
What is study-service?

In early 1972, we began using the term "study-service" to describe a certain type of service scheme of which a number were already in existence and others were planned. These schemes, organized in the context of formal education, are characterized by their ability to:

- provide a worthwhile educational experience for those who participate in them;

- provide this experience by involving participants in practical activities that help meet the basic needs of other people (e.g., through agricultural extension, health care and education, social welfare work);

- encourage and help education systems to continually adapt themselves to the needs of society.

Participation in study-service schemes may be voluntary, or it may be a requirement for graduation or for other purposes. Participants in voluntary study-service schemes may or may not be able to earn academic credit for their service, and may be students of any age, enrolled in any kind of educational institution, at any level of study.

Service may be in a block, sandwiched between blocks of academic study; it may be blended into educational curricula, or carried out parallel to curricula, or it may come after the end of academic study. It may be full-time or part-time, short-term or long-term, in the participant's own country or in another country, in the participant's own local community or in another community.

Participants may receive a living allowance from the study-service scheme, or from another source, or they may be required to meet their expenses themselves.

In spite of this wide range of possibilities, study-service schemes can be identified by three characteristics that distinguish them from other service schemes and from work-study:

(1) study-service schemes are organized within the context of formal education, usually by educational institutions, and have the education of their participants as one of their major objectives;

(2) study-service schemes aim to directly help meet other people's basic needs, and this distinguishes them from most forms of what is often called "work-study," i.e., the gaining of practical experience in a work situation as part of an educational curriculum. Although work-study can obviously often overlap with study-service, the latter's major purpose of helping to meet other people's basic needs has a major educational effect that can be lacking in work-study. This effect comes about largely because helping to meet other people's basic needs usually involves trying to change an existing situation, an experience that often brings a clear (sometimes painfully clear) understanding of the forces that exist within society. On the other hand, work-study may merely involve participation in the normal daily routine of an office or factory or farm, with no intention of effecting changes, and may therefore result in little understanding of underlying elements in the situation. However, some forms of work-study do, in fact, have the characteristics we ascribe to study-service;

(3) other service schemes, because they are not organized within the context of formal education, do not usually have the same opportunity to help and encourage education systems to continually adapt to the needs of society.
Why define study-service?

Any attempt to define study-service carries with it the risk of putting limits on discussion of those schemes that become marginal for inclusion under whatever definition is eventually decided upon. This could be undesirable as many schemes that do not strictly fit within the definition given above have great significance in the development of study-service.

On the other hand, without a definition as a starting point, it is difficult to begin to discuss the study-service phenomenon. It is also difficult to resist a tendency to include ever-widening circles of related schemes until eventually the range of differences between schemes becomes so great that there is little common ground for discussion.

Our definition of study-service, i.e., the three distinguishing characteristics mentioned above, is just a starting point from which discussion can expand to include any related schemes of particular significance. The definition remains available to refer back to whenever it is felt that discussion is straying too far from the basic theme.

We are particularly concerned to avoid the exclusion from discussion of a number of schemes, e.g., BUTSI in Indonesia, various corps in Iran, schemes in Tamil Nadu and Mysore in India, and the Sarvodaya Shramadana Movement in Sri Lanka, which are achieving many (but not all) of the potential effects of study-service schemes and which in several cases are helping study-service schemes to develop. The one single and very important characteristic that usually distinguishes them from study-service schemes is that they are not organized by educational institutions (in the usual meaning of that term).

*An Education Corps teacher in Iran*
What form does study-service take?

Documentation on study-service schemes is very limited, and this paper is based almost entirely on information we have collected personally over the past 6 years by visiting or working with the schemes to which we refer.

We are well aware of the large gaps in our coverage, the most significant being Central and South America, the Soviet Union, Eastern Europe, and the People’s Republic of China (we know that in China there are widespread and important activities in this field, and that in several South American countries there are activities of this kind). Also, our visits to study-service and related schemes in one or two of the countries (e.g., Iran and the Philippines) took place some time ago and so in the situation in these countries there may be changes of which we are not aware.

Nevertheless, we believe that the study-service schemes referred to in this paper represent the current extent and nature of study-service in a large part of the world.

A classification

Based on our observations and experience, we think of study-service schemes in terms of four types or families of schemes, and we also recognize two families of related service schemes as having some importance in helping study-service to develop. We identify these different families with the following terms:

"Intervening" schemes: this type involves a period of full-time service occurring between periods of academic study. We are particularly interested in those “intervening” schemes where service is comparatively long-term, i.e., 6 months or more.

"Interwoven" schemes: in this case service activities are continuously integrated into or interwoven with the more traditional parts of the curriculum.

"Subsequent" schemes: a period of service (usually full-time and long-term) follows graduation.

"Parallel" schemes: service activities are undertaken on a part-time basis in the students’ own time, or in part of their class time, but not integrated into or interwoven with their academic studies.

A “parallel” scheme may at first be mistaken for an “interwoven” scheme. In both, service may take place in the students’ own time or during part of class hours. The difference lies in whether the study-service activities are continuously related to the coursework or not. Where the program of service activities is organized more or less regardless of classroom studies, then we would classify it as a “parallel” scheme. Often students involved in “parallel” schemes are supervised and guided by faculty members who are not their regular teachers, indicating little direct connection between their study-service activities and their other studies.

Related service schemes are service schemes not organized in the context of formal education, but that achieve some of the effects of study-service schemes. One family of these schemes is characterized by full-time, long-term service following graduation or dropping out, and the other family by part-time or very short-term service.
Examples of the various types of study-service and related schemes can be seen in Table 1, which is based on the schemes with which we are familiar, grouped into their various families. A fuller description of some of these schemes follows below.

**Table 1. Study-service schemes and related schemes on which this report is based.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Study-service schemes</th>
<th>Service a requirement</th>
<th>Service voluntary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>“Intervening” schemes</td>
<td><strong>Pakistan:</strong> Activities at Peshawar University (1953)</td>
<td><strong>USA:</strong> Schemes such as Volunteers in Asia (1963) and University Year for ACTION* (1972)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A period of full-time service sandwiched between periods of academic study</td>
<td><strong>Ethiopia:</strong> Ethiopian University Service (1964)</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td><strong>Philippines:</strong> Activities at the University of Nueva Caceres (1968); Youth Civic Action Program* (1972)</td>
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<td></td>
<td><strong>Indonesia:</strong> KULIAH KERJA NYATA (1972)</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td><strong>Nepal:</strong> National Development Service (1973)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“Interwoven” schemes</td>
<td><strong>USA:</strong> Teacher Corps (1965)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Part-time service continuously integrated with or interwoven into other, more theoretical course content</td>
<td><strong>UK:</strong> Some community service activities in secondary schools</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“Subsequent” schemes</td>
<td><strong>Nigeria:</strong> National Youth Service Corps (1973)</td>
<td><strong>Thailand:</strong> Volunteer Graduate Certificate Scheme (1969)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A period of full-time service following graduation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“Parallel” schemes</td>
<td><strong>UK:</strong> Some community service activities in secondary schools</td>
<td><strong>India:</strong> National Service Scheme (1969)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Usually part-time service that is not interwoven with the more theoretical course content</td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>USA &amp; UK:</strong> “Youth Tutors Youth” activities</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(continued)
(Table 1 concluded)

