2

Context

The role of the United Nations in supporting economic development

Legal and historical background

The commitment of the United Nations to economic development is inscribed in the Preamble of the Charter, which contains a pledge by the founding governments to "employ international machinery for the promotion of the economic and social advancement of all peoples." Article 1, which defines the principal purposes of the organization, includes "international co-operation in solving problems of an economic, social, cultural, or humanitarian character. . . ," and envisages the United Nations as "a centre for harmonizing the actions of nations in the attainment of these common ends."

The economic and social agenda of the United Nations is specified in Article 55, which includes a pledge to promote "higher standards of living, full employment, conditions of economic and social progress and development," and "solutions to international economic, social, health, and related problems. . . ," as well as "universal respect for, and observance of, human rights and fundamental freedoms for all. . . ." The responsibility for the discharge of the functions of the UN in the economic and social fields is vested in the General Assembly and, under the authority of the Assembly, in the Economic

and Social Council (ECOSOC). The composition, functions and powers, and procedures of ECOSOC are set forth in Articles 61–72 of the Charter.

The efforts of the United Nations to promote economic and social progress and development were envisaged to be undertaken in collaboration with the specialized agencies, which are autonomous and brought into relationship with the UN, and through special agreements (Article 57). The role foreseen for ECOSOC was that of coordinating the activities of the specialized agencies, through consultation with and recommendations to the agencies, and recommendations to the General Assembly and member states of the United Nations (Article 63). This represented a departure from the League of Nations practice, where technical organizations dealing with health and economic and financial cooperation were developed within the framework of the League and operated under the general direction and control of the principal organs of the League.[1]

Documents from the preparatory conference in San Francisco, where the Charter of the UN was drafted, show that employment, economic stability, reconstruction, and development were to be central to the mandate of ECOSOC. To achieve the economic and social objectives of the UN, the scope of the work of the organization was to include formulation and coordination of global policies with respect to international trade, finance, and employment.[2]

The responsibility for the implementation of global policies was to be borne by the specialized agencies, including the International Monetary Fund (IMF), the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (World Bank), and an International Trade Organization (ITO). Since the very beginning, however, the major industrialized countries insisted that global macroeconomic policies be dealt with by the Bretton Woods institutions, and multilateral trade policies be negotiated within the framework of the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) and the World Trade Organization (WTO) after its establishment in 1994.[3]

The failure of the member states of the UN to implement the original intentions of the drafters of the Charter made it impossible

for the UN to fulfil its mandated role in the economic and social fields, and left ECOSOC searching for a role for itself since the very beginning. Despite this, economic development – understood as comprising economic growth and social progress – has remained high on the agenda of the UN.[4]

One way in which the UN has tried to promote economic development has been through special conferences and meetings and by bringing issues to the attention of member states at the General Assembly. These have produced resolutions and declarations that have played an important role in the formulation of an overall framework for international development cooperation.[5] The resolutions and declarations or their supporting documents have identified problems and needs of developing countries and proposed policy measures to address the problems and the needs identified. In addition, commitments by industrialized countries, such as devoting 0.7 per cent of their Gross National Product (GNP) to development cooperation can repeatedly be found in General Assembly resolutions and declarations.[6]

Resolutions and declarations of the General Assembly are, however, not binding on member states in the same sense as treaties or conventions are on parties to them.[7] As a consequence, what has emerged is an increasing gap between, on the one hand, the ideals of (at least part of) the world community, expressed in resolutions and declarations of the General Assembly, and, on the other hand, the lack of economic growth and social progress in many parts of the world. What many critics, however, fail to recognize or choose to ignore is the enormity of the challenges faced and the limited resources provided to the UN.[8]

In order to improve the work of the UN in the economic and social fields, the General Assembly adopted several resolutions in the 1990s with a particular emphasis on improving the effectiveness of ECOSOC.[9] Economic development is also an important goal of the proposals for a comprehensive reform of the UN, which the Secretary-General presented to the General Assembly in July 1997. The reform measures include, among others, the establishment of an

Executive Committee for Development – one of four such committees created to guide and coordinate the work of the funds, programmes, and departments of the UN in its main thematic areas.[10]

A persisting problem has been the continued reluctance of major industrialized countries to discuss all aspects of economic development within the existing UN framework, where developing countries have a larger say than they do in the Bretton Woods institutions. However, these issues have not been satisfactorily dealt with by the international financial institutions either. Other alternatives to provide guidance and coherence to the economic and social activities of the UN system, including the Bretton Woods institutions, have therefore been explored, in parallel with efforts to restructure and revitalize ECOSOC.[11]

As many, if not most, important decisions on economic issues are taken within the G-7 framework, it has been proposed to enlarge the group of seven (US, Japan, Germany, France, UK, Italy, and Canada) to include representatives of developing countries as well, in addition to Russia which regularly participates in meetings of the G-7. An enlarged G-7 could become what has sometimes been called a World Economic Council. Another modification on the same theme that has been proposed is to let the UN Secretary-General represent the developing countries at G-7 meetings.[12] Both options seem possible, but the G-7 would probably only agree to meet with representatives from developing countries from time to time, in addition to, or as part of, the regular summit meetings.[13]

