YouthMovements:
White Papers

Prepared By: TakingITGlobal

Table of Contents:

Introduction	----------	3
Topics Overview	----------	4
Key Take-Aways	----------	5
Understanding the Impacts of Austerity	----------	7
Collaboration Models: Interdisciplinary Perspectives	----------	12
Collaboration Models: Bibliography	----------	17
Enabling Technologies: Understanding NGO Database Management Gaps	----------	20
Enabling Technologies: Bibliography	----------	27
Learning Models: Mentorship and Volunteerism	----------	29
Learning Models: Bibliography	----------	36
Appendix	----------	38

Youth Movements White Papers:

Introduction:

The central ambition of this collection of White Papers is to explore interdisciplinary perspectives on the central ideas raised during the 2012 Annual Youth Movements Summit. While discussions were diverse, the core themes were related to the following areas of interest, viz. (1) identifying effective guiding principles for collaboration within the YouthMovements network; (2) understanding trends in global Information and Communication Technology (ICT) penetration and access to technology through discussions of the Digital Divide; and (3) understanding the role of intergenerational conversations and mentorship as a strategy for youth engagement. Each of these discussions was the subject of a YouthMovements Inquiry Group call, taking place between February 2012 and July 2012, where the topics were explored in greater detail and from a variety of intersectoral perspectives.

In an effort to synthesize the shared learning that emerged from this combination of consultations and review of academic literature, these papers are intended to provide an overview of these current discussions. Additionally, the resources included in the bibliography and appendices are intended to provide prospective models, and points of departure for both program development and implementation efforts, both within and beyond the existing network. Lastly, the hope is that these inputs can be used to inform ongoing discussions taking place across the YouthMovements network and its respective partner networks on a global scale. Taken together, these inputs serve as directions for future research, as well as a set of 'key take-aways' defined consultatively through the combined efforts of the YouthMovements team, Network Partners and their respective partner networks.

Acknowledgements:
This work was generously supported by the Knight Foundation, over the duration of 2011-2012.

Topics Overview:

Understanding the Impacts of Austerity: An Intersectoral Review of Directions in the NGO Response to the Global Financial Crisis
Beginning with a review of key growth trends within the NGO sector prior to and following the Global Financial Crisis, the paper sets out the strategies to which organizations are making recourse as assessed by a recent UN study. Of these strategies, the need for novel approaches to fundraising, better collaboration and integration of technology, emerge as the most viable opportunities for the sector.

Collaboration Models: Interdisciplinary Perspectives
Collaboration requires the establishment of contentful connections between actors both within and beyond the NGO sector. Whether NGOs, individuals, governmental or intergovernmental organizations act as moderators, informal forums need to be established with the intention of creating a space conducive to the development of collaborative initiatives. Beginning with a review of some of the principles that underwrite a diverse range of collaboration models, the discussion will frame key issues, opportunities and challenges from an interdisciplinary perspective.

Enabling Technologies: Identifying Data-Management Gaps
From this discussion, resource constraints emerge as a key consideration for collaborative efforts. Specifically, challenges relating to access and effective integration of database management technologies among youth-led and youth-serving organizations are discussed. Offering a preliminary overview of the insights gathered through interactions with participating organizations, initial observations suggest the instantiation of a Secondary Digital Divide within the YouthMovements Network itself. Developing an understanding of the technological needs in terms of access, training, and support will be key considerations for fostering meaningful, productive and sustainable relationships within the NGO sector moving forward.

Learning Models: Mentorship and Volunteerism
Recent resolutions advanced by the International Labour Office (ILO) of the UN support the need for sustainable education and professional development as part of the Decent Work agenda. Collaboration requires dynamics conducive to the development of relationships where expertise can be exchanged. Technology has decreased the transaction costs for the sharing of information, while concurrently empowering individuals and in particular a generation of young people to develop new approaches to traditional challenges. Through a discussion of the three ways of structuring mentorship models, viz. (1) Organization-to-Organization, (2) Organization-to-Individual and (3) Individual-to-Individual, new and potentially fruitful learning opportunities for those within and beyond the YouthMovements Network are explored.

Each of these discussions is addressed in the sections below, bringing together insights from relevant academic literature and additional qualitative inputs from practitioner organizations through Inquiry Group discussions taking place over the spring and summer of 2012. Particularly, discussions will look into the development of 'social enterprise' business models, ICT access and adoption and connections between young people and the labour market. While not representing an exhaustive review of these subjects, these discussions serve to frame the existing focus and current direction of conversations. The ambition here is to establish a baseline around a core set of issues for subsequent dialogue, synthesizing eclectic sources of interdisciplinary information to introduce new actors and variables into discussions that tend to take place within organizations and, typically, behind closed doors.

Key Take-Aways:

Understanding the Impacts of Austerity: An Intersectoral Review of Directions in the NGO Response to the Global Financial Crisis

- The number of NGOs is increasing;
- The Global Financial Crisis is going to lead to decreased financial support for NGOs;
- Macroeconomic Implications on the Sector: There is an increasing demand for the services NGOs provide; There are more NGOs that are competing for funding; Funding resources for the sector have decreased; The result is increased competition for limited resources;
- Coping mechanisms: Technology and collaboration create efficiencies and new opportunities in a resource-constrained environment.

Collaboration Models: Interdisciplinary Perspectives

- The communications strategy needs to be lucid;
    a. Representation as a challenge in collaborative contexts
- The group needs to be comparatively small;
    a. Collaboration needs to involve the right actors;
- The focus of collaboration needs to be straightforward and specific – no 'Miss America' answers;
    a. Outcomes are constrained by collaborator resources
- We need to create a safe framework to understand the balance between our individual interests and align these to the extent possible with those of the group;
- The team structure needs to be interdisciplinary, but we need to be sensitive to cultural differences between technical and non-technical disciplines;
- We need to establish some 'Measures of Success' for our collaboration that take into consideration both the individual progress made, but also 'group' outcomes to create shared ownership;
    a. Transparent evaluations are conducted at both the individual and group level
- Intercultural conflicts are manifest within interdisciplinary collaborative contexts;
- Differences among evidentiary standards and language can reinforce bias and undermine collaborative effort.

Enabling Technologies: Understanding NGO Database Management Gaps

- Globally, Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs) are increasingly available to a broader segment of the global population;
- The problem of 'Access' has fragmented into a problem of 'Quality Access, Usage & Support';
- The Secondary and Tertiary divides apply within Higher Developed Countries (HDCs), creating gaps that parallel existing socio-economic divides in the United States;
- Organizations with online presence supporting youth-led and youth-serving work lack the capacity internally to develop and implement database management tools;
- There is both an opportunity and a need for programs that effectively support the meaningful integration of these technologies at both the organizational and individual level to foster outcomes beneficial to individuals and communities on a local, national and global scale.

Learning Models: Mentorship and Volunteerism

- There is a need for passionate, committed people in leadership positions to run mentorship programs. However, there is also a requirement that mentees be responsive and active in seeking out guidance;

- There are various types of mentorship models and mentoring relationships that exist. However, the most enriching mentorship programs are ones that are defined by missions, goals, and objectives, which all remain focused throughout the life of the program;
- Facilitating the transition between online volunteerism, offline engagement (skills acquisition/capacity building) and participation in the labour market is a challenge for young people globally;
- Understanding how online volunteerism relates to offline forms of engagement is challenging, and the models are very much in the developmental stages;
- Ongoing contact between members of an online project environment is crucial in creating transparency and building trust.

Understanding the Impacts of Austerity:
An Intersectoral Review of Directions in the NGO Response to the Global Financial Crisis

Introduction:

The central focus of this paper is to explore the increasing importance of developing projects, programs and outcomes that involve collaboration as a means towards the achievement of final outcomes. Beginning with an overview of some of the factors driving the global increase in non-governmental organizations (NGOs), trends in available funding and support for NGO efforts following the onset of the global financial crisis will speak to the emergence of greater competition among NGOs for increasingly scarce financial resources. Taken together, growth trends, financial austerity in conjunction with the trend towards the increasing availability of information and communication technologies (ICTs), create a unique environment for NGOs. As the transaction costs of information exchange continue to decrease and levels of connectivity in terms of both direct access and social media usage increase, the stage is set for NGOs with basic technology capacities to work together in new and exciting ways. This paper will briefly outline the trends which are active within the NGO ecosystem, looking to bring together insights from different disciplines to inform discussions about the current state of collaborative efforts among a group of NGOs. Building on initial conversations at the YouthMovements Global Summit in February, 2012, preliminary server research and qualitative interviews conducted with NGO partners, insights will endeavour to define an initial set of 'guiding principles' which will be used as points of departure towards the development of strong, sustainable and mutually advantageous collaboration models both within and beyond the NGO sector.

Summary of Key Insights:

- The number of NGOs is increasing;
- The Global Financial Crisis is going to lead to decreased financial support for NGOs;
- Macroeconomic Implications on the Sector: There is an increasing demand for the services NGOs provide; There are more NGO's that are competing for funding; Funding resources for the sector have decreased; The result is increased competition for limited resources;
- Coping mechanisms: Technology and collaboration create efficiencies and new opportunities in a resource-constrained environment.

The number of NGOs is increasing:

In the post-war period, the number of NGOs has increased dramatically.[1] Factors fueling this increasingly global trend include: the socio-economic dimensions underwriting globalization (Nye and Keohane, 1972; Skjelsbaek, 1972), increases in global access to technology (International Telecommunications Union, 2011; Lipschutz, 1992, p. 389–420; Mathews, 1997, p. 50–66), as well as the specific post-war introduction of new political access and funding opportunities (Reimann, 2006, p. 45-67). In an effort to understand how these factors come together to drive growth in the number of operative NGOs, researcher Kim Reimann from Georgia State University argues for two competing narratives, viz. (1) the 'Bottom-up' approach; and (2) the 'Top down' approach. While this distinction has persisted in the philosophical and political science literature, its application to the NGO development discussion involves a multitude of dimensions beyond discourse concerning epistemic justifications of authority.

The explanation of the proliferation of NGOs as an extension of Bottom-Up drivers asserts that growth rates are the result of a "societal response to socio-economic factors, the new information revolution

[1] According to the Union of International Association's Yearbook of International Organizations, international NGOs increased in number from 985 in 1956 to 14,000 in 1985, and nearly 21,000 in 2003. Cited in Reimann, (2006).

and/or the decline of the state" (Reimann, 2006, p. 45). Arguments of this sort are more often endorsed by researchers in political science and sociology, exploring variables from the presence of democracy to per capita GNP as predictors of a growing NGO sector (Nye and Keohane, 1972; Skjelsbaek, 1972; Boli, Loya & Loftin, 1999, p. 50-77). Similar to an emerging approach in social movement theory, this approach echoes the "symbolic interactionist approach to the study of collective action by emphasizing the role of framing activities and cultural processes in social activism" (Beuchler, 1995, p. 441; Snow and Benford, 1992, p. 133-155; Gamson, 1992, p. 53-76; Hunt, Benford, and Snow, 1994, p. 185-208). Fundamentally, beyond issues of resource mobilization exclusively, individuals within communities at the local and national level are able to more effectively identify common issues of public concern, increase the coordination of their efforts and become organized, secure and efficiently manage resources to support initiatives towards the achievement of a collective mandate. On Reimann's view, this is the perspective on NGO development that has been common in the literature, acting as an extension of Marxist economic reductionism (Beuchler, 1995, p. 441).