### Related Service Schemes

| Long-term, full-time service following graduation or dropping out | Iran: Educational Corps (1963); Health Corps (1964); Extension and Development Corps (1965) | Sri Lanka: Sarvodaya Shramadana Movement (1958) |
| Thailand: Arsa Pattana (1967); Youth Development Volunteer Project (1973) |
| Philippines: Volunteers for the Improvement of the Philippines (1967); Operation Hope (1969) |
| Indonesia: BUTSI (1968) |
| Iran: Women's Corps (1968) |
| India: Mysore Development Corps (1971) and Tamil Nadu Youth Service Corps (1971) |
| Various "export" volunteer schemes, e.g., Peace Corps, CUSO, VSO, VSA, and AVA |
| Various "domestic" volunteer schemes, e.g., CVS (UK), CV (New Zealand), VISTA (USA), CYC (Canada) |

| Very short-term or part-time service |
| Hong Kong: Association of Volunteers for Service (1970) |
| Vacation activities by students in a number of countries, in particular Burma, Malaysia, Philippines, and Thailand |
| Activities supported by SCANUS in the United Kingdom |

*Schemes that we have not worked with or visited and where our information is therefore limited and indirect.*
What do study-service schemes do?

"Intervening" schemes

THE ETHIOPIAN UNIVERSITY SERVICE (EUS)

In 1964, the Council of Ethiopia's only university, Heile Selassie I University in Addis Ababa, decided that from then on, all students wishing to graduate would have to spend 1 additional academic year working in the rural areas.

The sudden imposition of this service requirement on students already enrolled created predictable opposition on the campus, but the decree was enforced, although the pill was sweetened a little by paying the students more than adequate living allowances (US $70 per month).

Different faculties have implemented the service requirement in different ways, most sandwiching it between the 3rd and last years of academic study. The medical faculty never implemented it at all, claiming the graduates' internship year as an equivalent. (However, the medical faculty is now beginning to realize that rural service in preventive medicine can offer its students something that hospital internship cannot give them.) Exemptions are given to people who have already served for 6 years in rural areas before beginning their studies.

Most of the EUS participants (whose numbers have ranged from 300 to 560 per year) have been assigned to help alleviate the critical shortage of teachers in rural secondary schools. Some of them have been education students, but for many, teaching has been an assignment outside their field of study (although some have taught their own subject, e.g., geography). A minority have been assigned outside teaching, in agricultural projects or as engineers, pharmacists, or geologists.

The EUS has received a basic administration grant from the University's budget but the bulk of its funding, i.e., the students' living allowances, has been paid directly to the students by those employing them (mainly the Department of Education) and other government departments, as well as a few private employers.

The political activism of some Ethiopian students went with them when they joined the EUS for their year of service, and this has caused some problems for both them and the EUS. However, the EUS's major problems, which seem to be increasing, do not result from this political activism but, in our opinion, largely from the policies and practices adopted when the scheme was created. Placing the students in unfilled job-slots for which funding was already available from outside sources (e.g., the Department of Education) seemed a good way of introducing the scheme. It provided structured assignments and avoided the university having to seek a major budget increase as would have been necessary if the allowances had been paid through the EUS itself.

However, by opting for this system, the EUS limited itself to whatever the job market had to offer. With the increasing availability of graduates, this job market is shrinking and graduates are now competing with the EUS for the available jobs. Also, the conventional job market does not necessarily include jobs in a number of fields (e.g., village-level rural
An Ethiopian University Service participant teaching in a rural secondary school

development work), which could be very valuable in giving student participants a useful education experience as well as helping to meet some of their country's most urgent needs.

Those in the university pressing for changes in the EUS are far from agreed as to what form the changes would take, and this may delay any major changes. The university is beginning an evaluation of the EUS and this may resolve the differences and provide much-needed new policies and procedures. Further, the EUS has recently begun a pilot project in which some new approaches to assignments are already being tried out.
INDONESIA'S KULIAH KERJA NYATA (KKN)

Indonesia has a long history of linking service with education, going back to the student army whose members fought in the independence struggle and at the same time taught in high schools opened in rural areas to replace those in the Dutch-held towns. This was followed by the PTM scheme (in which students volunteered to teach in remote high schools), by BAMAS (in which agricultural students worked in rural areas for 6–9 months to help increase rice production), and currently by BUTSI (which since 1969 has been recruiting graduates as volunteers for 2 years of service as village-level generalist community development workers).

The experience and achievements of these various service schemes, together with the particular philosophy of higher education institutions in Indonesia, expressed as the "Tri Dharma" (three functions): education, research, and community service, have undoubtedly contributed to the current very strong move to create a national study-service scheme, KULIAH KERJA NYATA (KKN).

In February 1972, President Soeharto announced that he would like all university students to spend at least 6 months working in rural areas as part of their education, and it has subsequently become part of Indonesia's national education policy to institute such a service requirement as soon as this can be done.

Koesnadi Hardjasoemantri S.H., the Director of Higher Education of the Department of Education and Culture (which had funded three preliminary pilot projects in 1971/72) gave 13 government universities in different provinces the opportunity to run study-service pilot projects during 1973/74. The Directorate of Higher Education provided basic guidelines, consultative services, and some funding for these pilot projects and the 13 universities have been free to develop their schemes in whichever way they consider appropriate for local conditions. They were expected to obtain additional financing from the provincial government or from other local sources, and many of them have had considerable success in this.

To get this support they had to design their pilot projects to fit local development needs as seen by the provincial governments, as well as to fit their own needs as educational institutions. The result in many cases has been the development of very sound pilot projects and an excellent foundation of cooperation between the universities and the provincial governments and extension services, which will be invaluable for the future. If large amounts of financial support had been made available by the central government it is possible that the incentive for this close cooperation would not have been present.

The Directorate is aware of this, and, while encouraging universities to expand their study-service activities, it is still deliberately limiting the supply of central funding and suggesting that the balance of funding needs be met from local sources.

Most of the 13 pilot projects have achieved very encouraging results and the universities have developed the necessary organization and techniques remarkably quickly, partly because the guidelines for the pilot projects drew heavily on BUTSI's experience, which enabled the projects to avoid some of the problems they might otherwise have encountered.

Like BUTSI, most of the universities have successfully assigned their students as generalist, village-level, community development workers, one or two to a village in contiguous villages. Unlike BUTSI (whose graduate volunteers almost all come from a limited range of arts and humanities faculties) the students assigned to the villages in the one subdistrict form an interdisciplinary team with students able to support the local extension services in giving advice and assistance to their fellow participants who tackle activities outside their own fields of study.

A noticeable feature of the 13 pilot projects has been their low cost. A total of 410 students (mainly from the 4th year level) were involved for up to 6 months of work in the field in village-level rural development activities. The total cost was approximately
Rp (rupiah) 23½m (US $56,400) of which half was provided by the Directorate of Higher Education, and half obtained by individual universities from their local governments. The cost per student per month in the field varied between universities, with most coming in the range of Rp 12,000–20,000 (US $29–48). One-third to one-half of these costs per student per month was the cost of living allowances for the students.