Other proposals to strengthen the development and coordination of global economic and social policies include creating an International Development Council or the establishment of an Economic Security Council.[14] Despite differences in these proposals, they contain the major elements of the original terms of reference for ECOSOC, which were developed in San Francisco in 1945. This probably also explains the less than enthusiastic reception given to the proposals in many industrialized countries, despite vocal proponents for them.[15]

Global conferences

Throughout its history, international conferences have been a way for the UN to address economic and social issues. The late 1980s and early 1990s saw a renewed interest in using international conferences, targeting national decision makers at the highest level, as a means to deal with issues of global concern.[16]

The global conferences of the early 1990s typically included lengthy preparations and intensive negotiations and culminated in summit meetings, with heads of states and governments signing conventions or declarations and programmes or plans of action. The first in this series was the World Summit for Children in New York in 1990, followed by the UN Conference on Environment and Development, which was held in Rio de Janeiro in 1992, with 165 heads of state or government attending.

A stream of global conferences followed the Children's Summit and the Earth Summit, including the Vienna World Conference on Human Rights in 1993, the International Conference on Population and Development in Cairo in 1994, and the World Summit on Social Development in Copenhagen and the Fourth World Conference on Women in Beijing in 1995. By the Second UN Conference on Human Settlements, Habitat II, in Istanbul in 1996, a certain "conference fatigue" could already be perceived among representatives of member states, and only 16 heads of state or government attended the conference.

What the summit meetings have shown is that the global conferences can raise the general awareness of important economic, social, or environmental issues among member states, and promote a common understanding of global issues. The summit meetings have also generated a certain degree of political commitment at the national level to individual and joint action to address economic, social, and environmental issues of common concern.

To ensure appropriate follow-up to the global conferences, mechanisms to monitor the implementation of conference recommenda-

tions and resolutions have been established. These include reporting on the development and implementation of national programmes or plans of action, and follow-up conferences five years after the summit meetings to review progress and achievements.

While the conferences have been able to provide some direction to the activities of the UN in the economic, social, and environmental fields, they have also provided the funds, programmes, and agencies of the UN with new agendas to implement. For many member states, the conference follow-up requires a considerable investment of time and resources, and has in some cases required the adjustment of already existing plans, locally developed solutions, and ongoing projects to globally determined economic, social, or environmental priorities.[17]

Operational activities

Even if the UN has not become the main forum for negotiating and coordinating global economic and social policies, it has from the very beginning supported economic development through so-called operational activities. This has been done through programmes and projects that have been, and continue to be, funded through voluntary contributions of member states, rather than the regular budget of the UN.

In 1949, the Expanded Programme for Technical Assistance was established as one of the first major development programmes of the UN. The programme was set up to enable the transfer of knowledge, skills, and technology from richer to poorer countries. This was done through the provision of fellowships and on-the-job training provided by long-term experts from industrialized countries.[18]

During the 1950s, other programmes were established, and the specialized agencies became gradually more involved in technical cooperation with developing countries.[19] Also in the 1950s, it became clear that technical cooperation could be much more effective if it was combined with low-interest loans or other forms of capital investment. A proposal to establish a special fund for this purpose

was, however, rejected by the major industrialized countries, and when a United Nations Special Fund was established in 1958, after years of debating, it did not include a credit facility.[20]

In 1965, the Expanded Programme and the Special Fund were merged into a United Nations Development Programme (UNDP). However, the establishment of the UNDP did not produce the desired results in terms of improved effectiveness of UN development activities. In 1970, following a study on the capacity of the United Nations development system by Sir Robert Jackson, the General Assembly addressed the issue, and adopted a resolution that designated the UNDP as the main vehicle for UN development cooperation and the central coordinating body for all its development activities.[21]

Despite efforts to consolidate and coordinate UN-supported development cooperation, activities became more disjointed and fragmented in the 1970s and 1980s. The establishment of several new UN funds and trust funds for specific purposes contributed to this. Sudden cuts in funding on several occasions since the early 1970s also undermined the UNDP's central coordinating role, as did an increase in World Bank technical assistance, which made the World Bank the biggest provider of technical assistance to developing countries. Relationships between the UNDP, other funds and programmes of the UN, and the specialized agencies continued to be strained, which also made implementing an integrated and coherent UN approach to development cooperation difficult.[22]

In the 1990s, the development cooperation activities of the UN continued to be carried out through a complex web of funds, programmes, departments, agencies, and commissions. In 1994, for instance, 14 funds, programmes, or departments of the UN, 14 specialized agencies, and 5 regional commissions were involved in development cooperation. The total amount of support for development cooperation provided that year through the UN system in the form of grants was US$4.6 billion. This represents approximately 10 per cent of the US$50 billion provided in total for development cooperation that year.[23]