In contrast, Reimann argues in favour of a 'Top-Down' approach that identifies the proliferation of NGOs as a product of what she refers to as the trend towards 'political globalization'. The factors driving this trend are social, political and economic, but not directly explored through the "logic of capitalist production" to the exclusion of other social logics, or "class relationships rooted in the process of production" to the exclusion of other collective actors.[2] While traditionally 'bottom up' inputs clearly play a role, Reimann suggests that the social factors driving NGO growth cannot be understood in isolation from larger dimensions that argues ought to include "the globalization of political structures, institutions, and Western liberal democratic values" (Reimann, 2006, p. 46) on an international level. These considerations, while not taken to constitute a formally defined theory at this stage, build on the concept of a political opportunity structure (POS), within the context of social movement theory (McCarthy and Zald, 1977, p. 1212-1241; Tilly, 1978, as cited in Beuchler, 1995, p. 441). Reimann argues that the critical variables associated with NGO growth include the presence of open political structures (Kriesi et al., 1995; Tarrow, 1996, as cited in Reimann, 2006, p. 47), new financial interests, subsidies and access to decision making forums and processes (Walker, 1991; Berry, 1999; Skocpol, 1999, as cited in Reimann, 2006, p. 47), legal structures and availability of state and foundation funding (Salamon and Anheier, 1998, p. 213–247, as cited in Reimann, 2006, p. 47). As global trends in access to technology, development of increasingly 'Western' political values and institutions continue to expand into emerging regions globally, environments traditionally conducive to NGO growth are likely to develop.

The Global Financial Crisis is going to lead to decreased financial support for NGOs;
While academic debate around the underlying explanatory narrative for NGO growth rates remains an open discussion, traditionally 'bottom up' and 'top down' dimensions are impacted by the onset of the Global Economic Crisis. In a recent survey conducted by the United Nations Division for Social Policy and Development, 640 Civil Society Organizations (CSOs) shared their inputs on the impacts of the crisis on their efforts along with strategies employed to address decreased funding availability. One of the critical findings of this global survey was that "[r]esponding CSOs have seen reductions by individual contributors, private foundations, international institutions and governments, although not necessarily

[2] Cited in Beuchler, 1995: "all politically significant social action will derive from the fundamental economic logic of capitalist production and that all other social logics are secondary at best in shaping such action" (p. 442); and "class reductionism presumed that the most significant social actors will be defined by class relationships rooted in the process of production and that all other social identities are secondary at best in constituting collective actors" (Canel, 1992, p. 22-51, as cited in Beuchler, 1995, p. 442)

by all categories at once" (Hanfstaengl, 2010, p. 3).[3] While constraints around funding create significant obstacles for CSOs, the critical reflection from the survey, echoed in global demography trend statistics, is that "revenue decline comes at the same time as demand for services is increasing, requiring more, not less, funding" (Hanfstaengl, 2010, p. 4). While the longer term implications are still to be determined, in simple terms, the funding environment that supports many NGOs and CSOs is observed to be flattening (Hanfstaengl, 2010, p. 29). In response to this tightening of global purse strings, organizations reported mitigating strategies ranging from reprioritization around key target populations, additional segmentation to identify areas and populations of greatest need, novel fundraising approaches and outright hibernation.

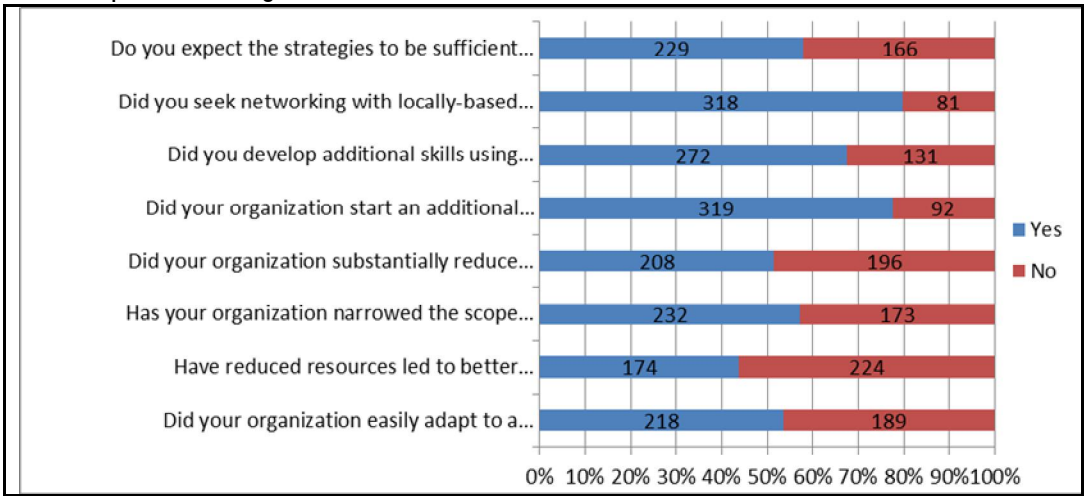
Macroeconomic Implications on the Sector: Supply and Demand

The fundamental macroeconomic dimensions facing the sector are straightforwardly apparent: Demand for NGO services continues to increase as a result of demographic and socioeconomic factors; the number of NGOs operating globally has increased substantially since the end of the second World War; and funding opportunities necessary to support the operations of the sector have decreased as a result of the financial crisis. Taken together, the implications of these circumstances are that communities are likely to suffer as NGOs struggle to maintain operating capacities as a result of changes within the funding environment.

The prospect of 'waiting it out' or of continuing with a 'business as usual' approach is simply no longer an option for many organizations. Increasingly, NGOs will need to diversify sources of funding, develop new models that incorporate sustainable revenue-generating activities and more importantly "make use of synergies with similar organizations" (Hanfstaengl, 2010, p. 29). As the demands of the global financial market, expressed through national and international fiscal policy makers work to establish order and stability to inspire the growth required to replenish the NGO sector, the onus is on NGOs to implement effective ways to cope. These insights are summarized in the chart below, which highlights the strategies used by CSOs in the study to respond to the decrease in revenues associated with the onset of the Financial Crisis.

[3] Survey Sample: 640 CSOs responded, from Africa (33%), from Asia, including China (23%), from Western Europe (16%), US and Canada (13%), Latin American countries (9%), Eastern Europe (3%), Japan, Australia and New Zealand (2%), from Ukraine and Russia (1%).

NGO Response Strategies:



	Yes	No	%+	%-
Do you expect the strategies to be sufficient to meet the challenges?	229	166	58	42
Did you seek networking with locally-based CSOs?	318	81	80	20
Did you develop additional skills using internet tools (Skype, etc.)?	272	131	67	33
Did your organization start an additional fundraising campaign?	319	92	78	22
Did your organization substantially reduce the number of its staff?	208	196	51	49
Has your organization narrowed the scope of its work?	232	173	57	43
Have reduced resources led to better efficiency of work?	174	224	44	56
Did your organization easily adapt to a tighter resource constraint?	218	189	54	46

Hanfstaengl, 2010, p. 29: Q17.; *Not all respondents answered in each case.*

Coping Mechanisms: Technology and Collaboration

While reductions in overhead, administration and staff costs can produce savings over the short term, one respondent pointed out that this approach to managing institutional budget "puts a lot of strain on the current staff being burden[ed] with extra tasks" (Hanfstaengl, 2012, p. 30). Additional fundraising, usage of cost-reducing technology tools, and increased collaboration through networks are observed to be the strategies to which most organizations make recourse. One respondent noted specifically that the focus on integration of new technologies and collaboration was the result not driven by the development of new skills but, rather, by pragmatic demands that necessitated the usage of these "method[s] or process[es] of working as a result of the financial crisis" (Hanfstaengl, 2010, p. 30). The study also suggests that, in an effort to "stretch resources", 80% of the responding organizations "have developed better collaborative networks with other CSOs" (Hanfstaengl, 2010, p. 31). Increasingly, the adoption of new technologies that help to foster collaborations between actors at the local level in particular are of strategic importance to responding NGOs.

YouthMovements:
With the dynamics of the NGO sector in a state of transition, there is a clear need to develop tools, models and approaches to support collaborative efforts at the local, national and international level. At the intersection of technology and collaboration, the YouthMovements project serves as free platform for organizations within the sector to showcase their initiatives (http://youthmovements.org/), connect with other organizations (http://www.youthmovements.org/partners/), share insights and 'lessons learned' (www.youthmovements.org/hub/), and participate in periodic collaborative discussion with other experts in the field. Taken together, these tools enable organizations and individuals to establish a common framework in which to operate, promote and connect their work with organizations ranging from some of the world's largest to individuals operating locally across the globe.

Understanding the essential dynamics that allow a network to catalyze, develop and evolve towards sustainability requires a complex understanding of the needs of the sector, the key players within it, the interventions and underlying logic models that drive real change, and the communities respective individuals and organizations they aim to serve. Taken together, what is required is a lens through which to view the sector of youth-led and youth-serving organizations that captures the achievements, challenges and opportunities to increase the collective impact of the sector as a whole. Through conversations with more than forty organizations participating in the inaugural YouthMovements Summit, the following points of discussion emerged as being of critical relevance to the development of the intersectoral perspective, viz.,

1. Collaboration Models: Interdisciplinary Perspectives
2. Enabling Technologies: Identifying Data-Management Gaps
3. Learning Models: Mentorship & Volunteerism

In each case, topics were sourced from active conversations that took place in February 2012, during the YouthMovements Summit event in New York City. Each of these discussions will be addressed as part of an ongoing discussion taking place with Partners across the YouthMovements Network. Again, these dialogues are 'working papers', in the sense that they are open to theoretical and practical considerations to be identified and addressed as part of an open conversation with a variety of stakeholder groups taking place over the course of 2012.

Introduction:

The focus of the following paper will review insights around models of collaboration developed from literature in the fields of Communications Theory, Engineering Design and Education. This discussion will serve to bring together insights, principles and 'better practices' from a variety of interdisciplinary perspectives in the hopes of serving as a common framework for additional research and discussion relating to the identification, development and assessment of effective models of collaboration within and beyond the NGO sector.

Summary of Key Insights:

- The communications strategy needs to be lucid;
    a. Representation as a challenge in collaborative contexts
- The group needs to be comparatively small;
    a. Collaboration needs to involve the right actors;
- The focus of the collaboration needs to be straightforward and specific – no 'Miss America' answers;
    a. Outcomes are constrained by collaborator resources
- We need to create a safe framework to understand the balance between our individual interests to align these to the extent possible with those of the group;
- The team structure needs to be interdisciplinary, but we need to be sensitive to cultural differences between technical and non-technical disciplines;
- We need to establish some 'Measures of Success' for our collaboration that take into consideration both the individual progress we make, but also 'group' outcomes to create shared ownership;
    a. Transparent evaluations are conducted at both the individual and group level
- Intercultural conflicts are manifest within interdisciplinary collaborative contexts
- Differences among evidentiary standards and language can reinforce bias and undermine collaborative effort.

Communications Theory:

The process of collaboration involves a constant analysis on the part of the collaborators of the amount of benefit created through the collaborative project. Intuitively, building an interdisciplinary team of experts to address a given problem should generate a more balanced, inclusive and ideal solution. However, coming together as a group, even on the small scale, involves the identification and framing of a common focus, a desired output, agreement around the means or method, the investments of time and other resources, trust and commitment if the objective is to be realized. As part of their exploration of a Theory of Collaborative Advantage, management theorists Chris Huxham and Siv Vangen (2005) proposed the following list of tensions that underwrite collaborative effort:

1. We must have common aims but we cannot agree on them;
2. Sharing power is important but people behave as if it is all in the purse strings;
3. Trust is necessary for successful collaboration but we are suspicious of each other;
4. We are partnership-fatigued and tired of being pulled in all directions;
5. Everything keeps changing;
6. Leadership is not always in the heads of members;
7. Leadership activities continually meet with dilemmas and difficulties (Huxham & Vangen, 2005, as cited in Kamann, 2006).