As a result of the success of the 1973/74 pilot projects, the Department of Education and Culture plans a further development of the scheme for 1974/75 with the 13 universities expanding their activities, and two other big universities joining the group. The plan is for the KULIAH KERJA NYATA scheme to be expanded year by year until all 40 of Indonesia's government institutions of higher education and all the numerous nongovernment institutions become involved, with at least 6 months of service a requirement for all students. This will probably involve about 23,000 students per year.

Encouragement from outside the Department of Education and Culture to expand the scheme is also increasing, partly because Indonesia is at the beginning of its second Five Year Development Plan, which is giving particular attention to social development and the wider distribution of the benefits of Indonesia's recovering economic development. It is being increasingly realized that BUTSI and KKN are two of the few ways available of supplying the critically needed effective village-level extension and development workers, and as a result both schemes feature in the Second Plan and are under some pressure to expand.

A KULIAH KERJA NYATA participant, an engineering student, assigned as a generalist, helping a villager construct a water wheel to help meet village energy needs
Nepal's National Education Plan for 1971-76, which is now being implemented, contains provision for the creation of a National Development Service in which all university students would be required to serve for 1 year. The basic concepts underlying the National Development Service have been under discussion in Nepal for some time. Tribhuvan University, which, under the National Development Plan, now incorporates all institutions of higher education, has been given responsibility for planning the NDS in detail and for implementing this plan.

In March/April 1973, a university team under the leadership of the then Vice-Chancellor, Dr T. N. Upraity, prepared a detailed plan for the NDS, which was then submitted to the National Education Committee. It received approval and is now beginning to be implemented in a preliminary voluntary pilot project stage.

In its first main stage, it is planned that the NDS will insert a year of development service between the 2 years of academic study of the degree course (i.e., between the 5th and 6th years of post-secondary education). This will involve some 350-400 students per year, beginning with those enrolling for degree studies in July 1973, who have been warned of their service requirement on enrollment. In a few years, when the university has built up enough experience to be able to handle larger numbers, the service requirement will be moved from the degree to the diploma level (i.e., between the 3rd and 4th year of post-secondary education), which will involve approximately 3000 students per year.

In the period before the first students become eligible for this service requirement in July 1974, the university is running some voluntary pilot projects to gain experience and train staff members ready for the full-scale scheme. The first pilot project involving 10 people began in September 1973 and a second one involving 12 persons began in February 1974. By July of this year the university hoped to have over 300 students involved.

The university's plan stresses the NDS' intention of remaining flexible and developing its activities in accordance with its own field experience. It has begun by assigning one or two students to a village as village-level development workers to spend part of their time teaching in the local school, and the rest of their time doing health education, agricultural extension, or construction work.

Students receive an allowance of approximately Rs (rupees) 200 (US $20) per month paid through the NDS, and the government has allocated Rs 9,750,000 for the NDS for the period 1971-76. UNICEF is committed to helping the general development of the NDS and is also very interested in helping establish a "communication unit" at the university, linked to the NDS.

Other "Intervening" Study-Service Schemes

A few years ago, the University of Nueva Caceres in Bicol, Philippines, began to require students of education to spend 8 weeks as community development workers in nearby villages as part of their training as teachers, and this practice has subsequently spread to other faculties at the university and to other colleges and universities.

In December 1972, the Secretary of Education in the Philippines made participation for 5 weeks in community service activities during the summer vacation a graduation requirement for all college students, under the title "Youth Civic Action Program."

Since 1953, students at Peshawar University in Pakistan have had to spend 3 weeks on one summer vacation working in community service activities (frequently manual labour, building roads, etc.) as a requirement for graduation.

At the moment, Dr Puey Ungphakorn, the original founder of the Thailand Graduate Volunteer Program, is engaged in starting a new project that will involve faculty and students in a study-service type of operation.
The program, known as the Mae Klong Integrated Rural Development Project, is a joint effort of three universities represented by Kasetsart University for agriculture, Thammasat University for social sciences, and Mahidol University for health and sanitation. The work began early in 1974 with research to lay out plans for the development project. The research effort was an overall survey of the area of the Mae Klong River Basin and utilized students as enumerators in an in-depth study of selected areas and a gradual beginning of the Mae Klong Development Program. These two steps of the second phase will be undertaken by teams of combined faculty members and students from the three universities, who will be living and working in the villages for a period of 4 months for each team.

We are aware of study-service activities of one sort or another in several South American countries but do not yet know many details. From time to time we hear rumours of other similar developments, but these are frequently difficult to confirm or disprove.

“Interwoven” schemes

Teacher Corps in the United States is a good example of a major scheme of this type with participants serving each day in schools in ghetto and depressed rural areas as an integral part of their training as teachers and with this service interwoven into their theoretical training.

Other examples are some of the community service activities in schools in the United Kingdom. Examples of “interwoven” schemes in developing countries are much harder to find although it appears that medical faculties in at least two universities (in Turkey and Indonesia) are developing community medicine curricula that are based on “interwoven” study-service.

A Teacher Corps participant tutoring a slow learner in a Kansas City school, sitting in the corridor because of a lack of room
“Subsequent” schemes

**Nigeria’s national youth service corps (NYSC)**

Nigeria has been contemplating the introduction of study-service since at least 1968, and there were moves to establish an “inter-vening” scheme at one stage. The universities favoured this approach whereas the federal government favoured service after graduation because, it was argued, graduates had more to offer than students and would provide a better service.

After a long delay, in October 1972 General Gowon, the head of state, announced that the National Youth Service Corps would be created in July 1973 by requiring all new university graduates to serve for one year where directed by the government. (It is planned to expand the scheme later to include young people with a lower educational background.)

The government’s decision sparked off some student opposition that became open and quite violent in February 1973, but by the time we visited Nigeria in June 1973 this opposition had subsided, as it had been made clear that the graduates involved would receive a more than adequate living allowance of about US $180 per month (i.e., approximately the salary of a new graduate on joining the public service) rather than the US $45 that had been rumoured.

At the time of our visit, arrangements were proceeding quickly for the approximately 2,500 new graduates to be registered ready to begin their training on 2 July to serve mostly as teachers or community development workers. The universities will assist with training and some supervision, but the organization of this scheme is being directed from the centre by an NYSC Directorate headed by the Commissioner for Economic Development. However, because of this university involvement, and because the decree establishing the NYSC clearly states that the education of the participants is a major goal, we see the NYSC as a study-service scheme.

**Thailand’s volunteer graduate certificate scheme (VGCS)**

In 1969, Dr Puey Ungphakorn, then Dean of Economics at Thammasat University and Director of the Bank of Thailand, began the Volunteer Graduate Certificate Scheme that now recruits each year some 30-40 new graduates from various universities to work as volunteers in rural areas.