Each UN fund and programme reports to an Executive Board, and through the Board to ECOSOC and the General Assembly. To provide guidance to and coordination of the UN's development activities, what is known as "comprehensive triennial policy reviews" are undertaken. The recommendations of the past reviews call for greater coherence of the operational activities of the UN, more integrated programming by the funds and programmes, harmonization of programme cycles and procedures, and a more unified approach at the country level under the overall leadership of the UN Resident Coordinator.[24]

The establishment and evolution of the UN Volunteers programme

The idea of using volunteers in the development cooperation activities of the UN goes back to the late 1950s, and was first formally endorsed by ECOSOC in 1961.[25] Throughout the 1960s, the viability of establishing a volunteers programme for the United Nations was debated and explored. Finally, in 1970, the General Assembly established a United Nations Volunteers (UNV) programme, under the overall administration of the UNDP. The responsibility for oversight of the UNV programme lies with the Executive Board of the UNDP, which discusses the programme as an agenda item every two years.[26]

The UNV programme was primarily created to make qualified manpower available for development cooperation and to enable transfer of skills and knowledge that were considered lacking in recipient countries and were considered necessary for their economic development. In 1977, the mandate of the programme was broadened to include support to people's participation and community-based development activities as well. This reflected a thinking that was gaining support at the time that stressed the need to include people in the development process for external assistance to be effective. In the late 1980s and early 1990s four areas emerged as priorities of the UNDP, the parent organization of the UNV: promotion

of jobs, reduction of poverty, advancement of women, and protection of the environment. Given that a large majority of the Volunteers at this time worked on UNDP projects, these four areas also became *de facto* priorities of the UNV programme.[27]

During the late 1960s, in discussions in ECOSOC that preceded the establishment of the UNV programme, it was maintained that an integrated and coordinated approach for utilizing Volunteers in development cooperation projects could further improve their effectiveness. This was the main argument for the establishment of a separate programme responsible for the recruitment and administration of the UN Volunteers. The establishment of the UNV programme also envisaged teams of Volunteers that, where possible, would be multinational and include international as well as national Volunteers. Volunteers from different countries working side by side has indeed been characteristic of the programme, and in the early 1990s the programme introduced nationals of a country working as UN Volunteers in their own country.[28]

Although no definition of a Volunteer was ever adopted, two were submitted by the Secretary-General as the basis for a discussion in ECOSOC. The first one defined a volunteer as "a person who gives his services without remuneration ... usually strongly motivated to donate his energies, his skills, his time for the accomplishment of tasks in whose purpose he believes ... a means of extending the work of an expert by demonstration and/or training, thereby helping to transfer a skill to local personnel." The second definition described volunteers as "men and women who give up their normal work and, without regard to financial benefit, devote their knowledge and abilities, within the framework of common efforts, to the people in regions of social and economic need."[29]

The role of youth as an effective force in economic and social progress throughout the world was seen as particularly important at the time of the establishment of the UNV programme. Since its establishment, however, the programme has tried to distance itself from a notion of Volunteers as young people, even if the General Assembly in the late 1960s was "convinced that the United Nations could respond imaginatively to the desire of individuals – and in

particular youth, irrespective of country, class, race, religion, sex, age, economic level or social status – to dedicate a certain period of their lives to the cause of development, and could offer them a positive means of translating their concern for their fellow men into an effective force for economic and social progress throughout the world."[30]

What the programme, however, has tried to do is promote volunteerism more generally. To this effect the General Assembly approved two resolutions – one urging that 5 December each year be celebrated as International Volunteers Day, and a second one proclaiming the year 2001 as the International Year of Volunteers.[31]

Since its establishment, the UNV programme has been demand driven, and in its first 30 years the programme has evolved and grown considerably in terms of the number of Volunteers fielded, countries served, and nationalities participating in the programme. In 1971, the first 35 UN Volunteers were fielded in 5 countries. Throughout the 1970s, the number of Volunteers increased, and in 1981 a total of 1,330 Volunteers served in almost 90 countries.[32]

During the 1980s, particularly the late 1980s, and the 1990s, the programme continued growing, reaching, in 1993, a total of 3,590 Volunteers from 119 different countries serving in 125 countries. In the following years the total number of Volunteers decreased somewhat, but the number of countries served and nationalities serving increased. During 1996, a total of 3,242 Volunteers, from 125 countries, served with the programme in 136 different countries. By the end of that year a total of 14,524 Volunteers from more than 140 nations had worked in an equal number of countries. 1997 and 1998 saw further growth in the number of Volunteers, with a total of 3,620 and 4,047 Volunteers fielded, respectively, in each year.