As a general framework, each of these issues can be explored through a variety of interdisciplinary lenses, each with different arguments advocating for the primary of its own insights and assumptions. Fundamentally, the common thread underwriting each of these concerns is the critical need for effective processes and systems of communication to allow for the development of shared understanding.

- Representation as a challenge in collaborative contexts

In a recent paper, Joann Keyton (et al., 2010) explores the ways in which communication plays a critical role in determining the structure and outcome collaborative efforts. According to Keyton's (et al.) definition, inter-organizational collaboration can be defined as:

> the set of communicative processes in which individuals representing multiple organizations or stakeholders engage when working interdependently to address problems outside the spheres of individuals or organizations working in isolation (Keyton et al., 2010, p. 381).

This definition is developed from observations among individuals involved in the collaborative effort and the recognition that oftentimes these actors participate as representatives of organizations, interests or groups. The 'representational' role adopted by collaborators introduces complexities as individuals are often required to act in accordance with the expectations of a constituency. Moreover, individual actors do not approach with equal footing, as asymmetrical power relationships in terms of access to resources or influence unbalance the playing field. As such, while individuals working together towards a common end can more readily find compromise in adjusting their own personal expectations and commitments, those acting in a representational capacity are often constrained by their obligation to negotiate only on the terms of those they endeavour to represent.

The initial constraints identified in the UN study (Hanfstaengl, 2010) echo those identified as key issues confronting the communications analysis of collaboration models. On Keyton's view, the constructs that articulate these complications are fourfold, viz. (1) investment in resources; (2) expected impacts; (3) network uncertainty; and (4) network instability (Keyton et. al., 2010, p. 377). Alongside the four constructs, Keyton argues that collaborations can take place at a number of levels, with face-to-face intragroup communication, inter-team communication within an organization, and extra-organizational communication as collaborations involve individuals representing organizations more broadly. Keyton argues that models of collaboration that fail to incorporate these key communicative dimensions "portray… collaborations in ways that do not adequately capture the essential character of this important form of communicative activity and this aspect of organizational life" (Keyton et. al., 2010, p. 377). These constructs, taken in context with the multileveled nature of organizations effectively set out a framework within which a more inclusive, intentional and transparent communications model can be developed.

- Collaborations need to involve the right actors

Through an initial review of the existing literature, Keyton identifies four major assumptions that, while commonly held, run contrary to effective collaborative practice. The first of these asserts that process itself ought to include "all individuals, groups, or organizations that are directly influenced by actions others take to solve the problem" (Gray, 1989, p. 5, as cited in Keyton et. al, 2005, p. 380). While the notion of maximal inclusivity is a virtue in principle, the complexity of communicative interactions required can become a significant constraint for collaborative efforts. This is not to suggest that key stakeholders ought to be excluded for the sake of simplicity; the notion of addressing an oversimplified version of a problem simply because a solution is more readily apparent is no solution at all. Rather, the insight here is that dialogue that is sensitive to issues relating to representation, to the multiple roles, interests and constraints that define the starting point for many collaborative efforts, needs to be used to help frame criteria for stakeholder inclusion at different phases of the collaborative effort.

- The focus of the collaboration needs to be straightforward and specific

The second assumption Keyton identifies, suggests that the structure of the collaborative framework itself needs to be engaged directly by participants, such that "it cannot be imposed" (Keyton et. al, 2005, p. 380). The question this assertion addresses pertains to the role that individuals acting as part of the collaborative effort have in defining the structure and process that frames the communicative practice for the group. The claim that individuals working collaboratively must, of necessity, also formalize a communications structure on a completely internal basis is, on Keyton's view, largely unsupported. Citing leadership research conducted by Judith Kolb (1996), Keyton argues that an element of structure is critical to the successful operation of a team. Discussing the factors that contribute to 'organizational citizenship', including "altruism, conscientiousness, courtesy, and civic virtue" (Kolb, 1996, p. 454), Kolb argues in favor of the role of structure in supporting the cohesion of a team. In the absence of clear structure, particularly relating to communicative strategies used to frame the following three key features influencing project success, viz. (1) goals, scheduling and timetables; (2) individuals roles, responsibilities and accountability; and (3) communications system expectations. While team members want flexibility, ambiguity around the systems that help to plan, administer and monitor these structural elements of collaborative activity leads to confusion. The critical challenge is, on Kolb's view, "to balance [team members'] desire for autonomy with their perhaps equally strong desire for structure and to determine what form and direction this structure should take" (Kolb, 1995, p. 243). Within the context of collaboration, Keyton echoes Kolb (1996) in holding that external facilitation is a viable way to help develop the systems that support effective collaboration to achieve precisely this balance.

- Outcomes are constrained by collaborator resources, which are often limited

Lastly, Keyton argues against the view that "if the collaborative process is good, the outcome will also be good" (Keyton, et. al, 2005, p. 380). This view fundamentally obscures the critical role that logistics play in effectively supporting collaborative efforts, namely resource constraints. Without the appropriate material, financial and human resource support, the overall impact of the collaborative effort will be minimal, resulting in increased network instability. Ultimately, even if the process is well-framed and articulated, if buy-in across collaborators is achieved, if issues of representation are effectively addressed, simply logistics can undermine the achievement of the collaborative objective outright. Consequently, the communications practice must support the process of identifying the key challenges of the collaborative project along with the resources and commitment levels of those participating in the effort.

Engineering:

The challenges and opportunities that follow from a communications discussion of collaboration are by no means exhaustive. While Keyton et al. address collaborations between individuals representing organizations and interests, Takai (2010) explores models of collaboration within the field of engineering, assessing impacts on the outputs of a product design process relative to the following set of variables: (1) the ability of each respective engineer; and (2) the complementarity of their domains of expertise. Approaching the discussion of collaboration from a mathematical modeling perspective, Takai approaches collaboration from a tactical perspective. Rather than assessing systems and processes for ensuring clear communication, a game-theoretic model is used to understand the individual decisions and prospective payoff calculations that individuals would use in deciding whether or not to engage in collaborative as opposed to individual activity.

Using an adapted version of The Prisoners' Dilemma, Takai employs game-theory to explore the conditions under which it is mathematically optimal for engineers to undertake collaborative projects.

The initial formulation of the Prisoners' Dilemma was developed by Merrill Flood and Dresher in 1950 (Takai, 2010) and involves two criminals with information about a crime in which they are both equally involved. Both individuals are being interviewed and both have been offered the same deal. If one individual confesses, he or she will get a reduced sentence and their accomplice will receive a harsher punishment. If both confess, both receive reduced sentences. The decisions in the model are made by each criminal without knowledge of what the other has decided. The dilemma arises from the fact that the largest benefit follows only if both parties decide not to confess, despite the fact that individually they are risking a more substantial sentence if their accomplice indicts them for the crime. The dilemma is intended to model the tension between self-interest mutual cooperation, identifying the conditions under which mutual cooperation is preferred to self-interest. Within the context of engineering design, the dilemma is adapted to identify the conditions under which the decision to work collaboratively on a design project would yield a higher overall benefit relative to the decision to work in isolation (Takai, 2010).

- We need to create a safe framework to understand the balance between our individual interests to align these to the extent possible with those of the group
- The team structure needs to be interdisciplinary, but we need to be sensitive to cultural differences between technical and non-technical disciplines

Engineers in the revised model are asked to allocated resources of time to both an individual and a team project. Evaluation on the team project will involve ratings provided by all team members. Through analysis of the resulting matrix of case outputs comparing each potential set of outcomes, the decisions are analyzed yielding three primary conclusions. First, the results suggest that "[a] collaboration of engineers is beneficial... only if they have minimum abilities experience or knowledge in the design project" (Takai, 2010, p. 051005-7). Essentially, the model is sensitive to the expertise of those involved, such that if there is a fundamental lack of expertise among the project team then collaborations will not lead to higher product performance. Secondly, the results also suggest that everyone involved need not possess a high level of expertise. Rather, "Engineers with low ability [i.e.] low experience or knowledge, may be complemented by engineers with high ability high experience or knowledge in the team" (Takai, 2010, p. 051005-7). The potential for those with high expertise to work with those who have less experience does not negatively impact the output of the collaboration, assuming that minimum levels of relevant knowledge are possessed by all those involved. Third and lastly, Takai observes that among the engineers, "disciplines need to be highly complementary with each other if collaboration is to result in a team project" (Takai, 2010, p. 051005-7).

- Transparent evaluations are conducted at both the individual and group level

The assumption within this model is that performance evaluations were to be applied at both the individual and team level. Recalling the key challenges identified by Huxham and Vangen (2005, as cited in Kamann, 2006), the shared professional credential serves as an external means by which to establish trust within a collaborative framework. Representing a shared covenant with substantial investment at stake both all actors involved, these disciplinary conditions set the engineering context apart from collaborations that are interdisciplinary and or intersectoral in constitution. In contexts where collaborators are not connected directly through sanctioning via a common credentialing or legitimizing body, significant potential exists to develop alternative models to incorporate this accountability mechanism.

As is the case with mathematical modeling techniques, these results fail to generalize beyond the experimental context as the real-world application will involve more complexities than are controlled for in Takai's reformulation (Takai, 2010, 051005-7). Despite these limitations, the tension identified

between individual and mutual benefit is one that ought to be carefully considered in collaborative contexts. While the assignment of utilities to prospective outcomes may be challenging in some contexts, the potential benefits of mathematical models and of payoff-based approaches to evaluating the likelihood of collaborative decision making are key insights with application beyond the sphere of engineering design.

Education:

Differentials relating to trust and credentialing are not isolated to the engineering field. Looking to field of education in particular, Carr (2002) explores barriers to collaboration between those with backgrounds in the sciences and those with backgrounds in education. Within the context of a program designed to bring those with formal science backgrounds into the classroom as part of a reformation in the science teacher training process in the US. According to the National Research Council (NRC), teacher education ought to bring together "scientists and mathematicians, and science and teacher educators... as core participants in this new type of partnership" (National Research Council, 2000, p. 91). At the core of this idea, individuals with expertise in the domain of scientific knowledge would be brought together with educators who have expertise with the effective translation of this knowledge into academic rubrics. Carr's observations center on the intercultural challenges that occur within interdisciplinary contexts.

- Intercultural conflicts are manifest within interdisciplinary collaborative contexts

Citing the work of DuPraw and Axner (1997), Carr reiterates the six dimensions that underwrite cultural differences:

1. Communications style
2. Attitudes towards conflict
3. Approaches to completing tasks
4. Decision-making styles
5. Attitudes towards disclosure
6. Approaches to knowing (Carr, 2002, p. 286).

Reflecting on each dimension, DuPraw and Axner observe ways in which individuals from different cultural backgrounds relate to one another, with a particular focus on where conflicts arise. While this formalism is one of many used to frame the foundations of intercultural conflict, Carr argues that these dimensions are manifest within discussions beyond intercultural contexts to include disputes across disciplinary boundaries (Hammer, 2003). Critical differences were manifest among the "use of lecture material, cooperative learning, textbook use, [and] methods of assessment" (Carr, 2002, p.286). Referencing research conducted by Seymour & Hewitt (1997) and Tobias (1994) the typical science classroom is described as "teacher centered, lecture based, competitive as opposed to cooperative, and primarily valuing objective methods of assessment" (Carr, 2002, p. 286). For those studying education as a major, each of these classroom elements were essentially reversed, creating a markedly different student experience, with critical differences emerging around epistemology and technical vocabulary.