The volunteers, most of whom work as teachers, receive 2 months training, work in the field for approximately 7 months, and then spend 1 month back at their universities discussing their experiences and writing a thesis on them. The volunteers receive a living allowance, and those who serve satisfactorily receive a certificate in addition to their degree.

This scheme has considerable potential for expansion in its present form, and it would appear that lack of funds has been the major factor preventing expansion. (The scheme is dependent on a very limited government grant.) It may eventually develop into, or catalyze the creation of, a study-service scheme in which service is required at some stage in university studies.

“Parallel” schemes

**India’s national service scheme (NSS)**

In 1970, the central government in India created a National Service Scheme through which higher education students, as an alternative to military cadet training or sports, could undertake part-time or very short-term full-time community service activities under the supervision of, and funded through, their educational institutions.

This scheme has slowly established itself with mixed results depending on the interest and capabilities of the individual educational institutions, and its experience reflects the fact that central government-sponsored activities are severely handicapped in the field of education, which is basically under the control of state governments. In general, the
scheme's sponsoring agency, the Youth Division of the Ministry of Education and Social Welfare, has felt that the operation of the NSS could be improved, and this has led to the recent establishment of some new directions for the scheme.

During our most recent visit to India in June 1973, we were told that the NSS will in future press for:

- the incorporation of work-oriented field assignments into curricula;
- more vacation work-camp type projects involving out-of-school youth as well as students;
- the establishment of a National Service Volunteer Scheme, which will begin by recruiting 2,000 graduates a year (rising to 20,000 within 5 years) for 1 year of full-time service.

This last of the three new directions will in fact be a "subsequent" scheme.

A BUTSI volunteer (a fine arts graduate) with an incubator he built himself to help a duck farmer's cooperative get under way
Some important related service schemes

**Indonesia's BUTSI**

BUTSI (the Indonesian Board for Volunteer Service) recruits university graduates for 2 years of service as volunteer, village-level, generalist, community development workers. Under the direction of its Secretary, Dr W. P. Napitupulu, BUTSI has done a great deal to pioneer this role as an effective assignment for participants in service schemes, and this pioneering work is influencing the form of study-service schemes in Indonesia and elsewhere.

**BUTSI** is the latest in a number of service schemes in Indonesia that have led to the creation of Indonesia's national study-service scheme and it is an excellent example of the way related service schemes can help study-service schemes be established. BUTSI itself continues to play a very useful role in re-educating university graduates, and helping to fill the need for village-level extension workers. There are plans for BUTSI to be expanded significantly in 1974.

**Iran's Education, Health, Extension, and Women's Corps**

Iran, through its four development corps, has clearly demonstrated that young, educated people can be very successfully organized on a large scale for village level development work. The four corps together now involve more than 20,000 young educated women and men (from a population of 26 million) working in rural areas for 18 months (after 6 months training). Military service is a requirement for all young Iranian men, but those with high school education or above can undertake alternative service in the Education Corps, Health Corps, or Development and Extension Corps. Educated young women can volunteer to serve in the Women's Corps.

A combination of factors, not necessarily present in other countries, has been important in the development of the various corps and in the success they have achieved. These include major land reform, which created a leadership vacuum in rural areas that the corps participants helped to fill, high status for the military, and the availability of ample finance. However, countries contemplating study-service schemes involving thousands of participants can still learn much from Iran's experience in organizing large-scale service schemes successfully.

**Sri Lanka's Sarvodaya Shramadana Movement**

The Sarvodaya Shramadana Movement in Sri Lanka remains largely independent of the government and is steadily increasing in strength, experience, and reputation. Sarvodaya is based on a very deeply thought-through form of service, beginning at the pre-school level, and continuing on right through life. Its strong philosophical foundation is based on a mixture of Ghandian and Buddhist philosophy, supported by Singhalese culture and tradition (although its supporters and activities include non-Ghandidians, non-Singhalese, and non-Buddhists).

The movement owes much of its strength to the personality, drive, and inspirations of its founder and Organizing Secretary, A. T. Ariaratne.

Sarvodaya seeks to awaken people to their own ability to control and improve their lives. It seeks to promote development from the village up, rather than from the central government down. Sarvodaya's activities in the hundreds of villages linked to it begin with voluntary work-camps that are followed up by an interwoven series of other activities, including the establishment of village councils of farmers, women, youths, and children, village schools, libraries, credit facilities, and training courses. Learning through serving others is a common thread that runs through all its activities.

**India's Mysore Development Corps and Tamil Nadu Youth Service Corps**

Two states in India, Tamil Nadu and Mysore, have been operating long-term full-time volunteer service schemes for the past 2 years, involving the recruitment, training, assignment, and support of unemployed graduates in village-level development work.

Their success has prompted the Planning Commission to offer to finance similar schemes if organized by other state governments or by central government departments, and it probably encouraged the proposal mentioned above, to create a National Service Volunteer Scheme.
Other activities and possibilities

In mid-1973, during a break from our activities in Indonesia, we did some work under UNICEF sponsorship in Nepal (working with the Tribhuvan University team that prepared the final plan for the National Development Service) and India and Sri Lanka (working with UNICEF seeking opportunities for mutual beneficial cooperation between UNICEF and study-service and related schemes). This gave us the chance to travel to a number of countries to bring ourselves up to date with some moves toward study-service schemes. The range of our travel was considerably widened by some assistance from IDRC, which enabled us to visit some African countries. We were able to call in at a seminar on study-service organized by the Ethiopian University Service in conjunction with the International Secretariat for Volunteer Service held in Addis Ababa in May. At that seminar, we met a number of people from other African countries who were able to tell us something of the interest in study-service in their countries. The following is a brief summary of the study-service situation in a number of countries.

Malaysia

Activities related to study-service are at a very early stage in Malaysia, being largely confined to short-term, limited, student-organized volunteer vacation activities. However, the interest is definitely there, both among students and some university administrators, and more long-term and extensive activities may develop soon.

Possibilities for study-service in Burma, which we became aware of on previous visits, are developing slowly. The government's main activities in this field are the organizing of thousands of students for vacation work in literacy teaching, economic surveys, and on building sites, etc. However, as yet there is little sign of anything developing that involves longer term service, or that is more linked to the curriculum other than a scheme whereby university students help make science equipment for use in secondary schools.

Sri Lanka

Two significant sources of support for the development of study-service in Sri Lanka are the Education Ministry and the Planning Ministry. The Vice-Chancellor of the University of Sri Lanka (which now embraces all institutions of higher education) also supports the idea of a study-service scheme. However, specific thinking on study-service is at an early stage in Sri Lanka.

Tanzania

It appears from the report presented by the Tanzanian representative to the seminar that development service activities in Tanzania do not involve university students while they are at university. Participation in the National Service Scheme (which is a requirement for all youths with Form 4 education and above) involves 3 months military training, 2 months of service in an ujamaa village, 18 months of service "on the job" (which means working in a normal job for a tax-free 40% of basic salary), and 1 month of refresher military training. University students do the first 5 months before their studies, and the remaining 19 months after they graduate.
It appears that there is support in the University of Dar-es-Salaam for the creation of some sort of study-service scheme that would involve students while they are at university, and also add considerably to the total time this particular group of young Tanzanians spends in development service.