The UNV programme has also expanded its areas of work considerably, particularly in the 1990s. In addition to assignments in the traditional areas of focus of the UNV programme – transfer of skills and knowledge and community development – UN Volunteers have worked in private sector development, humanitarian emergencies, peace building, human rights, and electoral assistance programmes.

In a direct response to the demand for UN Volunteers to work in complex emergencies, a separate humanitarian relief unit was established as part of the programme in 1991.

In the 1980s, 95 per cent of all Volunteers worked in development cooperation, in areas such as agriculture, forestry, fisheries, health, education, vocational training, planning, administration, and social mobilization. By 1993, the proportion of UN Volunteers working in development cooperation had fallen to 77 per cent. At the same time, 13 per cent worked with humanitarian relief and 10 per cent with peace building and electoral assistance. In 1996, 69 per cent of the Volunteers worked with development cooperation, 24 per cent with humanitarian relief and 7 per cent with peace building, human rights, or electoral assistance.

In the 1990s, the total annual expenditure of the UNV programme ranged from US$44 to US$64 million, which makes it a rather modest UN programme in terms of its size. During the first half of the 1990s, approximately US$40 million of the total expenditure of the programme per year was for development activities. In comparison, the total expenditure of the UN system on development activities, excluding those of the international financial institutions, was around US$4.5 billion per year in the early 1990s. The funding for development cooperation channeled through the UNV programme thus represented approximately 1 per cent of all UN development cooperation expenditure during this period.[33]

Throughout the first two decades of the UNV programme, almost all of the funding for the programme came from the UNDP; in 1989, for example, 85 per cent of the funding for the UNV programme was provided by the UNDP. In the early 1990s this began to change, reflecting the new areas that the programme embarked upon. In 1993, the contribution of the UNDP to the programme had fallen to 56 per cent, while other UN organizations and departments contributed almost 22 per cent of the programme's budget. Direct contributions by member states to trust funds of the programme accounted for another 22 per cent. By 1996, the contribution of the UNDP had declined further and stood at 20 per cent. Trust

funds accounted for 36 per cent, and UN organizations and departments contributed 44 per cent of the resources of the programme.

Traditionally, most UN Volunteers have worked on projects for different UN organizations or departments and the specialized agencies. Important hosts of Volunteers over the years – in addition to government ministries and institutions – include the UN Office for Project Services (UNOPS), which executes a large number of UNDP-funded projects, the World Food Programme (WFP), the UN Children's Fund (UNICEF), and the UN Population Fund (UNFPA).

Other hosts of relatively large numbers of Volunteers in the 1980s and 1990s include the UN Department of Economic and Social Affairs, the UN Centre for Human Settlements (Habitat), and the specialized agencies, such as the Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO), the International Labour Organization (ILO), the World Health Organization (WHO) and the UN Industrial Development Organization (UNIDO), the UN Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), the International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO), and the International Development Association of the World Bank (IDA).[34]

In the early and mid-1990s, the UN High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) and the UN High Commissioner for Human Rights (UNHCHR) became two of the main users of Volunteers. The single biggest user of UN Volunteers to date, however, has been the United Nations Department of Peacekeeping Operations (UNDPKO), with 483 and 466 Volunteers, respectively, working under the umbrella of the UNDPKO in 1996 and 1997. The number of Volunteers serving with the different agencies in different years is shown in Table 2.1 (pages 20 and 21).

Over the years, the largest numbers of Volunteers have worked in Africa; in 1996 almost one-half of all Volunteers served in Africa. In the same year, one-fifth of the Volunteers worked in Asia and the Pacific, and almost the same number served in Latin America and the Caribbean. The rest worked in the Middle East, Central and Eastern Europe, the Baltic States, and the Commonwealth of Independent

States. Two-thirds of the Volunteers served in the 48 countries that are classified by the United Nations as least developed.

An important aspect of the UNV programme has been its universality, and the fact that it is one of very few programmes that provide opportunities for nationals of developing countries to work as Volunteers in other developing countries. In 1996, of the 3,242 Volunteers who served during the year, 2,285, or 70 per cent, came from 94 different developing countries. The other 957 Volunteers, or 30 per cent, came from 31 different industrialized countries.

During the first two decades of the programme, all UN Volunteers were internationally recruited, but since the early 1990s, when the first national Volunteers were fielded, more and more Volunteers have been recruited locally to work in their own countries. In 1996, 356 of the total 3,242 Volunteers were national Volunteers. The biggest number of national Volunteers, 139, worked in Latin America and the Caribbean, where they accounted for 25 per cent of all Volunteers. In the other regions, the national Volunteers accounted for between 3 and 20 per cent of all Volunteers.

The UNV programme has made a conscious effort to try to distance itself from a notion of Volunteers as people who are young and inexperienced – despite several resolutions of the General Assembly linking the UN Volunteers and youth programmes.[35] Instead, the UNV programme has emphasized experience, qualifications, and motivation in the selection of Volunteers. In 1996, almost 90 per cent of the Volunteers were over 30, and the average age was 39 years. Half of the Volunteers had more than 10 years of work experience, and some had more than 30 years. One-fourth of the Volunteers had between 6 and 10 years of work experience and the remaining fourth had 5 years or less.