- Differences among evidentiary standards and language can reinforce bias and undermine collaborative effort

With respect to competing theories of truth, Carr references the distinction between a logical positivist and constructivist view of 'Truth'. According to the former, the features of the world are readily discoverable as an empirical 'given', fixed in nature and discoverable by logical processes and the methods of science. In contrast the 'Constructivist' position holds that truth is recognized as historically situated, narrative-based, and socially determined. On this view, the perspective and biases of the observer prevent observational data from representing an empirical and value-free proposition about

the world. Students in the sciences are generally aligned with the former, while students in education, through the course of their academic progress, become increasingly aligned to the latter. This difference is apparent through inquiries pursued by individuals within each respective group, such that those tending towards the empiricist tradition "learn through strategies supporting rote memorization... very often motivated by course grades and examination results" (Carr, 2002, p. 294). In contrast, individuals with a constructivist perspective are described as "tend[ing] to learn through group discussion and other active strategies... motivated by interest and curiosity" (Carr, 2002, p. 294). While descriptions at the extremes tend to over-simplify the complexity of views associated with this kind of epistemological spectrum, centralization around these themes exposes the potential conflict that stems from differing operative theories of truth among interdisciplinary collaborators.

While the motivation to collaborate is driven by a host of internal and external constraints, from fiscal austerity to organizational and target community alignments, a review of the literature around collaboration models reveals the multidimensionality of the issue as it pertains to NGOs. By integrating a variety of perspectives transcending disciplinary boundaries, additional opportunities for further inquiry are identified. In particular, reviewing existing frameworks that reflect challenges more readily associated with intercultural conflict provides one of several potential starting points for further discussion and inquiry. What is apparent from this review is the criticality of adopting a realist approach to both identifying and addressing the constraints of a varied group of stakeholders. With communication as the critical tool, technology can play an increasingly significant role in enabling these dialogues through simplifying the process of connecting and maintaining contacts both within and across organizations moving forward.

Collaboration Models: Bibliography

Berry, Jeffrey M (1999). "The Rise of Citizen Groups." In *Civic Engagement in American Democracy*. Edited by T. Skocpol and M. Fiorina. Washington: Brookings Institution Press and Russell Sage Foundation.

Boli, John, Loya, Thomas A. & Teresa Loftin (1999). "National Participation in World-Polity Organization." In *Constructing World Culture: International Nongovernmental Organizations Since 1875*. Edited by J. Boli and G. M. Thomas. Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press. p. 50-77.

Buechler, S. M. (1995). "New Social Movement Theories." *The Sociological Quarterly* 36.3. p. 441-464.

Canel, Eduardo (1992). "New Social Movement Theory and Resource Mobilization: The Need for Integration." In *Organizing Dissent*. Edited by William K. Carroll. Toronto: Garamond Press. p. 22-51.

Carr, Kevin (2002). "Building Bridges and Crossing Borders: Using Service Learning to Overcome Cultural Barriers to Collaboration Between Science and Education Departments." *School Science and Mathematics* 102.6. p. 285-298.

DuPraw, M.E., & M. Axner (1997). "Working on common cross-cultural communications challenges." Retrieved from http://www.wwcd.org/action/ampu/crosscult.html.

Gamson, William A (1992). "The Social Psychology of Collective Action." In *Frontiers of Social Movement Theory*. Edited by Morris and Mueller. p. 53-76.

Gray, B (1989). *Collaborating: Finding common ground in multiparty problems*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Hammer, Mitchell, Bennett, Milton, & Richard Wiseman (2003). "Measuring intercultural sensitivity: The intercultural development inventory." *International Journal of Intercultural Relations* 27. p. 421-443.

Hanfstaengl, Eva-Maria (2010). "Impact of the Global Economic Crisis on Civil Society Organizations." Desa Working paper 97. p. 1-51.

Hunt, Scott A., Benford, Robert D., & David A. Snow (1994). "Identity Fields: Framing Processes and the Social Construction of Movement Identities." In *New Social Movements*. Edited by Larana, Johnston, and Gusfield. p. 185-208.

Huxham, Chris & Siv Vangen (2005). *Managing to collaborate: the theory and practice of collaborative advantage*. London/New York: Routledge.

Kamann, Dirk-Jan F (2006). "Chris Huxham, Siv Vangen, Managing to Collaborate, The Theory and Practice of Collaborative Advantage, Routledge, London/New York, 2005." Book Review. *Journal of Purchasing & Supply Management* 12. p. 51.

Keyton, Joann, Ford, Debra, & Faye Smith (2008). "A Mesolevel Communicative Model of Collaboration." *Communication Theory* 18.3. p. 376-406.

Kolb, Judith A (1996). "Let's Bring Structure Back." *Management Communication Quarterly: McQ* 9.4. p. 452-465.

Kriesi, Hanspeter, Koopman, Ruud, Duyvendak, Jan Willem, and Marco G. Guigni (1995). *New Social Movements in Western Europe: A Comparative Analysis*. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press.

International Telecommunications Union (2011). "Measuring the Information Society." Retreived from http://www.itu.int/ITU-D/ict/publications/idi/2011/.

Lipschutz, Ronnie D (1992). "Reconstructing World Politics: The Emergence of Global Civil Society." *Journal of International Studies* 21. p. 389–420.

Mathews, Jessica (1997). "Power Shift." *Foreign Affairs* 76. p. 50–66.

McCarthy, John D. and Mayer N. Zald (1977). "Resource Mobilization and Social Movements: A Partial Theory." *American Journal of Sociology* 82. p. 1212-1241.

National Research Council (2000). "Educating teachers of science, mathematics, and technology: New practices for a new millennium." Washington, DC: National Academy Press.

Nye, Joseph S., & Robert Keohane (1972). "Transnational Relations and World Politics: An Introduction." In *Transnational Relations and World Politics*. Edited by R. Keohane and J. Nye. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.

Reimann, Kim D (2006). “A View from the Top: International Politics, Norms and the Worldwide Growth of NGOs.” *International Studies Quarterly* 50.1. p. 45-67.

Salamon, Lester M., & Helmut K. Anheier (1998). “Social Origins of Civil Society: Explaining the Nonprofit Sector Cross-Nationally.” Voluntas 9. p. 213–247.

Seymour, E., & N. Hewitt (1997). *Talking about leaving: Why undergraduates leave the sciences*. Boulder, CO: Westview Press.

Skjelsbaek, Kjell (1972). “The Growth of International Nongovernmental Organization in the Twentieth Century.” In *Transnational Relations and World Politics*. Edited by R. Keohane and J. Nye. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.

Skocpol, Theda (1999). “Advocates without Members: The Recent Transformation of American Civic Life.” In *Civic Engagement in American Democracy*. Edited by T. Skocpol and M. Fiorina. Washington: Brookings Institution Press and Russell Sage Foundation.

Snow, David A., & Robert D. Benford (1992). “Master Frames and Cycles of Protest.” In *Frontiers in Social Movement Theory*. Edited by Morris and Mueller. p. 133-155.

Takai, S. (2010). “A Game-Theoretic Model of Collaboration in Engineering Design.” *ASME Journal of Mechanical Design* 132.5. p. 051005-10.

Tarrow, Sidney (1996). “States and Opportunities: The Political Structuring of Social Movements.” In *Comparative Perspectives on Social Movements: Political Opportunities, Mobilizing Structures, and Cultural Framings*. Edited by D. McAdam, J. McCarthy and M. Zald. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Tilly, Charles (1978). *From Mobilization to Revolution*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Tobias, S (1994). *They're not dumb, they're different: Stalking the second tier*. Long Branch, NJ: Science News Books.

Walker, Jack L. (1991). *Mobilizing Interest Groups in America. Patrons, Professions, and Social Movements*. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press.

Ware, Linda P (1994). “Contextual Barriers to Collaboration.” *Journal of Educational and Psychological Consultation* 5.4. p. 339-357.

Introduction:

The central focus of this paper will be to bring together insights gathered consultatively with Network Partners as part of the YouthMovements project between January and July of 2012. While Digital Divide research has been a topic of critical interest for decades, this subject emerged as a critical barrier to the efforts of organizations taking part in the global summit that took place in New York City in February of 2012. Digital Divide research is intrinsically interdisciplinary. There is no one perspective that adequately captures the full range of dimensions inextricably bound up with discussions surrounding the global impacts of technology. Through the course of the YouthMovements project, conversations have been taking place to explore these complex dimensions from the perspective of non-governmental organizations (NGOs). This paper works to bring together some of the key insights generated through these dialogues, bringing them into conversation with relevant academic literature to provide a cohesive narrative around which to structure future research efforts. While these ideas remain 'works in progress', the aim of this process has been to include a diversity of perspectives, disciplines, expert consultants, academics and young people from around the world in a conversation that would simply not have taken place otherwise. The outputs are, therefore, intended to represent a synthesis of these discussions in the hopes that common principles, themes, questions, approaches and challenges can be assessed and brought together to cement the collaborative foundations of the YouthMovements network.

Summary of Key Insights:

- Globally, Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs) are increasingly available to a broader segment of the global population (Dutta & Mia, 2011, p. vi-xvi);
- The problem of 'Access' has fragmented into a problem of 'Quality Access, Usage & Support' (Lin et al., 2010, p. 839-857);
- The Secondary and Tertiary divides apply within Higher Developed Countries (HDCs), creating gaps that parallel existing socio-economic divides in the United States;
- Organizations with online presence supporting youth-led and youth-serving work lack the capacity internally to develop and implement database management tools;
- There is both an opportunity and a need for programs that effectively support the meaningful integration of these technologies at both the organizational and individual level to foster outcomes beneficial to individuals and communities on a local, national and global scale.

History: The Divide Exists and Reifies Existing Patterns of Inequity

- Globally, Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs) are increasingly available to a broader segment of the global population;

Since the emergence of the Internet as a mass medium in the mid-1990s, scholars have worried about potential challenges relating to equity and social justice associated with issues of accessibility (DiMaggio & Hargittai, 2001, p. 3-6). Many believed that the Internet would enhance equality of access to information by dramatically reducing the transactional cost of information (p. 3-6). However, as the hype related to technology as a 'global cure-all' began to come into question, observers noted that certain groups of people were more likely to benefit from Internet usage than others (p. 3). Within the developing world in particular, roughly three out of four individuals do not have access to the internet (Tracking Support for the MDGs, 2012). From a demographic standpoint, the research suggests benefits are more often realized among Caucasian males residing in urban areas, who possessed a greater access to education, income, and other resources that provide for increased personal development (Tracking Support for the MDGs, 2012). The existence of gaps between "the online and the offline, the

information 'haves' and 'have-nots'" (Tracking Support for the MDGs, 2012) parallel existing socioeconomic boundaries associated with the economic distinctions between Highly Developed (HDC) and Lower Developed Countries (LDC), creating substantial concern about the long term socio-economic implications of this divide (Tracking Support for the MDGs, 2012).

- The problem of 'Access' has fragmented into a problem of 'Quality Access, Usage & Support';

In light of this notion, the United Nations (UN) has specifically dedicated one of their UN Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) to ICTs. Goal 8 tries to ensure that the benefits of ICTs are established in order to bring about local development, mainly by cooperating with the private sector (The United Nations Organization, 2010, p. 68-74). There has been overwhelming progress. According to a World Bank Group report, "Increased access has unleashed the transformative potential of ICT, affecting the ways in which people, governments, and businesses interact. The changes in those interactions, and ICT itself, promise to enhance economic opportunities for the poor, improve delivery of services to the underserved, enhance government efficiency and transparency, and accelerate social change." (World Bank Independent Evaluation Group, 2011, p. 145-58). The New Media Consortium's 2010 Horizon Project also indicates a rise in digital media literacy, viewing it as a major skill in every discipline and profession (Johnson et al., 2010, pp. 5-6). However, the report indicates that "as technology continues to evolve, digital literacy must necessarily be less about tools and more of thinking and seeing, and of crafting the narrative" (p. 5-6).