Sudan

The four Sudanese delegates to the seminar expressed great interest in study-service. The delegation consisted of two students, a lecturer, and an official of the Ministry of Youth, a foundation for the sort of cooperation needed for the establishment of a study-service scheme.

Jordan

The two Jordanian representatives were not optimistic about the possibilities of study-service beginning in Jordan in the near future, but were enthusiastic about the idea of beginning a volunteer service scheme for graduates.

Ghana

National Service in Ghana was announced by the head of state on 1 September 1973 and was to begin immediately. We understand that it applies to university students after their first degree, that it is a requirement, that the initial emphasis is on teaching posts, and that there are plans to diversify in future.

Kenya, Botswana, Lesotho, Swaziland

The representatives from Kenya and the representatives of the University of Botswana, Lesotho, and Swaziland expressed interest in the study-service concept but were not optimistic about possibilities for study-service schemes developing in these countries in the near future. A number of African countries have development service schemes of the type represented by the Kenya National Youth Service and the Botswana's brigades, but the relationship between this type of scheme and study-service is not explored in this paper.
Differences in approach

As one would expect, there are many differences between the various study-service schemes that have been established. Many of these differences are relatively minor and do not need to be discussed in this paper, but three differences, concerning some very basic features, require comment. They concern:

1. whether participation is voluntary or a requirement;
2. whether the approach developed is
   (a) "intervening"
   (b) "interwoven"
   (c) "subsequent"
   (d) "parallel"
3. whether (a) students are assigned as generalists
   or (b) as specialists working largely in activities related to their own fields of study

Any attempt to understand the reasons for these differences, or to assess the effectiveness of different approaches, must take into account the nature of education systems and general development conditions at the time in the various countries concerned. The particular approach developed in a country usually results from, and is appropriate to, conditions in that country, and is not necessarily transferable to another country.

Service — voluntary or a requirement?

Although this question has been the subject of much debate among people in Europe and North America involved with service schemes, it does not seem to be a major issue in developing countries and most study-service schemes that we are familiar with in such countries have, or plan to have, service as a requirement, just as other aspects of formal education (e.g., sitting exams) are also a requirement. In schemes where service is a requirement, all students are exposed to its educational effects, and not just those who volunteer to serve (who are often the ones who need the experience least).

“Intervening,” “interwoven,” “subsequent,” or “parallel”?

The thorough integration of study-service activities into conventional studies (i.e., the "interwoven" approach) has its strong advocates, and it certainly appears to have many merits that comply with current trends towards changes in conventional studies. We believe it to be likely (and desirable) that a number of "interwoven" schemes will eventually emerge as offshoots of some of the schemes based on other approaches that are now in operation or are being planned.

However, at the moment, the majority of significant study-service schemes in developing countries that we are familiar with are long-term "intervening" schemes (e.g., EUS, KKN, and NDS). There are also some "subsequent" schemes and "parallel" schemes, but very few attempts to develop an "interwoven" approach. This indicates that at present anyway, long-term full-time schemes, and particularly the "intervening" approach, have more attractions for developing countries than part-time schemes (i.e., "interwoven" or "parallel").

Research into various aspects of study-service may establish why this is so. In the meantime, pending availability of research findings, an examination of these four different approaches in relation to the objectives reflected by the three characteristics of study-
service mentioned earlier suggests several possible reasons for this tendency in developing countries towards long-term full-time schemes and in particular the intervening approach.

An additional factor that may reinforce this tendency is the question of the relative ease of introduction into educational institutions of schemes based on these different approaches.

RELATIONSHIP TO OBJECTIVES

"Involving participants in practical activities which help meet the basic needs of other people"

A major purpose of many study-service schemes is to enable students to contribute directly to national development through their study-service activities.

In countries such as the United Kingdom and the United States, the majority of people now live in urban or semi-urban areas. As a result, this is where the great majority of social and other development problems are to be found. This is also of course where one finds most educational institutions. Potential assignments for study-service participants are therefore within easy reach of the educational institutions, and part-time service schemes based on either an “interwoven” or parallel approach are quite practicable. With well-developed and relatively inexpensive transport facilities, even assignments in rural areas at a considerable distance from the institution can still be tackled on a part-time basis. The trend in such countries has been towards a part-time approach.

In most developing countries, the situation is quite different. The majority of the population lives in rural areas; economies are largely rural-based; many of the most urgent development needs are in rural areas; and there is usually a shortage of educated manpower able and willing to tackle development work in rural areas. It is therefore not surprising that rural development work is chosen for the majority or all of the assignments for many study-service and related service schemes in developing countries.

However, although the assignments are in rural areas, secondary and post-secondary educational institutions are usually in towns and cities, often separated from the most needy rural areas by bad roads, mountains, seas and rivers, and inadequate and expensive transport facilities. This encourages the development of either the “intervening” or the “subsequent” approach for study-service activities because their basis of long-term, full-time service allows the placement of the students in the rural areas where they are needed.

The tendency of these distance and transport problems to influence choice of a long-term full-time approach is reinforced by the view, widely held and freely stated by local government officials and extension workers that, if participants in study-service schemes wish to be effective in rural development work, they should live and work full time in rural areas for as long as possible. As the help and support of these officials and extension workers can be very important for the success of a study-service scheme, their views carry weight.

"Provide a worthwhile educational experience for those who participate"

A major purpose of many study-service schemes in developing countries is to help students truly understand through practical experience the development needs and problems of their country. The use of a part-time approach (i.e., “interwoven” or “parallel”) could compel these schemes to assign students in urban areas or in rural areas close to towns. These areas are usually atypical of the country and also often already receive a more than fair share of development assistance. To assign students in these areas could give them a very distorted picture of their country’s development needs and problems, thereby defeating the purpose.

A view quite widely held is that service in rural development work is likely to have a greater effect on the students concerned if it is long term and full time than if it is short term or part-time. Like several others, this factor warrants researching, but that does not
alter the fact that the view is held and apparently influences the choice of approach.

For example, it is felt that students who know at the beginning of their assignments that they will be required to live in a village for a period of several months will be pushed by this knowledge to make some mental adjustment to the idea of village life and the associated lack of facilities. These students, because of this adjustment, may then begin to find some compensations in village life, e.g., the satisfaction earned from their own response to the challenge of helping meet village development needs, and the respect and affection they can earn from the villagers. Among other effects, these compensations may help to break down the reluctance to accept employment in rural areas.

On the other hand, it is felt that those students who visit villages in the course of part-time study-service schemes, and who then retreat daily or weekly to their educational institutions and their urban accommodation, are not pushed to make this adjustment, and may in fact shut their minds to many aspects of village life. Also, because they may be handicapped by their part-time role in achieving integration into village life, and success in some of the projects that form part of rural development work, they may also often be denied the satisfactions that can help compensate for other aspects of rural life.

This purpose of providing an educational experience also has an effect on the choice between the two kinds of long-term full-time approach ("intervening" and "subsequent"), for it is widely felt that the effects of study-service on the students involved can be greatly increased if, after their service, they return to their institutions for further study, during which their experiences can be discussed, analyzed, and consolidated.