Approximately one-third of the Volunteers had a post-graduate degree and another third held a first university degree. Around one-fifth had a diploma or certificate from a technical or vocational institute. The rest, many of whom worked in areas for which an academic degree or technical education may not necessarily be the best preparation, such as community development, had a general

Table 2.1 Total number of Volunteers serving globally with different UN organizations during the period covered by the study

	1987	*1988*	*1989*	*1990*	*1991*	*1992*	*1993*	*1994*	*1995*	*1996*
UN High Commissioner for Refugees	26	27	23	33	30	38	108	165	157	205
UN Office for Project Services	45	52	53	72	105	118	121	131	197	203
World Food Programme	49	41	44	48	68	76	106	121	125	109
UN High Commissioner for Human Rights									54	100
UN Children's Fund	31	25	36	36	54	66	97	92	101	92
UN Population Fund				8	15	8	17	36	59	72
International Labour Organization	111	121	140	128	110	98	136	108	92	70
UN Department for Economic and Social Affairs	70	98	112	118	96	63	80	127	130	68
World Health Organization	18	25	32	33	41	45	77	83	67	56
Food and Agriculture Organization	109	154	185	219	192	162	166	113	66	42
UN Development Programme		19	28	33	22	39	48	50	57	39
UN Centre for Human Settlements	20	19	19	23	23	27	28	31	36	36
UN Industrial Development Organization	23	21	40	42	32	28	36	22	13	19
International Civil Aviation Organization	23	22	17	13	11		7	14	17	15
UN Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization	34	36	37	31	33	21	43	37	25	14

	1987	*1988*	*1989*	*1990*	*1991*	*1992*	*1993*	*1994*	*1995*	*1996*
World Bank/IDA	11	10	4	5	12	13	34	32	29	14
International Trade Centre	6	6	7	9	6	4	5	2	3	4
UN Conference on Trade and Development	1	3			1		1	1	1	4
World Tourism Organisation		1	1						2	4
Asian Development Bank	3	2	2	3	2	4	3	2	2	3
UN Capital Development Fund							2		3	3
World Meteorological Organization	5	7	10	13	9	4	6	4	3	1
UN Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific	1	3	4	4	3	3	1	1	1	1
UN Economic Commission for Africa	3	4	2	5	4	1	2			
International Maritime Organisation		1								
UN Disaster Relief Organisation		1	1	7	4	1	1	1	1	
UN Department of Peace-keeping									310	483
Others		10	3	10	9	12	13	21	9	23
Unaccounted	23	18	20	9	4	3	12	2	2	0
Reported total in UN agency projects	612	726	819	902	887	834	1152	1196	1562	1680
Government executed projects	43	63	74	58	80	138	247	366	347	347
UNV executed projects	614	745	908	1095	1094	1517	2191	1940	1354	1215
Grand total	**1269**	**1534**	**1801**	**2055**	**2061**	**2489**	**3590**	**3502**	**3263**	**3242**

secondary level education. In 1996, the number of male Volunteers was twice that of female Volunteers.[36]

Two main categories of Volunteers exist: UNV specialists and UNV community workers. UNV specialists have typically worked with government ministries or departments and projects of international organizations. Occasionally, and perhaps increasingly, UNV specialists also work with non-governmental organizations and communities. This, however, is more characteristic of the UNV community workers.

Another characteristic of the UNV community worker assignments has been their concentration in a relatively few countries in Africa and Asia. In 1979, when the first 37 UNV community workers were fielded, they accounted for 5 per cent of the total number of UN Volunteers. In 1989, the UNV community workers represented 10 per cent of the total number of UN Volunteers. In 1993, the corresponding figure was 15 per cent, and in 1996, 7 per cent. In part this drop in the number of community worker assignments reflects an increased focus by the programme on national UN Volunteers – another low-cost UNV programme modality.

The Volunteers receive a monthly living allowance that in 1996, depending on the cost of living at the duty station, ranged from US$700 to US$1,100 for UNV specialists without a family. For married UNV specialists, the allowance varied between US$1,100 and US$1,700. For UNV community workers, the monthly living allowance ranged from US$150 to US$400, depending on the cost of living at the duty station. All UNV community workers at any given duty station receive the same allowance irrespective of their marital status.

In addition to the monthly living allowance, the Volunteers are paid a settling-in and repatriation grant as well as travel to and from their country of assignment. The Volunteers are covered by medical insurance, and are provided housing, furniture, and transportation to and from work, or an equivalent amount to cover these costs. In addition, the programme provides orientation and training of the Volunteers.