The Divide Persists:

Despite the optimism, according to the 2011 UN statistics on MDG commitments, progress toward the effective bridging of the existing technology gaps has been modest. According to a recent study, beyond limited access to the internet, nine out of ten of individuals do not have fixed telephone subscriptions and roughly one out of five do not have a mobile cellular subscription (Tracking Support for the MDGs, 2012). The challenge of bringing more people online in developing countries involves a number of dimensions, but of these, the limited availability of broadband networks is increasingly coming to the fore (Tracking Support for the MDGs, 2012). One implication of the lack of broadband access relates to bandwidth limitations and their impact on the associated application of ICTs, particularly in the developing world. Many of the most effective development applications of ICT, such as tele-medicine, e-commerce, e-banking and e-government, are only available through a high-speed Internet connection (Tracking Support for the MDGs, 2012).

Within the Vichada region of Colombia, the *Cruz Roja Colombiana*, or the Colombian Red Cross, has set up a Mobile Health Unit in Puerto Carreño to provide access to healthcare for aboriginals and low-income families in rural communities. The unit is hosted in a small, non-ICT-equipped facility, and only offers limited services equal to a low-level hospital. The facility can only afford two doctors, but hundreds of locals queue in line. As a result of the lack in access to ICTs, those in Puerto Carreño, who fundamentally have the greatest need of ICT-enabled support, as is the case in several other regions of the developing world, are largely prevented from realizing the benefits in virtue of challenges driven by bandwidth limitations.

Reframing the Digital Divide: Towards a Multidimensional Analysis

- The Secondary and Tertiary divides apply within Higher Developed Countries (HDCs), creating gaps that parallel existing socio-economic divides in the United States;

Considering now that there is a variance when it comes to access, the type of access, and the understanding of ICTs, scholars have come up with three instantiations of the digital divides, viz, (1) primary; (2) secondary; and (3) tertiary. With respect to the first of these distinctions, the primary digital

divide specifically refers to issues of access. In this context, there is an observed dichotomy between individuals with direct access to the computers and the Internet and those for whom this access is problematic or unattainable altogether. This is largely associated with social and economic conditions, which are themselves informed by more traditional socio-economic dimensions like race, education, age, and disability (National Telecommunications and Information Administration, 2000; Natriello, 2001, p. 2). Warschauer et al.'s 2004 qualitative study, which surveyed teachers from five low-income and three high-income high schools, revealed that high-income students were more likely to analyze data, carry out research, produce multimedia projects and create demonstrations with computers than low-income students (Warschauer et al., 2004, p. 562–88). The study suggested populations already at risk due to existing socio-economic challenges were more likely to be negatively impacted by issues of access.

The secondary digital divide, on the other hand, involves disparities in computer and Internet use (p. 562–88). In this context, there is much more focus on usage rates (its quality and proficiency), as well as skill sets (Reilley, 2011). According to the Pew Internet and American Life Project, "Low-income households and people of color have less home internet access, which hinders child engagement in computing experiences outside of school" (2007). Early access gained by higher income-earning individuals and families, in comparison to others, creates a rift that leaves those who have been thoroughly exposed to ICTs behind. For example, a study carried out in schools throughout the state of California reported a few girls and students of colour experiencing "a chilly climate and [...] a sense of ill-preparedness compared to the techiest boys, who had grown up 'tinkering' with computers" (Goode et al., 2006, p. 89-113).

The final type of divide is the tertiary digital divide. This divide concerns the interpretation and absorption of information presented once an individual is connected online (Sciadas, 2003, p. 94-101). In one of the partner interviews YouthMovements conducted, the respondent stated, "Technology companies are going to make their tools easier and easier to use, but what is missing [...] is a greater understanding by [...] users [as to] what the tools *really* do, how they impact their lives, [...] their greater environment, their culture." The respondent's concern embodies the concept of the tertiary divide, in the sense that there is a large concern pertaining to education and digital literacy, as, in many instances, there is a lack of higher level reading skills among those who already possess ICTs.

Digital Divide: Manifestations and Implications for the YouthMovements Network

In the specific context of YouthMovements, the digital divide, in its various forms, creates a barrier within the different constructs of collaboration. Thinking about the interaction model between actors within the YouthMovements Network, three primary relationships emerge. First, there are relationships between organizations. Secondly, relationships exist between organizations within the Network and the individuals and communities these organizations endeavour to serve. Lastly, there are relationships between individuals across different respective Partner networks. While this list is not exhaustive, it constitutes the primary actors envisioned during the initial phase of the YouthMovements Project. Additional actors may include for-profit organizations, governmental organizations, intergovernmental organizations, foundations, etc. In the section below, the Digital Divide will be explored within each of these relationship constructs.

Organization to Organization:

Within an organizational relationship, there are gaps in the way data is managed around projects. A divide is particularly evident when electronic data from a tech-equipped organization cannot be accessed or utilized effectively by a host organization that is not so tech-savvy. There are also gaps in the

integration of Web 2.0. applications. Technologies, such as, Facebook, YouTube, Twitter and blogs, enable users to participate online and create content. However, organizations that are unable to access, or are not so familiar with such applications, lose a valuable advantage in sharing and receiving information. Finally, mobile integration is another area of division. Within some countries non-profits are based and operate from, governments have heavily invested in ICTs and have adopted relevant policies to promote corporate and individual adoption, and mobile integration. This is particularly the case in the West. In contrast, however, organizations operating in other areas of the world, largely those situated in the developing world are technologically left behind. Consequently, the non-existence or the underdevelopment of a country's telecommunications infrastructure sets up an enormous impediment to the expansion and use of ICTs in rural locales.

Organization to Individual:
From a tertiary standpoint, in an organization to individual construct, issues come into play when a highly tech-developed organization attempts to communicate across borders with individuals, who may have the means of accessing ICTs, but when communicating, may run into a roadblock. English is the *lingua franca* online, but it is not the native language in many regions of the world, and this undoubtedly creates a barrier in accessing and communicating information via ICTs. Secondary issues in this context mainly concern the broadband communication and Internet bandwidth of users, which, depending on the speed of the connection, can have a high impact on information dissemination. Finally, primary issues, particularly for online-based platforms, include: difficulties connecting with individuals in remote or rural regions where no state efforts have been made to do so; a lack of funding in the area for individuals to equip themselves with ICTs; or the experiencing of general low-speed access to the Internet (Fong et al., 2001, p. 3-5). These very difficulties may also be experienced among reasonably tech-developed organizations in the developing world attempting to connect with local youth and communities.

Individual to Individual:
Tertiary issues in the individual to individual construct mainly concern those in largely less-developed communities, as most members of the population do not have any clear knowledge of the Internet, despite the fact that, in some countries, governments have been promoting the benefits of the knowledge economy (Songan et al., 2000, p. 560-75). However, even if the benefits of Internet access were realized, many would still be unaware as to how to use the medium appropriately for positive good, or to further their own social or communal well-being. In terms of secondary issues, broadband access is still very sparse in many areas. Hence, Internet usage is still a problem for many, and hinders personal usage of ICTs. Finally, primary issues in the individual to individual construct take into consideration an individual's socioeconomic status, household characteristics (e.g., household size and the presence of children), and the neighbourhood characteristics (e.g., the proportion of immigrants and rural-urban-suburban locations), which are all important factors in identifying one's capability to access the Internet (Fong et al., 2001, p. 3-5). These factors are not limited to the developing world, and include areas of North America and Europe. With that said, those who are technologically-, sociologically-, or economically-disadvantaged ultimately lack or forgo access to ICTs, creating a gap between themselves and those individuals who make ICTs an integral part of their lives.

- Organizations with online presence supporting youth-led and youth-serving work lack the capacity internally to develop and implement database management tools;

Within the context of the YouthMovements project specifically, several key insights pertaining to the manifestation of the Digital Divide among Network Partners became apparent within the first few months of the project. With the ambition of creating a shared platform into which Partner Initiatives

could be integrated, technological gaps, particularly with respect to database management tools, altered the initial thinking around what is involved in creating a collaborative network. The initial challenge anticipated around the development of the Initiatives Map (www.youthmovements.org/) was the process of securing relationships with key partners and subsequent access to robust databases of project data. In practice, it was surprising to see that many of the organizations, some with sizeable volumes of initiatives data, lacked the technological capacities to organize, manage and share this information in a way that could be readily automated. According to the original design, organizations were expected to provide XML feeds, generated autonomously and linked dynamically with YouthMovements servers, maintaining near real-time updates of changes made to initiative information hosted across partner networks. Shortly into the partnership process, it became clear that the assumptions about technical capacity had overestimated the existing resources of the network, requiring adaptations to technical deliverables that better reflected the technical capacity of these organizations. These limitations ultimately led to a decision between two kinds of data: Quality of data, inclusive of the minimum criteria for effective search and relevance to the sector; and quantity of data, reflected in the total number of initiative data points reflected on the map. The decision, in lieu of a scalable technical alternative, was to focus on quality of data in the short term, with the expectation that technical issues could be overcome through the development of additional importing tools launched following the Summit in February/March 2012. This process affirmed the presence of an unexpected secondary digital divide, interestingly extant among NGOs with relatively high degrees of online technical capacities.

- There is both an opportunity and a need for programs that effectively support the meaningful integration of these technologies at both the organizational and individual level to foster outcomes beneficial to individuals and communities on a local, national and global scale;

From a global non-profit perspective, the key question is how to bridge the gap the digital divide creates. In terms of policy engagement, there are opportunities for non-profits to connect with governmental organizations to implement levers, from taxes to trade and legislation to funding, which can be used to influence access to ICTs, as well as the Internet (Dewan et al., 2005, p. 2-3).

There are always opportunities for governments, as well as local profits and non-profits to financially support initiatives that build capacity by establishing shared infrastructure to permit knowledge and resource-sharing. Another initiative includes providing the means necessary for individuals to travel to internet cafés or other technological hubs with stable Internet connection, which can help them reach out to other people and organizations on the other side of their region, country, or the world. One non-profit in particular has demonstrated a unique organization-to-individual approach in combating the primary and tertiary divides. The 'One Laptop Per Child Initiative' provides children in developing countries, such as Uruguay, Rwanda and Afghanistan, with "rugged, low-cost, low-power, connected laptops" and focuses on promoting "collaborative, joyful, and self-empowered learning" (One Laptop Per Child, 2012).

It is important to help individuals empower themselves by supporting initiatives like the One Laptop initiative, which help children to utilize and become accustomed to new technology, social media, YouTube, and so on. Chile, for example, has joined the growing crowd and generated an official state policy which has confirmed the government's commitment to increase digital literacy across generations.

Undoubtedly, helping children gain both access and education to technology, transforms youth as 'digital teachers' who possess the capabilities of bridging the gap of the intergenerational divide. Young

people (digital natives) have the ability to help in mentoring their parents and elders (digital immigrants) in effectively accessing and utilizing ICTs. Efforts have been made to support this process. Rural remote education projects, for example, have already taken place in Mongolia, Thailand, and Vietnam. These projects send individuals, including youth, from the North America to host state-sponsored workshops and open trainings for government officials and local teachers, as well as establish sustainable ICT development projects in relatively underdeveloped areas.