"Encourage and help education systems to continually adapt to the needs of society"

Students involved in "intervening," "interwoven," or "parallel" study-service schemes usually return to their educational institutions for further study after their service. This allows considerable feedback into the institution, which can be very valuable for such things as curriculum development and for its effect on lecturers and other students who have not yet served. This feedback element is usually very limited or nonexistent in a "subsequent" scheme.

"Interwoven" schemes, through the continuous integration of study-service activities with more traditional forms of study, probably have the greatest potential to have an effect through feedback. However, as mentioned above, the "interwoven" approach (like the "parallel" approach) has the major disadvantage for schemes in developing countries based on rural development of having a part-time basis. Also, as explained in the next few paragraphs, "interwoven" schemes have a further disadvantage in that they may be more difficult to introduce than schemes based on other approaches.

RELATIVE EASE OF INTRODUCTION

For a study-service scheme to achieve any of the objectives described above it must first be successfully introduced, which means it should be designed so that the ordinary person in the ordinary educational institution can cope with it, and it should not appear so difficult and demanding to establish that it automatically generates resistance against its creation.

The creation of a successful study-service scheme (of whatever type) within an established educational institution presents a considerable challenge to the academic staff, and a large number of adjustments have to be made. However, the adjustments required, and the pressure on staff, are likely to be greater during the establishment of an "interwoven" scheme than in the case of any of the other three types. This is because a number of changes must be made in curriculum and syllabus and manner of teaching before an "interwoven" scheme can begin, which is not necessarily so with the other types of scheme.

Also, the daily demands of an "interwoven" scheme on the innovative capacities and flex-
ibility of a large number of staff members may be high, because of the constant need to integrate study-service activities into academic study. In contrast, the other approaches usually involve a more limited number of staff, and the wider separation of study-service activities and more traditional study usually presents a simpler challenge.

Because of this wider separation, “intervening,” “subsequent,” and “parallel” schemes may be at some disadvantage in terms of their effect on the educational institution, but they offer distinct advantages in the situation where institutions are deciding whether or not to introduce study-service, and are concerned whether faculty members will agree to accept the challenges and disruptions involved.

It may be that, in some situations, the development of some “interwoven” activities may be made possible by the institution first passing through the stage of having a study-service scheme based on one of the other approaches.

To be successfully introduced, study-service schemes must be acceptable not only to faculty members, but also to students, and to such people as local government officials and extension workers. The views of the latter group with regard to choice of approach have been covered above. As far as the students’ views are concerned, there are some indications that a service requirement as a student (e.g., the “intervening” approach) may be more acceptable than a service requirement following graduation (i.e., the “subsequent” approach) but this question is by no means clear and warrants the attention of researchers.
Specialist or generalist?

Two major different approaches to assignment of participants in study-service schemes have become apparent. Under the specialist approach participants work in development service activities related to their individual fields of study. Under the generalist approach, participants are expected to be involved in a number of fields of activity, with perhaps some emphasis on activities related to their individual fields of study.

At the EUS/ISVS seminar in Addis Ababa, in May 1973, a majority of the participants produced a recommendation for the specialist approach. However, only three of the Asian and African countries represented there actually have study-service schemes: Ethiopia, Nepal, and Indonesia. Indonesia’s KKN scheme is based on a generalist approach; Nepal’s NDS is taking a basically generalist approach; and the EUS with its new pilot project now seems to be moving towards a more generalist approach. From that gathering at least, one might conclude that the practical experience of organizing study-service tends to lead people in developing countries to favour the generalist approach.

We have noticed that people who tend to consider education from the point of view of individual disciplines usually favour the specialist approach, whereas the generalist approach is usually preferred by those who believe that educational institutions should do more to help students to gain experience outside their main fields of study.

Both these points of view relate to the study aspect of study-service. Study-service is not study only, it is also service, and it must also therefore be considered from the viewpoint of the needs of the community it seeks to serve and to learn from. This viewpoint becomes even more important when it is realized that study-service schemes are likely to maximize their success if they are developed not as projects of educational institutions, but as joint ventures between educational institutions and the community and the other organizations that serve it. Viewed from the point of the development needs of the community, the generalist approach often has many attractions, as is illustrated by an explanation of several factors in the Indonesian situation.

Providing a personal incentive for cooperation

Lack of cooperation and coordination among government departments often poses a major stumbling block to development, particularly in rural areas. In Indonesia this problem has been publicly acknowledged and more cooperation and coordination urged (under the acronym KISS) but the situation has not improved greatly. The existing situation tends to be reinforced whenever new graduates are recruited as staff by the various departments. Many graduates come to the departments accustomed to working in one discipline only and with little or no experience in cooperating with people in other fields. A further reinforcement is the lack of real personal incentive for the individual government official to leave the safe haven of his familiar work and to venture into the unknown and risky areas of cooperation with someone from another discipline, another department.

In Indonesia, both BUTSI and KKN are tackling this problem by taking the approach that each participant is responsible for working in all development activities within a limited geographical area (e.g., in a village) and not solely in areas related to the participant’s particular field of study. This brings the participants face to face with the facts that development problems in different fields are interrelated and cannot be solved in isolation from each other, and that there are large areas of knowledge lacking from their education and experience and that somehow they need to compensate for these omissions if they are to succeed in their task. They then realize the value of seeking advice and help from their fellow participants from other disciplines, or from the nearest extension officers of the various government services. Out of this challenge, which provides a real personal incentive for the individual to cooperate closely with the people of other disciplines,
can develop the habit of cross-sectoral cooperation.

In the case of BUTSI, the challenge is provided by assigning volunteers one to a village (with most KKN projects, one or two students to a village). The support is provided by the extension officers of the various services at the same district level, and by other participants assigned in nearby villages in the same subdistrict. With KKN, these participants usually form an interdisciplinary team representing all or most of the faculties in the university, whereas BUTSI’s volunteers are drawn from a much narrower range of disciplines.

The need for more cooperation and coordination in development efforts therefore encourages the adoption of a generalist approach.

RESPONDING TO REAL COMMUNITY NEEDS

A further reason for assigning participants as generalists is that it is generalists who appear to be most needed in the current rural development situation. The extension services of the various government departments in Indonesia at best only have full-time staff as far down as the subdistrict level. A subdistrict contains, on the average, 17 villages and nearly 40,000 people. To serve their needs there is perhaps one extension worker from each of the services concerned with rural development. Obviously they cannot hope to be effective over such a wide geographical area unless they can somehow be assisted at the village level.

However, at the critically important village level there are no full-time extension workers, and the village head has to represent each and every one of these various departments. What he needs to help him is not a specialist in this field or that, who would probably be overqualified for the village’s relatively simple needs in each field, but an active and intelligent generalist problem-solver who can help stimulate and coordinate village development efforts and draw down the necessary technical service from the specialist extension workers assigned at the subdistrict level. Given the current restrictions on the expansion of numbers of government officials, these village-level workers cannot be supplied from conventional sources, but they can be provided in large numbers by BUTSI and KKN.