The total costs of a Volunteer assignment vary considerably between countries as well as within countries, depending on the cost of living at each duty station. In 1996, the estimated average annual cost of a UNV specialist was US$32,000. For a UNV community worker, the corresponding figure was US$7,000. In addition, the average administrative costs for each Volunteer amounted to US$5,400 per year.[37]

Comparing the costs of UN Volunteer assignments to those of volunteers from other programmes is difficult because of differences in ways of recording expenditures. Rough comparisons can, however, be made and figures available from 1994 indicate that the UNV community workers, even with the administrative costs included, are among the least costly international volunteers available for development cooperation. The same figures place UNV specialists at the middle of a list that presents the costs of volunteers from 28 different volunteer sending agencies.[38]

Compared to other expatriate staff recruited to work on programmes or projects of the UN, the UN Volunteers are considerably less expensive. The average annual cost of these other expatriate staff, often referred to as "experts", is in most cases well over US$100,000. Although UN organizations still use highly paid expatriate staff for certain assignments, in many instances UNV specialists are used to carry out work that in the past was done by resident long-term experts. While the professional qualifications and experience of the UN Volunteers certainly have been important considerations for UN organizations in deciding to use UN Volunteers, cost considerations have also no doubt influenced the decision-making.

The cost of the Volunteers is one important way in which the UNV programme has tried to market itself, and if the number of Volunteer assignments is used as a criterion, the programme seems quite successful. What the programme appears to have been less successful in is dealing with a perception of the Volunteers as a category distinct from, and not quite as good as, other UN staff, and therefore sometimes viewed as "second-class workers" or "cheap labour".[39]

Notes

1. For a more extensive discussion of differences between the UN and the League of Nations in the economic and social fields, see Goodrich, Leland M. "From League of Nations to United Nations". *International Organization* 1, pp. 3–21, 1947.
2. *Report of the Preparatory Commission of the United Nations*, PC/20. Chapter III, Section 4, 23 December 1945, paragraphs 18–25.
3. The World Bank and the International Monetary Fund are often referred to as "The Bretton Woods Institutions" after Bretton Woods, New Hampshire, US, where the two institutions were founded at a conference in July 1944. The refusal of the US to agree to the establishment of the International Trade Organization meant that the GATT, which was originally intended as an interim arrangement, became the main forum for multilateral trade negotiations. GATT ceased to exist and became the WTO on 1 January 1995, following an agreement reached in April 1994. For an overview of the political context of the economic and social activities of the UN, see Dadzie, Kenneth. "The UN and the Problem of Economic Development". In: Roberts, Adam and Benedict Kingsbury, eds. *United Nations, Divided World*, 2nd edn. New York: Oxford University Press, 1993, pp. 297–311.
4. While economic growth in this study is defined simply as an increase in GNP, economic development is used to imply social progress in addition to an increase in per capita income. This includes participation of people in the process of development through the production as well as enjoyment of the benefits of development. See Gillis, Malcolm, Dwight H. Perkins, Michael Roemer, and Donald R. Snodgrass. *Economics of Development*, 3rd edn. New York: W.W. Norton & Co., 1992, pp. 8–9.
5. See for instance the four declarations proclaiming UN development decades: (a) General Assembly Resolution No. 1710 (XVI). "United Nations Development Decade". 18 December 1961; (b) Resolution No. 2626 (XXIV). "International Development Strategy for the Second United Nations Development Decade". 24 October 1970; (c) Resolution No. 35/56. "International Development Strategy for the Third United Nations Development Decade". 5 December 1980; (d) Resolution No. 45/199. "International Development Strategy for the Fourth United Nations Development Decade". 21 December 1990. Other declarations often mentioned as important include: (a) Resolution 2542 (XXIV). "Declaration on Social Progress and Development". 11 December 1969; (b) Resolution No. 3201 (S-VI). "A New International Economic Order". 1 May 1974; (c) Resolution No. 41/128. "Declaration on the Right to Development". 4 December 1986; (d) Resolution No. S-18/3. "Declaration on International Economic Cooperation, in Particular the Revitalization of Economic Growth and Development of the Developing Countries". 1 May 1990; (e) Resolution No. 51/240. "Agenda for Development". 20 June 1997.
6. While most industrialized countries have accepted the target of contributing 0.7 per cent of GNP towards development cooperation, only four – Denmark,

Norway, Sweden, and the Netherlands – have actually reached and maintained this target. See: the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development. *Development Cooperation Report*, *1998*, Development Assistance Committee. Paris: OECD, 1999, p. 31.

7. For a discussion on the normative effects of General Assembly resolutions, see: (a) Kirgis, Frederic L. Jr. *International Organizations in their Legal Setting*, 2nd edn. St. Paul: West Publishing Co., 1993, pp. 333–351; (b) Kaufmann, Johann and Nico Schrijver. *Changing Global Needs: The Expanding Roles for the United Nations System*. Hanover, NH: The Academic Council on the United Nations System, 1990, pp. 29–36.