While it may require more arduous work, there are other methods of overcoming the digital divide that are worth considering. Specific methods discussed during the inquiry group focused on letter calls, Short Message Service (SMS), word of mouth, and advocates. These 'tools' may be effective in disseminating information about a project or organization, or gaining volunteer support in areas that are not so technologically-equipped. Albeit careful research must be carried out in order to explore some of the best practices in the dissemination of information in targeted communities, some regions may be prone to experiencing religious, ethnic, language, political and other socially-sensitive barriers. Therefore, non-profit organizations must be proactive in catering initiatives with local circumstances in mind.

In understanding the various aspects of the digital divide, it is relevant to examine the relationship between online behaviour and offline civic engagement. There are two main ways of doing this: the first being that online behaviour increases the probability of offline activity, and the second being that participation in offline activity (service work) increases civic engagement behaviours. Zúñiga et al.'s 2011 research findings emulate these relationships by highlighting the effects of social network discussions on political behaviour and civic participation. One key finding the scholars report is that citizens who engage in large conversational circles - online and offline - tend to engage more in civic life. However, Zúñiga et al. show that although the online and offline worlds may be complementing, they are still different (Zúñiga et al., 2011, p. 328-332). That is to say, they both bear different effects on civic participation. On the one hand, the more an individual talks to others face-to-face, the more likely this person will display *civic behaviours* (p. 328-332). On the other hand, engaging in conversations online has a much stronger relationship with *civic involvement*. Online conversations are often more directed, text-based and goal-oriented than those within offline networks. Therefore, an online mode of conversation could fundamentally provide a set of useful tools for the proliferation of civic engagement, as it "produce[s] greater informational utility and mobiliz[es] effects among participants" (Hill & Hughes, 1998; Zúñiga & Valenzuela, 2011, p. 413).

Future Directions:
As the research in this paper has indicated, individuals are becoming more and more connected and ICT penetration, in particular, is connecting a greater number of individuals in LDCs to the Internet. More so, wireless technologies are growing (SMS) dramatically, while satellite technologies are routing around the traditional cost and access barriers associated with cable-based broadband. That said, though ICTs permit the forming of connections, they are tools; they do not facilitate deliberative engagement on their own. Facilitation of such engagement is very much a cultural-democratic function (Raman, 2008). Nevertheless, the increase of 'wired' individuals throughout the world means there are more opportunities for non-profits to engage and connect diverse communities through dialogue, which can strengthen the development of democratic practices of previously unconnected communities.

In terms of YouthMovements, digital divides at different levels are manifest within the network which are directly associated with development costs. Based on our assessments relating to the process of establishing Data Partnerships with YouthMovements Network Partners, there is a clear gap present among the majority relating to technical capabilities. This divide presents barriers to information sharing

and data management, which impedes the dynamic updating focus of the YouthMovements project. Further research, therefore, should be focused on further exploring and examining the viability of the methods to overcome barriers in communicating and transferring data electronically within an online community platform.

Dewan, Sanjeev, et al. (2005). The Digital Divide: Current and Future Research Directions. *Journal of the Association for Information Systems*.

DiMaggio, Paul, & Eszter Hargittai (2001). From the 'Digital Divide' to 'Digital Inequality': Studying Internet Use as Penetration Increases. Working Paper #15. *Center for Arts and Cultural Policy Studies*. p. 3-6.

Dutta, Soumitra, & Irene Mia (2011). The Global Information Technology Report 2010-2011. *World Economic Forum*. p. vi-xvi.

Fong, Eric, Wellman, Barry, Kew, Melissa, & Rima Wilkes (2001). Correlates of the Digital Divide: Individual, Household and Spatial Variation. Report to Office of Learning Technologies. *Human Resources Development Canada.*

Johnson, L., Levine, A., Smith, R. & S. Stone (2010). The Horizon Report. *The New Media Consortium*. Austin, Texas. p. 5-6.

Hill, K., & J. Hughes (1998). Cyberpolitics: citizen activism in the age of the Internet. Rowman & Littlefield.

Lin, W.Y., Cheong, P.H., Kim, Y.C, & J.Y. Jung (2010). Becoming Citizens: Youths' Civic Uses of New Media in Five East Asian Cities. *Journal of Adolescent Research*. p. 839-857.

National Telecommunications and Information Administration (2000). Annual Report to Congress. Retrieved from http://www.ntia.doc.gov/report/2001/ntia-2000-annual-report-congress.

Natriello, G (2001). Bridging the Second Digital Divide: What Can Sociologists of Education Contribute? New York: Columbia University. p. 2.

One Laptop Per Child (2012). Retrieved from http://laptop.org/en/vision/.

Raman, Veena (2008). Examining the 'e' in government and governance: A case study in alternatives from Bangalore City, India. *Journal of Community Informatics.* Vol 4 (2).

Reilley, Collen (2011). Teaching Wikipedia as a Mirrored Technology. First Monday, Vol. 16. No. 1-3. Retrieved from http://www.firstmonday.org/htbin/cgiwrap/bin/ojs/index.php/fm/article/view/2824/2746.

Sciadas, George (2003). Monitoring the Digital Divide…and Beyond. *Orbicom.* Retrieved from http://www.orbicom.ca/projects/ddi2002/2003_dd_pdf_en.pdf. Tracking

Songan, P., Harris, R., Bala, P., & G. L. Khoo (2000). Awareness and usage of information technology in a rural community of Bario, Sarawak. In M. Leigh (ed.), *Borneo 2000: Politics, history & development.* p. 560-575.

Support for the MDGs: Integrated Implementation Framework. MDG 8 - Access to New Technologies. Retreived from http://iif.un.org/?q=node/530.

TakingITGlobal (2012). Guide to Action. Retrieved from http://tig.phpwebhosting.com/guidetoaction/Guide_to_Action_en.pdf.

The United Nations Organization (2010). The Millennium Development Goals Report 2010. p. 68-74.

World Bank Independent Evaluation Group (2011). Capturing Technology for Development: An Evaluation of World Bank Group Activities in Information and Communication Technologies. Washington, D.C. p. 145-58.

Zúñiga, et. al. (2011). Social Media Use for News and Individuals' Social Capital, Civic Engagement and Political Participation. *Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication*. p. 328-332.

Zúñiga, Homero Gil de, & Sebastian Valenzuela (2011). The Mediating Path to a Stronger Citizenship: Online and Offline Networks, Weak Ties, and Civic Engagement. *Communication Research*. Vol 38(3). p. 413.

Introduction:

Collaboration necessitates the development of relationships where expertise can be exchanged, be it through internships, incubator programs, and so forth. For organizations within the YouthMovements Network and across the youth-focused and youth-serving sectors more broadly, there is a need to develop mentorship programs that is motivated in part by the desire to provide access, opportunities, and training to those looking to deepen their involvement within the NGO sector. Through a discussion of the three ways of structuring mentorship, viz. (1) Organization - to - Organization, (2) Organization - to - Individual and (3) Individual - to - Individual, this paper will shed light on and provide new ways of looking at such things as best practices for mentorship programs and online volunteerism, so that it can provide a valuable benefit to the operations of any organization, especially those that are fundamentally non-profit in nature.

Learning Models: Mentorship and Volunteerism

- There is a need for passionate, committed people in leadership positions to run mentorship programs. However, there is also a requirement that mentees be responsive and active in seeking out guidance;
- There are various types of mentorship models and mentoring relationships that exist. However, the enriching mentorship programs are ones that are defined by missions, goals, and objectives, which all remain focused throughout the life of the program;
- Facilitating the transition between online volunteerism, offline engagement (skills acquisition/capacity building) and participation in the labour market is a challenge for young people globally;
- Understanding how online volunteerism relates to offline forms of engagement is challenging and the models are very much in the developmental stages;
- Ongoing contact between members of an online project environment is crucial in creating transparency and building trust.

What is Mentorship?

Mentoring has long been recognized as an effective and proactive means of professional development for junior and inexperienced individuals in any career field. In particular, for youth and students alike, the process helps in patching a gap between ‘classroom knowledge’ and ‘real-world knowledge’, while concurrently providing opportunities to forge connections and foster the growth of individuals who possess the potential as catalysts of change.

The notion of mentoring dates back to the early days of antiquity. The word ‘mentor’ was first used in Homer’s *Odyssey* as the pseudonym of Athena, when she took the form of a human in order to become the teacher Odysseus selected for his son (Davis, 2007). Traditional definitions of mentorship have taken shape based on the historical usage of the term and has focused on hierarchical relationships, in which the mentor is “a trusted and experienced supervisor or advisor” (Davis, 2007) who takes an interest in the development and education of a younger, less experienced individual. In this model, the mentor is a guide, teacher, and an advocate for the *protégé*, a term used in a paternalistic sense to describe the individual being mentored (Davis, 2007).

More contemporary approaches to mentoring echo horizontal organizational structures, team-based work strategies, and provide for more increased student autonomy. In this context, scholars define mentors as individuals “whose advice [one] seek[s] and value[s]” (Davis, 2007), or someone who offers

"advice and suggestions [...] beneficial to [...] academic, career, or personal life" (Davis, 2007). The term most often used today to refer to the individual being mentored is *mentee*, which highlights a more equal partnership with the mentor.

Possessed of a cogent operative definition for the mentor and mentee relationships, it is worthwhile to review the existing relationships that occur between individuals and organizations. Among these two groups, there are three potential configurations, viz. (1) Organizations - to - Organization; (2) Organization - to - Individual; and (3) Individual - to - Individual. Each of these types of mentor/mentee relationships will be discussed in specific relation to applications both within and beyond the NGO sector.

Organization - to - Organization: a mentorship model involving one organization that is typically older and more experienced, helping to assist, train, and/or mentor a younger, not-so-experienced organization. For example, IBM Canada uses this model as part of its diversity strategy (The Conference Board of Canada, 2008). The organization identifies companies owned by women, visible minorities, and other groups typically underrepresented at the executive level, and then helps these businesses with the knowledge of what it takes to become an IBM supplier (The Conference Board of Canada, 2008). The notion of business consulting often fits into this frame as well, with organizations like McKinsey & Co., and Deloitte providing area-specific support from expert consultants. Organizations can bring in these external partners and share in organizational and industry knowledge that extends beyond in-house resources, enabling organizations to learn from the diverse experiences of others to inform key decisions for their businesses. A similar model can be observed in tech-sector business incubators, where organizations will provide support, infrastructure and consulting to a start-up, in exchange for a portion of the business after efforts have been scaled. In both the standard consulting and incubator context, the values exchange between partners is often determined by compensation models, but Corporate Social Responsibility initiatives can, in some cases, be used to subsidize costs.

Organization - to - Individual: a mentorship model involving experienced organizations that provide mentoring for individuals (mainly their own employees, interns, volunteers, and so forth), who may perhaps be looking to develop their social and professional network and/or skill set. Gennum Corporation, for example, offers "free training and development opportunities," including language training, and a "social styles" course for their employees (The Conference Board of Canada, 2008). The City of Toronto also provides mentorship opportunities. In 2004, the City launched a "Profession to Profession Mentoring Immigrants Program" in partnership with the Consortium of Agencies Serving Internationally Trained Professionals, and the Toronto Region Immigration and Employment Council (The Conference Board of Canada, 2008). The program matched mentors from the City's staff with inexperienced individuals of a similar professional background for a period of four to six months. The job of the mentor is to provide "job search advice and support to help ease the newcomer's transition into the Canadian job market" (The Conference Board of Canada, 2008).