The need for effective, village-level transmitters of existing relatively simple knowledge and skills, therefore, also encourages the adoption of a generalist approach.
Why are service-study schemes important?

Study-service schemes in their present forms are a comparatively new phenomenon. The oldest major scheme discussed here, the Ethiopian University Service, is barely 10 years old and most of the other schemes we are familiar with are much younger. The number is increasing steadily and is likely to continue to do so, for in a number of other countries study-service schemes are under consideration. Obviously, study-service is being increasingly seen as capable of meeting needs and making a positive educational contribution, or there would not be such a growth. A striking feature of the various study-service schemes that are being established is that they are occurring as the independent and spontaneous reaction of a number of different countries to the problems they face and it is not simply a case of one country having developed a successful study-service scheme and others copying it.

Some interchange of information has occurred, but where this has had influence has been largely on the details of the form of the scheme. In the case of all the major study-service schemes we are familiar with, the basic decision appears to have been taken with very little knowledge of, and influence from, schemes in other countries. That a number of different countries are independently coming to the conclusion that study-service may be an answer to some of their problems indicates that it is an idea whose time has come, and that this trend to study-service is likely to continue.

The following are some of the reasons given by various people for the importance being accorded to study-service schemes.

Support from a wide range of sources — A noticeable feature of the growth of study-service schemes is the range of their sources of support. To begin with, the governments that have established these schemes come from divergent points of the political spectrum, e.g., Ethiopia, India, Indonesia, Nepal, Nigeria, People's Republic of China, Thailand, the United Kingdom, and the United States.

Within individual countries the spread of support is usually broad also, and frequently includes students, educational planners, administrators, politicians, and field-level implementors of development activities.

Study-service is seen by different people as being capable of meeting manpower needs in development programs and bridging gaps between town and country; educational institution and community; the educated elite and others; theory and practice; and different ethnic and social groups within a country. Study-service also puts some relevance into education; contributes directly to solving problems of the unemployed educated or at least to softening the political impact of those problems; helps students to mature; diverts student activism away from protest; instills discipline into students; provides cheap labour; and facilitates changes in education.

On the other hand, those who do not favour the introduction of study-service argue that it will: detrimentally affect the education or careers of those involved; cost too much to implement; contribute little to the communities where the participants work and merely have a disturbing effect; be too difficult to organize effectively.

Support for study-service is not usually given for just one reason but for a combina-
tion of reasons. Even within a team of people concerned with the development of a particular scheme, different individuals may have different sets of reasons for giving their support, or may put different emphasis on individual reasons, and it is also possible that the reasons motivating some of the team may not be very good reasons in the view of other team members. Such a situation can of course lead to misunderstandings or even a competition of interests but basically it is a very healthy situation, because the variety of sources and reasons for support give the movement towards study-service a greater strength than if support were restricted to a single source (e.g., educationists only) or a single reason (e.g., education of participants).

The internal support for study-service in various countries is now beginning to be supplemented a little by some international support, particularly from UNICEF, IDRC, the Ford Foundation, UNDP/UNV, the Agricultural Development Council, the British Council, USAID, and ISVS.

A significant contribution to meeting other people's basic needs — The very healthy trend to measuring "progress" or "development" by real improvements in the lives of the majority of people, rather than by the growth of Gross National Product (GNP), is focussing more and more attention on the inadequacies in so many countries of the systems that are supposed to provide at the community level such basic services as education, curative and preventive medicine, and agricultural extension, and to distribute as widely as possible the fruits of national development.

Study-service schemes have a tremendous potential to improve the effectiveness of these systems by assigning thousands of young, energetic, educated, and relatively inexpensive agents of change to complement or supplement the various extension services at the community level.

The Ethiopian University Service has already made a quite clear contribution to making secondary education more widely available in rural Ethiopia, although its achievements in other fields of development are small. The other study-service schemes are as yet too small, or too young, or too short term and part-time, to be able to provide much evidence of major effects on development.

However, such related service schemes as the four corps in Iran, BUTSI in Indonesia, and Sarvodaya in Sri Lanka can clearly demonstrate the impact they have made on development activities at the village level, and the basis for assignments in the two major national study-service schemes being developed in Nepal and Indonesia is very similar to the system successfully used by BUTSI. In a few years both these schemes may be able to further demonstrate the potential of study-service to improve living conditions in general at the community level.

Provides a valuable educative experience for its participants — Study-service uses the realities of the society in which young people will live after their graduation as its primary tool in giving an educational experience to its young participants.

The key to this educative experience is that participants in study-service schemes try to provide services that meet people's basic needs, i.e., needs for such things as food, shelter, employment, health, education. This brings them face to face with the basic problems that are so often preventing more people getting more of these necessities, e.g., conservatism, superstition, corruption, inefficiency, cynicism, lack of coordination between various extension services, political manipulation of people and situations, the reluctance of many government officials to be posted to remote areas, and so on. They also encounter some of the more positive aspects of their society, e.g., community self-help, the way families care for their weaker members, community social activities, and those officials and local leaders who are giving energetic and selfless service to people's needs.

Study-service can provide an automatic exposure to the fabric of society and thereby a challenging and educative experience for the participants. Our experience is that the majority of participants respond positively
to this challenge and finish their service with
the satisfaction of having contributed at least
a little as well as learning.

Where study-service is of the “intervening”
or “interwoven” type, then this educational
effect can be substantially reinforced by the
students discussing and analyzing their ex­
periences in the course of their academic
study.

When study-service is a requirement, it
gives this educational experience to those
who would perhaps not offer to participate
in a voluntary scheme, and who are frequent­
ly the students most in need of the experience.
This need be no harsher imposition than the
usual requirements of educational insti­
tutions, such as attendance at lectures, the
writing of essays or other assignments, and
the sitting of exams.

Study-service brings the community into
the classroom, or rather it makes the com­
munity the classroom. This situation is alive
with possibilities for an imaginative educa­
tionist to exploit.

Furthermore, study-service has a tremen­
dous potential to have a snowball effect.
Some of the students who have participated
in study-service schemes will become teachers
or educational administrators and will be in
a position to develop their own study-service
schemes. Indonesia provides a classic example
of this. The main architect of Indonesia’s
national study-service scheme, kkn, is Koes­
nadi Hardjaseemantri S.H., Director of
Higher Education, who spent a year of his
university education teaching in a remote high
school as a student volunteer in 1951 in the
ptm scheme.

A BUTSI volunteer (a sociology graduate) working with villagers to construct a drinking
water supply using bamboo pipes
Why is research needed?

We are personally convinced of the positive effects of study-service schemes on participants and communities, and have made bold claims for the potential of such schemes. However, we can only quote our own experience, which has been reinforced by the opinions of the people we know involved in such schemes, and we are unable to support these claims by quoting relevant research findings for the very simple reason that very little research on study-service has yet been done.

Many people pioneering study-service schemes are also convinced of their positive effects but still need research findings to guide them in their planning and to help persuade others whose support they need. It is also possible of course that research might disprove the beliefs of study-service supporters, but that, if it happened, would be useful too as it would save them from deluding themselves further.