8. Kirgis, Frederic L. Jr. *International Organizations in their Legal Setting*, 2nd edn. St. Paul: West Publishing Co., 1993, p. 223. See also: Eberstadt, Nicholas. "The Impact of UN's 'Development Activities' on Third World Development". In: Ted Galen Carpentier, ed. *Delusions of Grandeur. The United Nations and Global Intervention*. Washington, DC: The Cato Institute, 1997, pp. 213–225.

9. General Assembly Resolutions 50/227 and 48/162. Both entitled "Further Measures for the Restructuring and Revitalization of the United Nations in the Economic, Social and Related Fields". 16 May 1996 and 14 January 1994; Resolutions 46/235, 45/264, and 45/177. All entitled "Restructuring and Revitalization of the United Nations in the Economic, Social and Related Fields". 13 April 1992, 13 May 1991, and 19 December 1990.

10. Report by the Secretary-General to the General Assembly A/51/950. "Renewing the United Nations: A Programme for Reform". 16 July 1997. For a review of earlier proposals for reform of the economic and social sectors of the UN, see Kaufmann, Johann and Nico Schrijver. *Changing Global Needs: The Expanding Roles for the United Nations System*. Hanover, NH: The Academic Council on the United Nations System, 1990, pp. 40–43.

11. See: Childers, Erskine with Brian Urquhart. *Renewing the United Nations System*. Uppsala: Dag Hammarskjold Foundation, 1994, pp. 53–86; or The Report of the Independent Working Group on the Future of the United Nations. *The United Nations in its Second Half-Century*. New Haven, CT: Yale University Printing Service, 1995, pp. 25–34.

12. World Institute for Development Economics Research of the United Nations University. *World Economic Summits: The Role of Representative Groups in the Governance of the World Economy*, Study Group Series No. 4. Helsinki: WIDER, 1989; and Jakobson, Max. *The United Nations in the 1990s. A Second Chance?* New York: Twentieth Century Books, 1993, pp. 150–154.

13. A first step in this direction may have been the 1996 Lyon summit of the G-7, where not only the UN Secretary-General participated, but also the executive heads of the International Monetary Fund, the World Bank and the World Trade Organization. Participation other than as an observer is, however, not likely to take place any time in the near future. Even Russia has not – at least initially – participated in all of the sessions at the summits, nor has it participated in all of the important preparatory work leading up to the summits, such as meetings of the G-7 finance ministers.

14. The Nordic UN Project. *The United Nations in Development. Reform Issues in the Economic and Social Fields. A Nordic Perspective*. Stockholm: Almqvist & Wiksell, 1991, p. 11; and The Commission on Global Governance. *Our Global Neighbourhood*. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1995, pp. 153–162. See also: United Nations Development Programme. *Human Development Report*. New York: Oxford University Press, 1992, pp. 82–83.
15. Haq, Mahbub ul. *Reflections on Human Development*. New York: Oxford University Press, 1996, pp. 190–199.
16. International conferences that have addressed issues of particular concern to developing countries include, e.g., nine UN Conferences on Trade and Development, dating back to 1964. Other precursors to the global conferences of the 1990s include the UN Conference on the Human Environment (Stockholm, 1972) and the World Food Conference (Rome, 1974).
17. See also: Jolly, Richard. "Human Development: The World After Copenhagen". *Global Governance: A Review of Multilateralism and International Organizations* 3 (May–August) 1997, pp. 233–248.
18. This section on the evolution of the technical cooperation activities of the UN and the specialized agencies is primarily based on Kaufmann, Johann, Dick Leurdijk, and Nico Schrijver. *The World in Turmoil: Testing the UN's Capacity*. Hanover, NH: The Academic Council on the United Nations System, 1991, pp. 86–98.
19. The United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) was established in 1946 as the UN Children's Emergency Fund for countries ravaged by World War II. In 1953 UNICEF was set on a permanent footing by the General Assembly with a mandate to provide assistance to children in developing countries.
20. The mandate of the Special Fund did, however, go beyond that of the Expanded Programme on Technical Assistance and included support to pre-investment studies, research, and experimental projects. It took until 1960 before a global facility to provide loans on concessional terms to developing countries was created through the establishment of the International Development Association as part of the World Bank.
21. General Assembly Resolution 2688 (XXV). "The Capacity of the United Nations Development System". 11 December 1970. Often referred to as "The 1970 Consensus". Other key concepts introduced by the resolution included: provision of assistance through multi-year country programmes; and a tripartite partnership between recipient governments and the UNDP, who would jointly decide and monitor the use of the funds, and the specialized agencies, who would execute projects and provide necessary technical assistance.
22. New programmes established include the UN Population Fund (UNFPA), the UN Capital Development Fund (UNCDF), and the UN Drug Control Programme (UNDCP). World Bank technical assistance increased from a mere US$68 million in 1968 to US$1.5 billion in 1994. The sharpest increase took place in the 1970s. See document DP/1997/30/Add.1. "Information on United Nations System Regular and Extrabudgetary Technical Cooperation Expenditures Financed from Sources other than UNDP". 16 July 1997.
23. Report of the UN Secretary-General to the General Assembly A/50/202/

Add.1. "Comprehensive Statistical Data on Operational Activities for Development for the Year 1994". 25 September 1995; and the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, Development Assistance Committee. *Development Co-operation Report, 1995*. Paris: OECD, 1996.