Individual - to - Individual: a mentorship model positioning an experienced individual, who may perhaps be well ahead in their career, to provide 'expert advice' and mentoring to an individual who has yet to gain experience in the field of their interest. The idea of finding a 'mentor' is increasingly important for many young people, as these relationships can often open networks, professional and educational opportunities, as well as focus the energy and efforts of the mentee through one-on-one conversation. From 'coaches' to colleagues and educators to peers, this mentorship relationship is often quite personal, established through a connection between two individuals with the aim of supporting the growth and development of the mentee.

- There is a need for passionate, committed persons in leadership positions to run mentorship programs; however, there is also a requirement that mentees be responsive and active in seeking out guidance;

By considering each of the three potential relationship models, organizations and individuals can actively seek out and cultivate different learning outcomes, but oftentimes the most difficult challenge is meeting the kinds of people who can provide this kind of support. Research has indicated the successful outcomes of a mentorship program depend heavily on the development of a mentoring relationship between the mentor and mentee (Terblanché, 2011). Some of the expected outcomes of an effective mentorship relationship for both mentors and mentees include: improved career outcome, positive professional identity, greater job satisfaction, and higher income across time (Kariv, 2011, p. 43-6, p. 230-2) (See Appendix II). Other outcomes of a successful mentorship are outlined in the chart below, which highlights the benefits of any mentoring relationship for both the mentor and mentee.

Outcomes of a successful relationship: Benefits for the mentor:	Outcomes of a successful relationship: Benefits for the mentee:
• Improved job satisfaction • Increased peer recognition and admiration • Individual growth • Increased access to organizational information • Improved networking • Personal satisfaction of developing the mentee's professional skills and knowledge	• Easier induction for a newcomer • Improved self-confidence • Learning to cope with structures • Career advice and advancement • Acquisition of new skills and knowledge • Accelerated career progress • Acquisition of wisdom and insight

Table 1: A mentoring relationship framework (Terblanché, 2011)

Why does the Mentor/Mentee get involved?

Typically, both mentors and mentees get involved in mentorship opportunities to realize some the outcomes of a mentorship relationship (See Table 1). Specifically, mentors are inclined to cultivate a relationship because they are interested in contributing to the personal and professional development of another individual, while also nourishing their own development experience. This can undoubtedly help to improve the mentor's ability to share knowledge and experiences, as well as their ability to teach concepts effectively. On the other hand, mentees get involved in mentorship programs because they are usually keen in gaining key contacts who can provide them with advice and can help them increase their knowledge and refine their skills. Additionally, a mentorship is an opportunity for the mentee to develop their communication and core leadership skills, and can surge their potential for future career mobility and promotion.

What does 'Mentorship' mean within the context of the YouthMovements project?

As a youth-centered network of organizations across the youth sector, the YouthMovements project could greatly benefit from an organization-to-organization mentoring relationship. YouthMovements is looking to evolve a 'mentorship' model that creates a reflexive dialogue that is maximally inclusive and worthwhile to all of its participants. In doing so, the YouthMovements team hopes to discover certain underlying principles or core ideas that could underwrite an equitable, sustainable, and collaborative relationship within the YouthMovements framework, in hopes of creating more 'solid' and constructive discussions. Essentially, organizations with experience, methods, resources, network and so forth, have

the ability to share their valuable insights, lessons learned, failures, aspirations etc. with organizations that are 'less developed' or 'less experienced'. By adopting a posture of both learning and expertise, coupled with a willingness to share and learn collaboratively, the YouthMovements Network itself serves as a locus of information, learning and collaboration for the youth sector. Sustainability here is connected to the idea that organizations within the network will entertain both a mentor/mentee relationship to others within the network and the sector more broadly. Ultimately, the Network could serve as an 'advisory board' of the youth sector, more broadly based on the individual contributions of member organizations, in terms of both resources and expertise.

- There are various types of mentorship models and mentoring relationships that exist; however, the enriching mentorship programs are ones that are defined by a mission, goals, and objectives, which all remain focused throughout the life of the program;

Organization to organization: Existing models of 'mentorship' from business:

Business Incubators:
Business incubation, a form of an organization to organization relationship, involves dynamic business strategies to help build up strong, viable organizations from an idea and determination. Since starting up a small business can be a challenge for most, a business incubator (i.e. a more experienced business) is often necessary to help nurture young companies during the first few months or years, until they have established themselves firmly in the community. An incubator provides such things as hands-on management assistance, education, information, vital business support services, networking resources, and financial advice, which altogether espouse an organization to organization mentoring relationship (Canadian Association of Business Incubation, 2007, p. 1-2).

An example of an incubator involved in organization to organization mentorship is the Center for Social Innovation (CSI) in Toronto, Canada. The Center acts as a 'venture capitalist for social change.' However, the organization describes itself as "more than just an incubator for projects, [but] an engine for impact" (Centre for Social Innovation, 2012). For some projects, CSI provides strategic advice and management. For others, however, they offer administrative services and gentle prodding "to help [the] initiative find its feet and actualize its potential" (Centre for Social Innovation, 2012). One such initiative is 'Project Wildfire', which supports social entrepreneurship among youth. It is a competition to identify small sustainable businesses with a strong potential for creating change (Centre for Social Innovation, 2012). CSI has been involved with the project, providing strategic and administrative support. Another initiative is 'STEPS' (Sustainable Thinking and Expression on Public Space). The project blends arts and activism to produce public space 'artivism', used to engage citizens to spark change in local environmental conditions and build stronger community relations (Centre for Social Innovation, 2012). CSI was previously the administrative headquarters of STEPS, and the organization continues to provide the project with ongoing strategic advice and managerial support as an incubator.

Values exchange and 'expertise' in the YouthMovements context may not be as mutual or clear in comparison to the incubator/consultancy model. In YouthMovements, there are organizations with diverse mandates, working on different things, with different levels of experience, and with different aspirations in terms of growth (impact/resources/organization). Nevertheless, there is always an opportunity for organizations to receive constructive feedback from each other, learn new concepts and best practices, specifically pertaining to the areas where the organization knows it is lacking, or not as proficient. For non-profits, having a supportive platform like YouthMovements, which they can tap into at any given time, is beneficial and can be highly rewarding when faced with times of difficulty.

YouthMovements resembles a sort of Facebook network, if you will, for high-achieving, youth-focused non-profits. In this light, YouthMovements incorporates the organization to organization learning model, which allows for 'older' non-profits to share their valuable insights with 'younger' organizations.

Specifically, in terms of technology, the 'age' of an organization is a proxy for 'understanding' and 'expertise'. Interestingly, however, technology has changed this dynamic; creating a steady flow of insights, challenges, and opportunities, to legacy providers in the sector. In this sense, there is a clear bi-directionality to mentorship relations that previously did not exist; where 'older' organizations have learned from 'younger ones.'

- Facilitating the transition between online volunteerism, offline engagement (skills acquisition/capacity building) and participation in the labour market is a challenge for young people globally;

Organization to individual (Formal Mentorship/Internship):
Formal mentorship programs set up by organizations to mentor individuals, particularly youth, are critical in helping to crystallize a young person's career interests, values, and choice of vocation. The programs undoubtedly help to increase a young person's chances of getting hired after the completion of higher education (Feldman & Weitz, 1990, p. 267–84). Scholars Egan and Song argue that in comparison to informal mentorship programs, formal mentorship programs that incorporate high-level-facilitated mentoring have a positive effect on the mentee's "job satisfaction, organizational commitment, person-organization fit, and job performance" (2008, p. 351-62). Individuals with mentors also report higher salaries, more frequent promotions, higher job satisfaction, a stronger commitment to their organization, and are less likely to leave their jobs than those without mentors (Murrell et al., 1999). Interestingly, the duo's research has also shown organizations that invest in internal mentoring programs are often among those recognized as 'the best places to work' among their competitors (Egan & Song, 2008, p. 351-62).

Alongside formal mentorship, mentees should be involved in other mentoring opportunities, such as volunteer activities and/or internships, which can help bring about the development of lifelong learning habits and increase future job potential. The International Labour Organization (ILO), for example, has developed an internship program that provides 'high calibre' youth with 'decent' employment. The program provides a robust mentorship and educational component associated with the work interns do in support of the organization (International Labour Organization Internship Programme, 2012). This provides opportunities for the youth to develop a strong exposure to the ILO's mandate, mission, and work. In addition, youth interns are given the opportunity to meet inspiring individuals, learn from staff, and attend conferences; helping to elongate their learning and personal development capabilities (International Labour Organization Internship Programme, 2012).

Individual to individual (Personal Mentorship model):
The individual to individual learning model focuses heavily on a two-way personal values exchange. For the mentor, this mainly concerns self-actualization, while for the mentee, access to information, and personal/professional development is of utmost value. A form of this model that is often unconsidered is self-help literature, or popular psychology. Contemporary research has indicated that the current generation of youth is overly preoccupied with 'the self'. If research doesn't cut it, simply take a trip to the local bookstore and you will eventually notice the wide-range of material available pertaining to 'self-help'. Examples of popular self-help guides include, 'Awaken the Giant Within' (1992) by Anthony Robbins, and 'The 7 Habits of Highly Effective People' (2012) by Stephen R. Covey. These self-directed,

self-beneficial projects, in many instances, require external forms of textual authority and expert knowledge, and it entails the belief that professionals 'acting at a distance' can help in understanding and correcting the self. Hence, self-help literature, in many respects, is considered a form of individual-based mentorship.

Aside from self-help projects, the individual to individual mentoring model experiences various dynamics (See Appendix I). As a result, there is no single or preferential model that is followed, or universally accepted. However, most definitions of these models tend to capture the notion that the value and nature of the mentorship is closely linked to the developmental needs of the mentee. That is to say, one-on-one mentoring is more than just advising; it involves supporting, guiding, and encouraging. It is also a personal, as well as professional relationship, which ultimately leads to interpersonal growth.

- Understanding how online volunteerism relates to offline forms of engagement are challenging and the models are very much in development;
- Ongoing contact between members of an online project environment is crucial in creating transparency and building trust;

Although the focus of YouthMovements' Learning Models inquiry group was to have a specific and direct discussion concerning mentorship, our participants wanted to head in a different direction by formulating a discussion on the topic of online volunteerism. For their benefit, we decided to engage our participants in this topic, which is of high relevance especially to those non-profits working in the global arena. We incorporated the key elements of the discussion in the section below.

The Internet is no doubt a channel that can be used for positive things – leadership, social development, decision-making, and information exchange (Amichai-Hamburger, 2005). The medium can also help to spark offline volunteerism, through the use of online petitions, and the creation of online postings concerning social projects, campaigns, movements, rallies, and so on. A tangent discussion on the power of the Internet, in many instances, point to the argument that the Internet is the 'domain of the wealthy,' and a medium the poor are unlikely to benefit from because of their unfortunate position in the context of the Digital Divide (Hoffman et al., 2000). In the last few years, however, the Internet has been the tool chosen by activists in the Global South working to close socioeconomic gaps and helping to voice the concerns of those less fortunate (O'Brien, 1999). One such activist is a YouthMovements inquiry group participant from Pakistan who tried to implement a transportation-based project in his locality with the help of online tools.

As in any field of work, there are certain challenges in translating virtual activity and volunteerism via the Internet into social capital offline, especially those projects in the Global South which need to be lifted from the ground up. The Pakistani participant, for example, educated the YouthMovements team about some of the prominent political barriers inhibiting local projects in gaining strength offline, despite the use of e-courses, online event postings, and so on, which offered a lot of substance and knowledge, but lacked in providing support to longevity and sustainability of the project. In Pakistan, like much of the developing world, there is a lack of funding, high government corruption, and 'landlordship', which remains affixed ever since the colonial period. These three barriers have consequently prevented the participant's opportunity to develop an offline community project that would provide access through paved roads to schools in rural districts. To provide for more opportunities for all members, it is imperative for online platforms to take into consideration the difference in living situations of those residing within both the developed and developing worlds. YouthMovements also learned that platforms should provide access to the fundamental resources and

tools necessary in order for participants to overcome offline barriers (i.e. demographic, region-specific, social, etc.) through a safe, online forum of discussion that encourages mentorship through information, feedback, and resource exchange. TakingITGlobal, along with YouthMovements and other online platforms and networks serve to support highly localized offline projects, such as those of the Pakistani participant, in a variety of ways, including awareness- and capacity-building, providing volunteer opportunities, formulating a variety of partnerships, and augmenting political advocacy.