The basic research sought by the countries interested in these research projects seems to be into effects of study-service, in particular its effects on the participants and on the communities in which they work, its effects on the educational institutions, and its cost. Some are also interested in research into such questions as methods of institutionalizing study-service by building working relationships between educational institutions and the various government departments and other agencies concerned with rural development.

Action research

It is very important that whatever research is undertaken it produce results in a form that can be directly, and as far as possible, immediately, used by the people involved in developing study-service schemes. The need is to produce answers to the questions that they are asking, and not just answers to the objectives of a research design prepared by outsiders who may be more interested in the research project as such than in whether its results meet real needs.

In trying to achieve this goal, it would seem to be better, if possible, for the main consumers of the research findings (i.e., the developers of study-service schemes) to be deeply involved in the research project at all stages and for the project to remain largely dependent on their initiative for its progress. This may possibly reduce some of its objectivity (although some other members of the research team can provide balance and control of objectivity) and it is quite likely to delay the project considerably (because these people usually have many other responsibilities that may receive greater priority than the research project). However, if this is not done, the danger is that the research may merely contribute to the mounting piles of unused research findings to be found in so many countries.

Although the irrelevance of some research to practical needs is one of the major causes of these dusty piles, much very relevant research also remains unused, largely because the support that is given to researchers and research institutions in so many countries is not backed by equivalent or greater support for institutions that can implement the results of their research.

In the case of study-service, it is likely that this imbalance will be avoided, because the implementation aspect of study-service is well established in several countries, whereas research is only now being considered. Never-
there is a need to guard against this danger by making sure that the research done is action research, carried out in full and continuous cooperation with those who will make use of its findings, and that support for research into study-service does not begin to exceed support for study-service itself.

Another important aspect of the proposed research will be the opportunity it gives for training local researchers. Several of the universities in Indonesia that are running study-service projects have already expressed concern about how to go about evaluating their project. The involvement of some of their faculty members as research assistants will give them very valuable training and help them to meet this need for evaluation.

Cross-fertilization

Research projects such as are being planned will also have a very valuable side product in that they will provide the reason and the framework to increase the very much needed cross-fertilization of ideas and experience between different study-service schemes.

A little of this cross-fertilization has already begun, but it is by no means enough. The Yogyakarta seminar on “Study-Service Activities in Higher Education” in November 1972 provided one of the first and best opportunities for such an exchange. Also, representatives of study-service schemes in Indonesia and Nepal were able to exchange experience with each other and with Ethiopians during the EUS/ISYS seminar on study-service in May 1973, and this exchange was of benefit to other participants.

In December 1973, representatives of various study-service pilot projects in Indonesia visited some of each other’s projects in what proved to be a very valuable study tour. A further in-country exchange of experience took place recently when organizers and student participants from all the pilot projects came together for KKN’s national evaluation meeting. International staff exchanges have also begun (a staff member from Nepal’s NDS is currently working for 2 months with Indonesia’s BUTSI and KKN).

The various meetings necessary to coordinate the parallel research projects and to compare results will provide additional invaluable opportunities for the exchange of ideas and experience.
Conclusion

This paper has attempted to give a broad picture of why study-service schemes are being created, where they occur, what form they take, what they do, why differences in approach have developed, why study-service is important, and why research on study-service is needed.

Over the past few years, there has been steady progress in the development of study-service. Pioneers of study-service in several countries, who were at first lonely figures, have begun to have the satisfaction of seeing their ideas accepted, adopted, supported, and expanded.

For a long time, many of the fledgling study-service schemes were in danger of foun-dering for lack of support. Now there is steadily increasing interest in study-service from many quarters and a greater danger may arise of study-service schemes being pushed to expand faster than they effectively can, given the size of their resources and their experienced staff.

Some competent research that will lead to a better understanding of study-service is urgently needed, so that this and other dangers can be avoided, and so that the full potential of study-service can be realized.
Appendix 1

Study-service and related schemes:
Some relevant studies, reports, and other documents

Brazil

Burma

Canada

Ethiopia

Hong Kong
Irene Sie, *Introducing Study Service in Higher Education — The Hong Kong Situation, and Study Service Activities in the Urban Setting — Hong Kong*, collected papers, study-service seminar, Yogyakarta, 1972.

India
*National Service Scheme, Spotlight on its Objectives and Work*, Ministry of Education and Youth Services, New Delhi, 1971.

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*Report from the National Seminar*, published as part of the collected papers from the seminar on “Study Service Activities in Higher Education,” Gadjah Mada University, Yogyakarta, 1972.
Koesnadi Hardjasoemantri, *The Background to Study Service in Indonesia*, collected papers, study-service seminar, Yogyakarta, 1972.
Soedharmo Djajadiwangsa, *Study Service Activities and the Village Community Development Program*, collected papers, study-service seminar, Yogyakarta, 1972.
Diana Fussell & Andrew Quarmby, *Study Service is a Marriage*, collected papers, study-service seminar, Yogyakarta, 1972.
Diana Fussell & Andrew Quarmby's eight mimeographed reports covering BUTSI's progress from its creation until the end of 1972.
*Teaching Community Medicine at The University of Gadjahmada*, Medical Faculty, Gadjah Mada University, Yogyakarta, 1974.

**Iran**

Diana Fussell & Andrew Quarmby, *A Long-Term Student Social Service Program in 1966.*

**Nepal**

Diana Fussell & Andrew Quarmby, *A Long-Term Student Social Service Program in Nepal*, 1970 (mimeograph).
Nigeria

Pakistan
Year Books of Peshawar University, 1953 onwards.

Philippines
Filemon G. Tanchoco, *Fact Sheet on Philippine Education and Study Service Activities, and Preparation for Field Activities*, collected papers, study-service seminar, Yogyakarta, 1972.

Sri Lanka
A. T. Ariyaratne, Organising Secretary, Sarvodaya Shramadana Movement, 77 de Soysa Road, Moratuwa, Sri Lanka. Numerous publications of the Sarvodaya Shramadana Movement are available from this address.

Tanzania
Julius Nyerere, *Education for Self-Reliance*.

Thailand
Akin Rabibhada, *Study Service Activities in Higher Education — Thailand's First Experiment*, collected papers, study-service seminar, Yogyakarta, 1972.

United Kingdom
Alec Dickson, *Study Service, Britain's Experience, and The Concept of the University as a Resource Centre Responding to the Needs of the Community*, collected papers, study-service seminar, Yogyakarta, 1972.

United States of America
*Everything You Always Wanted to Know About University Year for ACTION (But Were Afraid to Ask)*, ACTION, Washington, D.C., 1973.
*Synergist*, the magazine of the National Student Volunteer Program ACTION, Washington, D.C. (published three times a year).
General


Mohammed Sharif, a study based on eight “domestic” volunteer schemes, in preparation for publication by UNDESA, New York.


*Study Service Newsletter*, published periodically by Diana Fussell and Andrew Quarmby, Tromol Pos 3080, Jakarta, Indonesia.
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