24. General Assembly Resolutions 53/192, 50/120, 47/199, and 44/211. All entitled "Triennial Policy Review of Operational Activities for Development of the United Nations System". 25 February 1999, 16 February 1996, 22 December 1992, and 23 February 1990.

25. Economic and Social Council Resolution 849 (XXXII). "Use of Volunteer Workers in the Operational Programmes of the United Nations and Related Agencies Designed to Assist in the Economic and Social Development of the Less Developed Countries". 3 August 1961. The establishment of volunteer sending agencies in Europe, and in particular the Peace Corps, which was established in the United States in 1961, influenced the debate in ECOSOC and also contributed to the creation of a UN Volunteers programme. Many, however, consider missionaries as the first volunteers working for improved standards of living in developing countries, and "some of the best missionary values have continued to inspire the international volunteer movement" according to the UN Volunteers. "The Appropriate Use of Volunteers in Development". *United Nations Volunteers Thematic Series*, Programme Advisory Note. Geneva: UNV, 1991, p. 13

26. General Assembly Resolution 2659 (XXV) "United Nations Volunteers", 17 December 1970, established the UNV programme following among others General Assembly Resolution 2460 (XXIII) "Human Resources for Development", 20 December 1968, which requested ECOSOC to study the feasibility of creating an international corps of volunteers for development. Prior to 1994, the Executive Board was known as the Governing Council of the UNDP.

27. (a) General Assembly Resolution 31/166. "United Nations Volunteers". 14 February 1977; (b) UNDP Governing Council decision 90/34. "Fifth Programming Cycle". 23 June 1990; (c) UNDP Executive Board decision 94/14. "UNDP: Initiative for Change". 10 June 1994.

28. See Economic and Social Council Resolution 1444 (XLVII). "Utilization of Volunteers in United Nations Development Projects". 7 August 1969. Another possibility would have been to let the UN funds, programmes, and specialized agencies recruit their own volunteers, as they do with other international personnel for development projects. Since this, however, was not done, in effect, a monopoly was created for the recruitment and administration of volunteers for UN development cooperation projects.

29. Note by the Secretary-General to the Economic and Social Council E/4663. "Utilization of Volunteers in United Nations Development Projects". 16 May 1969.

30. General Assembly Resolution 2460 (XXIII). "Human Resources for Development". 20 December 1968.

31. (a) General Assembly Resolution 40/212. "International Volunteers Day". 17 December 1985; (b) General Assembly Resolution 52/17. "International Year of Volunteers, 2001". 20 November 1997.

32. The figures quoted in this paragraph and subsequent paragraphs describing the evolution of the programme are taken from a series of annual publications by the United Nations Volunteers entitled: *UNV at a Glance – The Key Statistics*. Geneva: UNV, 1990–1996, including the latest in the series: *UNV at a Glance – The Key Statistics*. Bonn: UNV, 1997–1998.
33. Report of the Secretary-General to the General Assembly A/50/202/Add.1. "Comprehensive Statistical Data on Operational Activities for Development for the Year 1994". 25 September 1995.
34. The UN Department of Economic and Social Affairs includes what was previously known as the UN Department of Development Support and Management Services (UNDDSMS), a successor to the UN Department of Technical Cooperation for Development (UNDTCD).
35. See: General Assembly Resolution 31/131. "United Nations Volunteers Programme". 7 February 1977.
36. Compared to 1989, when the ratio of male to female Volunteers was 4:1, the programme has made some progress in increasing the number of female Volunteers. This paragraph and subsequent ones continue to draw on the annual publications: *UNV at a Glance – The Key Statistics*. Geneva: United Nations Volunteers, 1990, and subsequent updates, including: *UNV at a Glance – The Key Statistics for 1997*. Bonn: UNV, 1998.
37. In 1989, the average cost for a UNV specialist was US$20,300, and US$6,000 for a UNV community worker, while the administrative cost per Volunteer was US$4,700. This means that the average costs of UNV specialists have increased by 58 per cent between 1989 and 1996, while average costs of UNV community workers and administrative costs increased by 15 and 17 per cent, respectively, during the same period.
38. Wilson, Irene and Marjon Nooter, eds. *Evaluation of Finnish Personnel as Volunteers in Development Cooperation*, Ministry for Foreign Affairs of Finland, Department for International Development Cooperation, Report 1995:3. Helsinki: Hakapaino, 1995, pp. 204–206.
39. United Nations Volunteers. *Volunteers against Conflict*. Tokyo: United Nations University Press, 1996, p. 225.