Another discussion held in the inquiry group concerned the challenges of building trust, commitment and accountability in an online project environment featuring diverse participants. The world of virtual teams has many benefits in bringing together people of talent, providing international perspectives, and saving an organization travel dollars. However, there is a prominent drawback. As with many activities occurring online, a fear looms at the thought of trusting an individual who you will not necessarily meet with face-to-face. Unfortunately, however, a project team cannot work as a fully functioning team unless trust is properly established. That said, the process of building trust in a virtual setting may not be that hard to do. In fact, research has shown that trust in virtual project teams depends largely upon reliability (Anthony, 2008). When virtual team members ultimately feel that they can depend on one another "to do what they say they will do, trust builds quickly" (Leading Virtually, 2007).

To build trust online, there are several things that both the team leader and member should do. Early in the team's life cycle, it should be the responsibility of the team leader to provide opportunities for prompt social interaction; especially by allotting a time period in which each of the members receive a chance to get to know each other. When all members are receptive at this time, it is beneficial to formulate the mandate, along with the objectives, deadlines, and responsibilities of the group. This will help in making sure each member is on the same page. In addition, throughout the lifecycle of the group, there should be instances where team leaders request for feedback through surveys, allowing team members to define their individual progress, as well as the progress of their team.

Apart from this, an onus should be placed on the team member to generate trust. This responsibility mainly includes such things as: making important contributions, providing a value proposition upon introduction, and consistently being transparent throughout the lifecycle of the project team. Transparency can be produced by simply posting up one's resume and a 'self-image' in the online project space at the start of work-related activities. Another aspect of transparency mandates the importance of all team members to be in constant communication with each other (via voicemail messages, emails, etc.). This way, members can be perceived as trustworthy, engaged, and have the opportunity to further build meaningful relationships.

Finally, one thing that is important to consider, especially among lesser-known non-profits, is that it is worthwhile to get reputable organizations, like the United Nations, involved in or support online team projects. These organizations can, in many instances, ensure the dedication, responsiveness, and the thoroughness of project members; simply because these members know they are working with a well-known organization.

To enhance discussion and debate, future research should focus on opportunities for reducing barriers to communication across cultures and societies through the use of the Internet. As much as we would like to think people in other places of the world have the same opportunities as those here in the West, the attendee from Pakistan solidified the point there are certain social and political barriers which have transpired at the ground level in countries, making it difficult for one to translate online activity into offline results.

Amelink, Catherine T (2009). "Overview: Mentoring and Women in Engineering." SWE-AWE Applying Research to Practice Series. CASEE Overviews. Retrieved from http://www.engr.psu.edu/awe/misc/ARPs/ARP_Mentoring_overview120408.pdf.

Amichai-Hamburger, Yair (2005). "The social net: Human behavior in cyberspace." New York: Oxford University Press.

Anthony, Denise (2008). "Trust and Technology." PowerPoint Presentation. Dartmouth College. Retrieved from http://www.ists.dartmouth.edu/docs/BrownbagT4Tfall08.pdf.

Canadian Association of Business Incubation (2007). "Canada's Voice of Innovation Through Business Innovation." Retrieved from http://www.cabi.ca/docs/CABI_Report_07_Final.pdf.

Centre for Social Innovation (2012). "Projects." Retrieved from http://socialinnovation.ca/innovation/projects.

The Conference Board of Canada (2008). "Talent for Hire: Diversifying Talent in Small and Medium. Enterprises (SMEs) in the ICT Sector." Retrieved from http://www.ictc-ctic.ca/uploadedFiles/What-We-Do/Program-Delivery/Talent-Programs/Immigration_Initiatives/Resources/IEP_Reports/Report_Items/3797_ICTC_Report_FINAL%20ENG.pdf.

Davis, Joy (2007). "Best Practices Module: Mentoring Programs." *British Columbia Museums Association*. Retrieved from http://www.museumsassn.bc.ca/Images/Best%20Practices%20Modules%202/Mentoring%20Programs%20FINAL.pdf.

Egan, T.M., & Z. Song (2008). "Are facilitated mentoring programs beneficial? A randomized experimental field study." *Journal of Vocational Behavior* 72.3. p. 351-362.

Feldman, D.C. , & B.A. Weitz (1990). "Summer interns: Factors contributing to positive developmental experiences." *Journal of Vocational Behaviour* 37.3. p. 267–284.

Hoffman, D.L., Novak, T.P., and A. Schlosser (2000). "The Evolution of the Digital Divide: How Gaps in Internet Access May Impact Electronic." *Journal of Computer Mediated Communication* 5.3. Retrieved from http://jcmc.indiana.edu/vol5/issue3/hoffman.html.

International Labour Organization Internship Programme (2012). Retrieved from http://www.iss.wisc.edu/mdgap/mdgap_pdf/Newsletter%204-24%20pdfs/INTERNATIONAL%20LABOUR%20ORGANIZATION%20INTERNSHIP%20PROGRAMME.pdf.

Kariv, Dafna (2011). "Entrepreneurship: An International Introduction." New York, NY: Routledge.

Kickstarter.com (2012). Retrieved from http://www.kickstarter.com/.

Leading Virtually (2007). “Building Trust in Virtual Teams.” Retrieved from http://www.leadingvirtually.com/15/.

Murrell, A.J. , Crosby, F.J., and R.J. Ely (1991). “Mentoring Dilemmas: Developmental Relationships Within Multicultural Organizations.” New York, NY: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

O’Brien, Rory (1999). “Social Change Activism and the Internet: Strategic Online Activities.” Retrieved from www.web.net/~robrien/papers/The%20Internet%20and%20Social%20Change%20Activism.doc.

Raynes-Goldie, Kate & Luke Walker (2008). “Our Space: Online Civic Engagement Tools for Youth.” *Civic Life Online: Learning How Digital Media Can Engage Youth*. Edited by W. Lance Bennett. The John D. and Catherine T. MacArthur Foundation Series on Digital Media and Learning. Cambridge, MA: The MIT Press. p. 161–188.

Scandura, Terri A. (1992). “Mentorship and career mobility: An empirical investigation.” *Journal of Organizational Behavior* 13.2. p. 169-74.

Terblanché, S. E. (2011). “Mentorship a Key Success Factor in Sustainable Land Reform Projects in South Africa.” Retrieved from http://repository.up.ac.za/bitstream/handle/2263/18332/Terblanche_Mentorship%282011%29.pdf?sequence=1.

Zúñiga, Homero Gil de, & Sebastián Valenzuela (2011). “The Mediating Path to a Stronger Citizenship: Online and Offline Networks, Weak Ties, and Civic Engagement.” *Communication Research* 38.3. p. 397-421.

Appendix I:

Mentorship Models (*Excerpt from 'Overview: Mentoring and Women in Engineering' by C.T. Amelink*)

Apprenticeship model – In the apprentice model, the mentor seeks to help the mentee become a valued member of the profession. Lacking from this model are the personal and social components seen in other models (Buell, 2004).

Hierarchical Model – Mentoring takes place by mentors choosing and preparing their mentees to correspond to their own likenesses. In the hierarchical mentoring model, there is a presumption that there are unequal parties. Mentors share information and mentees often benefit from the opportunity of being exposed to privileged information or status (Touchton, 2003).

Citizen Model – There is a shared sense of responsibility and neither the mentor nor mentee is seen as having more power or advantage over the other (Touchton, 2003).

Cloning Model – The cloning model is characterized by a mentor seeking to direct and control their mentee. The mentor seeks to produce a copy or clone of themselves within the mentee. Critical to the cloning model are elements of control and power (Buell, 2004).

Co-Mentoring Model – Focuses on a cooperative relationship that improves learning and development of the mentee and focuses on the special emotional needs of the mentee. Based on feminist constructs that promote an equal sharing of power between the mentor and mentee, the model incorporates emotions and values all of the work involved in maintaining the relationship. Each person has an opportunity to be the learner or the teacher because each person's input is seen as valuable (McGuire & Reger, 2003).

Friendship Model – The friendship model is a collaborative, reciprocal relationship where the mentor and mentee function primarily as peers. The model emphasizes the creation of an interpersonal bond with the individual where the mentor seeks to make him or herself accessible and encouraging (Buell, 2004).

Nurturing Model – Within the nurturing model, the mentor seeks to position themselves as a parent figure by providing a safe environment for the mentee to try new things and learn. Opportunities are provided to develop the mentee's own skills and abilities rather than mimicking those of the mentor (Buell, 2004).

Relational Model – A mentoring relationship with shared discussion and ideas that emphasizes mutual engagement, authenticity, and empowerment. This model is suggested for females given prior research that suggests women reap greater benefits from more holistic mentoring that addresses psychological needs, as well as vocational (Liang, Tracy, Taylor, & Williams, 2002).

Peer Mentoring – In this model, a group of peers provide emotional and professional support to one another. Different individuals take on the role of mentor providing guidance to individuals in the group depending on where the expertise lies in relation to a given situation (Hadjioannou, Shelton, Danling, & Dhanarattigannon, 2007). Peer mentoring relationships can provide self-acceptance and confirmation as peers share their perceptions and experiences (Kram, 1985). Peer mentoring is often implemented in educational institutions and its goals are often formally determined. The drawbacks to peer mentoring

are that it draws from a limited pool of information, there is often little diversity, and unidentified hierarchical relationships may still exist (Angelique, Kyle, & Taylor, 2002).

Appendix II:

Best Practices for Mentorship (*Excerpt from the British Columbia Museums Association's 'Best Practices Module' (2007) by Joy Davis*)

Roles and Responsibilities

While the nature and scope of mentoring varies according to circumstances and needs, and is always individually negotiated, there are a number of consistent roles and responsibilities for mentors [and] mentees [...] in the development of successful relationships:

Mentors

The mentor plays a leadership role in building the mentee's knowledge, skills and confidence. To model effective practice and to systematically manage the relationship, the mentor should:

- Assess the mentee's level of personal maturity and level of professional and social development;
- Evaluate the mentee's professional plans and decisions;
- Support and facilitate the mentee's learning and growth through the selection and use of appropriate learning strategies;
- Provide information, guidance, feedback and constructive comments;
- Support and encourage, as well as identify shortfalls in desired performance;
- Maintain confidentiality and respect;
- Invest time and effort needed to maintain a positive and constructive relationship;
- Maintain regular contact and communication;
- Foster the mentee's self-confidence, self-esteem, autonomy, and motivation.

Mentee

Given that the mentee is the primary beneficiary of a mentoring relationship, it is vital that the mentee assume a significant degree of responsibility in its design and maintenance. To ensure that the mentoring relationship is a positive and productive learning experience, the mentee should:

- Identify professional and personal developmental needs and goals;
- Formulate an action plan to achieve goals;
- Seek regular guidance and advice on effective approaches to practice;
- Accept responsibility for personal decisions and actions and maintain confidentiality;
- Carry out set tasks and projects in a timely and dedicated manner;
- Maintain regular and constructive contact with mentor;
- Be receptive to feedback and coaching.